SQL – Simple Queries

Chapter 3.1

V3.01

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Introduction

• SQL is the **Structured Query Language**
• It is used to interact with the DBMS (database management system)
• SQL can
  – Create Schemas in the DBMS
  – Alter Schemas
  – Add data
  – Remove data
  – Change data
  – Access Data
DSL

- SQL is a Data Sub Language
- This is a combination of two languages
  - DDL – Data Definition Language
  - DML – Data Manipulation Language

- The main way of accessing data is using the DML command `SELECT`.
- The abilities of the `SELECT` command forms the majority of this material on SQL
Database Models

A data model comprises
- a data structure
- a set of integrity constraints
- operations associated with the data structure

Examples of data models include:
- hierarchic
- network
- Relational (E. F. Codd)
Relational Databases

The relational data model comprises:

• relational **data structure**
• relational **integrity constraints**
• relational algebra or equivalent (**SQL**)
  – SQL is an ISO language based on relational algebra – the **operations**
  – relational algebra is a mathematical formulation
A relational data structure is a collection of tables, or relations.

- A **relation** is a collection of rows or tuples
- A **tuple** is a collection of columns or attributes
- A **domain** is a pool of values from which the actual attribute values are taken.
Relational Structure cont
Domain and Integrity Constraints

• Domain Constraints
  – limit the range of values of an attribute
  – specify uniqueness and ‘nullness’ of an attribute
  – specify a default value for an attribute when no value is provided.

• Entity Integrity
  – every tuple is uniquely identified by a unique non-null attribute, the primary key.

• Referential Integrity
  – rows in different tables are correctly related by valid key values (‘foreign’ keys refer to primary keys).
In order to better understand SQL, all the example queries make use of a simple database.

The database is formed from 2 tables, CAR and DRIVER.

Each car may be owned by a DRIVER.

A DRIVER may own multiple CARs.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>NAME</th>
<th>DOB</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Jim Smith</td>
<td>11 Jan 1980</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bob Smith</td>
<td>23 Mar 1981</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bob Jones</td>
<td>3 Dec 1986</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>REGNO</td>
<td>MAKE</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>----------</td>
<td>---------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F611 AAA</td>
<td>FORD</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>J111 BBB</td>
<td>SKODA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A155 BDE</td>
<td>MERCEDES</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>K555 GHT</td>
<td>FIAT</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SC04 BFE</td>
<td>SMART</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
• Each column holds data of a particular type
  – Integer, string, decimal, blobs
  – The range of values can be further constrained
• If a column in a row contains no data, it is NULL.
• Null can indicate no possible value, or unavailable data.

• All rows (tuples) must differ from each other in some way
• Cardinality is the number of rows of a table
• Arity is the number of columns of a table
Primary Keys & Entity Integrity

• A Primary Key is a group of one or more columns which, when taken together, is unique in the table.

• No part of a primary key can be NULL.

• In our example,
  – DRIVER: the primary key is NAME
  – CAR: the primary key is REGNO

• In our example this means that no two drivers can have the same name. In the real world this would be a problem, but this is just an example.
Referential Integrity

- Note that there is a link between CAR and DRIVER via the attribute OWNER.
- If there is a value in OWNER, then this value must also appear somewhere in DRIVER (attribute NAME).
- If you change a driver’s NAME in DRIVER, you must make sure the same change is made in OWNER of CAR.
- **The DBMS enforces the rules!**
- If you try to break the rules the DBMS reports the problem as a REFERENTIAL INTEGRITY error.
SQL Basics

• Basic SQL statements include
  – CREATE – a data structure
  – SELECT – read one or more rows from a table
  – INSERT – one of more rows into a table
  – DELETE – one or more rows from a table
  – UPDATE – change the column values in a row
  – DROP – a data structure
  – ALTER – a data structure

• In this lecture the focus is on SELECT.
Simple SELECT

- SELECT column FROM tablename
- SELECT column1, column2, column3, … FROM tablename1, tablename2, …
- SELECT * from tablename

E.g. SELECT * from CAR; -- gives

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>REGNO</th>
<th>MAKE</th>
<th>COLOUR</th>
<th>PRICE</th>
<th>OWNER</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>F611 AAA</td>
<td>FORD</td>
<td>RED</td>
<td>12000</td>
<td>Jim Smith</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>J111 BBB</td>
<td>SKODA</td>
<td>BLUE</td>
<td>11000</td>
<td>Jim Smith</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A155 BDE</td>
<td>MERCEDES</td>
<td>BLUE</td>
<td>22000</td>
<td>Bob Smith</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>K555 GHT</td>
<td>FIAT</td>
<td>GREEN</td>
<td>6000</td>
<td>Bob Jones</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SC04 BFE</td>
<td>SMART</td>
<td>BLUE</td>
<td>13000</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
SELECT regno from CAR;

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>REGNO</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>F611 AAA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>J111 BBB</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A155 BDE</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>K555 GHT</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SC04 BFE</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
SELECT colour, owner from CAR;

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>COLOUR</th>
<th>OWNER</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>RED</td>
<td>Jim Smith</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BLUE</td>
<td>Jim Smith</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BLUE</td>
<td>Bob Smith</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GREEN</td>
<td>Bob Jones</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BLUE</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Formatting

• SPACES do not matter
• NEWLINES do not matter
• Good practice to put ; at the end of the query.
• CaSE (except between single quotes) does not matter.
• The following are all valid:

SELECT REGNO FROM CAR;
SELECT regno
    FROM car

;
Comments

- To give you the ability to make notes in queries you are allowed to have comments.
- Comments are not executed (they are ignored)
- A comment starts with -- and ends with a newline
- They are only permitted within a query.

SELECT regno -- The registration number
FROM car -- The car storage table
;
;
SELECT filters

- You can have rules in your queries
- These rules are tested for each row your query produces
- If the rule is true, the row is displayed
- If the rule is false, the row is not displayed
- The rule starts with WHERE

SELECT columns
FROM table
WHERE rule
Simple Rule

- A simple rule might be to look for a car with a colour of RED.
- The rule would be `colour = 'RED'`

```sql
SELECT regno FROM CAR
WHERE colour = 'RED'
```

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>REGNO</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>F611 AAA</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>J111 BBB</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A155 BDE</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>K555 GHT</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SC04 BFE</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

```sql
SELECT regno FROM CAR
WHERE colour = 'RED'
```

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>REGNO</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>F611 AAA</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Note

• Things **between quotes** are CASE SENSITIVE.

• ‘RED’ is not the same as ‘Red’ or ‘red’

• Rules which mention fields can be used whether the fields appear on the SELECT line or not.

```
SELECT regno from CAR
WHERE colour = 'RED'
```
Comparisons

• Valid comparisons include =, !=, <>, <, <=, >, >=
  – Colour = ‘RED’ The colour must be red
  – Colour != ‘RED’ The colour is not red
  – Colour <> ‘RED’ Same result as !=
  – Price > 10000 More than 10000
  – Price >= 10000 More than or equal to 10000
  – Price < 10000 Cheaper than 10000
  – Price <= 10000 Cheaper or the same as 10000

• Numbers – You may say ‘10000’ or 10000 in Oracle SQL

• “Strings” and dates must always have quotes…
DATE

• You can use all the normal comparators with dates.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>NAME</th>
<th>DOB</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Jim Smith</td>
<td>11 Jan 1980</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bob Smith</td>
<td>23 Mar 1981</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bob Jones</td>
<td>3 Dec 1986</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

SELECT name, dob
from driver

SELECT name, dob from driver
where DOB = ‘3 Jan 1986’
The tricky part with dates is remembering that dates get bigger as you move into the future. DATE1 > DATE2 indicates DATE1 is in the future after DATE2. (i.e. 2007 > 2006 and Mar > Jan)

SELECT name, dob from driver
WHERE DOB >= ‘1 Jan 1981’

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>NAME</th>
<th>DOB</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Bob Smith</td>
<td>23 Mar 1981</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bob Jones</td>
<td>3 Dec 1986</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
DATE Syntax

• Date must be in quotes
• Each DBMS handles dates in a slightly different way
• Dates like ‘1 Jan 2003’ work quite well.
• Oracle permits dates like ‘1-Jan-2003’
• Oracle also permits dates like ‘1-Jan-03’
  – If you type this it will assume 2003.
  – If you mean 1984 type 1984 not –84.
• You must always specify a day and a month. If you do not the DBMS will report an error.
**BETWEEN** (is inclusive)

- When dealing with dates sometimes you want to test to see if a field value falls *between* two dates.
- The easiest way to do this is with BETWEEN

- Find all drivers born between 1995 and 1999
  
  ```sql
  SELECT name,dob from driver
  WHERE DOB BETWEEN '1 Jan 1985' AND '31 Dec 1999'
  ```
- Between works for other things, not just dates…
  
  ```sql
  SELECT regno from CAR
  where price BETWEEN 5000 AND 10000;
  ```
NULL

• NULL indicates that something has no value
• It is not a value, and you cannot use normal comparison operators.
• For instance, looking for cars without owners...

Wrong: SELECT regno from car where owner = NULL
Wrong: SELECT regno from car where owner = ‘NULL’

• Instead there are two special operators,
  – IS NULL, or
  – IS NOT NULL
SELECT regno from car
WHERE OWNER is null

REGNO
SC04 BFE

Has no owner

SELECT regno from car
WHERE OWNER is not null

REGNO
F611 AAA
J111 BBB
A155 BDE
K555 GHT
LIKE

- Sometimes you want to have a rule involving **partial strings, substrings, or wildcards**
- LIKE does this, and is a slot-in replacement for ‘=‘
- If the string contains ‘%’ or ‘_’, LIKE uses them to support wildcards.
  - % - Matches zero or more characters in the string
  - _ - Matches exactly 1 character in the string
Examples

• Name LIKE ‘Jim Smith’                     e.g. Jim Smith
• Name LIKE ‘_im Smith’                     e.g. Tim Smith
• Name LIKE ‘___ Smith’                     e.g. Bob Smith
• Name LIKE ‘% Smith’                       e.g. Frank Smith
• Name LIKE ‘% S%’                           e.g. Brian Smart
• Name LIKE ‘Bob %’                          e.g. Bob Martin
• Name LIKE ‘%’                              i.e. matches anyone

• LIKE is more expensive than =
• If you are not using wildcards, always use = rather than LIKE.