1 Relational Languages

Edgar Codd published a major paper on relational models in the early 1970s. Originally, he only defined the mathematical notation for how a DBMS could execute queries on a relational model DBMS. The user only needs to specify the result that they want using a declarative language (i.e., SQL). The DBMS is responsible for determining the most efficient plan to produce that answer.

Relational algebra is based on sets (unordered, no duplicates). SQL is based on bags (unordered, allows duplicates).

2 SQL History

Declarative query language for relational databases. It was originally developed in the 1970s as part of the IBM System R project. IBM originally called it “SEQUEL” (Structured English Query Language). The name changed in the 1980s to just “SQL” (Structured Query Language).

The language is comprised of different classes of commands:

1. **Data Manipulation Language (DML)**: SELECT, INSERT, UPDATE, and DELETE statements.
2. **Data Definition Language (DDL)**: Schema definitions for tables, indexes, views, and other objects.
3. **Data Control Language (DCL)**: Security, access controls.

SQL is not a dead language. It is being updated with new features every couple of years. SQL-92 is the minimum that a DBMS has to support to claim they support SQL. Each vendor follows the standard to a certain degree but there are many proprietary extensions.

3 Aggregates

An aggregation function takes in a bag of tuples as its input and then produces a single scalar value as its output. Aggregate functions can only be used in SELECT output list.

Example: Get # of students with a ‘@cs’ login. The following three queries are equivalent:

```
SELECT COUNT(*) FROM student WHERE login LIKE '%@cs';
```

```
SELECT COUNT(login) FROM student WHERE login LIKE '%@cs';
```

```
SELECT COUNT(1) FROM student WHERE login LIKE '%@cs';
```

Can use multiple aggregates within a single SELECT statement:
CREATE TABLE student (  
sid INT PRIMARY KEY,  
name VARCHAR(16),  
login VARCHAR(32) UNIQUE,  
age SMALLINT,  
gpa FLOAT  
);

CREATE TABLE course (  
cid VARCHAR(32) PRIMARY KEY,  
name VARCHAR(32) NOT NULL  
);

CREATE TABLE enrolled (  
sid INT REFERENCES student (sid),  
cid VARCHAR(32) REFERENCES course (cid),  
grade CHAR(1)  
);

Figure 1: Example database used for lecture

```
SELECT AVG(gpa), COUNT(sid)  
FROM student WHERE login LIKE '%@cs';
```

Some aggregate functions support the DISTINCT keyword:

```
SELECT COUNT(DISTINCT login)  
FROM student WHERE login LIKE '%@cs';
```

Output of other columns outside of an aggregate is undefined (e.cid is undefined below)

```
SELECT AVG(s.gpa), e.cid  
FROM enrolled AS e, student AS s  
WHERE e.sid = s.sid;
```

Thus, other columns outside aggregate must be aggregated or used in a GROUP BY command:

```
SELECT AVG(s.gpa), e.cid  
FROM enrolled AS e, student AS s  
WHERE e.sid = s.sid  
GROUP BY e.cid;
```

HAVING: Filters output results after aggregation. Like a WHERE clause for a GROUP BY

```
SELECT AVG(s.gpa) AS avg_gpa, e.cid  
FROM enrolled AS e, student AS s  
WHERE e.sid = s.sid  
GROUP BY e.cid  
HAVING avg_gpa > 3.9;
```
4 String Operations
The SQL standard says that strings are case sensitive and single-quotes only. There are functions to manipulate strings that can be used in any part of a query.

Pattern Matching: The LIKE keyword is used for string matching in predicates.
- “%” matches any substrings (including empty).
- “_” matches any one character.

Concatenation: Two vertical bars (“|”) will concatenate two or more strings together into a single string.

5 Output Redirection
Instead of having the result a query returned to the client (e.g., terminal), you can tell the DBMS to store the results into another table. You can then access this data in subsequent queries.

- New Table: Store the output of the query into a new (permanent) table.
  ```sql
  SELECT DISTINCT cid INTO CourseIds FROM enrolled;
  ```

- Existing Table: Store the output of the query into a table that already exists in the database. The target table must have the same number of columns with the same types as the target table, but the names of the columns in the output query do not have to match.
  ```sql
  INSERT INTO CourseIds (SELECT DISTINCT cid FROM enrolled);
  ```

6 Output Control
Since results SQL are unordered, you have to use the ORDER BY clause to impose a sort on tuples:

```sql
SELECT sid FROM enrolled WHERE cid = '15-721'
ORDER BY grade DESC;
```

You can use multiple ORDER BY clauses to break ties or do more complex sorting:

```sql
SELECT sid FROM enrolled WHERE cid = '15-721'
ORDER BY grade DESC, sid ASC;
```

You can also use any arbitrary expression in the ORDER BY clause:

```sql
SELECT sid FROM enrolled WHERE cid = '15-721'
ORDER BY UPPER(grade) DESC, sid + 1 ASC;
```

By default, the DBMS will return all of the tuples produced by the query. You can use the LIMIT clause to restrict the number of result tuples:

```sql
SELECT sid, name FROM student WHERE login LIKE '%@cs'
LIMIT 10;
```

Can also provide an offset to return a range in the results:

```sql
SELECT sid, name FROM student WHERE login LIKE '%@cs'
LIMIT 10 OFFSET 20;
```
Unless you use an ORDER BY clause with a LIMIT, the DBMS could produce different tuples in the result on each invocation of the query because the relational model does not impose an ordering.

### 7 Nested Queries

Invoke queries inside of other queries to execute more complex logic within a single query. The scope of outer query is included in inner query (i.e. inner query can access attributes from outer query), but not the other way around.

Inner queries can appear in almost any part of a query:

1. SELECT Output Targets:
   ```sql
   SELECT (SELECT 1) AS one FROM student;
   ```
2. FROM Clause:
   ```sql
   SELECT name
   FROM student AS s, (SELECT sid FROM enrolled) AS e
   WHERE s.sid = e.sid;
   ```
3. WHERE Clause:
   ```sql
   SELECT name FROM student
   WHERE sid IN ( SELECT sid FROM enrolled );
   ```

Example: Get the names of students that are enrolled in ‘15-445’.
   ```sql
   SELECT name FROM student
   WHERE sid IN ( SELECT sid FROM enrolled WHERE cid = '15-445' );
   ```

Note that sid has different scope depending on where it appears in the query.

**Nested Query Results Expressions:**

- **ALL**: Must satisfy expression for all rows in sub-query.
- **ANY**: Must satisfy expression for at least one row in sub-query.
- **IN**: Equivalent to =ANY().
- **EXISTS**: At least one row is returned.

### 8 Window Functions

Performs “moving” calculation across set of tuples. Like an aggregation but it still returns the original tuples.

**Functions:** The window function can be any of the aggregation functions that we discussed above. There are also also special window functions:

1. **ROW_NUMBER**: The number of the current row.
2. **RANK**: The order position of the current row.

**Grouping:** The OVER clause specifies how to group together tuples when computing the window function. Use PARTITION BY to specify group.

```sql
SELECT cid, sid, ROW_NUMBER() OVER (PARTITION BY cid)
FROM enrolled ORDER BY cid;
```
You can also put an ORDER BY within OVER to ensure a deterministic ordering of results even if database changes internally.

```sql
SELECT *, ROW_NUMBER() OVER (ORDER BY cid) 
FROM enrolled ORDER BY cid;
```

Important: The DBMS computes RANK after the window function sorting, whereas it computes ROW_NUMBER before the sorting.

### 9 Common Table Expressions

Common Table Expressions (CTEs) are an alternative to windows or nested queries to writing more complex queries. One can think of a CTE like a temporary table for just one query.

The WITH clause binds the output of the inner query to a temporary result with that name.

Example: Generate a CTE called `cteName` that contains a single tuple with a single attribute set to “1”. The query at the bottom then just returns all the attributes from `cteName`.

```sql
WITH cteName AS ( 
    SELECT 1 
  ) 
SELECT * FROM cteName;
```

You can bind output columns to names before the AS:

```sql
WITH cteName (col1, col2) AS ( 
    SELECT 1, 2 
  ) 
SELECT col1 + col2 FROM cteName;
```

A single query can contain multiple CTE declarations:

```sql
WITH cte1 (col1) AS ( 
    SELECT 1 
  ),
cte2 (col2) AS ( 
    SELECT 2 
  ) 
SELECT * FROM cte1, cte2;
```

Adding the RECURSIVE keyword after WITH allows a CTE to reference itself.

Example: Print the sequence of numbers from 1 to 10.

```sql
WITH RECURSIVE cteSource (counter) AS ( 
  (SELECT 1) 
UNION 
  (SELECT counter + 1 FROM cteSource 
   WHERE counter < 10) 
) 
SELECT * FROM cteSource;
```