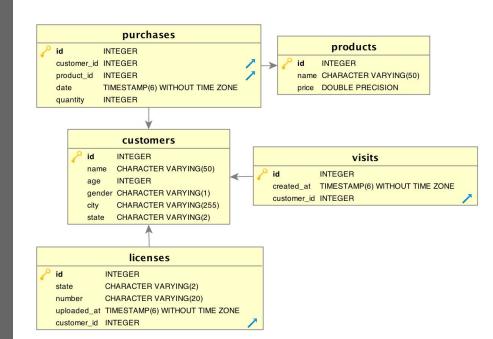


SQL

Jan 11, 2017 DSI, Galvanize, Seattle jfomhover





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OBJECTIVES

- Connect to a Postgres database
- Design and write queries to answer questions using an RDMBS (i.e. Postgres)

Standards



- Connect to a SQL database via command line (i.e. Postgres).
- Connect to a database from within a python program.
- State function of basic SQL commands.
- Write simple queries on a single table including SELECT, FROM, WHERE,
 CASE... clauses and aggregates.
- Write complex queries including JOINS and subqueries.
- Explain how indexing works in Postgres.
- Create and dump tables.
- Format a query to follow a standard style.
- Move data from SQL database to text file.

Relational Database Management System (RDBMS)



It is a persistent data storage system

- survives after the process in which it was created has ended
- is written to non-volatile storage
- is infrequently accessed and unlikely to be changed

RDBMS was the de facto standard for storing data

- Examples: Oracle, MySQL, SQLServer, Postgres
- With "Big Data", this is beginning to change

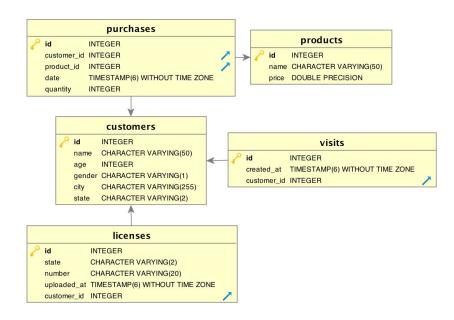
Why RDBMS?



An RDBMS provides the ability to

- Model relations in data
- Query data and their relations efficiently
- Maintain data consistency and integrity

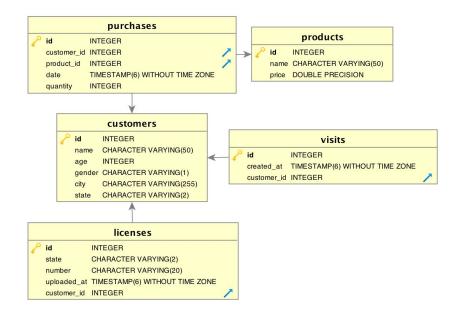
It will require a Data Model



RDBMS Data Model



- Schema defines the structure of the data
- The database is composed of a number of user-defined tables
- Each table will have columns (aka fields)
 and rows (aka records)
- A column is of a given data type
- A row is an entry in a table with data for each column of that table



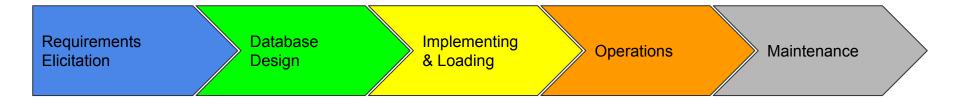
RDBMS and SQL



- SQL is the language used to query relational databases
- All RDBMS use SQL and the syntax and keywords are the same for the most part, across systems
- **SQL** is used to interact with RDBMS, allowing you to create tables, alter tables, insert records, update records, delete records, and query records within and across tables.
- Even non-relational databases like **Hadoop** usually have a SQL-like interface available.

Database Life Cycle (DBLC)





Data Science in the **DBLC**





DS / Operations: querying, aggregating

DS / Implementing: identifying, cleaning, pushing external data sources inside a RDBMS

DS / Design: recommendations on the model, specs on operations

Question!



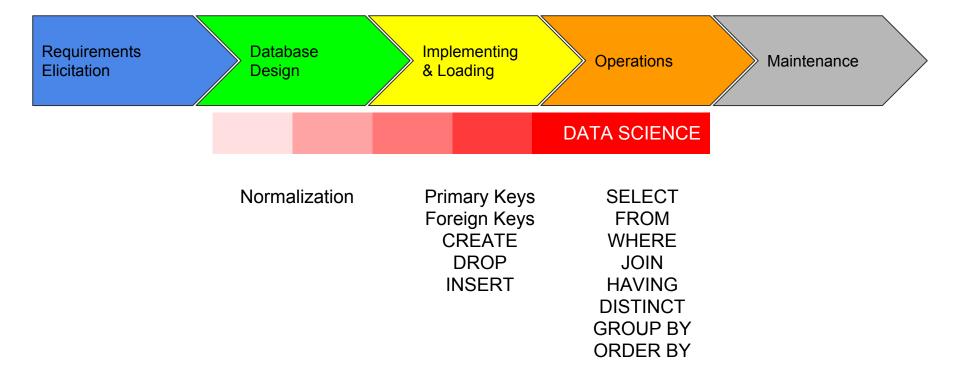
As a data scientist, what are the advantages of storing, querying, and maintaining data in a SQL database over curating your own flat files (e.g. csv files)?



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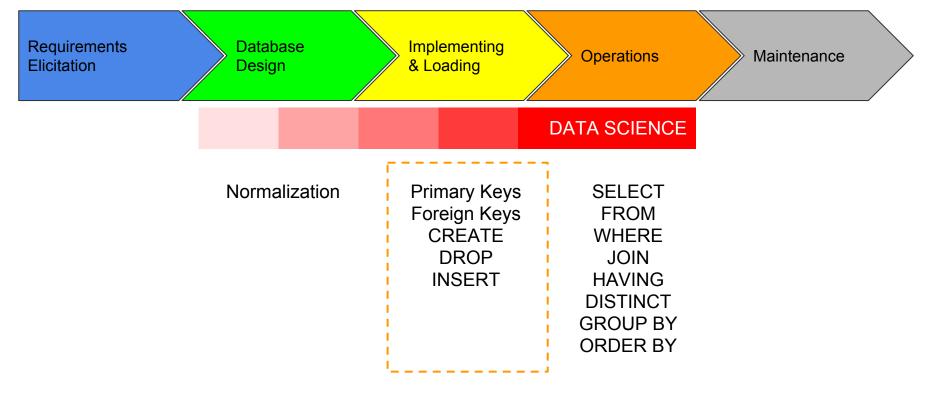
Concepts of the day in the DBLC





Concepts of the day in the DBLC





PostGres Basics



Ways to use psql in the shell/term:

| \$ psq1 | connects to postgres server |
|-----------------------|------------------------------|
| \$ psql -U [USERNAME] | connects with given username |

\$ psql [DBNAME] connects to a given database

\$ psql < script.sql reads file script.sql and send commands to psql</pre>

connecte to nectarge corver

Try it live:

- Open file sql/lecture_create.sql in atom
- Use it to create a "dsilecture" database on your psql server

PostGres Basics



Useful psql commands at the prompt [link]:

\h SQL help

\? psql commands help

\1 List all the tables in the database

\d Describe the table schema

\d db name Describe tables for a specific db

\connect db name Connects to a database

Try it live: Connect to "dsilecture" and describe schema of table "customer"

Creating a table with a schema



```
table name —
              CREATE TABLE customers (
                  id INTEGER PRIMARY KEY,
                  name VARCHAR(50), ←
                                                        columns / fields type
                  age INTEGER,
columns / fields
                  gender VARCHAR(1),
       name
                  city VARCHAR (255),
                  state VARCHAR(2) );
```

Inserting values in a table



```
records and their values

TINSERT INTO products (id, name, price) VALUES

(1, 'soccer ball', 20.5),

(2, 'iPod', 200),

(3, 'headphones', 50);
```

SQL Queries for table creation / maintenance



```
Creating a table from query:
    CREATE [TEMPORARY] TABLE table AS <SQL query>;
Inserting records in a table:
    INSERT INTO table [(c1,c2,c3,...)] VALUES (v1,v2,v3,...);
Updating records:
    UPDATE table SET c1=v1,c2=v2,... WHERE cX=vX;
Delete records:
    DELETE FROM table WHERE cX=vX;
Change model (add, drop, modify columns):
    ALTER TABLE table [DROP/ADD/ALTER] column [datatype];
Delete a table:
    DROP TABLE table:
```

Designing a database with keys



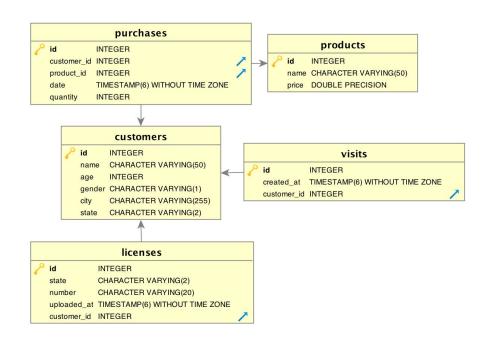
Primary Key

A primary key is a special column of a table that uniquely identifies that entry.

A primary key is not always an integer; it could be a combination of columns, hash, timestamp..etc.,

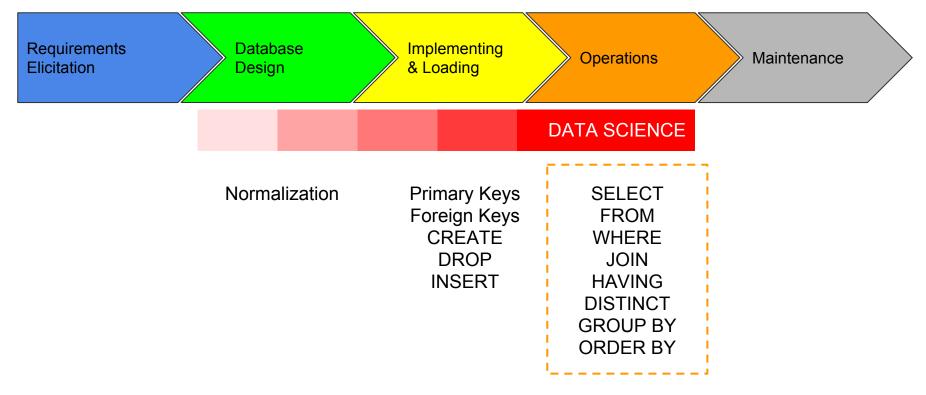
Foreign Keys

Foreign Keys are columns that reference some other entry in the database.



Concepts of the day in the DBLC





SQL Syntax



All SQL queries have three main ingredient:

SELECT *What* data do you want?

Where do you want to get the data from?

WHERE *Under what* conditions?

SQL is Declarative rather than Imperative. That is, you tell the machine what you want and it (database optimizer) decides how to do it

Advanced: You can use EXPLAIN to look at the how

SQL Queries



Select the columns name, age from the table users.

SELECT name, age FROM customers

SQL always returns a table, so the output of the query above is a sub-table of users with 2 columns.

Select name and age for every user in users who live in CA.

SELECT name, age
FROM customers
WHERE state = 'CA'

SQL Examples



Open file sql/lecture_examples.sql

Run them in psql

JOIN



JOIN clause used to query across multiple tables using foreign keys

Every JOIN has two segments:

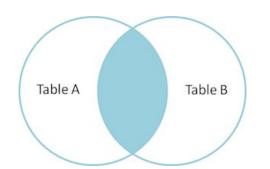
Specifying the tables to JOIN Specifying the columns to match

JOIN types



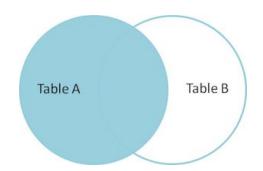
INNER JOIN

discards any entries that do not have a match between the tables based on the given keys.



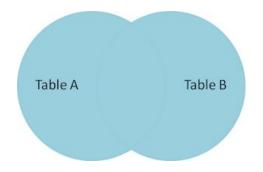
LEFT OUTER JOIN

keeps all entries
in the left table
regardless of
whether a match is found
in the right table



FULL OUTER JOIN

will keep the rows of both tables no matter what



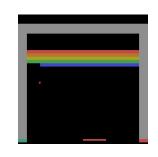
Question! (JOIN the fun)



How many rows would result in (inner join, left join, right join, full outer join) on department_id?

| employee_id | department_id | name | salary |
|-------------|---------------|--------|--------|
| 2 | 1 | Jon | 40000 |
| 7 | 1 | Linda | 50000 |
| 12 | 2 | Ashley | 15000 |
| 1 | 0 | Mike | 80000 |

| department_id | location | |
|---------------|----------|--|
| 1 | NY | |
| 2 | SF | |
| 3 | Austin | |



Subqueries



```
In general, you can replace any table name with a SELECT statement.

SELECT ..... FROM (SELECT ....)

If a query returns a single value, you can treat it as such.

WHERE var1 = (SELECT ....)

If a query returns a single column, you can treat it sort of like a list/vector

WHERE var1 IN (SELECT ....)
```

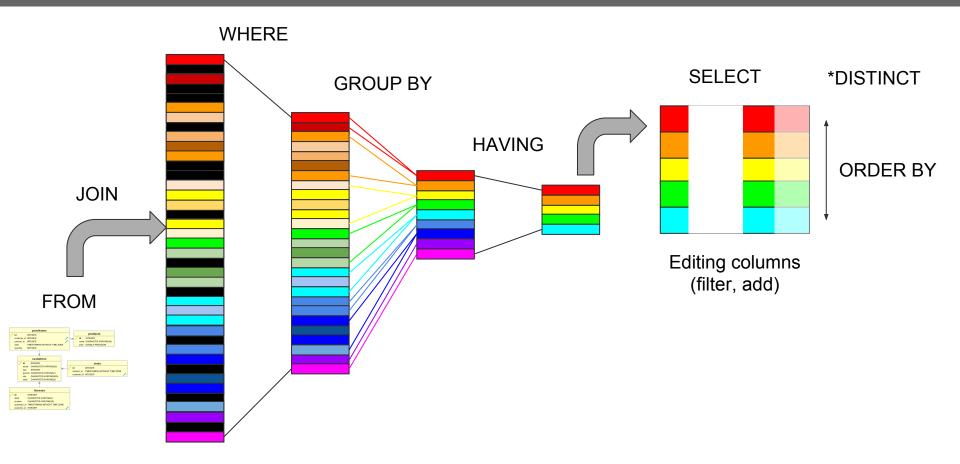
Order of Evaluation of a SQL SELECT Statement



- 1. FROM + JOIN: first the product of all tables is formed
- 2. WHERE: the where clause filters rows that do not meet the search condition
- 3. GROUP BY + (COUNT, SUM, etc): the rows are grouped using the columns in the group by clause and the aggregation functions are applied on the grouping
- 4. HAVING: like the WHERE clause, but can be applied after aggregation
- 5. SELECT: the targeted list of columns are evaluated and returned
- 6. DISTINCT: duplicate rows are eliminated
- 7. ORDER BY: the resulting rows are sorted

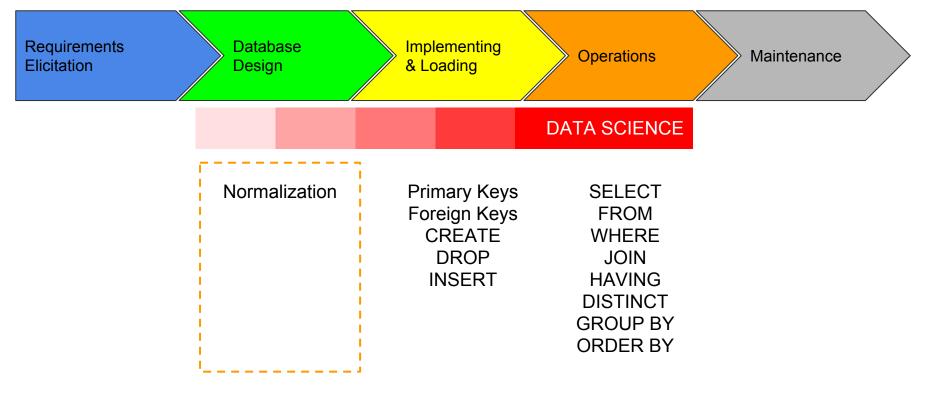
Order of Evaluation of a SQL SELECT Statement





Concepts of the day in the DBLC

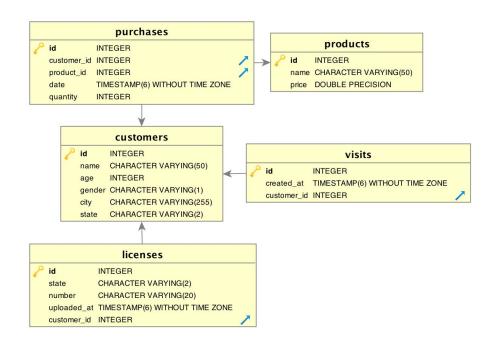




Database Normalization



- Minimizes Redundancy, for example:
 - Details about a user(address, age) are only stored once (in a users table)
 - Any other table (eg. purchases) where this data might be relevant, only references the user id
 - Choose Normalized or Denormalized
 Schemas based on the use case:
 - Heavy reporting (Data Warehouse)
 - Transactional Systems (Ordering System)





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