LECTURE 20

SQL I

SQL and databases: alternatives to pandas and CSV files.



Goals for Today's Lecture

Lecture 20, Data 100 Summer 2023

Stepping away from Python and pandas

- Recognizing situations where we need "bigger" tools for manipulating data
- Writing our first database queries



Agenda

Lecture 20, Data 100 Summer 2023

- Why Databases?
- Intro to SQL
- Tables and Schema
- Basic Queries
- Grouping



Why Databases?

Lecture 20, Data 100 Summer 2023

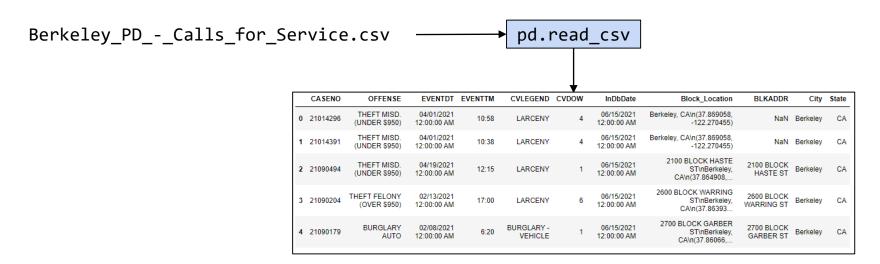
- Why Databases?
- Intro to SQL
- Tables and Schema
- Basic queries
- Grouping



So Far: CSV Files and pandas



So far in Data 100, we've worked with data stored in CSV files.



Perfectly reasonable workflow for small data that we're not actively sharing with others.



Brief Databases Overview



A database is an organized collection of data.

A database management system (DBMS) is a software system that stores, manages, and facilitates access to one or more databases.





Advantages of DBMS over CSV (or similar)



Data Storage:

- Reliable storage to survive system crashes and disk failures.
- Optimize to compute on data that does not fit in memory.
- Special data structures to improve performance (see CS (W)186).

Data Management:

- Configure how data is logically organized and who has access.
- Can enforce guarantees on the data (e.g. non-negative person weight or age).
 - Can be used to prevent data anomalies.
 - Ensures safe concurrent operations on data (multiple users reading and writing simultaneously, e.g. ATM transactions).



Intro to SQL

Lecture 20, Data 100 Summer 2023

- Why Databases?
- Intro to SQL
- Tables and Schema
- Basic queries
- Grouping



SQL



Today we'll be using a programming language called "Structured Query Language" or **SQL**.

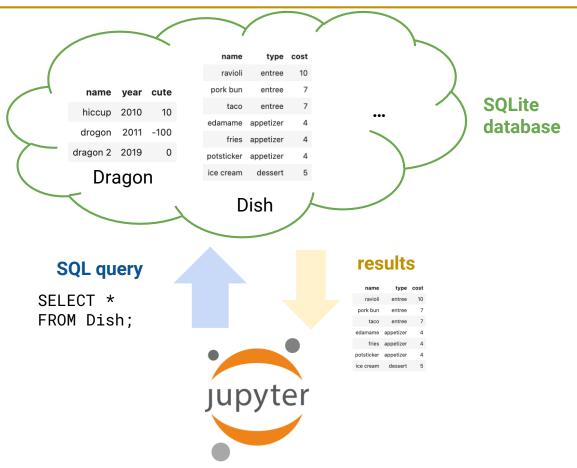
- SQL is its own programming language, totally distinct from Python.
- SQL is a special purpose programming language used specifically for communicating with databases.
- We will program in SQL using Jupyter notebooks.

How to pronounce? An ongoing <u>debate</u>.

Let's see a quick demo of how we can use SQL to connect to a database and view a SQL table.



Quick SQL Overview



Demo



Tables and Schema

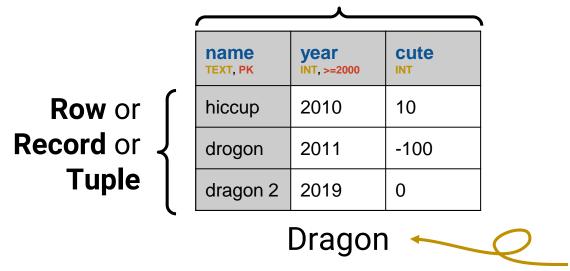
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Column or **Attribute** or **Field**



SQL tables are also called relations.

SQL Style: Use *singular, CamelCase* names for SQL tables! For more, see *this post*.



table name



Column or **Attribute** or **Field**

Row or Record or Tuple

name TEXT, PK	year INT, >=2000	cute
hiccup	2010	10
drogon	2011	-100
dragon 2	2019	0

Column Properties
ColName,
Type, Constraint

Dragon



SQL **tables** are also called **relations**.

SQL Style: Use singular, CamelCase names for SQL tables! For more, see this post.

Every column in a SQL table has three properties: **ColName, Type**, and zero or more **Constraints**. (Contrast with pandas: Series have names and types, but no constraints.)



Table Schema



A **schema** describes the logical structure of a table. Whenever a new table is created, the creator must declare its schema.

For each column, specify the:

- Column name
- Data type
- Constraint(s) on values

```
CREATE TABLE Dragon (
name TEXT PRIMARY KEY,
year INTEGER CHECK (year >= 2000),
cute INTEGER
)
```

Repeat for all tables in the database:

type	name	tbl_name	rootpage	sql
table	sqlite_sequence	sqlite_sequence	7	CREATE TABLE sqlite_sequence(name,seq)
table	Dragon	Dragon	2	CREATE TABLE Dragon (name TEXT PRIMARY KEY, year INTEGER CHECK (year >= 2000), cute INTEGER)
table	Dish	Dish	4	CREATE TABLE Dish (name TEXT PRIMARY KEY, type TEXT, cost INTEGER CHECK (cost >= 0))



Example Types



Some examples of SQL types:

- INT: Integers.
- FLOAT: Floating point numbers.
- TEXT: Strings of text.
- BLOB: Arbitrary data, e.g. songs, video files, etc.
- DATETIME: A date and time.

Note: Different implementations of SQL support different types.

- SQLite: https://www.sqlite.org/datatype3.html
- MySQL: https://dev.mysql.com/doc/refman/8.0/en/data-types.html

In Data 100, we will use SQLite.

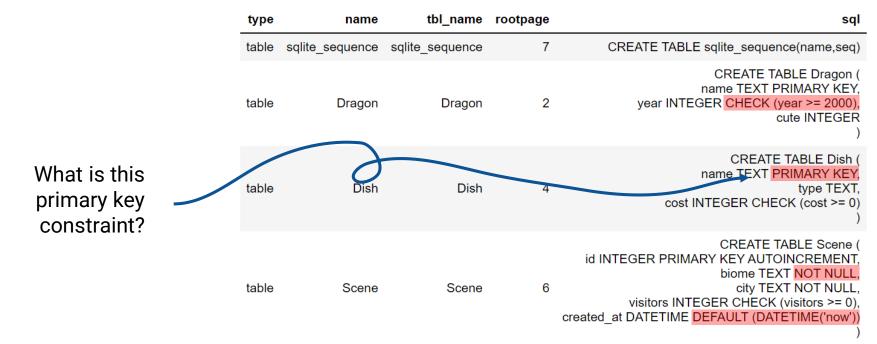


Example Constraints



Some examples of constraints:

- CHECK: data must obey the given check constraint.
- PRIMARY KEY: specifies that this key is used to uniquely identify rows in the table.
- NOT NULL: null data cannot be inserted for this column.
- DEFAULT: provides a default value to use if user does not specify on insertion.





Primary Keys



A **primary key** is the set of column(s) used to uniquely identify each record in the table.

- In the Dragon table, the "name" of each Dragon is the primary key.
- In other words, no two dragons can have the same name!
- Primary key is used under the hood for all sorts of optimizations.

name TEXT, PK	year INT, >=2000	cute
hiccup	2010	10
drogon	2011	-100
dragon 2	2019	0

Why specify primary keys? More next time when we discuss JOINs...



Basic Queries

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Query Syntax So Far

SELECT <column list>
FROM



Summary So Far



Marks the end of a SQL statement.



New keywords

```
SELECT <column list>
FROM 
[WHERE column list>]
[ORDER BY <column list>]
[LIMIT <number of rows>]
[OFFSET <number of rows>];
```



Goal of this section

By the end of this section, you will learn these new keywords!



But first, more SELECT



Recall our simplest query, which returns the full relation:

FROM Dragon; table name

name	year	cute
hiccup	2010	10
drogon	2011	-100
dragon 2	2019	0
puff	2010	100
smaug	2011	None

SELECT specifies the column(s) that we wish to appear in the output. FROM specifies the database table from which to select data.

Every query must include a SELECT clause (how else would we know what to return?) and a FROM clause (how else would we know where to get the data?)

An asterisk (*) is shorthand for "all columns".



But first, more SELECT



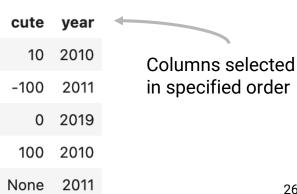
Recall our simplest query, which returns the full relation:

SELECT FROM Dragon; table name

name year cute hiccup 2010 10 drogon 2011 -100 dragon 2 2019 0 puff 2010 100 2011 None smaug

We can also SELECT only a subset of the columns:

	column expression list
SELECT cute,	year
FROM Dragon;	





Aliasing with AS



To rename a SELECTed column, use the AS keyword

SELECT cute AS cuteness, year AS birth FROM Dragon;

An **alias** is a name given to a column or table by a programmer. Here, "cuteness" is an alias of the original "cute" column (and "birth" is an alias of "year")

cuteness	birth
10	2010
-100	2011
0	2019
100	2010
None	2011



SQL Style: Newline Separators



The following two queries both retrieve the same relation:

SELECT cute AS cuteness, year AS birth FROM Dragon;

(more readable)



cuteness	birth
10	2010
-100	2011
0	2019
100	2010
None	2011

SELECT cute AS cuteness, year AS birth FROM Dragon;

Use newlines and whitespace wisely in your SQL queries. It will simplify your debugging process!



Uniqueness with DISTINCT



To return only unique values, combine SELECT with the DISTINCT keyword

SELECT DISTINCT year FROM Dragon;

Notice that 2010 and 2011 only appear once each in the output.

name	year	cute		
hiccup	2010	10		year
drogon	2011	-100		2010
dragon 2	2019	0	→	2011
puff	2010	100		2019
smaug	2011	None		



WHERE: Select a rows based on conditions

To select only some rows of a table, we can use the WHERE keyword.x

SELECT name, year FROM Dragon WHERE cute > 0; condition

name	year
hiccup	2010
puff	2010





WHERE: Select a rows based on conditions



Comparators OR, AND, and NOT let us form more complex conditions.

```
SELECT name, year FROM Dragon
WHERE cute > 0 OR year > 2013;
```

name	cute	year
hiccup	10	2010
dragon 2	0	2019
puff	100	2010

Check if values are contained IN a specified list

```
SELECT name, year FROM Dragon WHERE name IN ('puff', 'hiccup');
```

name	year
hiccup	2010
puff	2010



WHERE with NULL Values



NULL (the SQL equivalent of NaN) is stored in a special format – we can't use the "standard" operators =, >, and <.

Instead, check if something IS or IS NOT NULL

SELECT name, year FROM Dragon WHERE year IS NOT NULL;

name	cute
hiccup	10
drogon	-100
dragon 2	0
puff	100

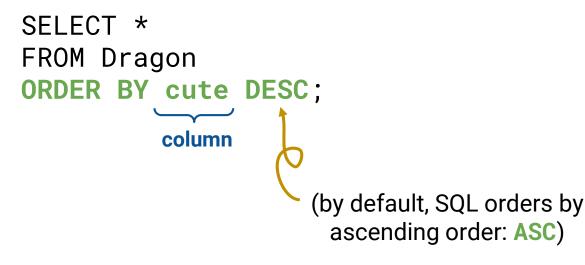
Always work with NULLs using the IS operator. NULL cannot work with standard comparisons: in fact, NULL = NULL actually returns False!



ORDER BY: Sort rows



Specify which column(s) we should order the data by



name	year	cute
puff	2010	100
hiccup	2010	10
dragon 2	2019	0
drogon	2011	-100
smaug	2011	None

ORDER BY: Sort rows



Specify which column(s) we should order the data by

SELECT *
FROM Dragon
ORDER BY year, cute DESC;

Can also order by multiple columns (for tiebreaks)

name	year	cute
puff	2010	100
hiccup	2010	10
drogon	2011	-100
smaug	2011	None
dragon 2	2019	0

OFFSET and LIMIT?

1. SELECT * FROM Dragon LIMIT 2;



cute name year hiccup 2010 10

name year cute hiccup 2010 10 drogon 2011 -100 dragon 2 2019 0 Dragon

2. SELECT * FROM Dragon LIMIT 2 OFFSET 1;





OFFSET and LIMIT

The LIMIT keyword lets you retrieve N rows (like pandas head).

SELECT *
FROM Dragon
LIMIT 2;

name	year	cute	
hiccup	2010	10	
drogon	2011	-100	

name year cute
hiccup 2010 10
drogon 2011 -100
dragon 2 2019 0
Dragon

The OFFSET keyword tells SQL to skip the first N rows of the output, then apply LIMIT.

SELECT *
FROM Dragon
LIMIT 2
OFFSET 1;

name	year	cute
drogon	2011	-100
dragon 2	2019	0

⚠□ Unless you use ORDER BY, there is **no guaranteed order** of rows in the relation!



New keywords

```
SELECT <column list>
FROM 
[WHERE predicate>]
[ORDER BY <column list>]
[LIMIT <number of rows>]
[OFFSET <number of rows>];
```



Summary So Far

- *All* queries must include SELECT and FROM. The remaining keywords are optional.
- By convention, use all caps for keywords in SQL statements.
- Use **newlines** to make code more readable.











I'm planning to make a film series on databases.

I've got the first part ready. Now I can't think of a SQL.

Interlude







Grouping

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The Dish Table



We're ready for a more complicated table.

SELECT *
FROM Dish;

cost	type	name
10	entree	ravioli
13	entree	ramen
7	entree	taco
4	appetizer	edamame
4	appetizer	fries
4	appetizer	potsticker
5	dessert	ice cream



The Dish Table



We're ready for a more complicated table.

SELECT *
FROM Dish;

Notice the repeated dish types. What if we wanted to investigate trends across each group?

name	type	cost
ravioli	entree	10
ramen	entree	13
taco	entree	7
edamame	appetizer	4
fries	appetizer	4
potsticker	appetizer	4
ice cream	dessert	5



Declarative Programming



Order of operations: SELECT \rightarrow FROM \rightarrow WHERE \rightarrow GROUP BY

SELECT type, SUM(cost)
FROM Dish
GROUP BY type;

Correct!

✓

GROUP BY type
SELECT type, SUM(cost)
FROM Dish;

Incorrect x

Always follow the SQL order of operations. Let SQL take care of the rest.

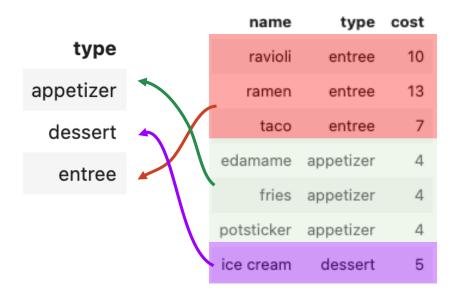


GROUP BY



GROUP BY is similar to pandas groupby().

SELECT type FROM Dragon GROUP BY type;





Aggregating Across Groups



Like pandas, SQL has aggregate functions: MAX, SUM, AVG, FIRST, etc.

For more aggregations, see: https://www.sqlite.org/lang_aggfunc.html

SELECT type, SUM(cost)
FROM Dish
GROUP BY type;

type	SUM(cost)
appetizer	12
dessert	5
entree	30

Wait, something's weird...



Declarative Programming



Wait, something's weird...

SELECT type, SUM(cost)
FROM Dish
GROUP BY type;

We told SQL to SUM in our SELECT statement...

...but didn't specify the groups until GROUP BY

This is okay!

Unlike Python, SQL is a declarative programming language.

Declarative programming is a non-imperative style of programming in which programs describe their desired results without explicitly listing commands or steps that must be performed.

Wikipedia



Declarative Programming



Declarative programming is a non-imperative style of programming in which programs describe their desired results without explicitly listing commands or steps that must be performed.

<u>Wikipedia</u>

What this means to us:

- We "declare" our desired end result
- SQL handles the rest! We do not need to specify any logical steps for how this result should be created

We just need to follow the **SQL order of operations** with our clauses to allow SQL to parse our request. Everything else will be handled behind the scenes.



Using Multiple Aggregation Functions

```
SELECT type,
SUM(cost),
MIN(cost),
MAX(name)
FROM Dish
GROUP BY type;
```

What do you think will happen?





Using Multiple Aggregation Functions

SELECT type,
SUM(cost),
MIN(cost),
MAX(name)
FROM Dish



type SUM(cost) MIN(cost) MAX(name)

appetizer	12	4	potsticker
dessert	5	5	ice cream
entree	30	7	taco



This was much more difficult in pandas!



The COUNT Aggregation



COUNT is used to count the number of rows belonging to a group.

SELECT year, COUNT(cute)	year CO	UNT(cute)
FROM Dragon	2010	2
GROUP BY year;	2011	1
Similar to pandas groupby().count()	2019	1

year COUNT(*)

2010

the number of rows in each group, including rows with **NULLs**.

SELECT year, (COUNT(*)
FROM Dragon	
GROUP BY year	• !

	2011
Similar to pandas	2019
<pre>groupby().size()</pre>	



New keywords

```
SELECT <column expression list>
FROM 
[WHERE <predicate>]
[GROUP BY <column list>]
[ORDER BY <column list>]
[LIMIT <number of rows>]
[OFFSET <number of rows>];
```



Summary So Far

- By convention, use all caps for keywords in SQL statements.
- Use newlines to make SQL code more readable.
- AS keyword: rename columns during selection process.
- Column Expressions may include aggregation functions (MAX, MIN, etc.)

