

# Database Management Systems INFO 210

## SQL Part II Lecture 9

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## Example DB schema

- DB schema “lecturedatabase”:

```
lecture(lnr, lname, hours, lh_name, t_id)
type(id)
lecturehall(name, address)
lecturer(ssnr, name)
student(srnr, name)
participating_students(lnr, srnr)
lecturer_assignment(lnr, ssnr)
```

## Database implementations

- **Commercial:**
  - Oracle Database
  - Microsoft Access Database
  - ...
- **Open-Source:**
  - MySQL ([www.mysql.de](http://www.mysql.de))
  - PostgreSQL ([www.postgresql.org](http://www.postgresql.org))
    - Latest release: PostgreSQL 12
    - Direct access using the command line tool `psql`
    - Access from Java via JDBC
  - ...

## Create new relations

- Every SQL attribute has a data type
- In SQL there are the following predefined data types available (and even more):

Data type	Explanation
bool	A Boolean value
int	4 byte integer value
real	Single precision real value (4 byte)
float8	Double precision real (8 byte)
char(N)	Fixed length character string of size N
varchar(N)	Variable length character string up to size N
date	The date
time	The time

## Create new relations

- In SQL use CREATE TABLE

- **Example:**

```
CREATE TABLE lecture (  
    lnr          char(6),  
    lname        varchar(80),  
    hours        int,  
    lh_name      varchar(10),  
    t_id         char(2)  
);
```

## Create new relations

- Let us now create all other relations / tables as well!
- Note: Tables can be deleted as well!

**Example:** DROP TABLE lecture;

## Examples

```
CREATE TABLE type(  
    id    char(2));  
CREATE TABLE lecturehall(  
    name      varchar(10),  
    address   varchar(100)  
);  
CREATE TABLE lecturer(  
    ssnr      char(10),  
    name      varchar(80)  
);  
CREATE TABLE student(  
    srnr      char(8),  
    name      varchar(80)  
);
```

## Examples (cont.)

```
CREATE TABLE participating_student(  
    lnr      char(6),  
    srnr     char(8)  
);  
  
CREATE TABLE lecturer_assignment(  
    lnr      char(6),  
    ssnr     char(10)  
);
```

## Example (cont.)

```
fwotawa — psql — psql — 80x24
CREATE TABLE
lvdatabase=# \d
          List of relations
Schema |      Name      | Type | Owner
-----|-----|-----|-----
public | angem_tab      | table | fwotawa
public | hoersaal       | table | fwotawa
public | lvtab          | table | fwotawa
public | student        | table | fwotawa
public | typ            | table | fwotawa
public | votr_tab       | table | fwotawa
public | vortragender   | table | fwotawa
(7 rows)
```

## Insert data into tables

- Use the commands: INSERT or COPY

- **Examples:**

```
INSERT INTO lecturer
VALUES ('1234567890', 'Franz
Wotawa');
```

or

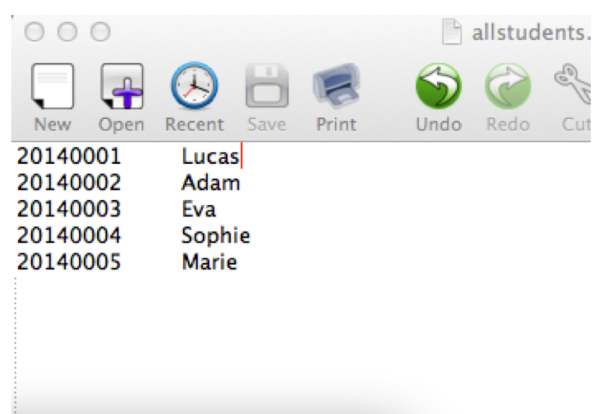
```
INSERT INTO lecturer (name, ssnr)
VALUES ('Rui Abreu', '0987654321');
```

## Insert data into tables

- With `COPY` all data stored in a text file can be added to a particular table.
- **Example:**

```
COPY student FROM  
'allstudents.txt';
```

## Structure of the text file



## Search for data in SQL data bases – The **SELECT** statement

- As already discussed **SELECT** is for searching for data in relational databases using SQL.
- Present all data from a particular table:

```
SELECT * FROM student;
```

srrnr		name
20140001		Lucas
20140002		Adam
20140003		Eva
20140004		Sophie
20140005		Marie

(5 rows)

## Example table lecture

lnr		lname		hours		lh_name		t_id
117101		"Software Maintenance"		3		i7		LP
117102		"Compiler Construction"		2		i11		L
117103		"Compiler Construction"		1		i11		P
117104		"Seminar DB"		2		i12		SE

(4 rows)

## The **SELECT** statement

- Show parts of a table (columns):

```
SELECT lname FROM lecture;
```

```
lname
```

```
-----
```

```
"Software Maintenance"
```

```
"Compiler Construction"
```

```
"Compiler Construction"
```

```
"Seminar DB"
```

```
(4 rows)
```

## The **SELECT** statement

- Show parts of a table and sort the output:

```
SELECT DISTINCT lname FROM lecture  
ORDER BY lname;
```

```
lname
```

```
-----
```

```
"Compiler Construction"
```

```
"Seminar DB"
```

```
"Software Maintenance"
```

```
(4 rows)
```



## The SELECT statement

- Select tuples or rows of a table:

```
SELECT lname, t_id FROM lecture
WHERE hours > 2;
```

lname	t_id
"Software Maintenance"	LP

(1 row)

## The SELECT statement

- Extended functionality:

```
SELECT * FROM lecture
WHERE hours > 2 AND
lh_name LIKE 'i7';
```

lnr	lname	hours	lh_name	t_id
117101	"Software Maintenance"	3	i7	LP

(1 row)

## The **SELECT** statement

- For trying:

```
SELECT current_date;
```

```
SELECT 2 + 4;
```

```
SELECT version();
```

## Extensions **SELECT** using more than one table

- How to bring tables in relation to each other?
- Join operation using **SELECT**.

- **Example:** Which lecturer hold which lecture?

```
lecture(lnr, lname, hours,  
lh_name, t_id)
```

```
lecturer(ssnr, name)
```

```
Lecturer_assignment(lnr, ssnr)
```

## Extensions SELECT (cont.)

- Solution:

```
SELECT lecture.lnr, lecture.lname,
lecture.hours, lecturer.ssnr, lecturer.name
FROM lecture, lecturer, lecturer_assignment
WHERE
    lecture.lnr = lecturer_assignment.lnr
AND
    lecturer.ssnr = lecturer_assignment.ssnr;
```

## Extensions SELECT (cont.)

- Final result using our example table:

lnr	lname	hours	ssnr	name
117101	"Software Maintenance"	3	0987654321	Rui Abreu
117101	"Software Maintenance"	3	1234567890	Franz Wotawa
117104	"Seminar DB"	2	1234567890	Franz Wotawa
117102	"Compiler Construction"	2	1234567890	Franz Wotawa
117103	"Compiler Construction"	1	0987654321	Rui Abreu

(5 rows)

## Another possibility...

```
SELECT l.lnr, l.lname, l.hours,  
v.ssnr, v.name  
FROM lecture l, lecturer v,  
lecturer_assignment vt  
WHERE  
    l.lnr = vt.lnr  
AND  
    v.ssnr = vt.ssnr;
```

## Other ways for bringing content stored in tables together

- Using (semi-) joins and the cartesian product
- What happened when executing the following  
SELECT statement?

```
SELECT * FROM lecture, type;
```

## SELECT and aggregation functions

- We can also compute the maximum, minimum, average or sum of values using SELECT (MIN, MAX, AVG, SUM)
- **Example:**

```
SELECT MAX(hours) FROM lecture;
```

```
max
-----
    3
(1 row)
```

## Which lecture has most hours?

- Usually of great interest are queries where we are interested in tuples or rows in relationship to values delivered using aggregation functions.
- **Example:** Which lectures do have the largest number of hours?

```
SELECT * FROM lecture
WHERE lecture.hours =
      (SELECT MAX(lecture.hours)
       FROM lecture);
```

## The GROUP BY and HAVING clauses

- Assume that we only want to use the aggregation function over parts of a table.
- **Example:** A course might comprise a lecture and a practical part having the same name assigned. For the real effort, we are interested in the sum of the hours.

```
SELECT lname, SUM(hours)
FROM lecture
GROUP BY lname;
```

## The GROUP BY and HAVING clauses

lnr	lname	hours	lh_name	t_id
117101	"Software Maintenance"	3	i7	LP
117102	"Compiler Construction"	2	i11	LE
117103	"Compiler Construction"	1	i11	PR
117104	"Seminar DB"	2	i12	SE

(4 rows)



```
SELECT lname, SUM(hours)
FROM lecture
GROUP BY lname;
```

lname	sum
"Seminar DB Dipl"	2
"Software Maintenance"	3
"Compiler Construction "	3

(3 rows)

## The GROUP BY and HAVING clauses

- We can further improve the outcome, if selecting specific cases in addition.

```
SELECT lname, SUM(hours)
FROM lecture
WHERE
    (t_id = 'LE' OR t_id = 'PR')
GROUP BY lname;
```

## The GROUP BY and HAVING clauses

- And, finally, sometimes we are interested in solutions where the aggregation has specific properties!

```
SELECT lname, SUM(hours)
FROM lecture
GROUP BY lname
HAVING SUM(hours) > 2;
```

## Change data in tables using SQL

- Use the `UPDATE` function!
- **Example:** Every lecture of type LP (lecture including a practical part) receives one hour more.

```
UPDATE lecture  
SET hours = hours + 1  
WHERE t_id = 'LP';
```

## Delete data in SQL

- Make use of the `DELETE` function!
- **Example:** Delete all lectures of type 'P' (only practical parts).

```
DELETE FROM lecture  
WHERE t_id= 'PR';
```

- **ATTENTION:** `DELETE FROM lecture;` removes all entries!



## Other SQL commands and specialties

- Views are for summarizing tables!
- **Example:** A table comprising all information about the lecture, its lecturer and all assigned students.

## Views and their use

```
CREATE VIEW myView AS
SELECT l.lnr, l.lname, l.hours, l.lh_name,
l.t_id, p.name AS lecturer, s.name AS
student
FROM lecture l, lecturer p , student s,
participating_student, lecturer_assignment
WHERE
    p.ssnr = lecturer_assignment.ssnr AND
    s.ssnr = participating_student.ssnr AND
    l.lnr=lecturer_assignment.lnr AND
    l.lnr=participating_students.lnr;
```

## Example VIEW

- `SELECT * FROM myView;` returns:

lnr	lname	hours	lh_name	t_id	lecturer	student
117101	"Software Maintenance"	3	i7	LP	Birgit Hofer	Lucas
117101	"Software Maintenance"	3	i7	LP	Birgit Hofer	Sophie
117101	"Software Maintenance"	3	i7	LP	Birgit Hofer	Marie
117101	"Software Maintenance"	3	i7	LP	Birgit Hofer	Adam
117101	"Software Maintenance"	3	i7	LP	Franz Wotawa	Lucas
117101	"Software Maintenance"	3	i7	LP	Franz Wotawa	Sophie
117101	"Software Maintenance"	3	i7	LP	Franz Wotawa	Marie
117101	"Software Maintenance"	3	i7	LP	Franz Wotawa	Adam
117102	"Compiler Construction"	2	i11	LE	Franz Wotawa	Eva
117102	"Compiler Construction"	2	i11	LE	Franz Wotawa	Adam
117102	"Compiler Construction"	2	i11	LE	Franz Wotawa	Sophie
117103	"Compiler Construction"	1	i11	PR	Birgit Hofer	Adam
117103	"Compiler Construction"	1	i11	PR	Birgit Hofer	Sophie
117104	"Seminar DB"	2	i12	SE	Franz Wotawa	Eva
117104	"Seminar DB"	2	i12	SE	Franz Wotawa	Adam

(15 rows)

## Views (cont.)

- Views can be used like tables.
- It is often reasonable to introduce Views whenever we want to summarize data.
- With Views details of the database are hidden from the user.


## How to assure referential integrity?

- In table `lecture` only lecture types are allowed that are in `type`. This can be achieved via querying the database whenever we want to add information. Hence, whenever we want to add a tuple to `lvtab` we have to ask whether the type already exists.
- **Better:** Use the database directly for assuring referential integrity!

## Using the primary key

- Current situation:

`lecture(lnr, lname, hours, lh_namen, t_id)`  
`type(id)`

A curved arrow points from the `t_id` attribute in the `lecture` table definition to the `id` attribute in the `type` table definition, indicating a foreign key relationship.

Because `id` in `type` is a key, we can use it directly!

## Using the primary key

- We need a new table declaration:

```
CREATE TABLE type(  
    id    char(2) primary key);
```

- And for lecture:

```
CREATE TABLE lvtab (  
    lnr      char(6),  
    lname    varchar(80),  
    hours    int,  
    lh_name  varchar(10),  
    t_id     char(2) references type(id));
```

## Using the primary key

- In case of wrong inputs an error message is given back from the database system.
- The referential integrity of data stored in the database can be assured!

## Database transactions

- In practice a database is usually accessed from different (remote) places at the same time!
- For `SELECT` statements a concurrent access is usually not problematic.
- However, in case of changes we have to assure that no data integrity problems arise.

## Database transactions

- **Example:** Let us assume that we have a database in a bank storing the account information of customers.
  - If we withdraw money from the account of Julia and put it into the account of Romeo, we want to assure that both operations are carried out finally!
  - We can assure this using SQL transaction.

## Database transactions

```
BEGIN;  
  UPDATE accounts  
  SET balance = balance - 100.00  
  WHERE name = 'Julia';  
  UPDATE accounts  
  SET balance = balance + 100.00  
  WHERE name = 'Romeo'  
COMMIT;
```

## Database transactions

- Using **BEGIN;** and **COMMIT;** we define an transactions
- In the transactions it is assured that all SQL operations are carried out together. In case of a problem in one operation, the effect of all previous operations is removed.
- Transactions are atomic operations.
- **Extensions:**
  - **SAVEPOINT** my\_savepoint;
  - **ROLLBACK TO** my\_savepoint;

## Example

```
SQL> SAVEPOINT SP1;  
Savepoint created.  
SQL> DELETE FROM CUSTOMERS WHERE ID=1;  
1 row deleted.  
SQL> SAVEPOINT SP2;  
Savepoint created.  
SQL> DELETE FROM CUSTOMERS WHERE ID=2; 1  
row deleted.  
SQL> SAVEPOINT SP3;  
Savepoint created.  
SQL> DELETE FROM CUSTOMERS WHERE ID=3;  
1 row deleted.
```

Now that the three deletions have taken place, let us assume that you have changed your mind and decided to ROLLBACK to the SAVEPOINT that you identified as SP2. Because SP2 was created after the first deletion, the last two deletions are undone

```
SQL> ROLLBACK TO SP2;  
Rollback complete.
```

## Database transactions

- The use of transactions is absolutely requested in practice!
- Transaction handling is often at least partially implemented in libraries. This should be checked using the library documentation.
- Testing of database applications has also to check the behavior in case of concurrent database access and changes!

## How to handle unknown information?

- In SQL the use of NULL values is allowed.
- If a row is not allowed to store NULL values, we have to declare this during table creation.

```
CREATE TABLE products (  
    product_no integer NOT NULL,  
    name text NOT NULL,  
    price numeric );
```

## Check input values

- In most SQL database we can add further checks using constraints.
- **Example:**

```
CREATE TABLE products (  
    product_no integer,  
    name text,  
    price numeric CHECK (price > 0)  
);
```



## Using primary keys with more than one attribute

- We can define primary keys comprising more than one attribute.
- **Example:**

```
CREATE TABLE example (  
    a integer,  
    b integer,  
    c integer,  
    PRIMARY KEY (a, c)  
);
```

## Making attributes unique

- Use the **UNIQUE** keyword (similar to primary key or not null).
- Makes a given attribute unique, i.e., it can only store different values in each row.
- Similar to primary key.
- Of use in cases where you have a primary key and another attribute that is also unique but only for information, e.g.:

```
EMPLOYEE(ssn, passportNr,...)
```

## SQL Constraints Summary

- NOT NULL Constraint – Ensures that a column cannot have NULL value.
- DEFAULT Constraint – Provides a default value for a column when none is specified.
- UNIQUE Constraint – Ensures that all values in a column are different.
- PRIMARY Key – Uniquely identifies each row/record in a database table.
- FOREIGN Key – Uniquely identifies a row/record in any of the given database table.
- CHECK Constraint – The CHECK constraint ensures that all the values in a column satisfies certain conditions.
- INDEX – Used to create and retrieve data from the database very quickly.

## We can also change the database schemes

- Using SQL we can change database schemes after creation as well!
- **Example:**

```
ALTER TABLE products  
ADD COLUMN description text;
```

## Other possibilities...

- Bring together query results:

```
query1 UNION [ALL] query2
```

```
query1 INTERSECT [ALL] query2
```

```
query1 EXCEPT [ALL] query2
```

- If **ALL** is not used, duplicates were automatically removed.

## What we have discussed today...

- Implementing databases using SQL:
  - CREATE
  - DROP
  - SELECT
  - UPDATE
  - INSERT

## ... And there is more

- Inheritance
- Schemes
- User management
  - Access control using SQL databases directly
- Optimizing performance (of queries)
- ....

**Have a look at**

<https://www.tutorialspoint.com/sql>

## Next Class

SQL- Part III (ODBC, JDBC,...)