



SQL BASICS

DR. ISAAC GRIFFITH

IDAHO STATE UNIVERSITY

- It is inevitable that we will need to persist data between executions of our application
- In 2263, we utilized a naive approach for doing this via JSON and Serialization
- However, often we need something far more robust...

After today's lecture you will be able to:

- Identify different Database Management Systems
- Transform a basic UML Class Diagram into a database schema and tables
- Utilize fundamental knowledge of SQL Data Definition Language to construct both
 - Database schema
 - Database tables
- Utilize fundamental knowledge of SQL Data Manipulation Language to
 - Inserting, Updating, and Deleting Data



DBMS

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- Database Management System (DBMS) – provide a system for optimally storing and retrieving data.
- There are essentially three main types:
 - **Relational** – MySQL, MariaDB, Postgres, SQLite, RDS, and many others
 - Non-Relational (i.e., No-SQL) – Amazon DynamoDB, MongoDB, Big Table
 - Others Databases
 - Graph Databases
 - Time Series Data Stores
 - Object Data Stores

SQL

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- SQL is a data manipulation language
- SQL is not a programming language
- SQL commands are interpreted by the DBMS engine
- SQL commands can be used interactively as a query language with in the DBMS
- SQL commands can be embedded within programming languages

3 Types of SQL Commands



- **Data Definition Language (DDL):**
 - Commands that define a database - Create, Alter, Drop
- **Data Manipulation Language (DML):**
 - Commands that maintain and query a database
- **Data Control Language (DCL)**
 - Commands that control a database, including administering privileges and committing data.

Data Definition Language

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Some SQL Data Types



MySQL and MS SQL Server

- String types:
 - CHAR(*n*) – fixed-length character data, *n* characters long, max length is 255 characters
 - VARCHAR(*n*) – variable length character data, max length is 65535 characters
 - TEXT(*n*) – String data with max size of 65,535 bytes
 - LONGTEXT – String data with a max size of 4,294,967,295 characters
- Numeric Types
 - BOOL or BOOLEAN – Zero is false, all other values are true
 - INT(*n*) or INTEGER(*n*) – A medium sized integer
 - FLOAT(*p*) – decimal integer with *p* numbers after the decimal point
- Date/Time Type:
 - DATE – fixed-length date/time in YYYY-MM-DD format

SQLite

- String types:
 - TEXT – stores string data
 - BLOB – stores other data
- Numeric types:
 - INTEGER – stores signed integer data
 - REAL – stores floating point data
- Others
 - There is no specific datatype for **boolean** or **dates**
 - Booleans are typically stored as INTEGER
 - Dates can be stored as INTEGER, REAL, or TEXT values

- Data Definition Language (DDL)
- Major CREATE statements:
 - CREATE SCHEMA – defines a portion of the database owned by a particular user
 - CREATE TABLE – defines a table and its columns
 - CREATE VIEW – defines a logical table from one or more views
- ALTER statements

Table Creation



General Syntax

```
CREATE TABLE tablename (  
    {column definition [table constraint]},  
);
```

Where column definitions:

```
column_name datatype[(size)] [column_constraint]  
    [default value] [collate clause]
```

And table constraints:

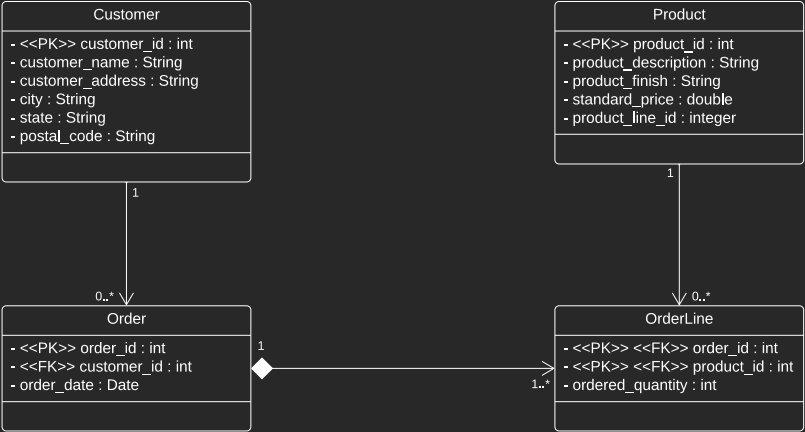
```
[CONSTRAINT constraint_name] Constraint_type  
    [constraint_attrs]
```

Steps in table creation:

1. Identify data types for attributes
2. Identify columns that can and cannot be null
3. Identify columns that must be unique (candidate keys)
4. Identify primary key-foreign key mates
5. Determine default values
6. Identify constraints on columns (domain specifications)
7. Create the table and associated indexes

- There are several methods to model a database
 - ER Diagrams
 - EER Diagrams
 - **UML Class Diagrams**
- Given that we are discussing the backend data of a software system and later we will be working with ORM, we will use **UML Class Diagrams**
 - Each class is a table, and each object stored is a row
 - Fields represent columns of the table
 - Operations, do not have a place here
 - **Note:** be careful concerning circular dependencies

Example Model



Customer Table



SQLite

```
CREATE TABLE customers (  
  customer_id      INTEGER NOT NULL PRIMARY KEY AutoIncrement,  
  customer_name    VARCHAR NOT NULL,  
  customer_address VARCHAR,  
  city             VARCHAR,  
  state            VARCHAR,  
  postal_code      VARCHAR  
);
```

MySQL

```
CREATE TABLE customers (  
  customer_id      INTEGER NOT NULL PRIMARY KEY Auto_Increment,  
  customer_name    VARCHAR(25) NOT NULL,  
  customer_address VARCHAR(30),  
  city             VARCHAR(20),  
  state            VARCHAR(2),  
  postal_code      VARCHAR(9)  
);
```


Order Table



SQLite

```
CREATE TABLE orders (  
  order_id      INTEGER NOT NULL PRIMARY KEY AutoIncrement,  
  order_date    NUMERIC NOT NULL,  
  customer_id   INTEGER REFERENCES customers (customer_id)  
);
```

MySQL

```
CREATE TABLE orders (  
  order_id      INTEGER NOT NULL PRIMARY KEY AutoIncrement,  
  order_date    DATETIME NOT NULL,  
  customer_id   INTEGER REFERENCES customers (customer_id)  
);
```

Product Table



SQLite

```
CREATE TABLE products (  
  product_id          INTEGER NOT NULL PRIMARY KEY AutoIncrement,  
  product_description  VARCHAR,  
  product_finish       VARCHAR,  
  standard_price       REAL,  
  product_line_id      INTEGER  
);
```

MySQL

```
CREATE TABLE products (  
  product_id          INTEGER NOT NULL PRIMARY KEY AutoIncrement,  
  product_description  VARCHAR(50),  
  product_finish       VARCHAR(20),  
  standard_price       DECIMAL(6,2),  
  product_line_id      INTEGER  
);
```

OrderLine Table



SQLite

```
CREATE TABLE order_lines (  
  order_id      INTEGER NOT NULL REFERENCES orders (order_id),  
  product_id    INTEGER NOT NULL REFERENCES products (product_id),  
  ordered_quantity INTEGER,  
  CONSTRAINT ORDER_LINE_PK PRIMARY KEY (order_id, product_id)  
);
```

MySQL

```
CREATE TABLE order_lines (  
  order_id      INTEGER NOT NULL REFERENCES orders (order_id),  
  product_id    INTEGER NOT NULL REFERENCES products (product_id),  
  ordered_quantity INTEGER,  
  CONSTRAINT ORDER_LINE_PK PRIMARY KEY (order_id, product_id)  
);
```

Changing and Removing Tables



- ALTER TABLE statement allows you to change column specifications:

```
ALTER TABLE customers ADD (TYPE VARCHAR(2));
```

- DROP TABLE statement allows you to remove tables from your schema:

```
DROP TABLE customers;
```

- Control processing/storage efficiency
 - Choice of indexes
 - File organizations for base tables
 - File organizations for indexes
 - Data clustering
 - Statistics maintenance
- Creating indexes
 - Speed up random/sequential access to base table data
 - Example

Data Manipulation Language

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Data Manipulation Language (DML)



Four Basic Commands:

- INSERT
- UPDATE
- DELETE
- SELECT



Inserting Data

- Puts **ONE** row into a table
- Column list is optional if you plan to insert a value into every column and in the same order as the table
- If you wish to change the order of data, the column list is needed
 - value list must match
 - you can use NULL or blank values
- Columns left out, will have a value of NULL
 - only if the column is able to be NULL

Syntax:

```
INSERT INTO tablename (column-list)
VALUES (value-list);
```

Example:

```
INSERT INTO course (course_code, course_name,
                    credit_hours)
VALUES ('MIS499', 'ADVANCED ORACLE', 4);
```


Deleting Data



- Removes rows from a table
- Delete certain rows:

```
DELETE FROM customer_t WHERE  
STATE = 'HI';
```

- Delete all rows

```
DELETE FROM customer_t;
```

- Modifies data in existing rows

```
UPDATE product_t SET unit_price =  
775 WHERE product_id = 7;
```



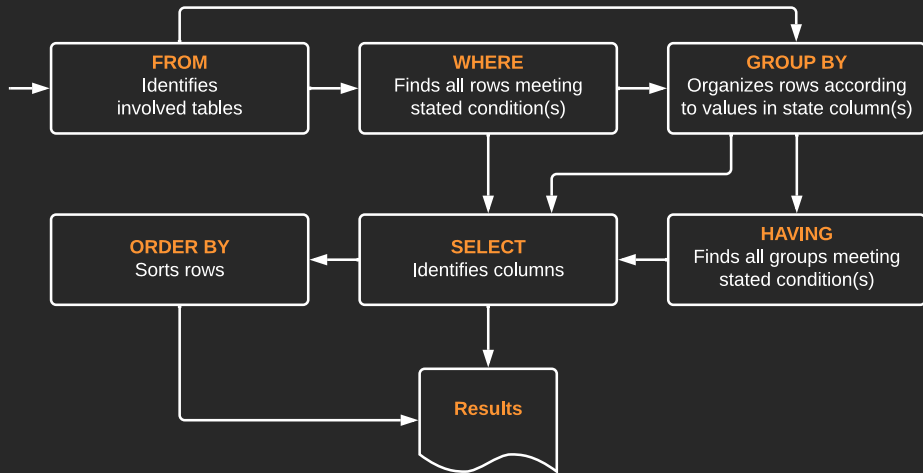
- We use the **SELECT** statement for queries on a single or multiple tables
- Clauses of the **SELECT** statement:
 - **SELECT** – List the columns (and expressions) that should be returned from the query
 - **FROM** – Indicates the table(s) or view(s) from which data will be obtained
 - **WHERE** – Indicate the conditions under which a row will be included in the result
 - **GROUP BY** – Indicate categorization of results
 - **HAVING** – Indicate the conditions under which a category (group) will be included
 - **ORDER BY** – Sorts the result according to specified criteria

Query Processing



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SELECT Example



- Find products with standard price less than \$275

```
SELECT product_name, standard_price
FROM products
WHERE standard_price < 275;
```

- Aliases allow for alternative column or table names

```
SELECT cust.customer as NAME,
       cust.customer_address
FROM customers cust
WHERE name = 'Home Furnishings';
```

- You can use the COUNT **aggregate function** to find totals

```
SELECT count(*) FROM order_lines  
WHERE order_id = 1004;
```

- Note:** with aggregate functions you can't have single-valued columns included in the select clause

- AND, OR, and NOT operators can be used to customize conditions in a WHERE clause

```
SELECT product_description, product_finish,  
       standard_price  
FROM products  
WHERE (product_description LIKE '%Desk'  
OR product_description LIKE '%Table')  
AND unit_price > 300;
```

- Example: Sort the results first by STATE, and within a state by CUSTOMER_NAME

```
SELECT customer_name, city, state
FROM customers
WHERE state IN ('FL', 'TX', 'CA', 'HI')
ORDER BY state, customer_name;
```


- Group by is for use with aggregate functions
 - **Scalar aggregate:** single value returned from SQL query with aggregate function
 - **Vector aggregate:** multiple values returned from SQL query with aggregate function (via GROUP BY)

```
SELECT state, count(state)
FROM customers
GROUP BY state;
```

- **Note:** you can use single-value fields with aggregate functions if they are included in the GROUP BY clause

The HAVING Clause



- We can qualify results by categories using the HAVING clause when using GROUP BY

```
SELECT state, count(state)
FROM customers
GROUP BY state
HAVING count(state) > 1;
```

For Next Time



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- Review the Reading
- Review this Lecture
- Come to Class





Are there any questions?