

## SQL: Part I

CompSci 316

Introduction to Database Systems

## Announcements (Tue. Sep. 17)<sup>2</sup>

- ❖ Homework #1 due midnight tonight
- ❖ Homework #2 assigned

## SQL<sup>3</sup>

- ❖ SQL: Structured Query Language
  - Pronounced “S-Q-L” or “sequel”
  - The standard query language supported by most commercial DBMS
- ❖ A brief history
  - IBM System R
  - ANSI SQL89
  - ANSI SQL92 (SQL2)
  - ANSI SQL99 (SQL3)
  - ANSI SQL 2003 (added OLAP, XML, etc.)
  - ANSI SQL 2006 (added more XML)
  - ANSI SQL 2008, ...

## Creating and dropping tables<sup>4</sup>

- ❖ CREATE TABLE *table\_name*  
(..., *column\_name<sub>i</sub>* *column\_type<sub>i</sub>*, ...);
- ❖ DROP TABLE *table\_name*;
- ❖ Examples

```
create table Student (SID integer,
                     name varchar(30), email varchar(30),
                     age integer, GPA float);
create table Course (CID char(10), title varchar(100));
create table Enroll (SID integer, CID char(10));
drop table Student;
drop table Course;
drop table Enroll;
-- everything from -- to the end of the line is ignored.
-- SQL is insensitive to white space.
-- SQL is insensitive to case (e.g., ...Course... is equivalent to
-- ...COURSE...)
```

## Basic queries: SFW statement<sup>5</sup>

- ❖ **SELECT  $A_1, A_2, \dots, A_n$**   
**FROM  $R_1, R_2, \dots, R_m$**   
**WHERE *condition*;**
- ❖ Also called an SPJ (select-project-join) query
- ❖ Corresponds to (but not really equivalent to) relational algebra query:  
$$\pi_{A_1, A_2, \dots, A_n}(\sigma_{\text{condition}}(R_1 \times R_2 \times \dots \times R_m))$$

## Example: reading a table<sup>6</sup>

- ❖ **SELECT \* FROM *Student*;**
  - Single-table query, so no cross product here
  - WHERE clause is optional
  - \* is a short hand for “all columns”

## 7 Example: selection and projection

- ❖ Name of students under 18
  - `SELECT name FROM Student WHERE age < 18;`
- ❖ When was Lisa born?
  - `SELECT 2013 - age`  
`FROM Student`  
`WHERE name = 'Lisa';`
  - `SELECT` list can contain expressions
    - Can also use built-in functions such as `SUBSTR`, `ABS`, etc.
  - String literals (case sensitive) are enclosed in single quotes

## 8 Example: join

- ❖ SID's and names of students taking courses with the word "Database" in their titles
  - `SELECT Student.SID, Student.name`  
`FROM Student, Enroll, Course`  
`WHERE Student.SID = Enroll.SID`  
`AND Enroll.CID = Course.CID`  
`AND title LIKE '%Database%';`
  - `LIKE` matches a string against a pattern
    - `%` matches any sequence of 0 or more characters
  - Okay to omit `table_name` in `table_name.column_name` if `column_name` is unique

## 9 Example: rename

- ❖ SID's of all pairs of classmates
  - Relational algebra query:
 
$$\pi_{e_1.SID, e_2.SID}(\rho_{e_1} \text{Enroll} \bowtie_{e_1.CID = e_2.CID \wedge e_1.SID > e_2.SID} \rho_{e_2} \text{Enroll})$$
  - SQL:
 

```
SELECT e1.SID AS SID1, e2.SID AS SID2
  FROM Enroll AS e1, Enroll AS e2
 WHERE e1.CID = e2.CID
   AND e1.SID > e2.SID;
```
  - `AS` keyword is completely optional

## 10 A more complicated example

- ❖ Titles of all courses that Bart and Lisa are taking together
 

```
SELECT c.title
  FROM Student sb, Student sl, Enroll eb, Enroll el, Course c
 WHERE sb.name = 'Bart' AND sl.name = 'Lisa'
   AND eb.SID = sb.SID AND el.SID = sl.SID
   AND eb.CID = c.CID AND el.CID = c.CID;
```

Tip: Write the `FROM` clause first, then `WHERE`, and then `SELECT`

## 11 Why SFW statements?

- ❖ Out of many possible ways of structuring SQL statements, why did the designers choose `SELECT-FROM-WHERE`?
  - A large number of queries can be written using only selection, projection, and cross product (or join)
  - Any query that uses only these operators can be written in a canonical form:  $\pi_L(\sigma_p(R_1 \times \dots \times R_m))$ 
    - Example:  $\pi_{R,A,S,B}(R \bowtie_{p_1} S) \bowtie_{p_2} (\pi_{T,C} \sigma_{p_3} T)$   
 $= \pi_{R,A,S,B,T,C} \sigma_{p_1 \wedge p_2 \wedge p_3}(R \times S \times T)$
  - `SELECT-FROM-WHERE` captures this canonical form

## 12 Set versus bag semantics

- ❖ Set
  - No duplicates
  - Relational model and algebra use set semantics
- ❖ Bag
  - Duplicates allowed
  - Number of duplicates is significant
  - SQL uses bag semantics by default

## Set versus bag example

Enroll		$\pi_{SID} \text{Enroll}$
SID	CID	SID
142	CPS316	142
142	CPS310	123
123	CPS316	857
857	CPS316	456
857	CPS330	—
456	CPS310	—
—	—	—

SELECT SID  
FROM Enroll;

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## A case for bag semantics

- ❖ Efficiency
  - Saves time of eliminating duplicates
- ❖ Which one is more useful?
  - $\pi_{GPA} \text{Student}$
  - SELECT GPA FROM Student;
  - The first query just returns all possible GPA's
  - The second query returns the actual GPA distribution
- ❖ Besides, SQL provides the option of set semantics with DISTINCT keyword

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## Forcing set semantics

- ❖ SID's of all pairs of classmates
  - SELECT e1.SID AS SID1, e2.SID AS SID2  
FROM Enroll AS e1, Enroll AS e2  
WHERE e1.CID = e2.CID  
AND e1.SID > e2.SID;
    - Say Bart and Lisa both take CPS316 and CPS310
  - SELECT DISTINCT e1.SID AS SID1, e2.SID AS SID2
    - With DISTINCT, all duplicate (SID1, SID2) pairs are removed from the output

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## Operational semantics of SFW

- ❖ SELECT [DISTINCT]  $E_1, E_2, \dots, E_n$   
FROM  $R_1, R_2, \dots, R_m$   
WHERE condition;
- ❖ For each  $t_1$  in  $R_1$ :
  - For each  $t_2$  in  $R_2$ : ... ...
  - For each  $t_m$  in  $R_m$ :
    - If condition is true over  $t_1, t_2, \dots, t_m$ :  
Compute and output  $E_1, E_2, \dots, E_n$  as a row
- ❖ If DISTINCT is present  
Eliminate duplicate rows in output
- ❖  $t_1, t_2, \dots, t_m$  are often called tuple variables

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## SQL set and bag operations

- ❖ UNION, EXCEPT, INTERSECT
  - Set semantics
    - Duplicates in input tables, if any, are first eliminated
    - Duplicates in result are also eliminated (for UNION)
  - Exactly like set  $\cup$ ,  $-$ , and  $\cap$  in relational algebra
- ❖ UNION ALL, EXCEPT ALL, INTERSECT ALL
  - Bag semantics
  - Think of each row as having an implicit count (the number of times it appears in the table)
  - Bag union: sum up the counts from two tables
  - Bag difference: proper-subtract the two counts
  - Bag intersection: take the minimum of the two counts

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## Examples of bag operations

Bag1	Bag2
fruit	fruit
apple	apple
apple	orange
orange	orange

Bag1 UNION ALL Bag2

fruit
apple
apple
orange
apple
orange
orange

Bag1 INTERSECT ALL Bag2

fruit
apple
orange

## 19 Examples of set versus bag operations

- ❖ *Enroll(SID, CID), ClubMember(club, SID)*
  - `(SELECT SID FROM ClubMember)  
EXCEPT  
(SELECT SID FROM Enroll);`
    - SID's of students who are in clubs but not taking any classes
  - `(SELECT SID FROM ClubMember)  
EXCEPT ALL  
(SELECT SID FROM Enroll);`
    - SID's of students who are in more clubs than classes

## 20 Summary of SQL features covered so far

- ❖ SELECT-FROM-WHERE statements (select-project-join queries)
- ❖ Set and bag operations
- ❖ Next: how to nest SQL queries

## 21 Table expression

- ❖ Use query result as a table
  - In set and bag operations, FROM clauses, etc.
  - A way to "nest" queries
- ❖ Example: names of students who are in more clubs than classes
  - `SELECT DISTINCT name  
FROM Student,  
(SELECT SID FROM ClubMember)  
EXCEPT ALL  
(SELECT SID FROM Enroll)) AS S  
WHERE Student.SID = S.SID;`

## 22 Scalar subqueries

- ❖ A query that returns a single row can be used as a value in WHERE, SELECT, etc.
- ❖ Example: students at the same age as Bart
  - `SELECT * What's Bart's age?  
FROM Student  
WHERE age = (SELECT age  
 FROM Student  
 WHERE name = 'Bart');`
- ❖ Runtime error if subquery returns more than one row
  - Under what condition will this runtime error never occur?
    - name is a key of Student
- ❖ What if subquery returns no rows?
  - The return value is treated as a special value `NULL`, and the comparison fails
- ❖ Can also be used in SELECT to compute a value for an output column

## 23 IN subqueries

- ❖  $x \text{ IN } (\text{subquery})$  checks if  $x$  is in the result of subquery
- ❖ Example: students at the same age as (some) Bart
  - `SELECT * What's Bart's age?  
FROM Student  
WHERE age IN (SELECT age  
 FROM Student  
 WHERE name = 'Bart');`

## 24 EXISTS subqueries

- ❖  $\text{EXISTS } (\text{subquery})$  checks if the result of subquery is non-empty
- ❖ Example: students at the same age as (some) Bart
  - `SELECT *  
FROM Student AS s  
WHERE EXISTS (SELECT * FROM Student  
 WHERE name = 'Bart'  
 AND age = s.age);`
  - This happens to be a correlated subquery—a subquery that references tuple variables in surrounding queries

## Operational semantics of subqueries

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- ❖ SELECT \*  
FROM Student AS s  
WHERE EXISTS (SELECT \* FROM Student  
WHERE name = 'Bart'  
AND age = s.age);
- ❖ For each row s in Student
  - Evaluate the subquery with the appropriate value of s.age
  - If the result of the subquery is not empty, output s.\*
- ❖ The DBMS query optimizer may choose to process the query in an equivalent, but more efficient way (example?)

## Scoping rule of subqueries

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- ❖ To find out which table a column belongs to
  - Start with the immediately surrounding query
  - If not found, look in the one surrounding that; repeat if necessary
- ❖ Use *table\_name.column\_name* notation and AS (renaming) to avoid confusion

## Another example

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```
SELECT * FROM Student s
WHERE EXISTS
  (SELECT * FROM Enroll e
  WHERE [SID] = s.SID
  AND EXISTS
    (SELECT * FROM Enroll
    WHERE [SID] = [s.SID]
    AND CID <> e.CID));
```

Students who are taking at least two courses

## Quantified subqueries

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- ❖ A quantified subquery can be used as a value in a WHERE condition
- ❖ Universal quantification (for all):
  - ... WHERE  $x \text{ op ALL } (\text{subquery}) \dots$
  - True iff for all  $t$  in the result of subquery,  $x \text{ op } t$
- ❖ Existential quantification (exists):
  - ... WHERE  $x \text{ op ANY } (\text{subquery}) \dots$
  - True iff there exists some  $t$  in subquery result such that  $x \text{ op } t$
- ❖ Beware
  - In common parlance, "any" and "all" seem to be synonyms
  - In SQL, ANY really means "some"

## Examples of quantified subqueries

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- ❖ Which students have the highest GPA?
  - SELECT \*  
FROM Student  
WHERE GPA >= ALL  
(SELECT GPA FROM Student);
  - SELECT \*  
FROM Student  
WHERE NOT  
(GPA < ANY (SELECT GPA FROM Student));
- ❖ Use NOT to negate a condition

## More ways of getting the highest GPA

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- ❖ Which students have the highest GPA?
  - SELECT \*  
FROM Student AS s  
WHERE NOT EXISTS  
(SELECT \* FROM Student  
WHERE GPA > s.GPA);
  - SELECT \* FROM Student  
WHERE SID NOT IN  
(SELECT s1.SID  
FROM Student AS s1, Student AS s2  
WHERE s1.GPA < s2.GPA);

## 31 Summary of SQL features covered so far

- ❖ SELECT-FROM-WHERE statements
- ❖ Set and bag operations
- ❖ Table expressions, subqueries
  - Subqueries allow queries to be written in more declarative ways (recall the highest GPA query)
  - But they do not add much expressive power
    - Try translating other forms of subqueries into [NOT] EXISTS, which in turn can be translated into join (and difference)

☞ Next: aggregation and grouping

## 32 Aggregates

- ❖ Standard SQL aggregate functions: COUNT, SUM, AVG, MIN, MAX
- ❖ Example: number of students under 18, and their average GPA
  - SELECT COUNT(\*), AVG(GPA)  
FROM Student  
WHERE age < 18;
  - COUNT(\*) counts the number of rows

## 33 Aggregates with DISTINCT

- ❖ Example: How many students are taking classes?
  - SELECT COUNT(DISTINCT SID)  
FROM Enroll;
- is equivalent to:
  - SELECT COUNT(\*)  
FROM (SELECT DISTINCT SID FROM Enroll);

## 34 GROUP BY

- ❖ SELECT ... FROM ... WHERE ...  
GROUP BY *list\_of\_columns*;
- ❖ Example: find the average GPA for each age group
  - SELECT age, AVG(GPA)  
FROM Student  
GROUP BY age;

## 35 Operational semantics of GROUP BY

SELECT ... FROM ... WHERE ... GROUP BY ...;

- ❖ Compute FROM ( $\times$ )
- ❖ Compute WHERE ( $\sigma$ )
- ❖ Compute GROUP BY: group rows according to the values of GROUP BY columns
- ❖ Compute SELECT for each group ( $\pi$ )
  - For aggregation functions with DISTINCT inputs, first eliminate duplicates within the group

☞ Number of groups = number of rows in the final output

## 36 Example of computing GROUP BY

SELECT age, AVG(GPA) FROM Student GROUP BY age;

SID	name	age	GPA
142	Bart	10	2.3
857	Lisa	8	4.3
123	Milhouse	10	3.1
456	Ralph	8	2.3
...	...	...	...

Compute GROUP BY: group rows according to the values of GROUP BY columns

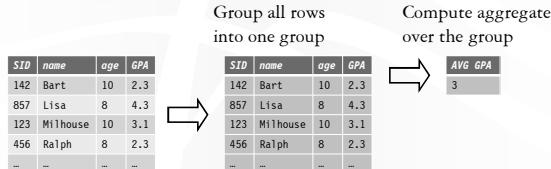
The diagram illustrates the grouping process. An arrow points from the original table to a new table where rows are grouped by age. The new table has four columns: age, AVG GPA, and two empty columns for name and GPA. The rows are grouped into two groups: age 8 with AVG GPA 3.3 and age 10 with AVG GPA 2.7.

age	AVG GPA	name	GPA
8	3.3	...	...
10	2.7	...	...
...	...	...	...

## Aggregates with no GROUP BY

- An aggregate query with no GROUP BY clause represent a special case where all rows go into one group

SELECT AVG(GPA) FROM Student;



## Examples of invalid queries

- SELECT ~~SID~~ age FROM Student GROUP BY age;
  - Recall there is one output row per group
  - There can be multiple SID values per group
- SELECT ~~SID~~ MAX(GPA) FROM Student;
  - Recall there is only one group for an aggregate query with no GROUP BY clause
  - There can be multiple SID values
  - Wishful thinking (that the output SID value is the one associated with the highest GPA) does NOT work
  - Another way of writing the max GPA query?

## HAVING examples

- Find the average GPA for each age group over 10
  - SELECT age, AVG(GPA) FROM Student GROUP BY age HAVING age > 10;
  - Can be written using WHERE without table expressions
- List the average GPA for each age group with more than a hundred students
  - SELECT age, AVG(GPA) FROM Student GROUP BY age HAVING COUNT(\*) > 100;
  - Can be written using WHERE and table expressions

## Restriction on SELECT

- If a query uses aggregation/group by, then every column referenced in SELECT must be either
  - Aggregated, or
  - A GROUP BY column
- This restriction ensures that any SELECT expression produces only one value for each group

## HAVING

- Used to filter groups based on the group properties (e.g., aggregate values, GROUP BY column values)
- SELECT ... FROM ... WHERE ... GROUP BY ... HAVING condition;
  - Compute FROM (x)
  - Compute WHERE ( $\sigma$ )
  - Compute GROUP BY: group rows according to the values of GROUP BY columns
  - Compute HAVING (another  $\sigma$  over the groups)
  - Compute SELECT ( $\pi$ ) for each group that passes HAVING

## Summary of SQL features covered so far

- SELECT-FROM-WHERE statements
- Set and bag operations
- Table expressions, subqueries
- Aggregation and grouping
  - More expressive power than relational algebra
- Next: ordering output rows

## ORDER BY

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- ❖ `SELECT [DISTINCT] ...  
FROM ... WHERE ... GROUP BY ... HAVING ...  
ORDER BY output_column [ASC | DESC], ...;`
- ❖ ASC = ascending, DESC = descending
- ❖ Operational semantics
  - After SELECT list has been computed and optional duplicate elimination has been carried out, sort the output according to ORDER BY specification

## ORDER BY example

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- ❖ List all students, sort them by GPA (descending) and name (ascending)
  - `SELECT SID, name, age, GPA  
FROM Student  
ORDER BY GPA DESC, name;`
  - ASC is the default option
  - Strictly speaking, only output columns can appear in ORDER BY clause (although some DBMS support more)
  - Can use sequence numbers instead of names to refer to output columns: `ORDER BY 4 DESC, 2;`

## Summary of SQL features covered so far

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- ❖ SELECT-FROM-WHERE statements
- ❖ Set and bag operations
- ❖ Table expressions, subqueries
- ❖ Aggregation and grouping
- ❖ Ordering

☞ Next: NULL's, outerjoins, data modification, constraints, ...