SQL

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.

Create Table Construct

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

  create table *r* (A_1 D_1, A_2 D_2, ..., A_n D_n,
  (integrity-constraint$_1$),
  ...,
  (integrity-constraint$_k$))

  - *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) **not null,**
  dept_name **varchar**(20),
  salary **numeric**(8,2))
- **insert into** *instructor* **values** (‘10211’, ’Smith’, ’Biology’, 66000);
- **insert into** *instructor* **values** (‘10211’, null, ’Biology’, 66000);

Integrity Constraints in Create Table

- **not null**
- **primary key** (A_1, ..., A_n)
- **foreign key** (A_m, ..., A_n) **references** *r*

Example: Declare *ID* as the primary key for *instructor*

.

```
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**

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Drop and Alter Table Constructs

- **drop table** *student*
  - Deletes the table and its contents
- **delete from** *student*
  - Deletes all contents of table, but retains table
- **alter table**
  - **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 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

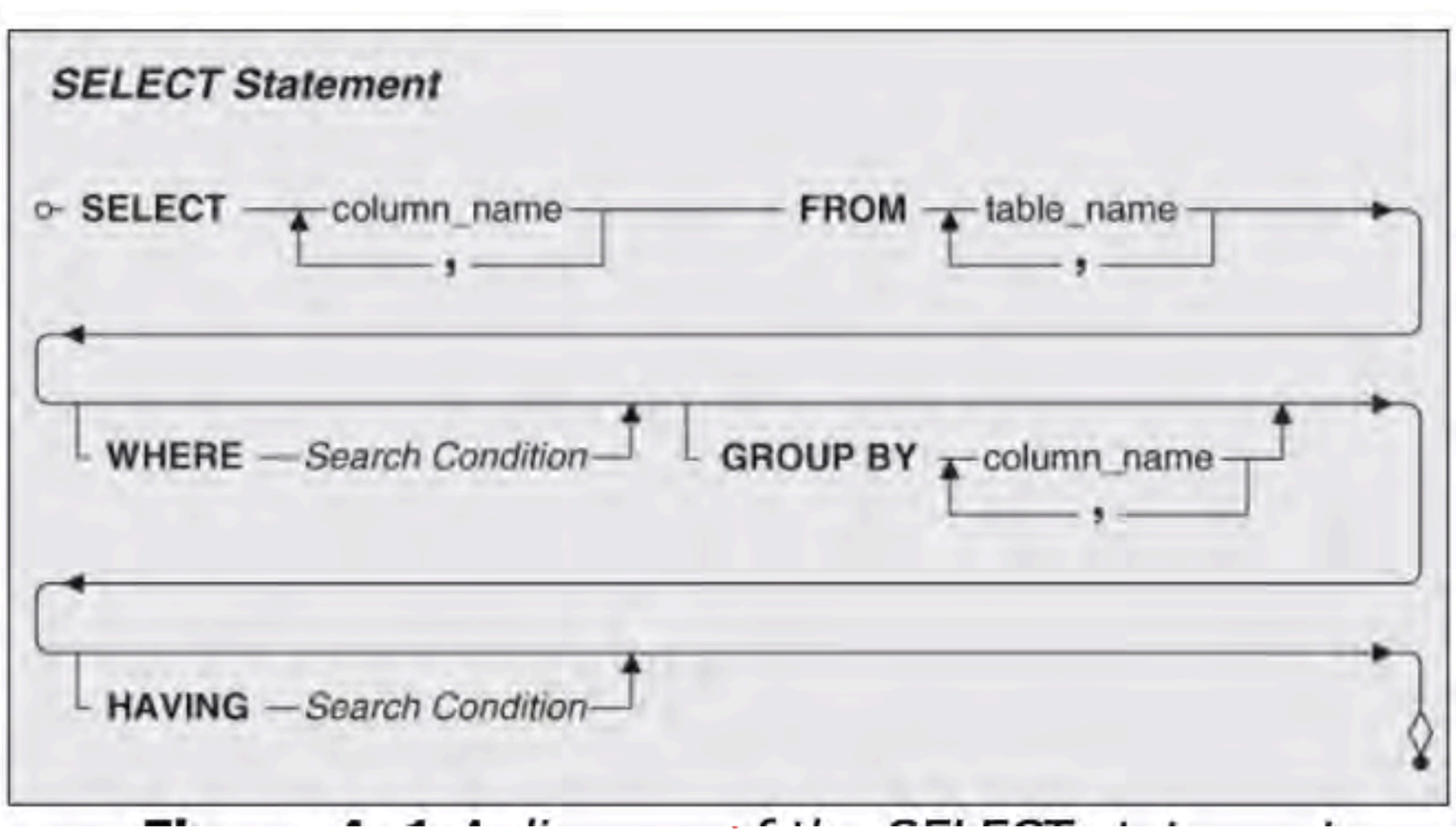
- The SQL **data-manipulation language (DML)** provides the ability to query information, and insert, delete and update tuples
- A typical SQL query has the form:

select A_1, A_2, ..., A_n
from r_1, r_2, ..., 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.

Select

- Forms the basis the basis of every question we pose to the DB
- Select –
  - Querying the DB.
  - Composed of several distinct keywords known as clauses
    - Some clauses are required, while others are optional
    - Each clause has one or more keywords that represent required or optional values



Select Clauses

- Select – Primary clause of the Select Statement (Required)
  - Specify columns you want in the result set of your query
  - Columns come from table or view
- FROM – Specify table or view (Required)
- Where – Used for filtering information returned (Optional)
- Group By -- Used to divide the information in distinct groups (optional)
  - When you use aggregate functions in the SELECT clause to produce summary information, you use the Group BY clause
- HAVING-- Filters the result of aggregate functions in grouped information (optional)
  - Similar to WHERE clause – HAVING clause is followed by an expression that evaluates to true, false, or unknown.

Select Cont.

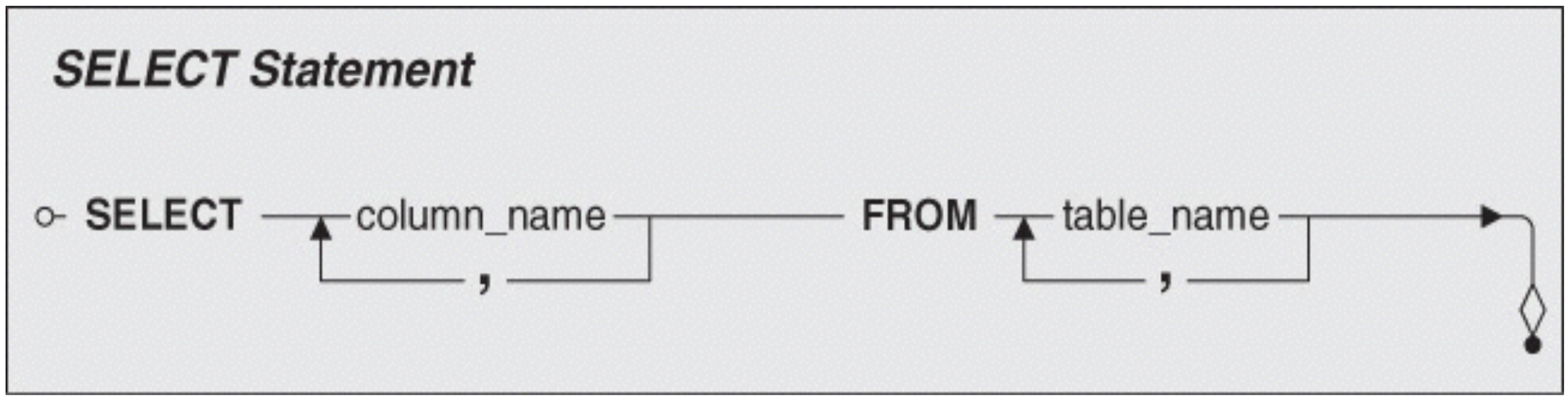
- Information requested from the DB, is in the form of a question e.g.,
  - *“Which cities do our customers live in”*
  - *“Show me a current list of our employees and their phone numbers.”*
  - *What kind of classes do we currently offer?”*
  - *“Give me the names of the folks on our staff and the dates they were hired.”*

- You can translate the question into a formal request using the form:
  - Select <item> from the <source>
  - Replace words such as “Which, Show”, to SELECT
  - Identify nouns
    - Determine if noun represents the an item you want to see or
    - A Table that contains in which items are stored

Select Cont.

- *Which cities do our customers live in"*
  - *Which → SELECT*
  - *Cities → Items*
  - *Customer → Table*

- *Select City from the Customer table*
- Once you cleanup.. It looks like:
  - *Select city from the customers table*



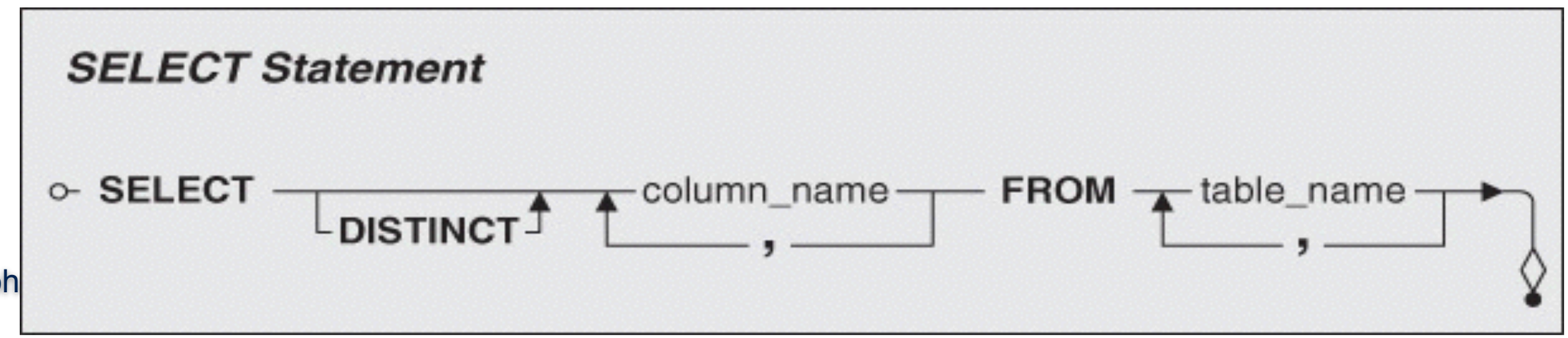
Remove duplicates

- 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 names of all departments with instructor, and remove duplicates

select distinct *dept_name*
from *instructor*

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

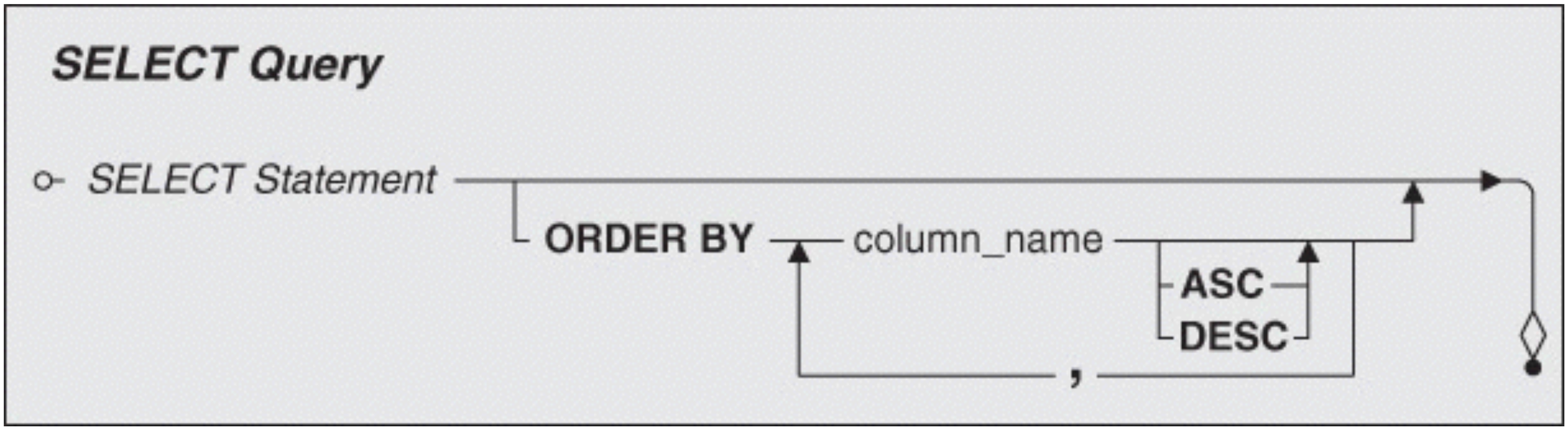
select all *dept_name*
from *instructor*



Soh

Sorting Information

- Rows of the result set returned by a SELECT are unordered
- Result set is sorted by using ORDER BY clause




```
SELECT Category
FROM Classes
ORDER BY Category
```

```
SELECT VendName, VendZipCode
FROM Vendors
ORDER BY VendZipCode
```

SELECT VendName, VendZipCode
FROM Vendors
ORDER BY VendZipCode DESC

Joined Relations

- **Join operations** take two relations and return as a result another relation.
- A join operation is a Cartesian product which requires that tuples in the two relations match (under some condition). It also specifies the attributes that are present in the result of the join
- The join operations are typically used as subquery expressions in the **from** clause

Join operations – Example

- Relation *course*

course_id	*title*	*dept_name*	*credits*
BIO-301	Genetics	Biology	4
CS-190	Game Design	Comp. Sci.	4
CS-315	Robotics	Comp. Sci.	3

- Relation *prereq*

course_id	*prereq_id*
BIO-301	BIO-101
CS-190	CS-101
CS-347	CS-101

- Observe that

  prereq information is missing for CS-315 and

  course information is missing for CS-437

Outer Join

- An extension of the join operation that avoids loss of information.
- Computes the join and then adds tuples form one relation that does not match tuples in the other relation to the result of the join.
- Uses *null* values.

Left Outer Join

- *course* **natural left outer join** *prereq*

course_id	*title*	*dept_name*	*credits*	*prereq_id*
BIO-301	Genetics	Biology	4	BIO-101
CS-190	Game Design	Comp. Sci.	4	CS-101
CS-315	Robotics	Comp. Sci.	3	*null*

- *course*

course_id	*prereq_id*
BIO-301	BIO-101
CS-190	CS-101
CS-347	CS-101

- *prereq*

course_id	*title*	*dept_name*	*credits*
BIO-301	Genetics	Biology	4
CS-190	Game Design	Comp. Sci.	4
CS-315	Robotics	Comp. Sci.	3

Right Outer Join

- *course* **natural right outer join** *prereq*

course_id	*title*	*dept_name*	*credits*	*prereq_id*
BIO-301	Genetics	Biology	4	BIO-101
CS-190	Game Design	Comp. Sci.	4	CS-101
CS-347	*null*	*null*	*null*	CS-101

Full Outer Join

- *course* **natural full outer join** *prereq*

course_id	*title*	*dept_name*	*credits*	*prereq_id*
BIO-301	Genetics	Biology	4	BIO-101
CS-190	Game Design	Comp. Sci.	4	CS-101
CS-315	Robotics	Comp. Sci.	3	*null*
CS-347	*null*	*null*	*null*	CS-101

Joined Relations – Examples

- *course* **inner join** *prereq* **on**
  course.course_id = prereq.course_id

course_id	*title*	*dept_name*	*credits*	*prereq_id*	*course_id*
BIO-301	Genetics	Biology	4	BIO-101	BIO-301
CS-190	Game Design	Comp. Sci.	4	CS-101	CS-190

- What is the difference between the above, and a natural join?
- *course* **left outer join** *prereq* **on**
  course.course_id = prereq.course_id

course_id	*title*	*dept_name*	*credits*	*prereq_id*	*course_id*
BIO-301	Genetics	Biology	4	BIO-101	BIO-301
CS-190	Game Design	Comp. Sci.	4	CS-101	CS-190
CS-315	Robotics	Comp. Sci.	3	*null*	*null*

Joined Relations – Examples

- *course* **natural right outer join** *prereq*

course_id	*title*	*dept_name*	*credits*	*prereq_id*
BIO-301	Genetics	Biology	4	BIO-101
CS-190	Game Design	Comp. Sci.	4	CS-101
CS-347	*null*	*null*	*null*	CS-101

- *course* **full outer join** *prereq* **using** (*course_id*)

course_id	*title*	*dept_name*	*credits*	*prereq_id*
BIO-301	Genetics	Biology	4	BIO-101
CS-190	Game Design	Comp. Sci.	4	CS-101
CS-315	Robotics	Comp. Sci.	3	*null*
CS-347	*null*	*null*	*null*	CS-101

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.
- A common use of subqueries is to perform tests for set membership, set comparisons, and set cardinality.

Example Query

- Find the total number of (distinct) studentswho 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.

Modification of the Database

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

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Modification of the Database – 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)

Modification of the Database – 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 *table*1 **select** * **from** *table*1
  would cause problems, if *table1* did not have any primary key defined.

Modification of the Database – Updates

- Increase salaries of instructors whose salary is over $100,000 by 3%, and all others receive a 5% raise
  - 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
  - Can be done better using the **case** statement (next slide)

Built-in Data Types in SQL

- **date:** Dates, containing a (4 digit) year, month and date
  - Example: **date** '2005-7-27'
- **time:** Time of day, in hours, minutes and seconds.
  - Example: **time** '09:00:30' **time** '09:00:30.75'
- **timestamp**: date plus time of day
  - Example: **timestamp** '2005-7-27 09:00:30.75'
- **interval:** period of time
  - Example: interval '1' day
  - Subtracting a date/time/timestamp value from another gives an interval value
  - Interval values can be added to date/time/timestamp values

User-Defined Types

- **create type** construct in SQL creates user-defined type

  create type *Dollars* **as numeric (12,2) final**

  - **create table** *department*
    (*dept_name* **varchar** (20),
    building **varchar** (15),
    budget Dollars);

Large-Object Types

- Large objects (photos, videos, CAD files, etc.) are stored as a *large object*:
  - **blob**: binary large object -- object is a large collection of uninterpreted binary data (whose interpretation is left to an application outside of the database system)
  - **clob**: character large object -- object is a large collection of character data
- When a query returns a large object, a pointer is returned rather than the large object itself.

Authorization

Forms of authorization on parts of the database:

- **Read** - allows reading, but not modification of data.
- **Insert** - allows insertion of new data, but not modification of existing data.
- **Update** - allows modification, but not deletion of data.
- **Delete** - allows deletion of data.

Forms of authorization to modify the database schema

- **Index** - allows creation and deletion of indices.
- **Resources** - allows creation of new relations.
- **Alteration** - allows addition or deletion of attributes in a relation.
- **Drop** - allows deletion of relations.

Authorization Specification in SQL

- The **grant** statement is used to confer authorization

  grant <privilege list>

  on <relation name or view name> **to** <user list>

- <user list> is:
  - a user-id
  - **public**, which allows all valid users the privilege granted
  - A role (more on this later)
- Granting a privilege on a view does not imply granting any privileges on the underlying relations.
- The grantor of the privilege must already hold the privilege on the specified item (or be the database administrator).

Privileges in SQL

- **select:** allows read access to relation,or the ability to query using the view
  - Example: grant users U_1, U_2, and U_3 **select** authorization on the *instructor* relation:

    grant select on *instructor* **to** U_1, U_2, U_3
- **insert**: the ability to insert tuples
- **update**: the ability to update using the SQL update statement
- **delete**: the ability to delete tuples.
- **all privileges**: used as a short form for all the allowable privileges

Revoking Authorization in SQL

- The **revoke** statement is used to revoke authorization.

  revoke <privilege list>

  on <relation name or view name> **from** <user list>

- Example:

  revoke select on *branch* **from** U_1, U_2, U_3

- <privilege-list> may be **all** to revoke all privileges the revokee may hold.
- If <revokee-list> includes **public,** all users lose the privilege except those granted it explicitly.
- If the same privilege was granted twice to the same user by different grantees, the user may retain the privilege after the revocation.
- All privileges that depend on the privilege being revoked are also revoked.

Roles

- **create role** instructor;
- **grant** *instructor* **to Amit;**
- Privileges can be granted to roles:
  - **grant select on** *takes* **to** *instructor*;
- Roles can be granted to users, as well as to other roles
  - **create role** *teaching_assistant*
  - **grant** *teaching_assistant* **to** *instructor*;
    - *Instructor* inherits all privileges of *teaching_assistant*
- Chain of roles
  - **create role** *dean*;
  - **grant** *instructor* **to** *dean*;
  - **grant** *dean* **to** Satoshi;