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# Chapter 3: Introduction to SQL

**Database System Concepts, 6<sup>th</sup> Ed.**

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# Outline

- Overview of The SQL Query Language
- Data Definition
- Basic Query Structure
- Additional Basic Operations
- Set Operations
- Null Values
- Aggregate Functions
- Nested Subqueries
- Modification of the Database



# History

- IBM Sequel language developed as part of System R project at the IBM San Jose Research Laboratory
- Renamed Structured Query Language (SQL)
- ANSI and ISO standard SQL:
  - SQL-86
  - SQL-89
  - SQL-92
  - SQL:1999 (language name became Y2K compliant!)
  - SQL:2003
- Commercial systems offer most, if not all, SQL-92 features, plus varying feature sets from later standards and special proprietary features.
  - Not all examples here may work on your particular system.



# SQL Language - Components

- **Data-definition language (DDL).** The SQL DDL provides commands for defining relation schemas, deleting relations, and modifying relation schemas.
- **Data-manipulation language (DML).** The SQL DML provides the ability to query information from the database and to insert tuples into, delete tuples from, and modify tuples in the database.
- **Integrity.** The SQL DDL includes commands for specifying integrity constraints that the data stored in the database must satisfy. Updates that violate integrity constraints are disallowed.
- **View definition.** The SQL DDL includes commands for defining views.
- **Transaction control.** SQL includes commands for specifying the beginning and ending of transactions.
- **Embedded SQL and dynamic SQL.** Embedded and dynamic SQL define how SQL statements can be embedded within general-purpose programming languages, such as C, C++, and Java.
- **Authorization.** The SQL DDL includes commands for specifying access rights to relations and views.



# Data Definition Language

The SQL data-definition language (DDL) allows the specification of information about relations, including:

- The schema for each relation.
- The domain of values associated with each attribute.
- Integrity constraints
- And as we will see later, also other information such as
  - The set of indices to be maintained for each relations.
  - Security and authorization information for each relation.
  - The physical storage structure of each relation on disk.



# Domain Types in SQL

- **char(*n*)**. Fixed length character string, with user-specified length *n*.
- **varchar(*n*)**. Variable length character strings, with user-specified maximum length *n*.
- **int**. Integer (a finite subset of the integers that is machine-dependent).
- **smallint**. Small integer (a machine-dependent subset of the integer domain type).
- **numeric(*p,d*)**. Fixed point number, with user-specified precision of *p* digits, with *d* digits to the right of decimal point. (ex., **numeric(3,1)**, allows 44.5 to be stored exactly, but not 444.5 or 0.32)
- **real, double precision**. Floating point and double-precision floating point numbers, with machine-dependent precision.
- **float(*n*)**. Floating point number, with user-specified precision of at least *n* digits.
- More are covered in Chapter 4.



# Create Table Construct

- An SQL relation is defined using the **create table** command:

```
create table  $r$  ( $A_1 D_1, A_2 D_2, \dots, A_n D_n,$   
                (integrity-constraint1),  
                ...,  
                (integrity-constraintk))
```

- $r$  is the name of the relation
- each  $A_i$  is an attribute name in the schema of relation  $r$
- $D_i$  is the data type of values in the domain of attribute  $A_i$

- Example:

```
create table instructor (  
    ID           char(5),  
    name         varchar(20),  
    dept_name    varchar(20),  
    salary       numeric(8,2))
```



# Integrity Constraints in Create Table

- **not null**
- **primary key** ( $A_1, \dots, A_n$ )
- **foreign key** ( $A_m, \dots, A_n$ ) **references**  $r$

*Example:*

```
create table instructor (  
    ID          char(5),  
    name       varchar(20) not null,  
    dept_name varchar(20),  
    salary     numeric(8,2),  
    primary key (ID),  
    foreign key (dept_name) references department);
```

**primary key** declaration on an attribute automatically ensures **not null**





# And a Few More Relation Definitions

- **create table** *student* (  
    *ID*                    **varchar**(5),  
    *name*                **varchar**(20) not null,  
    *dept\_name*        **varchar**(20),  
    *tot\_cred*          **numeric**(3,0),  
    **primary key** (*ID*),  
    **foreign key** (*dept\_name*) **references** *department*);
  
- **create table** *takes* (  
    *ID*                    **varchar**(5),  
    *course\_id*        **varchar**(8),  
    *sec\_id*            **varchar**(8),  
    *semester*        **varchar**(6),  
    *year*              **numeric**(4,0),  
    *grade*            **varchar**(2),  
    **primary key** (*ID*, *course\_id*, *sec\_id*, *semester*, *year*) ,  
    **foreign key** (*ID*) **references** *student*,  
    **foreign key** (*course\_id*, *sec\_id*, *semester*, *year*) **references** *section*);
  
- Note: *sec\_id* can be dropped from primary key above, to ensure a student cannot be registered for two sections of the same course in the same semester



# And more still

- **create table** *course* (  
    *course\_id*      **varchar**(8),  
    *title*          **varchar**(50),  
    *dept\_name*     **varchar**(20),  
    *credits*        **numeric**(2,0),  
    **primary key** (*course\_id*),  
    **foreign key** (*dept\_name*) **references** *department*);
  
- **create table** *section*  
    (*course id* **varchar** (8),  
    *sec id* **varchar** (8),  
    *semester* **varchar** (6),  
    *year* **numeric** (4,0),  
    *building* **varchar** (15),  
    *room number* **varchar** (7),  
    *time slot id* **varchar** (4),  
    **primary key** (*course id*, *sec id*, *semester*, *year*),  
    **foreign key** (*course id*) **references** *course*);



# Updates to tables

## ■ Insert

- **insert into** *instructor* **values** ('10211', 'Smith', 'Biology', 66000);

## ■ Delete

- Remove all tuples from the *student* relation
  - ▶ **delete from** *student*

## ■ Drop Table

- **drop table** *r*

## ■ Alter

- **alter table** *r* **add** *A D*
  - ▶ where *A* is the name of the attribute to be added to relation *r* and *D* is the domain of *A*.
  - ▶ All existing tuples in the relation are assigned *null* as the value for the new attribute.
- **alter table** *r* **drop** *A*
  - ▶ where *A* is the name of an attribute of relation *r*
  - ▶ Dropping of attributes not supported by many databases.



# Basic Query Structure

- A typical SQL query has the form:

**select**  $A_1, A_2, \dots, A_n$   
**from**  $r_1, r_2, \dots, r_m$   
**where**  $P$

- $A_i$  represents an attribute
  - $R_i$  represents a relation
  - $P$  is a predicate.
- The result of an SQL query is a relation.



# The select Clause

- The **select** clause lists the attributes desired in the result of a query
  - corresponds to the projection operation of the relational algebra
- Example: find the names of all instructors:  

**select** *name*  
**from** *instructor*
- NOTE: SQL names are case insensitive (i.e., you may use upper- or lower-case letters.)
  - E.g., *Name*  $\equiv$  *NAME*  $\equiv$  *name*
  - Some people use upper case wherever we use bold font.



# The select Clause (Cont.)

- SQL allows duplicates in relations as well as in query results.
- To force the elimination of duplicates, insert the keyword **distinct** after select.
- Find the department names of all instructors, and remove duplicates

```
select distinct dept_name  
from instructor
```

- The keyword **all** specifies that duplicates should not be removed.

```
select all dept_name  
from instructor
```



# The select Clause (Cont.)

- An asterisk in the select clause denotes “all attributes”

**select \***  
**from** *instructor*

- An attribute can be a literal with no **from** clause

**select** '437'

- Results is a table with one column and a single row with value “437”
- Can give the column a name using:

**select** '437' **as** *FOO*

- An attribute can be a literal with **from** clause

**select** 'A'  
**from** *instructor*

- Result is a table with one column and  $N$  rows (number of tuples in the *instructors* table), each row with value “A”



# The select Clause (Cont.)

- The **select** clause can contain arithmetic expressions involving the operation, +, −, \*, and /, and operating on constants or attributes of tuples.

- The query:

```
select ID, name, salary/12  
from instructor
```

would return a relation that is the same as the *instructor* relation, except that the value of the attribute *salary* is divided by 12.

- Can rename “*salary/12*” using the **as** clause:

```
select ID, name, salary/12 as monthly_salary
```





# The where Clause

- The **where** clause specifies conditions that the result must satisfy
  - Corresponds to the selection predicate of the relational algebra.
- To find all instructors in Comp. Sci. dept

```
select name  
from instructor  
where dept_name = 'Comp. Sci.'
```

- Comparison results can be combined using the logical connectives **and**, **or**, and **not**
  - To find all instructors in Comp. Sci. dept with salary > 80000

```
select name  
from instructor  
where dept_name = 'Comp. Sci.' and salary > 80000
```

- Comparisons can be applied to results of arithmetic expressions.



# The from Clause

- The **from** clause lists the relations involved in the query
  - Corresponds to the Cartesian product operation of the relational algebra.
- Find the Cartesian product *instructor X teaches*

```
select *  
from instructor, teaches
```

- generates every possible instructor – teaches pair, with all attributes from both relations.
  - For common attributes (e.g., *ID*), the attributes in the resulting table are renamed using the relation name (e.g., *instructor.ID*)
- Cartesian product not very useful directly, but useful combined with where-clause condition (selection operation in relational algebra).



# Cartesian Product

*instructor*

ID	name	dept_name	salary
10101	Srinivasan	Comp. Sci.	65000
12121	Wu	Finance	90000
15151	Mozart	Music	40000
22222	Einstein	Physics	95000
32343	El Said	History	60000

*teaches*

ID	course_id	sec_id	semester	year
10101	CS-101	1	Fall	2009
10101	CS-315	1	Spring	2010
10101	CS-347	1	Fall	2009
12121	FIN-201	1	Spring	2010
15151	MU-199	1	Spring	2010
22222	PHY-101	1	Fall	2009

Inst.ID	name	dept_name	salary	teaches.ID	course_id	sec_id	semester	year
10101	Srinivasan	Comp. Sci.	65000	10101	CS-101	1	Fall	2009
10101	Srinivasan	Comp. Sci.	65000	10101	CS-315	1	Spring	2010
10101	Srinivasan	Comp. Sci.	65000	10101	CS-347	1	Fall	2009
10101	Srinivasan	Comp. Sci.	65000	12121	FIN-201	1	Spring	2010
10101	Srinivasan	Comp. Sci.	65000	15151	MU-199	1	Spring	2010
10101	Srinivasan	Comp. Sci.	65000	22222	PHY-101	1	Fall	2009
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
12121	Wu	Finance	90000	10101	CS-101	1	Fall	2009
12121	Wu	Finance	90000	10101	CS-315	1	Spring	2010
12121	Wu	Pinance	90000	10101	CS-347	1	Fall	2009
12121	Wu	Pinance	90000	12121	FIN-201	1	Spring	2010
12121	Wu	Finance	90000	15151	MU-199	1	Spring	2010
12121	Wu	Pinance	90000	22222	PHY-101	1	Fall	2009
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...



# Examples

- Although the clauses must be written in the order **select**, **from**, **where**, the easiest way to understand the operations specified by the query is to consider the clauses in operational order: first **from**, then **where**, and then **select**.
- The **from** clause by itself defines a Cartesian product of the relations listed in the clause. It is defined formally in terms of set theory, but is perhaps best understood as an iterative process that generates tuples for the result relation of the from clause.

*for each tuple  $t_1$  in relation  $r_1$*

*for each tuple  $t_2$  in relation  $r_2$*

*. . .*

*for each tuple  $t_m$  in relation  $r_m$*

*Concatenate  $t_1, t_2, \dots, t_m$  into a single tuple  $t$*

*Add  $t$  into the result relation*

- The result relation has all attributes from all the relations in the **from** clause. Since the same attribute name may appear in both  $r_i$  and  $r_j$ , as we saw earlier, we prefix the the name of the relation from which the attribute originally came, before the attribute name.



# The Rename Operation

- The SQL allows renaming relations and attributes using the **as** clause:

*old-name as new-name*

- Find the names of all instructors who have a higher salary than some instructor in 'Comp. Sci'.

- **select distinct** *T.name*  
**from** *instructor as T, instructor as S*  
**where** *T.salary > S.salary and S.dept\_name = 'Comp. Sci.'*

- Keyword **as** is optional and may be omitted  
*instructor as T*  $\equiv$  *instructor T*



# Self Join Example

- Relation *emp-super*

<i>person</i>	<i>supervisor</i>
Bob	Alice
Mary	Susan
Alice	David
David	Mary

- Find the supervisor of “Bob”
- Find the supervisor of the supervisor of “Bob”
- Find ALL the supervisors (direct and indirect) of “Bob”



# String Operations

- SQL includes a string-matching operator for comparisons on character strings. The operator **like** uses patterns that are described using two special characters:
  - percent ( % ). The % character matches any substring.
  - underscore ( \_ ). The \_ character matches any character.
- Find the names of all instructors whose name includes the substring “dar”.

```
select name  
from instructor  
where name like '%dar%'
```

- Match the string “100%”

```
like '100 \%' escape '\'
```

in that above we use backslash (\) as the escape character.



# String Operations (Cont.)

- Patterns are case sensitive.
- Pattern matching examples:
  - 'Intro%' matches any string beginning with "Intro".
  - '%Comp%' matches any string containing "Comp" as a substring.
  - '\_\_\_' matches any string of exactly three characters.
  - '\_\_\_ %' matches any string of at least three characters.
- SQL supports a variety of string operations such as
  - concatenation (using "||")
  - converting from upper to lower case (and vice versa)
  - finding string length, extracting substrings, etc.





# Ordering the Display of Tuples

- List in alphabetic order the names of all instructors

```
select distinct name  
from instructor  
order by name
```

- We may specify **desc** for descending order or **asc** for ascending order, for each attribute; ascending order is the default.
  - Example: **order by** *name* **desc**
- Can sort on multiple attributes
  - Example: **order by** *dept\_name*, *name*



# Where Clause Predicates

- SQL includes a **between** comparison operator
- Example: Find the names of all instructors with salary between \$90,000 and \$100,000 (that is,  $\geq \$90,000$  and  $\leq \$100,000$ )
  - **select** *name*  
**from** *instructor*  
**where** *salary* **between** 90000 **and** 100000
- Tuple comparison
  - **select** *name, course\_id*  
**from** *instructor, teaches*  
**where** (*instructor.ID, dept\_name*) = (*teaches.ID, 'Biology'*);



# Set Operations

- Find courses that ran in Fall 2009 or in Spring 2010

```
(select course_id from section where sem = 'Fall' and year = 2009)  
union  
(select course_id from section where sem = 'Spring' and year = 2010)
```

- Find courses that ran in Fall 2009 and in Spring 2010

```
(select course_id from section where sem = 'Fall' and year = 2009)  
intersect  
(select course_id from section where sem = 'Spring' and year = 2010)
```

- Find courses that ran in Fall 2009 but not in Spring 2010

```
(select course_id from section where sem = 'Fall' and year = 2009)  
except  
(select course_id from section where sem = 'Spring' and year = 2010)
```



# Set Operations (Cont.)

- Find the salaries of all instructors that are less than the largest salary.
  - **select distinct** *T.salary*  
**from** *instructor* **as** *T*, *instructor* **as** *S*  
**where** *T.salary* < *S.salary*
  
- Find all the salaries of all instructors
  - **select distinct** *salary*  
**from** *instructor*
  
- Find the largest salary of all instructors.
  - (**select** “second query” )  
**except**  
(**select** “first query”)



# Set Operations (Cont.)

- Set operations **union**, **intersect**, and **except**
  - Each of the above operations automatically eliminates duplicates
- To retain all duplicates use the corresponding multiset versions **union all**, **intersect all** and **except all**.
- Suppose a tuple occurs  $m$  times in  $r$  and  $n$  times in  $s$ , then, it occurs:
  - $m + n$  times in  $r$  **union all**  $s$
  - $\min(m, n)$  times in  $r$  **intersect all**  $s$
  - $\max(0, m - n)$  times in  $r$  **except all**  $s$



# Null Values

- It is possible for tuples to have a null value, denoted by *null*, for some of their attributes
- *null* signifies an unknown value or that a value does not exist.
- The result of any arithmetic expression involving *null* is *null*
  - Example:  $5 + \text{null}$  returns null
- The predicate **is null** can be used to check for null values.
  - Example: Find all instructors whose salary is null.

```
select name  
from instructor  
where salary is null
```



# Aggregate Functions

- These functions operate on the multiset of values of a column of a relation, and return a value

**avg:** average value

**min:** minimum value

**max:** maximum value

**sum:** sum of values

**count:** number of values



# Aggregate Functions (Cont.)

- Find the average salary of instructors in the Computer Science department
  - **select avg** (*salary*)  
**from** *instructor*  
**where** *dept\_name*= 'Comp. Sci.';
- Find the total number of instructors who teach a course in the Spring 2010 semester
  - **select count** (**distinct** *ID*)  
**from** *teaches*  
**where** *semester* = 'Spring' **and** *year* = 2010;
- Find the number of tuples in the *course* relation
  - **select count** (\*)  
**from** *course*;





# Aggregate Functions – Group By

- Find the average salary of instructors in each department
  - **select** *dept\_name*, **avg** (*salary*) **as** *avg\_salary*  
**from** *instructor*  
**group by** *dept\_name*;

<i>ID</i>	<i>name</i>	<i>dept_name</i>	<i>salary</i>
76766	Crick	Biology	72000
45565	Katz	Comp. Sci.	75000
10101	Srinivasan	Comp. Sci.	65000
83821	Brandt	Comp. Sci.	92000
98345	Kim	Elec. Eng.	80000
12121	Wu	Finance	90000
76543	Singh	Finance	80000
32343	El Said	History	60000
58583	Califieri	History	62000
15151	Mozart	Music	40000
33456	Gold	Physics	87000
22222	Einstein	Physics	95000

<i>dept_name</i>	<i>avg_salary</i>
Biology	72000
Comp. Sci.	77333
Elec. Eng.	80000
Finance	85000
History	61000
Music	40000
Physics	91000



# Aggregation (Cont.)

- Attributes in **select** clause outside of aggregate functions must appear in **group by** list
  - */\* erroneous query \*/*  
**select** *dept\_name, ID, avg (salary)*  
**from** *instructor*  
**group by** *dept\_name;*



# Aggregate Functions – Having Clause

- Find the names and average salaries of all departments whose average salary is greater than 42000

```
select dept_name, avg (salary)
from instructor
group by dept_name
having avg (salary) > 42000;
```

Note: predicates in the **having** clause are applied after the formation of groups whereas predicates in the **where** clause are applied before forming groups



# Null Values and Aggregates

## ■ Total all salaries

```
select sum (salary)  
from instructor
```

- Above statement ignores null amounts
  - Result is *null* if there is no non-null amount
- ## ■ All aggregate operations except **count(\*)** ignore tuples with null values on the aggregated attributes
- ## ■ What if collection has only null values?
- **count** returns 0
  - all other aggregates return null



# Nested Subqueries

- SQL provides a mechanism for the nesting of subqueries. A **subquery** is a **select-from-where** expression that is nested within another query.
- The nesting can be done in the following SQL query

```
select  $A_1, A_2, \dots, A_n$   
from  $r_1, r_2, \dots, r_m$   
where  $P$ 
```

as follows:

- $A_i$  can be replaced by a subquery that generates a single value.
- $r_i$  can be replaced by any valid subquery
- $P$  can be replaced with an expression of the form:

$B <\text{operation}> (\text{subquery})$

Where  $B$  is an attribute and  $<\text{operation}>$  to be defined later.



# Subqueries in the Where Clause



# Subqueries in the Where Clause

- A common use of subqueries is to perform tests:
  - For set membership
  - For set comparisons
  - For set cardinality.



# Set Membership

- Find courses offered in Fall 2009 and in Spring 2010

```
select distinct course_id
from section
where semester = 'Fall' and year= 2009 and
       course_id in (select course_id
                       from section
                       where semester = 'Spring' and year= 2010);
```

- Find courses offered in Fall 2009 but not in Spring 2010

```
select distinct course_id
from section
where semester = 'Fall' and year= 2009 and
       course_id not in (select course_id
                           from section
                           where semester = 'Spring' and year= 2010);
```





# Set Membership (Cont.)

- Find the total number of (distinct) students who have taken course sections taught by the instructor with *ID* 10101

```
select count (distinct ID)  
from takes  
where (course_id, sec_id, semester, year) in  
      (select course_id, sec_id, semester, year  
       from teaches  
       where teaches.ID= 10101);
```

- Note: Above query can be written in a much simpler manner. The formulation above is simply to illustrate SQL features.



# Set Comparison – “some” Clause

- Find names of instructors with salary greater than that of some (at least one) instructor in the Biology department.

```
select distinct T.name  
from instructor as T, instructor as S  
where T.salary > S.salary and S.dept name = 'Biology';
```

- Same query using > **some** clause

```
select name  
from instructor  
where salary > some (select salary  
                        from instructor  
                        where dept name = 'Biology');
```



# Definition of “some” Clause

- $F \text{ <comp> some } r \Leftrightarrow \exists t \in r \text{ such that } (F \text{ <comp> } t)$   
Where <comp> can be: <, ≤, >, =, ≠

$(5 < \text{some } \begin{array}{|c|} \hline 0 \\ \hline 5 \\ \hline 6 \\ \hline \end{array}) = \text{true}$

(read: 5 < some tuple in the relation)

$(5 < \text{some } \begin{array}{|c|} \hline 0 \\ \hline 5 \\ \hline \end{array}) = \text{false}$

$(5 = \text{some } \begin{array}{|c|} \hline 0 \\ \hline 5 \\ \hline \end{array}) = \text{true}$

$(5 \neq \text{some } \begin{array}{|c|} \hline 0 \\ \hline 5 \\ \hline \end{array}) = \text{true (since } 0 \neq 5)$

$(= \text{some}) \equiv \text{in}$

However,  $(\neq \text{some}) \not\equiv \text{not in}$



# Set Comparison – “all” Clause

- Find the names of all instructors whose salary is greater than the salary of all instructors in the Biology department.

```
select name
from instructor
where salary > all (select salary
                      from instructor
                      where dept name = 'Biology');
```



# Definition of “all” Clause

- $F \text{ <comp> all } r \Leftrightarrow \forall t \in r (F \text{ <comp> } t)$

$$(5 < \text{all } \begin{array}{|c|} \hline 0 \\ \hline 5 \\ \hline 6 \\ \hline \end{array}) = \text{false}$$

$$(5 < \text{all } \begin{array}{|c|} \hline 6 \\ \hline 10 \\ \hline \end{array}) = \text{true}$$

$$(5 = \text{all } \begin{array}{|c|} \hline 4 \\ \hline 5 \\ \hline \end{array}) = \text{false}$$

$$(5 \neq \text{all } \begin{array}{|c|} \hline 4 \\ \hline 6 \\ \hline \end{array}) = \text{true (since } 5 \neq 4 \text{ and } 5 \neq 6)$$

$(\neq \text{all}) \equiv \text{not in}$

However,  $(= \text{all}) \not\equiv \text{in}$



# Test for Empty Relations

- The **exists** construct returns the value **true** if the argument subquery is nonempty.
- **exists**  $r \Leftrightarrow r \neq \emptyset$
- **not exists**  $r \Leftrightarrow r = \emptyset$



# Use of “exists” Clause

- Yet another way of specifying the query “Find all courses taught in both the Fall 2009 semester and in the Spring 2010 semester”

```
select course_id
from section as S
where semester = 'Fall' and year = 2009 and
      exists (select *
              from section as T
              where semester = 'Spring' and year = 2010
                  and S.course_id = T.course_id);
```

- **Correlation name** – variable *S* in the outer query
- **Correlated subquery** – the inner query



# Use of “not exists” Clause

- Find all students who have taken all courses offered in the Biology department.

```
select distinct S.ID, S.name  
from student as S  
where not exists ( (select course_id  
                    from course  
                    where dept_name = 'Biology')  
except  
                (select T.course_id  
                 from takes as T  
                 where S.ID = T.ID));
```

- First nested query lists all courses offered in Biology
- Second nested query lists all courses a particular student took

- Note that  $X - Y = \emptyset \Leftrightarrow X \subseteq Y$
- *Note:* Cannot write this query using = **all** and its variants





# Subqueries in the Form Clause



# Subqueries in the From Clause

- SQL allows a subquery expression to be used in the **from** clause
- Find the average instructors' salaries of those departments where the average salary is greater than \$42,000."

```
select dept_name, avg_salary
from (select dept_name, avg (salary) as avg_salary
      from instructor
      group by dept_name)
where avg_salary > 42000;
```

- Note that we do not need to use the **having** clause
- Another way to write above query

```
select dept_name, avg_salary
from (select dept_name, avg (salary)
      from instructor
      group by dept_name) as dept_avg (dept_name, avg_salary)
where avg_salary > 42000;
```



# With Clause

- The **with** clause provides a way of defining a temporary relation whose definition is available only to the query in which the **with** clause occurs.
- Find all departments with the maximum budget

```
with max_budget (value) as  
    (select max(budget)  
     from department)  
select department.name  
from department, max_budget  
where department.budget = max_budget.value;
```



# Complex Queries using With Clause

- Find all departments where the total salary is greater than the average of the total salary at all departments

```
with dept_total (dept_name, value) as  
    (select dept_name, sum(salary)  
     from instructor  
     group by dept_name),  
dept_total_avg(value) as  
    (select avg(value)  
     from dept_total)  
select dept_name  
from dept_total, dept_total_avg  
where dept_total.value > dept_total_avg.value;
```



# Subqueries in the Select Clause



# Scalar Subquery

- Scalar subquery is one which is used where a single value is expected
- List all departments along with the number of instructors in each department

```
select dept_name,  
        (select count(*)  
         from instructor  
         where department.dept_name = instructor.dept_name)  
        as num_instructors  
from department;
```

- Runtime error if subquery returns more than one result tuple



# Modification of the Database

- Deletion of tuples from a given relation.
- Insertion of new tuples into a given relation
- Updating of values in some tuples in a given relation



# Deletion

- Delete all instructors

**delete from** *instructor*

- Delete all instructors from the Finance department

**delete from** *instructor*  
**where** *dept\_name* = 'Finance';

- Delete all tuples in the *instructor* relation for those instructors associated with a department located in the Watson building.

**delete from** *instructor*  
**where** *dept name* in (**select** *dept name*  
**from** *department*  
**where** *building* = 'Watson');





# Deletion (Cont.)

- Delete all instructors whose salary is less than the average salary of instructors

```
delete from instructor  
where salary < (select avg (salary)  
                from instructor);
```

- Problem: as we delete tuples from deposit, the average salary changes
- Solution used in SQL:
  1. First, compute **avg** (*salary*) and find all tuples to delete
  2. Next, delete all tuples found above (without recomputing **avg** or retesting the tuples)



# Insertion

- Add a new tuple to *course*

**insert into** *course*

**values** ('CS-437', 'Database Systems', 'Comp. Sci.', 4);

- or equivalently

**insert into** *course* (*course\_id*, *title*, *dept\_name*, *credits*)

**values** ('CS-437', 'Database Systems', 'Comp. Sci.', 4);

- Add a new tuple to *student* with *tot\_creds* set to null

**insert into** *student*

**values** ('3003', 'Green', 'Finance', *null*);



# Insertion (Cont.)

- Add all instructors to the *student* relation with *tot\_creds* set to 0

```
insert into student  
  select ID, name, dept_name, 0  
  from instructor
```

- The **select from where** statement is evaluated fully before any of its results are inserted into the relation.

Otherwise queries like

```
insert into table1 select * from table1
```

would cause problem



# Updates

- Increase salaries of instructors whose salary is over \$100,000 by 3%, and all others by a 5%
  - Write two **update** statements:

```
update instructor
  set salary = salary * 1.03
  where salary > 100000;
update instructor
  set salary = salary * 1.05
  where salary <= 100000;
```
  - The order is important



# Important Instructions

- Read Chapter 3 from the book except for the following sections/sub-sections/topics:
  - 3.8.4
  - Lateral (Sub-section 3.8.5)
  - Case construct (Sub-section 3.9.3)



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# End of Chapter 3

**Database System Concepts, 6<sup>th</sup> Ed.**

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