

1 SQL

The **Structured Query Language** (SQL) is a **declarative** (goal explicit, algorithm implicit) query language. It was first standardized in 1986, and a major revision was done in 1992 (SQL-92 standard), which is largely the revision that is covered in the textbook.

2 Data Model

An SQL **table** is a **multiset** of tuples, meaning that duplicates are allowed.

2.1 Data Types

Tuples consist of values from specified domains

- **char(n)** is a fixed-length string
- **varchar(n)** is a variable-length string
- **int**, **real**, and **double** are the standard numeric types
- **numeric(p,d)** is a fixed-point numeric type with 'p' (precision) digits, where 'd' come after the decimal point, e.g. `numeric(3,1) → xx.x` .
- **date** and **time**

2.2 NULL Values

NULL values are interpreted as missing information, so:

- **arithmetic**s with NULL yields NULL
- **comparison** with NULL yields UNKNOWN (neither TRUE nor FALSE)
- **logical connectives** behave as expected, FALSE AND UNKNOWN = FALSE, and TRUE OR UNKNOWN = TRUE, etc.
- **aggregates** ignore NULL values

3 Data Definition Language

Tables are created using the **CREATE TABLE** command, e.g.:

```
CREATE TABLE person
  (name varchar(30) NOT NULL,
   age integer,
   cpr integer,
   PRIMARY KEY (cpr),
   CHECK age > 18)
```

CREATE TABLE defines the **schema** of the table, any **column default** values, **column constraints** such as:

NOT NULL must have value

UNIQUE no duplicate values of this attribute are allowed

PRIMARY KEY (NOT NULL and UNIQUE)

CHECK(predicate) is a generic column constraint, which is checked for each table update, similar to a class invariant ('CHECK' is ignored by mySQL).

Referential integrity ensures that references to other tables are consistent, using the FOREIGN KEY clause.

Tables can be altered using the **ALTER TABLE** command. It can be used to add, change, or remove attributes or constraints.

```
ALTER TABLE person ADD birthday TIME;
ALTER TABLE person CHANGE birthday birthday DATE;
ALTER TABLE person DROP birthday;
```

Tables can be removed from the database using the **DROP TABLE** command.

4 Data Manipulation Language

4.1 SELECT

SELECT is used for retrieving data from the database. The basic syntax is

```
SELECT attribute1, attribute2
FROM relation1, relation2
WHERE predicate.
```

In terms of relational algebra, this is actually a combination of a projection, a selection, and a cartesian product

$$\Pi_{\text{attribute1, attribute2}}(\sigma_{\text{predicate}}(\text{relation1} \times \text{relation2})).$$

I will explain the individual clauses in more detail.

The **SELECT** clause projects the listed attributes from the results of the selection, '*' denotes all attributes. SELECT returns a **multiset** (duplicates are allowed) containing the results. If duplicate tuples should not appear, we may use the **SELECT DISTINCT** form of the command. SELECT evaluates arithmetic expressions, e.g. 'SELECT age+2 FROM person' returns a table with one column named 'age+2' and the age values + 2. **Renaming** of attributes is performed using the **AS** clause, e.g. 'SELECT borrower.loan_number AS loan.id FROM borrower', thus creating a new table with attribute loan.id. the AS clause can also be used for defining **tuple variables**, as in

```
SELECT DISTINCT p1.firstname, p1.lastname
  FROM person AS p1, person AS p2
 WHERE p1.firstname = p2.firstname,
```

that finds the full names of persons with the same first name.

The **FROM** clause performs a cartesian product between the tables listed.

The **WHERE** clause specifies a logical predicate which must hold for all tuples in the result set. **Arithmetical expressions** are allowed in the predicate. Comparison is done with the usual arithmetic relations <, <=, =, >=, >, and !=. Equality checks on **strings** are also allowed. Predicates can be combined using the **logical connectives**, 'AND', 'OR', and 'NOT'.

Tuples can be ordered using the **ORDER BY** clause which has a list of attributes, on which to order the result set, and the **DESC** and **ASC** (default) keywords, specifying ascending or descending order.

Standard **set operations** can be performed on the result sets from SELECT operations with **UNION**, **INTERSECT**, and **EXCEPT**, e.g. (SELECT * FROM person) INTERSECT (SELECT * FROM customer). **Set membership** can be checked with 'SELECT ... WHERE name IN (SELECT name FROM ...) or 'SELECT ... name IN ('Smith', 'Jones').

The first order logic operators \exists and \forall can also be used in SQL; **Existence** of at least one tuple that makes a predicate true, can be checked, e.g. with 'SELECT ... WHERE value > SOME (SELECT value FROM ...)' (the tuples where value are not the smallest), and correspondingly, you can check **all tuples** for a predicate with 'SELECT ... WHERE value > ALL (SELECT value FROM ...)' (larger than all values in the set).

An **aggregate function** is a function that compute a single result value from a set of input values. SQL includes 5 common aggregate functions:

- AVG (average)
- COUNT (count)
- MAX
- MIN
- SUM

As an example,

```
SELECT city, AVG(salary) FROM person GROUP BY city,
```

returns for each city the average salary of persons from that city. The results can be filtered using the **HAVING** clause, which is applied after the groups are formed, and thus allows aggregates, e.g.

```
SELECT city, AVG(salary) FROM person
    GROUP BY city HAVING AVG(salary) > 100000.
```

4.2 Data Modification

INSERT Examples:

```
INSERT INTO person VALUES ('Jakob Schmid', 30, 290276)
INSERT INTO person
    SELECT name, age, cpr FROM customer WHERE name="jakob"
```

The **DELETE** command has a similar syntax to SELECT: 'DELETE FROM table WHERE predicate'. The **UPDATE** command can be used like 'UPDATE table SET attr=value WHERE ...'.

4.3 Views

Views are defined in SQL using the **CREATE VIEW** command, e.g. 'CREATE VIEW elite_customer AS SELECT name,age FROM customer WHERE status="elite"'. A view can be used as a table for all purposes. Updating the view also updates the table from which the view is created.