

## SQL: Basic concepts

- SQL operates with tables, so the first thing to do is create tables.
- Syntax:  

```
CREATE TABLE <Name> (<attr1> type, ..., <attrN> type)
```
- For example:  

```
CREATE TABLE Movies (title char(20),  
                      director char(10),  
                      actor char(10))  
CREATE TABLE Schedule (theater char(10),  
                        title char(20))
```

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## Types cont'd

- int – signed integer (4 bytes)
- smallint – signed integer (2 bytes)
- real – real numbers.
- In fact, there is a general float type float(*s*), and real is float(*s*) where *s* is implementation defined.
- SQL has many more types, such as date, time, timestamp, character sets in different alphabets, etc.

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## Types

- char(*n*) – fixed length string of exactly *n* characters.  
Example: 'Polanski'
- varchar(*n*) – variable length string of up to *n* characters.  
Example: 'Polanski'. What's the difference? We'll see soon.  
Note: varchar is actually an abbreviation for char varying.
- bit(*n*) – fixed length bit string of exactly *n* bits.  
Example: B'0101', X'C1'
- bit varying(*n*) – variable length bit string of up to *n* bits.

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## Types cont'd: Dates and Times

- date type: keyword DATE followed by a date in an appropriate form, e.g. DATE '2001-12-14'
- time type: keyword TIME followed by a string representing time; SQL uses a 24-hour clock. For example, most of you will have left this room by TIME '18:00:01'
- timestamp type: combines date and time. For example, TIMESTAMP '2001-12-14 11:28:00' is 11:28am on December 14, 2001.
- Operations on these types: they can be compared for equality, and for order. If for two dates  $d_1$  and  $d_2$  we have  $d_1 < d_2$ , then  $d_1$  is earlier than  $d_2$ .

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## Populating tables

- General syntax:  
`INSERT INTO <name> VALUES (...)`
- Examples:  
`INSERT INTO Movies VALUES  
( 'Chinatown', 'Polanski', 'Nicholson' )`  
`INSERT INTO Schedule VALUES ( 'Odeon', 'Chinatown' )`
- More generally, one can use other queries for insertion:  
`INSERT INTO Name  
( SELECT ... FROM ... WHERE ... )`  
as long as the attributes in the result of the query as the same as those of Name.

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## Dropping columns

- `ALTER TABLE Name DROP COLUMN columnname`
- Example:  
`ALTER TABLE Schedule DROP COLUMN screen#`

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## Dropping tables

- `DROP TABLE Name`  
removes the table from the database.

## Changing tables

- Adding attributes:  
`ALTER TABLE Name ADD COLUMN  
newcolumn type`  
Example:  
`ALTER TABLE Schedule ADD COLUMN  
screen# smallint`

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## Default values

- Could be specified for some attributes:  
`CREATE TABLE Name (... <attribute> <type> DEFAULT <value> ...)`

Example:

```
CREATE TABLE F (A1 INT DEFAULT 0, A2 INT)
INSERT INTO F VALUES (1,1)
select * from f
A1      A2
-----
1      1
```

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### Default values cont'd

```
INSERT INTO F (A2) VALUES (3)
```

```
SELECT * FROM f
```

```
A1      A2
-----
1      0
1      3
```

### SQL and constraints

- Keys are the most common type of constraints
- One should declare them in CREATE TABLE
- Example:

```
CREATE TABLE Employee
(EmpId int not null primary key,
 FirstName char(20),
 LastName char(20),
 Dept char(10),
 Salary int default 0)
```

- not null means that the value of the attribute must always be present.

### Fixed and variable length

```
CREATE TABLE foo1 (AA CHAR(10))
INSERT INTO foo1 VALUES ('xx')
SELECT LENGTH(AA) AS X FROM foo1
```

```
X
-----
10
```

```
CREATE TABLE foo2 (AA VARCHAR(10))
INSERT INTO foo2 VALUES ('xx')
SELECT LENGTH(AA) AS X FROM foo2
```

```
X
-----
2
```

### Primary keys

- CREATE TABLE specifies that certain constraints must be satisfied
- SQL then checks if each update preserves constraints
- Declare a table:  
create table r (a1 int primary key not null, a2 int)
- Insertions:

```
db2 => insert into r values (1,2)
DB20000I The SQL command completed successfully.
db2 => insert into r values (1,3)
```

DB21094E The command was processed as an SQL statement because it was not a valid Command Line Processor command. During SQL processing it returned: SQL003N One or more values in the INSERT statement, UPDATE statement, or foreign key update caused by a DELETE statement are not valid because they would produce duplicate rows for a table with a primary key, unique constraint, or unique index. SQLSTATE=23505

#### Another way to declare primary keys

```
CREATE TABLE Employee
(EmpId int not null primary key,
 FirstName char(20),
 LastName char(20),
 Dept char(10),
 Salary int default 0)
primary key (EmpId)
```

These are equivalent.

#### More than one key

- *Primary* in primary keys refers to primary means of accessing a relation.
- What if we have another key, e.g., (FirstName, LastName)
- We cannot declare it as another primary key.
- What does it mean that attributes  $K$  form a key for  $R$ ?
- It means that for any tuple  $t$  of values for  $K$ , there exists a *unique* tuple  $t'$  in  $R$  with  $\pi_K(t') = t$ .
- Hence we have unique declaration is SQL.

#### UNIQUE in SQL

- Revised example:

```
CREATE TABLE Employee
(EmpId int not null,
 FirstName char(20) not null,
 LastName char(20) not null,
 Dept char(10),
 Salary int default 0,
 primary key (EmpId),
 unique (FirstName, LastName))
```

- Unique specifications are verified in the same way as primary key.  
create table R (A not null, unique (A))  
insert into R values 1  
works fine but the following  
insert into R values 1 gives an error message.

#### Inclusion constraints: reminder

- *Referential* integrity constraints: they talk about attributes of one relation but refer to values in another one.
- There is an inclusion dependency  $R[A_1, \dots, A_n] \subseteq S[B_1, \dots, B_n]$  when
$$\pi_{A_1, \dots, A_n}(R) \subseteq \pi_{B_1, \dots, B_n}(S)$$
- Most often inclusion constraints occur as a part of a *foreign key*
- Foreign key is a conjunction of a key and an ID:
$$R[A_1, \dots, A_n] \subseteq S[B_1, \dots, B_n] \text{ and } \{B_1, \dots, B_n\} \rightarrow \text{all attributes of } S$$
- Meaning: we find a key for relation  $S$  in relation  $R$ .

### Inclusion dependencies in SQL

```
CREATE TABLE Movies
  (Title char(20), Director char(10), Actor char(10))

CREATE TABLE Schedule
  (Title char(20) references Movies(Title),
  Theater char(20))
```

Semantics:

Schedule[Title]  $\subseteq$  Movies[Title]

Warning: it is in the standard but doesn't seem to be working in the current version of db2.

### Foreign keys in SQL cont'd

```
CREATE TABLE Employee
  (FirstName char(20) not null,
  LastName char(20) not null,
  ....
  foreign key (FirstName, LastName)
  references Person(FirstName, LastName))

CREATE TABLE Student
  (FName char(20) not null,
  LName char(20) not null,
  ....
  foreign key (FName, LName)
  references Person(FirstName, LastName))
```

### Foreign keys in SQL

General definition:

```
CREATE TABLE Person
  (FirstName char(20) not null,
  LastName char(20) not null,
  ...
  primary key (FirstName, LastName))
```

### Foreign keys in SQL cont'd

In some systems, you can only use a restricted form of this definition:

```
CREATE TABLE Employee
  (FirstName char(20) not null,
  LastName char(20) not null,
  ....
  foreign key (FirstName, LastName)
  references Person)

In general:

CREATE TABLE T1 (...
... foreign key <attr1,...,attrN>
  references T2)
```

In T2, <attr1,...,attrN> must be present and form a primary key.

## Duplicates

```
SELECT * FROM T1
```

```
A1 A2
----
1 2
2 1
1 1
1 1
2 2
```

```
SELECT A1 FROM T1
```

```
A1
--
1
2
1
2
```

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## Duplicates cont'd

- SELECT is not exactly the projection of relational algebra.
- Projection returns the set  $\{1, 2\}$
- SELECT keeps duplicates.
- How to remove duplicates? Use SELECT DISTINCT

```
SELECT DISTINCT A1 FROM T1
```

```
A1
--
1
2
```

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## Dealing with duplicates

- So far, in relational algebra and calculus, we operated with sets. SQL, on the other hand, deals with bags, that is, sets with duplicates.
- This requires small changes to the operations of the relational algebra.
- Projection  $\pi$  no longer removes duplicates:

$$\pi_A \left( \begin{array}{c|c} A & B \\ \hline a_1 & b_1 \\ a_2 & b_2 \\ a_1 & b_2 \end{array} \right) = \{a_1, a_2, a_1\}$$

Notice that  $a_1$  occurs twice.

- There is a special duplicate elimination operation:  
duplicate\_elimination( $\{a_1, a_2, a_1\}$ ) =  $\{a_1, a_2\}$

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## Dealing with duplicates: union

- The union operation just puts two bags together:

$$S = \{1, 1, 2, 2, 3, 3\}$$

$$T = \{1, 2, 2, 2, 3\}$$

$$S \cup T = \{1, 1, 1, 2, 2, 2, 2, 2, 3, 3, 3\}$$

That is, if  $a$  occurs  $k$  times in  $S$ , and  $m$  times in  $T$ , then it occurs  $k + m$  times in  $S \cup T$ .

- This is, however, *not* the UNION operation of SQL. SQL's UNION does eliminate duplicates.
- If you want to keep duplicates, use UNION ALL:

```
SELECT * FROM S
UNION ALL
SELECT * FROM T
```

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#### Dealing with duplicates: intersection

- The intersection operation keeps the minimum number of occurrences of an element:

$$\begin{aligned} S &= \{1, 1, 2, 2, 3, 3\} \\ T &= \{1, 2, 2, 2, 3\} \\ S \cap T &= \{1, 2, 2, 3\} \end{aligned}$$

That is, if  $a$  occurs  $k$  times in  $S$ , and  $m$  times in  $T$ , then it occurs  $\min(k, m)$  times in  $S \cap T$ .

- This is, again, *not* the INTERSECT operation of SQL. SQL's INTERSECT, just as UNION, eliminates duplicates.
- If you want to keep duplicates, use INTERSECT ALL:

```
SELECT * FROM S
INTERSECT ALL
SELECT * FROM T
```

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#### SQL is NOT a programming language

- Calculate  $2 + 2$  in SQL
- Step 1: there must be a table to operate with:  
create table foo (a int)
- $2 + 2$  itself must go into selection. We also have to give it a name (attribute).
- Try:

```
db2 => select 2+2 as X from foo
X
-----
0 record(s) selected.
```

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#### Dealing with duplicates: difference

- The difference operation works as follows:

$$\begin{aligned} S &= \{1, 1, 2, 2, 3, 3\} \\ T &= \{1, 2, 2, 2, 3\} \\ S - T &= \{1, 3\} \end{aligned}$$

That is, if  $a$  occurs  $k$  times in  $S$ , and  $m$  times in  $T$ , then it occurs  $k - m$  times in  $S - T$ , if  $k > m$ , and does not occur at all in  $S - T$  if  $k \leq m$ .

- This is, again, *not* the EXCEPT operation of SQL. SQL's EXCEPT, just as UNION and INTERSECT, eliminates duplicates.
- If you want to keep duplicates, use EXCEPT ALL:

```
SELECT * FROM S
EXCEPT ALL
SELECT * FROM T
```

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#### SQL is NOT a programming language cont'd

- Problem: there were no tuples in foo.
- Let's put in some:

```
insert into foo values 1
insert into foo values 5
select 2+2 as X from foo
```

```
X
-----
4
4
```

```
2 record(s) selected.
```

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### SQL is NOT a programming language cont'd

- It is also important to eliminate duplicates.
- So finally:

```
db2 => select distinct 2+2 as X from foo
```

```
X
-----
4
1 record(s) selected.
```

### More on the WHERE clause

- Once we have types such as strings, numbers, we have type-specific operations, and hence type-specific selection conditions
- create table finance (title char(20), budget int, gross int)

```
insert into finance values ('Shining', 19, 100)
insert into finance values ('Star wars', 11, 513)
insert into finance values ('Wild wild west', 170, 80)
```

### Empty set traps

- Assume there are three relations,  $S, T, R$ , with the same attribute  $A$ .
- Query: compute  $Q = R \cap (S \cup T)$ .
- A seemingly correct way to write it:  

```
SELECT R.A
FROM R, S, T
WHERE R.A=S.A OR R.A=T.A
```
- Let  $R = S = \{1\}, T = \emptyset$ . Then  $Q = \{1\}$ , but the SQL query produces the empty table.
- Why?

### More on the WHERE clause

- Find movies that lost money:  

```
select title
from finance
where gross < budget
```
- Find movies that made at least 10 times as much as they cost:  

```
select title
from finance
where gross > 10 * budget
```
- Find profit each movie made:  

```
select title, gross - budget as profit
from finance
where gross - budget > 0
```

### More on the WHERE clause cont'd

- Is Kubrick spelled with a "k" or "ck" at the end?
- No need to remember.

```
SELECT Title, Director
FROM Movies
WHERE director LIKE 'Kubr%'
```

- Is Polanski spelled with a "y" or with an "i"?

```
SELECT Title, Director
FROM Movies
WHERE director LIKE 'Polansk_'
```

### LIKE comparisons: telling the truth

- ```
SELECT Title, Director
FROM Movies
WHERE director LIKE 'Polansk_'
```

 returns the empty set
- Because sometimes  $x = y$  is true, but  $x \text{ LIKE } y$  is false!
- The reason: trailing spaces
- `'Polanski ' = 'Polanski '` is true, but `'Polanski ' LIKE 'Polanski '` is false.
- Director was defined as `char(10)`, so `'Polanski '` is really `'Polanski '` and thus doesn't match `'Polanski_'`.

### LIKE comparisons

- attribute LIKE pattern
- Patterns are built from:
  - letters
    - - stands for any letter
    - % - stands for any substring, including empty
  - Examples:
    - address LIKE '%Toronto%'
    - pattern '\_a\_b\_' matches cacbc, aabba, etc
    - pattern '%a/b\_' matches ccaccbc, aaaabcbcbdb, aba, etc

### LIKE and trailing spaces

- Solution 1: use `varchar` (or `char` varying) declarations.
- Solution 2: use `'Polansk%'` as a pattern
- Solution 3: use the `TRIM` function:

```
SELECT Title, Director
FROM Movies
WHERE TRIM(TRAILING FROM Director) LIKE 'Polansk_'
```
- `TRIM TRAILING` eliminates trailing spaces (`LEADING` eliminates leading spaces, `BOTH` eliminates both leading and trailing spaces)
- Warning: db2 doesn't seem to like it ...

Adding attributes ... towards aggregate queries

```
ALTER TABLE Movies ADD COLUMN Length int DEFAULT 0
```

```
UPDATE Movies  
SET Length = 131  
WHERE title='Chinatown'
```

```
UPDATE Movies  
SET Length = 146  
WHERE title='Shining'
```

adds attribute Length, and puts in values of that attribute.

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More examples that use arithmetic

Query: Suppose I want to see a movie by Lucas. I can't get to a theater before 8pm (20:00), and I must be out by 11pm (23:00). I want to see: theater, and the exact time I'll be out, if my conditions are satisfied.

```
SELECT S.Theater, S.Time + (M.Length/60.0) AS Outtime  
FROM Schedule S, Movies M  
WHERE M.Title=S.Title  
AND M.Director='Lucas'  
AND S.Time >= 20  
AND S.Time + (M.Length/60.0) < 23
```

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Adding attributes cont'd

```
ALTER TABLE Schedule ADD COLUMN Time int DEFAULT 0
```

```
UPDATE Schedule  
SET Time = 18  
WHERE Theater='Le Champo' AND Title='Chinatown'
```

```
INSERT INTO Movies VALUES ('Le Champo', 'Chinatown', 21)
```

adds attribute Time and puts in values.

Note that there could be more than one showing of a movie, hence we use both UPDATE and INSERT.

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Simple aggregate queries

Count the number of tuples in Movies

```
SELECT COUNT(*)  
FROM Movies
```

Add up all movie lengths

```
SELECT SUM(Length)  
FROM Movies
```

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### Duplicates and aggregation

Find the number of directors.

Naive approach:

```
SELECT COUNT(Director)
FROM Movies
```

returns the number of tuples in Movies.

Because: SELECT does not remove duplicates.

Correct query:

```
SELECT COUNT(DISTINCT Director)
FROM Movies
```

### Aggregation and duplicates

| Foo1 | A1 | A2 | A3 |
|------|----|----|----|
| a    | 1  | 5  |    |
| a    | 1  | 2  |    |
| a    | 2  | 2  |    |
| a    | 2  | 3  |    |

```
SELECT A1, AVG(A3)
FROM Foo1
GROUP BY A1
```

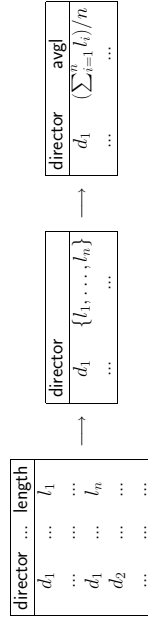
|    |   |
|----|---|
| A1 | 2 |
| a  | ? |

### Aggregation and grouping

For each director, return the average running time of his/her movies.

```
SELECT Director, AVG(Length) AS AvgL
FROM Movies
GROUP BY Director
```

How does grouping work?



### Aggregation and duplicates cont'd

One approach: take all the values of A3 and compute their average:

$$\frac{5+2+2+3}{4} = 3$$

Another approach: only attributes A1 and A3 are relevant for the query.

$$\pi_{A1,A3} \left( \begin{array}{c|cc} A1 & A2 & A3 \\ \hline a & 1 & 5 \\ a & 1 & 2 \\ a & 2 & 2 \\ a & 2 & 3 \end{array} \right) = \left( \begin{array}{c|c} A1 & A3 \\ \hline a & 5 \\ a & 2 \\ a & 3 \end{array} \right)$$

$$\text{Average} = \frac{5+2+3}{3} = \frac{10}{3}$$

### Aggregation and duplicates cont'd

- SQL approach: always keep duplicates.
- The right answer is thus 3.
- However, one has to be careful:  
SELECT AVG(A2) FROM Foo1  
returns 1
- The reason: rounding
- Solution: cast as real numbers:  
SELECT AVG(CAST (A2 AS REAL)) FROM Foo1  
returns 1.5
- Syntax for CAST  
CAST (<attribute> AS <type>)

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### Other aggregates

- MIN – minimum value of a column
- MAX – maximum value of a column
- SUM – adds up all elements in a column
- COUNT – counts the number of values in a column
- MIN and MAX produce the same result: regardless of duplicates
- SUM adds up all elements in a given column;  
SUM DISTINCT adds up all distinct elements in a given column
- COUNT counts elements in a given column;  
COUNT DISTINCT counts distinct elements in a given column

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### More on duplicates

- What if we want to eliminate duplicates before computing aggregates?
- Use DISTINCT
- SELECT AVG(DISTINCT A3) FROM Foo1  
produces 3, due to rounding, but
- SELECT AVG(DISTINCT CAST (A3 AS REAL)) FROM Foo1  
produces, as expected, 3.3333...

### More on rounding

- A dirty trick to cast integers as reals:  
SELECT AVG(A3 + 0.0) FROM Foo1

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### SUM, COUNT, and duplicates

- SELECT COUNT(A3) FROM Foo1  
produces 4
- SELECT COUNT(DISTINCT A3) FROM Foo1  
produces 3
- SELECT SUM(A3) FROM Foo1  
produces 12
- SELECT SUM(DISTINCT A3) FROM Foo1  
produces 10
- SELECT MIN(A3) FROM Foo1 and  
SELECT MIN(DISTINCT A3) FROM Foo1  
give the same result.
- The same holds for MAX.

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### Selection based on aggregation results

- Find directors and average length of their movies, provided they made at least one movie that is longer than 2 hours.
- Idea: calculate two aggregates: `AVG (Length)` and `MAX (Length)` and only choose directors for whom `MAX (Length) > 120`.
- SQL has a special syntax for it: `HAVING`.
- `SELECT Director, AVG(Length+0.0)`  
`FROM Movies`  
`GROUP BY Director`  
`HAVING MAX(Length) > 120`

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### Aggregation, join and duplicates

- One could have unexpected results due to duplicates.

- Two tables:

| R\A1 | A2 |
|------|----|
| 'a'  | 1  |
| 'b'  | 2  |

| S\A1 | A3 |
|------|----|
| 'a'  | 5  |
| 'a'  | 7  |
| 'b'  | 3  |

- Query:

```
SELECT R.A1, SUM(R.A2)
FROM R, S
WHERE R.A1=S.A1 AND R.A1='a',
GROUP BY R.A1
HAVING MIN(S.A3) > 0
```

- What is the result?

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### Aggregation and join

- Aggregate queries may use more than one relation.
- For each theater showing at least one movie that is longer than 2 hours, find the average length of movies playing there.
- `SELECT S.Theater, AVG(CAST (M.Length AS REAL))`  
`FROM Schedule S, Movies M`  
`WHERE S.Title=M.Title`  
`GROUP BY S.Theater`  
`HAVING MAX(M.Length) > 120`
- What it says: produce the join `Movies ⋈ Schedule`, and over that join run the aggregate query that computes the average.

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### Aggregation, join and duplicates cont'd

- It appears that table S is irrelevant, and the result should be the same as that of:

```
SELECT A1, SUM(A2)
FROM R
WHERE A1='a',
GROUP BY A1
```

- This returns ('a', 1).
- However, the original query returns ('a', 2).

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### Aggregation, join and duplicates cont'd

- Why is this happening?
- Because the query first constructs the join  $R \bowtie S$ :

|               |     |    |    |
|---------------|-----|----|----|
| R $\bowtie$ S | A1  | A2 | A3 |
|               | 'a' | 1  | 5  |
|               | 'a' | 1  | 7  |
|               | 'b' | 2  | 3  |

- and then runs the aggregate part against it, that is:  

```
SELECT A1, SUM(A2)
FROM R  $\bowtie$  S
WHERE A1='a'
GROUP BY A1
HAVING MIN(A3) > 0
```
- Of course this returns ('a',2)

### Aggregates in WHERE

- Results of aggregates can be used for comparisons not only in the HAVING clause.
- Find movies that run longer than the longest currently playing movie:

```
SELECT M.Title
FROM Movies M
WHERE M.Length > (SELECT MAX(M1.Length)
FROM Movies M1, Schedule S
WHERE M1.title=S.title)
```

### Aggregation, join and duplicates cont'd

- One has to be careful about duplicates even if it appears that there aren't any.
- The correct way to write this query is with DISTINCT:  

```
SELECT R.A1, SUM(DISTINCT R.A2)
FROM R, S
WHERE R.A1=S.A1 AND R.A1='a'
GROUP BY R.A1
HAVING MIN(S.A3) > 0
```
- and it returns ('a',1), as expected.

### Aggregates in WHERE cont'd

- Be careful not to write:  

```
SELECT M.Title
FROM Movies M
WHERE M.Length > MAX(SELECT M1.Length
FROM Movies M1, Schedule S
WHERE M1.title=S.title)
```

which is incorrect.
- Instead, you can write in SQL:  

```
SELECT M.Title
FROM Movies M
WHERE M.Length > ALL(SELECT M1.Length
FROM Movies M1, Schedule S
WHERE M1.title=S.title)
```

### Aggregates in WHERE cont'd

- A similar query:
- Find movies that are shorter than some currently playing movie:

```
SELECT M.Title
FROM Movies M
WHERE M.Length < (SELECT MAX(M1.Length)
                  FROM Movies M1, Schedule S
                  WHERE M1.title=S.title)
```

or

```
SELECT M.Title
FROM Movies M
WHERE M.Length < ANY(SELECT M1.Length
                     FROM Movies M1, Schedule S
                     WHERE M1.title=S.title)
```

- Note that it's ANY but not ALL in this case.

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### ALL vs ANY cont'd

- `<value> <condition> ANY ( <query> )` is true if for some `<value1>` in the result of `<query>`, `<value> <condition> <value1>` is true.
- For example,
  - `5 < ANY(∅)` is false;
  - `5 < ANY({1,2,3,4})` is false;
  - `5 < ANY({1,2,3,4,5,6})` is true.

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### ALL vs ANY

- `<value> <condition> ALL ( <query> )` is true if either:
  - `<query>` evaluates to the empty set, or
  - for every `<value1>` in the result of `<query>`, `<value> <condition> <value1>` is true.
- For example,
  - `5 > ALL(∅)` is true;
  - `5 > ALL({1,2,3})` is true;
  - `5 > ALL({1,2,3,4,5,6})` is false.

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### Aggregates in WHERE cont'd

- Nor all comparisons with aggregate results can be replaced by ANY and ALL comparisons.
- Is there a movie whose length is at least 10% of the total lengths of all other movies combined?

```
SELECT M.Title
FROM Movies M
WHERE M.Length >= 0.1 * (SELECT SUM(M1.Length)
                        FROM Movies M1
                        WHERE M1.title <> M.title)
```

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### Joins in queries

- When we explained the semantics of aggregate queries, we used the following "query":

```
SELECT A1, SUM(A2)
FROM R ⋈ S
WHERE A1='a'
GROUP BY A1
HAVING MIN(A3) > 0
```
- This isn't an SQL query – it uses  $\bowtie$  from relational algebra.
- But we can write this in SQL:

```
SELECT A1, SUM(A2)
FROM R NATURAL JOIN S
WHERE A1='a'
GROUP BY A1
HAVING MIN(A3) > 0
```

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### Theta joins

- Expressions like  $R \text{ JOIN } S \text{ ON } c$  are usually called *theta-joins* and are often included in relational algebra:

$$R \bowtie_{\theta} S$$

- This is not a new operation of the relational algebra but simply an abbreviation for  $\sigma_{\theta}(R \times S)$ ,
- Reason for the name: traditionally, conditions were denoted by  $\theta$ .

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### Joins in queries cont'd

- Not all systems understand NATURAL JOIN, certainly not db2.
- There is a more general syntax for joins:

```
SELECT A1, SUM(A2)
FROM R JOIN S ON R.A1=S.A1
WHERE A1='a'
GROUP BY A1
HAVING MIN(A3) > 0
```

- $R \text{ JOIN } S \text{ ON } c$  computes

$$\sigma_c(R \times S)$$

- Condition  $c$  could be more complicated than simple attribute equality, e.g.  $R.A2 > S.A3 - 4$ .

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### Joins in queries cont'd

- Caveat: it is no longer clear which relation a given attribute comes from:

```
SELECT A1, SUM(A2)
FROM R JOIN S ON R.A1=S.A1
GROUP BY R.A1
```

- SQL complains: A reference to column "A1" is ambiguous.
- db2 => select \* from r join s on r.a1=s.a1

| A1 | A2 | A1 | A3 |
|----|----|----|----|
| a  | 1  | a  | 5  |
| a  | 1  | a  | 7  |
| b  | 2  | b  | 3  |

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### Joins in queries cont'd

- To use aggregation, one has to specify which relation attributes come from:

```
SELECT S.Theater, MAX(M.Length)
FROM Movies M JOIN Schedule S ON M.Title=S.Title
GROUP BY S.Theater
```

finds theaters and the lengths of the longest movies playing there.

- Note aliasing used inside the JOIN expression.
- Joins can also be given different names:

```
SELECT JT.theater, MAX(JT.Length)
FROM (Movies NATURAL JOIN Schedule) AS JT
```

### More on subqueries

- So far we saw subqueries only in the WHERE clause, and in a limited way, in the FROM clause.

- But they can occur anywhere!
- Example: avoiding GROUP BY.

```
SELECT DISTINCT S.theater,
(SELECT MAX(M.Length)
 FROM Movies M
 WHERE M.Title=S.Title)
FROM Schedule S
```

### Joins in queries cont'd

- Join expressions could be quite complicated:

```
( ( R JOIN S ON <cond1> ) AS Table1
  JOIN
  ( U JOIN V ON <cond2> ) AS Table2
  ON <cond3> )
```

- One has to be careful with referencing tables in conditions, e.g.:
  - <cond1> can refer to R, S, but not U, V, Table1, Table2
  - <cond2> can refer to U, V, but not R, S, Table1, Table2
  - <cond3> can refer to Table1, Table2 but not R, S, U, V

### More on subqueries cont'd

- Avoiding HAVING: subqueries in WHERE.

```
SELECT DISTINCT S.theater,
(SELECT MAX(M.Length)
 FROM Movies M
 WHERE M.Title=S.Title)
FROM Schedule S
WHERE (SELECT COUNT(DISTINCT Title)
 FROM Movies M1
 WHERE M1.title IN (SELECT S1.title
 FROM Schedule S1
 WHERE S1.theater=S.theater) ) > 5
```

restricts the previous query to theaters showing 6 or more movies.

- In general, the new standard is very liberal about where one can use a subquery, but not all systems fully comply yet.

### A useful feature: ordering the output

```
db2 => SELECT * FROM S
```

```
A1 A3
-- -----
a      5
a      7
b      3
```

```
db2 => SELECT * FROM S ORDER BY A3
```

```
A1 A3
-- -----
b      3
a      5
a      7
```

### Intermediate results

- There is a way to save intermediate results, for future reference
- Such intermediate results are called *views*
- Usually it is done when the result of a certain query is needed often
- Syntax: `CREATE VIEW <name> (<attributes>) AS <query>`
- Example: suppose we need theaters, directors whose movies are playing there, and lengths of those movies:

```
CREATE VIEW TDL (th, dir, len) AS
SELECT S.theater, M.director, M.length
FROM Movies M, Schedule S
WHERE S.title=M.title
```

### A useful feature: ordering the output cont'd

- Decreasing order:

```
db2 => SELECT * FROM S ORDER BY A3 DESC
```

```
A1 A3
-- -----
a      7
a      5
b      3
```

- Ordering involving multiple attributes:

```
db2 => SELECT * FROM S ORDER BY A1, A3
```

```
A1 A3
-- -----
a      5
a      7
b      3
```

### Using views

- Once a view is created, it can be used in queries.
- Find theaters showing long (> 2 hours) movies by a director whose name starts with "K"
- `SELECT th`  
`FROM TDL`  
`WHERE len > 120 and dir LIKE 'K%'`
- Advantage: if the view is already created, one no longer has to perform a join.
- Thus views are useful if many queries are asked against them.

### Using views cont'd

- Views are also useful for making queries more readable, e.g., by creating intermediate values.
- However, it is not a good idea to use views for those purposes (e.g., one would need to say DROP VIEW afterwards, when the view is no longer needed).
- Instead, one can use keyword WITH:

```
WITH TDL (th, dir, len) AS
(SELECT S.theater, M.director, M.length
 FROM Movies M, Schedule S
 WHERE S.title=M.title)
SELECT th
FROM TDL
WHERE len > 120 and dir LIKE 'K%'
```

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### Database modification: deletions

- Suppose we want to delete movies which are not currently playing in theaters, unless they are directed by Kubrick:

```
DELETE FROM Movies
WHERE title NOT IN (SELECT title FROM Schedule) AND
director <> 'Kubrick'
```

- General form:  

```
DELETE FROM <relation name>
WHERE <condition>
```
- Conditions apply to individual tuples; all tuples satisfying the condition are deleted.

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### Database modifications

- We have seen how to insert tuples in relations:  

```
INSERT INTO Table VALUES (...)
```
- One can also insert results of queries, as long as attributes match.
- Example: We want to ensure that every movie in table Schedule is listed in table Movies. This is done by

```
INSERT INTO Movies(title)
SELECT DISTINCT S.Title
FROM Schedule S
WHERE S.Title NOT IN (SELECT title
FROM Movies)
```

- What are the values of director and actor attributes when a new title is inserted? Answer – default values (most often nulls). We'll see them later.

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### Database modification: updates

- Suppose we have a table Personnel with two of its attributes being name and gender.
- Now, we want to replace, in table Movies, each name X of a male director by 'Mr. X':

```
UPDATE Movies
SET director = 'Mr.' || director
WHERE director in
(SELECT name FROM Personnel WHERE gender='male')
```

- Here || is the SQL notation for string concatenation.
- General form of updates:  

```
UPDATE <table> SET <value-assignments> WHERE <conditions>
```
- Tables are updated one tuple at a time.

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### Referential integrity and updates

- Updates can create problems with keys and foreign keys.
- We have seen that insertions can violate key constraints.
- The situation is more complex with foreign keys.

create table R (a int not null, b int, primary key (a))

create table S (a int not null, foreign key (a) references r)

insert into R values (1,1)

insert into S values 1

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### Referential integrity and updates cont'd

- More serious problem: deletion
- Tables: R(A,B), A primary key; S(A,C)
- Suppose S,A is a foreign key for R,A
- S has 

| A | C |
|---|---|
| 1 | 2 |
| 2 | 2 |

, R has 

| A | B |
|---|---|
| 1 | 2 |
| 2 | 3 |
- We now delete (1,2) from R, what happens then?
- Possibilities:
  - 1) reject the deletion operation
  - 2) propagate it to S and delete (1,2) from S
  - 3) "we don't know approach": keep the tuple, but put no value for the A attribute there.

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### Referential integrity and updates cont'd

So far so good, but inserting 2 into S results in an error:

```
db2 => insert into s values 2
```

DB21034E The command was processed as an SQL statement because it was not a valid Command Line Processor command. During SQL processing it returned: SQL0530N The insert or update value of the FOREIGN KEY "LIBKIN.S.SQLO10129175143860" is not equal to any value of the parent key of the parent table. SQLSTATE=23503

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### Referential integrity and updates cont'd

- All three approaches are supported in SQL
- create table R1 (a int not null primary key, b int)  
create table S1 (a int, c int,  
foreign key (a) references r1)
- and insert (1,2) and (2,3) in R1, and (1,2) and (2,2) in S1
- delete from r1 where a=1 and b=2
- results in an error due to the foreign key constraint

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Referential integrity and updates cont'd

- All three approaches are supported in SQL
- create table R1 (a int not null primary key, b int)
- create table S2 (a int, c int, foreign key (a) references r1 on delete cascade)
- create table S3 (a int, c int, foreign key (a) references r1 on delete set null)
- insert (1,2) and (2,3) in R1, and (1,2) and (2,2) in S2 and S3
- delete from r1 where a=1 and b=2
- What do we get?

Referential integrity and updates cont'd

- For on delete cascade
- ```
db2 => select * from s2
```
- |   |   |
|---|---|
| A | C |
| 2 | 2 |
- For on delete set null
- ```
db2 => select * from s3
```

|   |   |
|---|---|
| A | C |
| - | 2 |
| 2 | 2 |