

Suggested Books

1. Delphi/Kylix Database Development
Eric Harmon
Sams Publishing
2. Delphi in a Nutshell
Ray Lischner
O'Reilly Publishing
3. Delphi 6 Developer's Guide
Xavier Pacheco et al
Sams Publishing

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Introduction to SQL

What is SQL?

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Introduction to SQL

Structured Query language-SQL
First studies at IBM Laboratories
First, it was developed in 1970 for IBM DB2
A Universal Language to be used in all major Database Management Systems

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Introduction to SQL

12 Rules Defined by Dr.Codd for a Relational Database Management System

- 0. Databases should be administered by Relational Capabilities**
- 1. Information Rule-All information in a RDBMS (including table and column names) should be stored as values of tables**
 - 2. Guaranteed Access-Each value in RDBMS should be guaranteed for access using primary key and/or column names**
 - 3. Systematic support for *null values***
 - 4. Active, online Relational Catalog**

“A Relational Model of Data for Large Shared Data Banks”, 1970,Dr.E.F.Codd

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12 Rules Defined by Dr.Codd for a Relational Database Management System

- 5. A Data Language with a certain and clear syntax - This language should support data definition, manipulation, integrity rules, authorization and transaction processes**
- 6. Rule of updating Views**
- 7. Retrieving, inserting, updating and deleting data in set levels**
- 8. Physical Data Independence- Applications should not be affected by the change of physical access and recording structures**
- 9. Logical Data Independence- Applications should not be affected by the change in table structures**

“A Relational Model of Data for Large Shared Data Banks”, 1970,Dr.E.F.Codd

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12 Rules Defined by Dr.Codd for a Relational Database Management System

- 10. Integrity Independence- Database language should allow describing integrity rules, store these rules in online catalog using a common database language such as SQL.**
- 11. Distribution Independence**
- 12. Integrity rules should not be able to be violated from within any application. Integrity rules can be redefined using only a common database language such as SQL.**

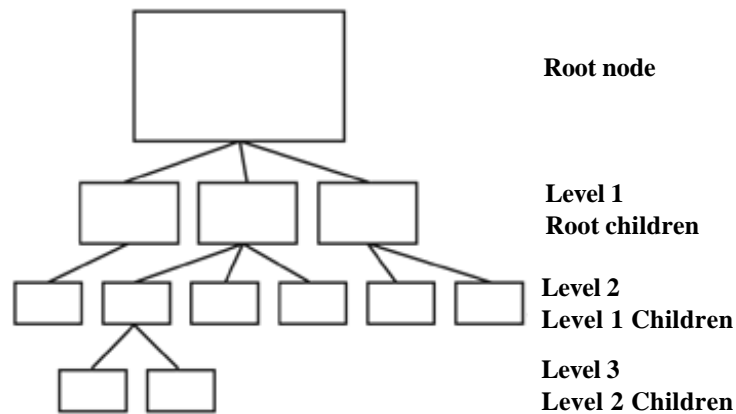
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Introduction to SQL

**In many RDBMSs, there is a relation of parent/child relation.
Main nodes contain information about the locations of their children.**



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Summary of SQL

SQL is a universal language to manipulate and query data in RDBMS.

Using SQL, a Database Administrator (DBA) may

- 1. Change the structure of Database in RDBMS**
- 2. Administer the system security**
- 3. Can give access to users for databases and objects in databases**
- 4. Query a database for information**
- 5. Manipulate data content of a database**
- 6. Define transactions during manipulation of data**

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Summary of SQL

SQL language contains 4 parts

- 1. Data Definition Language**
- 2. Data Manipulation Language**
- 3. Data Query Language**
- 4. Data Control Language**

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Popular SQL DBMSs

- 1. IBM DB2**
- 2. IBM AS/400**
- 3. ORACLE**
- 4. MS SQL Server**
- 5. InterBase**
- 6. MYSQL**
- 7. PostgreSQL**
- 8. SYBASE**
- 9. PROGRESS**
- 10. INFORMIX**
- 11. Ingres**
- 12. Red Brick**
- 13. SQLBase**
- 14. Rdb**
- 15. WATCOM/SQL Anywhere**
- 16. Teradata**
- 17. FoxPro**
- 18. dBase**
- 19. MS Access**
- 20. Paradox**
- 21. Clipper**

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SQL Data Definition Language

- 1. Access to Database Management System**
- 2. Data Types**
- 3. Data Definition Language Statements**

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SQL Data Definition Language

- 1. Access to Database Management System**
For Example; Using SQL*Plus under Oracle RDBMS

```
C:\ORACLE> sqlplus
```

```
SQL*Plus: Version 3.1.2.2.1 - Production on Thu Nov 10 10:27:30 1994  
Copyright (c) Oracle Corporation 1979, 1992. All rights reserved.  
Enter user-name: scott  
Enter password:
```

```
Enter password:  
Connected to:  
ORACLE7 Server Release 7.0.13.1.0 - Production  
With the procedural and distributed options  
PL/SQL Release 2.0.15.1.0 - Production  
SQL> _
```

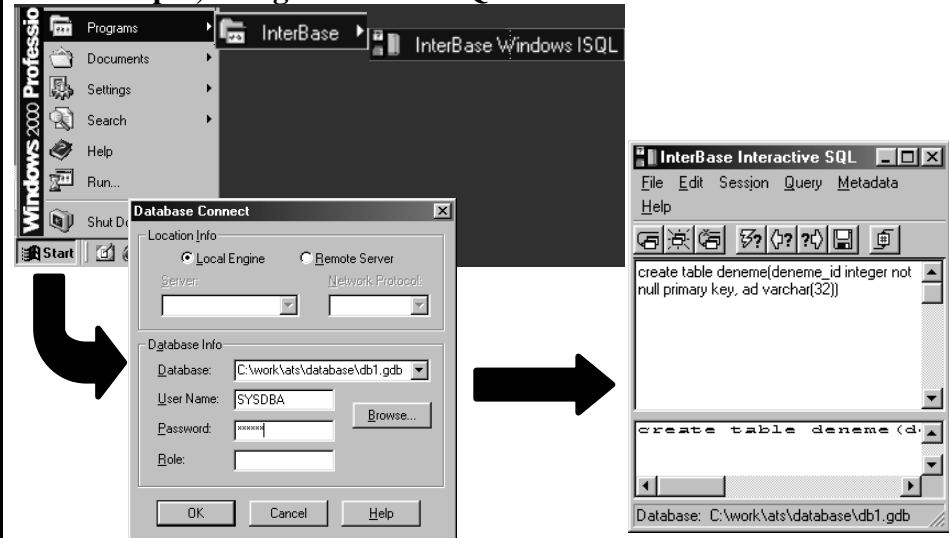
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SQL Data Definition Language

1. Access to Database Management System

Example; Using Windows ISQL under InterBase RDBMS



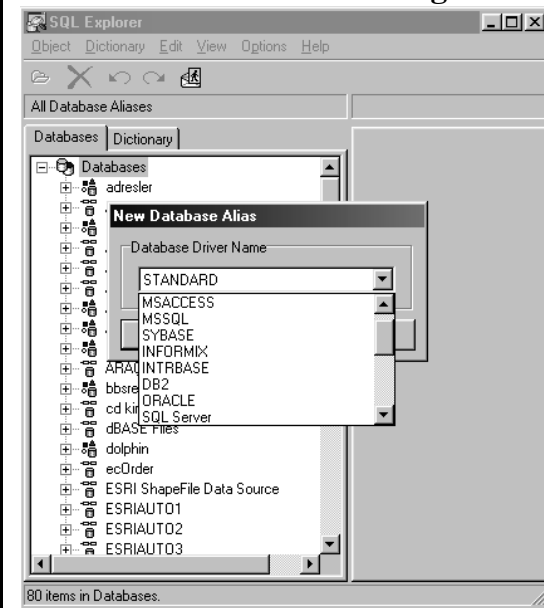
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SQL Data Definition Language

1. Access to Database Management System

Example ; Using Generic Tools



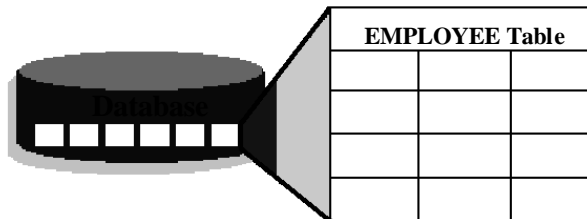
Borland SQL Explorer can be connected to any supported database management system

2. DATA TYPES



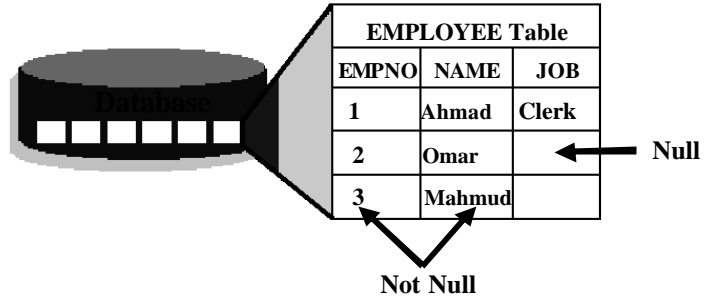
**Data are held in tables in Database Management System (DBMS)
The most important entity in a Relational Database is table.**

2. DATA TYPES



**Data are held in tables in Database Management System (DBMS)
Tables consist of ROWS and COLUMNS.**

2. DATA TYPES



Data are held in tables in Database Management System (DBMS)
Tables consist of ROWS and COLUMNS.

Each COLUMN has a DATA TYPE and may have a constraint not to have null values.

2. DATA TYPES

Null Values

Null values are used to represent data for which we don't always have an applicable value. They represent optional attributes in data models. Think of the column values below which can take NULL values.

EMPLOYEE

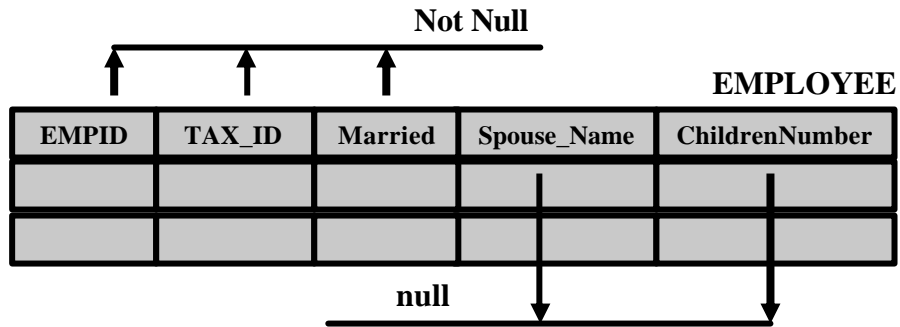
EMPID	TAX_ID	Married	Spouse_Name	ChildrenNumber

For mandatory columns we have to have a constraint called NOT NULL.

SQL Data Definition Language

2. DATA TYPES

Null Values



In EMPLOYEE Table, *Spouse_Name* and *ChildrenNumber* COLUMNS are not applicable for all EMPLOYEES. Therefore, they are nullable but other columns should take *NOT NULL* constraint.

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SQL Data Definition Language

2. DATA TYPES

Data Base Name	BLOB DATA TYPE	DATE/TIME DATA TYPE	NUMBER DATA TYPE	STRING DATA TYPE
MS SQL SERVER	BINARY BINARY () IMAGE VARBINARY VARBINARY ()	DATETIME SMALLDATETIME TIMESTAMP	INT MONEY NUMERIC NUMERIC () NUMERIC (,) REAL SMALLINT SMALLMONEY TINYINT	CHAR CHAR () TEXT VARCHAR VARCHAR ()
IBM DB2	GRAPHIC GRAPHIC () LONG VARGRAPHIC VARGRAPHIC ()	DATE TIME TIMESTAMP	DECIMAL DECIMAL (,) FLOAT FLOAT () INTEGER REAL SMALLINT	CHAR CHAR () character character () LONG VARCHAR VARCHAR ()

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SQL Data Definition Language

2. DATA TYPES

Data Base Name	BLOB DATA TYPE	DATE/TIME DATA TYPE	NUMBER DATA TYPE	STRING DATA TYPE
ORACLE	LONG LONG RAW MLSLABEL RAW RAW MLSLABEL RAW()	DATE	DECIMAL() DECIMAL(,) FLOAT INTEGER NUMBER NUMBER(*) NUMBER(,) SMALLINT	CHAR() character() LONG VARCHAR VARCHAR() VARCHAR2()
INTERBASE	BLOB	DATE	DECIMAL DECIMAL() DECIMAL(,) DOUBLE PRECISION FLOAT INTEGER NUMERIC NUMERIC() NUMERIC(,) SMALLINT	CHAR VARCHAR()

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SQL Data Definition Language

2. DATA TYPES

Data Base Name	BLOB DATA TYPE	DATE/TIME DATA TYPE	NUMBER DATA TYPE	STRING DATA TYPE
INGRES	BYTE VARYING LONG BYTE	DATE	BYTE DECIMAL FLOAT FLOAT() FLOAT4 FLOAT8 INTEGER INTEGER1 INTEGER2 INTEGER4 MONEY SMALLINT	C CHAR() LONG VARCHAR TEXT() VARCHAR()
MS ACCESS	OLE OBJECT	DATE/TIME	AUTONUMBER BYTE CURRENCY DOUBLE INTEGER LONG INTEGER REPLICATION ID SINGLE YES/NO	MEMO TEXT()

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SQL Data Definition Language

2. DATA TYPES

Data Base Name	BLOB DATA TYPE	DATE/TIME DATA TYPE	NUMBER DATA TYPE	STRING DATA TYPE
PARADOX	BINARY BINARY() GRAPHIC GRAPHIC() OLE OLE()	DATE TIME TIMESTAMP	AUTOINCREMENT BCD BCD() BYTES() LOGICAL LONG INTEGER MONEY NUMBER SHORT	ALPHA() FORMATTED MEMO FORMATTED MEMO() MEMO()
SYBASE	BINARY() IMAGE VARBINARY()	DATE/TIME SMALLDATETIME TIMESTAMP	BIT DECIMAL DECIMAL() DECIMAL(,) FLOAT INT MONEY NUMERIC NUMERIC() NUMERIC(,) REAL SMALLINT SMALLMONEY TINYINT	CHAR() TEXT VARCHAR()

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SQL Data Definition Language

2. DATA TYPES

Data Base Name	BLOB DATA TYPE	DATE/TIME DATA TYPE	NUMBER DATA TYPE	STRING DATA TYPE
INFORMIX	BYTE	DATE	DEC DEC(,) DECIMAL DECIMAL(,) DOUBLE PRECISION DOUBLE PRECISION() FLOAT FLOAT() INT INTEGER MONEY MONEY(,) NUMERIC NUMERIC(,) REAL SERIAL SERIAL() SERIAL(1) SMALLFLOAT SMALLINT	CHAR CHAR() character character() NCHAR NCHAR() NVARCHAR() TEXT VARCHAR()

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2. DATA TYPES

Data Base Name	BLOB DATA TYPE	DATE/TIME DATA TYPE	NUMBER DATA TYPE	STRING DATA TYPE
PROGRESS	X	DATE	DECIMAL DECIMAL() DECIMAL(,) FLOAT FLOAT() INTEGER LOGICAL NUMERIC NUMERIC() NUMERIC(,) REAL SMALLINT	CHAR() character()
FOXPRO ve DBASE IV	MEMO	DATE	FLOAT(,) LOGICAL NUMERIC(,)	character()

3. Data Definition Language Statements: CREATE TABLE

Table structure is defined according to specific data types available under a certain DBMS

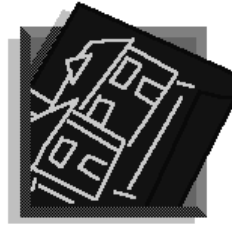
3. Data Definition Language Statements: CREATE TABLE

There are 2 steps to construct a table.

1. DESIGN



2. DEFINITION



3. Data Definition Language Statements: CREATE TABLE

Steps in DESIGN Phase;

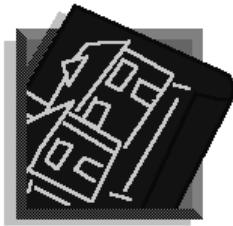
1. Define Data Elements (Entities) to trace (Construct Data Model)
2. Define the Columns under Tables according to attributes of entities
3. Name the COLUMNS in Tables. Decide DATA TYPE in detail
4. Decide which COLUMN is *null* and which COLUMN has *not null* constraint. Mandatory attributes in data model become not null columns.
5. Define *Primary key Column(s)* and *Foreign key Column(s)*



3. Data Definition Language Statements: CREATE TABLE

Following steps are for definition Stage

1. Create Table
2. Alter the Table for defining primary and/or foreign keys



3. Data Definition Language Statements: CREATE TABLE

A SQL Statement to create a table must contain



Table Name

COLUMN Name

COLUMN DATA TYPE

Now let's look at the rules to name tables;

3. Data Definition Language Statements: CREATE TABLE

Rules for Naming a Table (specific to Oracle but many applied to other DBMS)

- 1. Depending on the DBMS, do not use more than some specific number of characters when naming the Table (For example; Table name should have a value of 1-30 character for ORACLE and 1-31 for INTERBASE respectively)**

3. Data Definition Language Statements: CREATE TABLE

Rules for Naming a Table (specific to Oracle but many applied to other DBMS)

- 1. Depending on the DBMS, do not use more than some specific number of characters when naming the Table (For example; Table name should have a value of 1-30 character for ORACLE and 1-31 for INTERBASE respectively)**
- 2. The first character in Table name should be alphabetic one.**

3. Data Definition Language Statements: CREATE TABLE

Rules for Naming a Table (specific to Oracle but many applied to other DBMS)

- 1. Depending on the DBMS, do not use more than some specific number of characters when naming the Table (For example; Table name should have a value of 1-30 character for ORACLE and 1-31 for INTERBASE respectively)**
- 2. The first character in Table name should be alphabetic one.**
- 3. Table name should consist of following characters. (Note: Although DBMSs like MS Access, Paradox allow using special characters it is better to avoid them for transferability)**

● **A-Z, a-z (in English Alphabet), 0-9,_(underscore)**

● **\$ and # is valid for Oracle but not suggested**

3. Data Definition Language Statements: CREATE TABLE

Rules for Naming a Table (specific to Oracle but many applied to other DBMS)

- 4. Do not use a reserved word in DBMS. (For example; you cannot name a Table column as foreign)**

SQL Data Definition Language

3. Data Definition Language Statements: CREATE TABLE

Rules for Naming a Table (specific to Oracle but many applied to other DBMS)

- 4. Do not use a reserved word in DBMS. (For example; you cannot name a Table name as Table)**
- 5. You cannot use a word that you defined before (For example; if you defined a Table named Employees before, you cannot create a table with the same name)**

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SQL Data Definition Language

3. Data Definition Language Statements: CREATE TABLE

Rules for Naming a Table (specific to Oracle but many applied to other DBMS)

- 4. Do not use a reserved word in DBMS. (For example; you cannot name a Table column as foreign)**
- 5. You cannot use a word that you defined before (For example; if you defined a Table named Employees before, you cannot create a table with the same name)**

Most DBMSs are not case-sensitive, i.e. EMPLOYEE and EmpLoYeE are same thing.

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3. Data Definition Language Statements: CREATE TABLE

Which of the followings is not a valid table name?

a . CUSTOMER ORDERS

b . CUSTOMER_ORDERS

c . ORDERS

d . CUST_ORDERS

3. Data Definition Language Statements: CREATE TABLE

Now Rules for naming COLUMNS:

Table Name

 **COLUMN Name**

COLUMN DATA TYPE

3. Data Definition Language Statements: CREATE TABLE

Rules for Naming a Table Column

(specific to Oracle but many applied to other DBMS)

- 1. Depending the DBMS, the number of characters are limited for naming the COLUMNS. (For Example; this number is 1-30 for ORACLE and 1-31 for INTERBASE respectively.**

3. Data Definition Language Statements: CREATE TABLE

Rules for Naming a Table Column

(specific to Oracle but many applied to other DBMS)

- 1. Depending the DBMS, the number of characters are limited for naming the COLUMNS. (For Example; this number is 1-30 for ORACLE and 1-31 for INTERBASE respectively.**
- 2. The first character in COLUMN Name should be alphabetic one**

3. Data Definition Language Statements: CREATE TABLE

Rules for Naming a Table Column

(specific to Oracle but many applied to other DBMS)

- 1. Depending the DBMS, the number of characters are limited for naming the COLUMNS. (For Example; this number is 1-30 for ORACLE and 1-31 for INTERBASE respectively.**
- 2. The first character in COLUMN Name should be alphabetic one**
- 3. It should only contain following characters. (Some DBMSs such as MS Access, Paradox accept special characters but avoid using special characters for transferability.**
 - **A-Z, a-z (in English Alphabet), 0-9,_(underscore)**
 - **\$ and # signs are valid for Oracle but avoid for transferability**

3. Data Definition Language Statements: CREATE TABLE

Rules for Naming a Table Column

(specific to Oracle but many applied to other DBMS)

- 4. You cannot use certain reserved words in DBMS for naming the columns (For example; you cannot have a column named *foreign*)**

3. Data Definition Language Statements: CREATE TABLE

Rules for Naming a Table Column

(specific to Oracle but many applied to other DBMS)

4. You cannot use certain reserved words in DBMS for naming the columns (For example; you cannot have a column named *foreign*)
5. Under the same table you cannot have two different columns with the same name. (You can have same column names under different tables)

3. Data Definition Language Statements: CREATE TABLE

Tablo Name

COLUMN Name



COLUMN DATA TYPE

The last thing to do is to decide COLUMN DATA TYPES

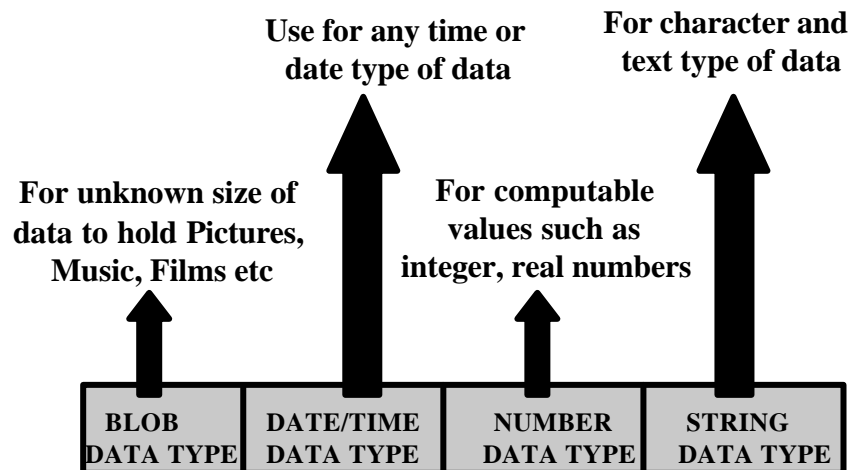
3. Data Definition Language Statements: CREATE TABLE

Be careful in defining COLUMN DATA TYPES.

For Example; Under ORACLE if you choose Number as data type, you can make calculations based on that column but not with data type called RAW.

3. Data Definition Language Statements: CREATE TABLE

USE OF DATA TYPES



**3. Data Definition Language Statements: CREATE TABLE
USE OF DATA TYPES (EXAMPLE; ORACLE)**

STRING DATA TYPE:CHAR() and VARCHAR()

For example; If you define a column as CHAR(10) ;

**‘Jeddah’
‘United_Sta’
‘UNITED_STA’ are examples of data.**

**Queries are case sensitive for string data types, i.e.
‘London’ and ‘LONDON’ are two different things.**

**3. Data Definition Language Statements: CREATE TABLE
USE OF DATA TYPES (EXAMPLE; ORACLE)**

STRING DATA TYPE:CHAR() and VARCHAR()

Difference between VARCHAR(10) and CHAR(10)

If you use CHAR(10) defining a column, it reserves a place of 10 characters in DBMS even if you insert less characters. If you enter value of ‘Jeddah’, DBMS stores it as ‘Jeddah ‘.

VARCHAR(10) is more economical to use.

3. Data Definition Language Statements: CREATE TABLE

USE OF DATA TYPES (EXAMPLE; ORACLE)

BLOB DATA TYPE: LONG

This data type holds data up to 2 *gigabytes*. You can store text with more than 255 characters or pictures.

For each table, you can only have one LONG Data Type.

3. Data Definition Language Statements: CREATE TABLE

USE OF DATA TYPES (EXAMPLE; ORACLE)

NUMBER DATA TYPE: NUMBER (,)

NUMBER (,) DATA TYPE is used to hold numbers. For example; By defining a column as **NUMBER (7 , 2)** you can hold 12345 . 67. If you enter a value of 12345.678, it will be rounded to 12345.68.

3. Data Definition Language Statements: CREATE TABLE

Now you can use CREATE TABLE Statement. This statement consists of 5 things.

1. Define Table Name
2. Define number and names of columns
3. Define data type for each column
4. Define for each column whether we allow null values or not.
5. Define other constraints for each column (primary key or foreign key constraints)

3. Data Definition Language Statements: CREATE TABLE

CREATE TABLE syntax is as follows:

```
CREATE TABLE [User_Name.]table_name
(Column_Name Data_Type [column_constraint],
 Column_Name Data_Type [column_constraint],
 ..... )
```

3. Data Definition Language Statements: CREATE TABLE

Following statement defines a table named EMPLOYEE .

```
CREATE TABLE EMPLOYEE
(EMP_ID           INTEGER      NOT NULL,
 NAME            VARCHAR(19)  NOT NULL,
 SURNAME         VARCHAR(19)  NOT NULL,
 IS_MARRIED      VARCHAR(1)   NOT NULL,
 NUMBER_OF_CHILDREN SMALLINT   );
```

COLUMN NAMES

DATA TYPES

NULL/NOT NULL

3. Data Definition Language Statements: CREATE TABLE

Maximum number of columns is 255 for ORACLE DBMS. Usually we don't need that much if we have a proper relational design)

```
CREATE TABLE EMPLOYEE
(EMP_ID           INTEGER      NOT NULL,
 NAME            VARCHAR(19)  NOT NULL,
 SURNAME         VARCHAR(19)  NOT NULL,
 IS_MARRIED      VARCHAR(1)   NOT NULL,
 NUMBER_OF_CHILDREN SMALLINT   );
```

COLUMN NAMES

DATA TYPES

NULL/NOT NULL

3. Data Definition Language Statements: CREATE TABLE

Second column is for data type of each column.

```
CREATE TABLE EMPLOYEE
(EMP_ID          INTEGER      NOT NULL,
 NAME           VARCHAR(19) NOT NULL,
 SURNAME        VARCHAR(19) NOT NULL,
 IS_MARRIED     VARCHAR(1)  NOT NULL,
 NUMBER_OF_CHILDREN SMALLINT   );
```

COLUMN NAMES

DATA TYPES

NULL/NOT NULL

3. Data Definition Language Statements: CREATE TABLE

Third column shows whether the column is allowed to accept Null values. If the column is required then place NOT NULL.

```
CREATE TABLE EMPLOYEE
(EMP_ID          INTEGER      NOT NULL,
 NAME           VARCHAR(19) NOT NULL,
 SURNAME        VARCHAR(19) NOT NULL,
 IS_MARRIED     VARCHAR(1)  NOT NULL,
 NUMBER_OF_CHILDREN SMALLINT   );
```

COLUMN NAMES

DATA TYPES

NULL/NOT NULL

3. Data Definition Language Statements: CREATE TABLE

What is the DATA TYPE for DEPT_ID?

```
CREATE TABLE DEPARTMENT
(DEPT_ID      INTEGER      NOT NULL,
 NAME        VARCHAR(32) NOT NULL,
 LOCATION    NUMBER(2),
 HEAD_DEPT_ID INTEGER );
```

- a . VARCHAR(32)
- b . NOT NULL
- c . NUMBER(2)
- d . INTEGER**

3. Data Definition Language Statements: CREATE TABLE

COLUMN CONSTRAINTS

You can place one or more constraint on the same column.
In the following example, the column *DEPT_ID* takes two constraints (*not null* constraint and *primary key* constraint).

```
CREATE TABLE DEPARTMENT
(DEPT_ID      INTEGER NOT NULL CONSTRAINT pk_DEPT_ID PRIMARY KEY,
 NAME        VARCHAR(32) NOT NULL,
 LOCATION    NUMERIC(2));
```

SQL Data Definition Language

3. Data Definition Language Statements: CREATE TABLE COLUMN CONSTRAINTS

You can also write constraints at the end.

```
CREATE TABLE DEPARTMENT
(DEPT_ID    INTEGER NOT NULL CONSTRAINT pk_DEPT_ID PRIMARY KEY,
 NAME      VARCHAR(32) NOT NULL,
 LOCATION  NUMERIC(2));
```

```
CREATE TABLE DEPARTMENT
(DEPT_ID    INTEGER NOT NULL,
 NAME      VARCHAR(32) NOT NULL,
 LOCATION  NUMERIC(2),
 CONSTRAINT pk_DEPT_ID PRIMARY KEY);
```

Therefore, the statements above give the same result.

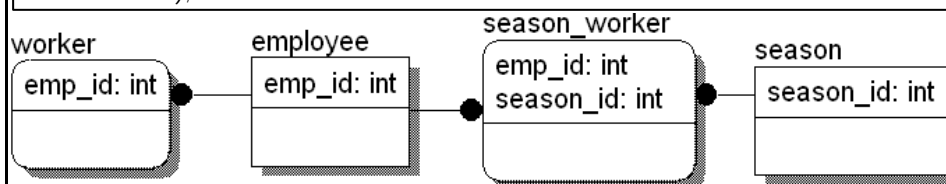
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SQL Data Definition Language

3. Data Definition Language Statements: EXAMPLE

```
create table employee (emp_no int not null constraint pk_employee primary key);
create table worker (emp_no int not null constraint pk_worker primary key
                    constraint fk_worker references employee);
create table season(season_id int not null constraint pk_season primary key);
create table season_worker (emp_no int not null,
                             season_id int not null,
                             constraint pk_season_worker primary key (emp_no,season_id),
                             constraint fk_season_worker1 foreign key(season_id) references season(season_id),
                             constraint fk_season_worker2 foreign key(emp_no) references employee(emp_no)
                             );
```



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3. Data Definition Language Statements: CREATE TABLE COPYING A TABLE UNDER ORACLE

If you have an existing table, you can create another table based on that one by using **CREATE TABLE AS** under **ORACLE**. This is not available in all DBMS.

Note: It does not copy primary key or foreign key constraints.

The syntax for **CREATE TABLE AS** is given below;

```
CREATE TABLE table_name[(COLUMN_Name,COLUMN_Name...)]  
AS  
[Query]
```

3. Data Definition Language Statements: CREATE TABLE AS

Following **CREATE TABLE AS** statement creates a table called **HDATES**. New table contains three columns based on the query. They are **EMPNO**, **ENAME** and **HIREDATE**. New table includes three columns in all rows.

```
SQL> CREATE TABLE HDATES  
2 AS  
3 SELECT EMPNO,ENAME,HIREDATE  
4 FROM EMP;
```

3. Data Definition Language Statements: CREATE TABLE AS

HDATES contains all data in **EMP** table.

```
SQL> CREATE TABLE HDATES
2     AS
3         SELECT *
4         FROM EMP;
```

3. Data Definition Language Statements: CREATE TABLE AS

What happens in the following example?

```
SQL> CREATE TABLE BLANK_EMP
2     AS
3         SELECT * FROM EMP
4         WHERE 2=3;
```

BLANK_EMP table is created with all columns as in **EMP**. But it contains no data from **EMP** because **2=3** condition is not met.

3. Data Definition Language Statements: ALTER TABLE

After using CREATE TABLE statements, you can change the structure of your database by using ALTER TABLE ... Statements.

3. Data Definition Language Statements: ALTER TABLE

Using ALTER TABLE ... statements you can make changes in table structures as follows:

- ◆ Adding new a column or constraint. For example, adding a *NOT NULL* or *foreign key* constraint.
- ◆ Changing an existing column definition. You can change data type or constraint for an existing column.

3. Data Definition Language Statements: ALTER TABLE

Using ALTER TABLE ... statements you can make changes in table structures as follows:

- ◆ Adding new a column or constraint. For example, adding a *NOT NULL* or *foreign key* constraint.
- ◆ Changing an existing column definition. You can change data type or constraint for an existing column.

Who can change a Table structure ?

Owner of the table or the persons allowed by the owner can change the structure of a table using ALTER TABLE statements.

Also DBA has got the privilege of access and change to any table.

3. Data Definition Language Statements: ALTER TABLE

True or False?

ANYONE CAN CHANGE A TABLE.

TRUE

FALSE

3. Data Definition Language Statements: ALTER TABLE

Adding a New COLUMN to a Table

The first change to a table is to add a column and constraint.
For this purpose, you can use ALTER TABLE statement as follows:

```
ALTER TABLE Table_Name
ADD ( {COLUMN_Name data_type | COLUMN_constraint},
      [{COLUMN_Name data_type | COLUMN_constraint}]..)
```

ORACLE

```
ALTER TABLE Table_Name
ADD {COLUMN_Name data_type | COLUMN_constraint},
[ADD {COLUMN_Name data_type | COLUMN_constraint}] ..
```

InterBase

3. Data Definition Language Statements: ALTER TABLE

By using ALTER TABLE ... Statement, you can change an existing column.

```
CREATE TABLE DEPARTMENT (
DEPT_ID          INTEGER          NOT NULL PRIMARY KEY,
NAME             VARCHAR(64)      NOT NULL,
LOCATION          VARCHAR(32),
HEAD_DEPT_ID    INTEGER          NOT NULL );
```

First construct a CREATE TABLE statement to convert the data model into design. The name of table is *DEPARTMENT*.

HEAD_DEPT_ID is not referenced yet as foreign key.

DEPARTMENT

```
DEPT_ID: INTEGER
NAME: VARCHAR(64)
LOCATION: VARCHAR(32)
HEAD_DEPT_ID: INTEGER (FK)
```

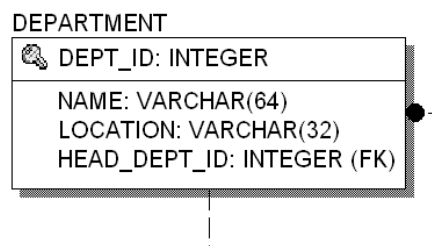
SQL Data Definition Language

3. Data Definition Language Statements: ALTER TABLE

ALTER TABLE Table_Name ADD FOREIGN KEY...

```
ALTER TABLE DEPARTMENT
  ADD FOREIGN KEY (HEAD_DEPT_ID)
    REFERENCES DEPARTMENT;
```

For recursive relationship,
HEAD_DEPT_ID is referenced
from the same table.



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SQL Data Definition Language

3. Data Definition Language Statements: ALTER TABLE

**ALTER TABLE Table_Name
ADD COLUMN_Name data_type constraint;**

```
ALTER TABLE DEPARTMENT
  ADD NUMBER_OF_POSITIONS INTEGER;
```

We add a column named **NUMBER_OF_POSITIONS**

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3. Data Definition Language Statements: ALTER TABLE

You can add many columns at the same time.

For example;

```
ALTER TABLE DEPARTMENT
  ADD NUMBER_OF_POSITIONS INTEGER,
  ADD MANAGER INTEGER NOT NULL;
```

3. Data Definition Language Statements: ALTER TABLE

CHANGING COLUMN DEFINITIONS

Using ALTER TABLE statement, you can change column structure and its constraints

Examples;

- ◆ You can increase the width of a string column
- ◆ You can reduce the width of a string column

3. Data Definition Language Statements: ALTER TABLE

Changing COLUMN Definitions

Syntax for changing COLUMN definitions;

```
ALTER TABLE Table_Name
MODIFY ({COLUMN_Name data_type | COLUMN_constraint}
        [{COLUMN_Name data_type | COLUMN_constraint}] ..)
```

ORACLE

MODIFY is available under ORACLE. For most of the DBMSs, this choice is not available. For other DBMSs, you can first delete column using drop choice. And later use add choice to add column. Do not forget to get a backup of column before deleting.

3. Data Definition Language Statements: ALTER TABLE

ALTER TABLE Table_Name DROP COLUMN_Name

```
ALTER TABLE DEPARTMENT DROP NUMBER_OF_POSITIONS;
```

InterBase

Drop choice is used to delete a column in a table (ALTER TABLE ... DROP statement)

3. Data Definition Language Statements: DROP TABLE

DROP TABLE Statement

DROP TABLE statement deletes a table from the database permanently.

3. Data Definition Language Statements: DROP TABLE

DROP TABLE Statement

Syntax is very simple but the result is 

```
DROP TABLE Table_Name
```

Following statement deletes the table **EMPLOYEE** from database permanently.

```
DROP TABLE EMPLOYEE
```

3. Data Definition Language Statements: DROP TABLE



3. Data Definition Language Statements

OTHER DATA DEFINITION LANGUAGE STATEMENTS

DEFINITION STATEMENTS	RESTRUCTURING STATEMENTS	DROP STATEMENTS
<u>CREATE DATABASE</u>	ALTER DATABASE	DROP DATABASE
<u>CREATE DOMAIN</u>	ALTER DOMAIN	DROP DOMAIN
<u>CREATE EXCEPTION</u>	ALTER EXCEPTION	DROP EXCEPTION
<u>CREATE GENERATOR</u>	ALTER INDEX	DROP EXTERNAL
<u>CREATE INDEX</u>	ALTER PROCEDURE	DROP FILTER
<u>CREATE PROCEDURE</u>	ALTER TABLE	DROP INDEX
<u>CREATE ROLE</u>	ALTER TRIGGER	DROP PROCEDURE
<u>CREATE SHADOW</u>		DROP ROLE
<u>CREATE TABLE</u>		DROP SHADOW
<u>CREATE TRIGGER</u>		DROP TABLE
<u>CREATE VIEW</u>		DROP TRIGGER
		DROP VIEW

NOTE: Some statements above are for INTERBASE DBMS

SQL Data Manipulation Language

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SQL Data Manipulation Language

INSERT	➔	Insert Data
UPDATE	➔	Update Data
DELETE	➔	Delete Data

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INSERT statement is used to enter new rows into tables.

You have to know the structure of table before inserting data. Some DBMSs have some commands to learn the structure of a table, e.g. *DESCRIBE Table_Name* under ORACLE.

You can learn which columns exist in the table by using *SELECT * FROM Table_Name* statement. This query does not give column constraints.



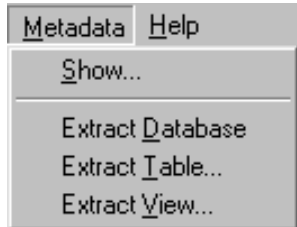
Example; Under ORACLE you can use *DESCRIBE NATION* statement to show the contents of *NATION* table.

```
SQL> DESCRIBE nation
Name          Null?         Type
-----
NATCODE       NOT NULL     NUMBER(5)
NATION        NOT NULL     VARCHAR2(28)
CAPITAL       VARCHAR2(10)
AREA          NUMBER(22)
POPULATION    NUMBER(22)
```

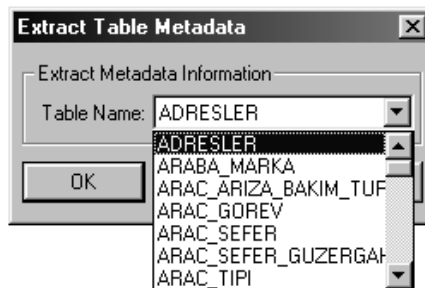
- ◆ *Name* column shows the columns in table. *NATION* Table consists of NATCODE, NATION, CAPITAL, AREA and POPULATION columns.
- ◆ *Null?* column shows whether the column will take null values.
- ◆ *Type* column shows data type and size of the column.

SQL Data Manipulation Language

INSERT → **Insert Data**



Using Windows ISQL under InterBase DBMS, you can learn table structure by *Metadata/Extract Table* choice.



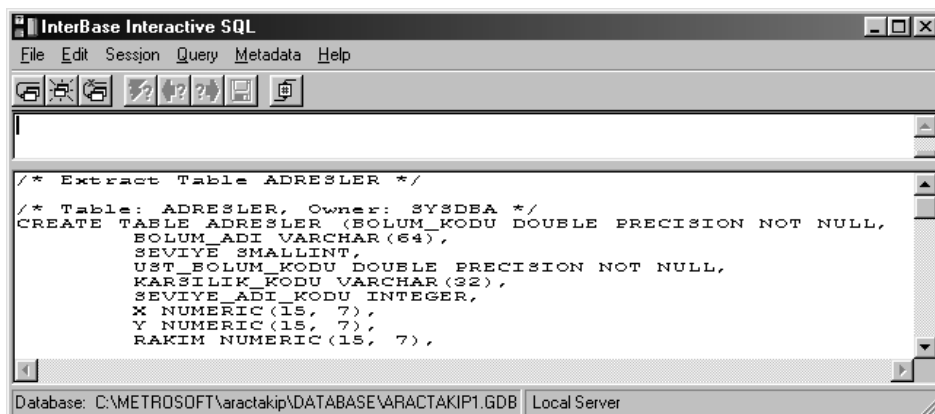
Suppose you have chosen a table named **ADRESLER ...**

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SQL Data Manipulation Language

INSERT → **Insert Data**

The result is shown as **CREATE TABLE** Statement .



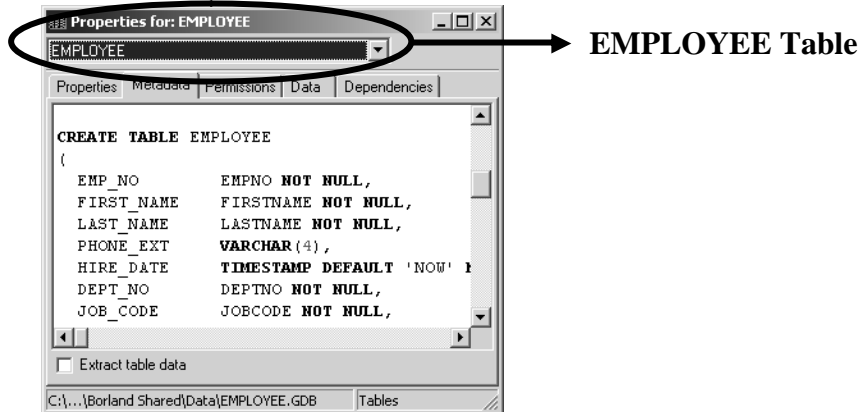
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SQL Data Manipulation Language

INSERT → **Insert Data**

In new version of InterBase DBMS, go to Table properties and choose Metadata page



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SQL Data Manipulation Language

INSERT → **Insert Data**

Now you know which table has which columns, data types and constraints.

The syntax for INSERT statement is below.

```
INSERT INTO Table_Name [(COLUMN1,COLUMN2...)]  
VALUES (value1,value2...)
```

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INSERT → **Insert Data**

INSERT statement can be used in 3 ways:

- ◆ **To insert a row with all column values**
- ◆ **To insert a row by specifying some columns**
- ◆ **To insert row (or rows) by querying another tables using SELECT statement**

INSERT → **Insert Data**

DEPARTMENTS
DEPARTMENT_ID: INTEGER
NAME: VARCHAR2(32)
LOCATION: VARCHAR2(16)
TELEPHONE: VARCHAR2(10)
HEAD_DEPARTMENT: INTEGER (FK)

INSERT statement can be used in 3 ways:

- ◆ **To insert a row with all column values**

Suppose you have a table of DEPARTMENTS and you want to specify all columns as follows.

DEPARTMENT_ID=12 NAME='Marketing and Sales'
LOCATION='High Street' TELEPHONE='285 31 95'
HEAD_DEPARTMENT=1

Required INSERT statement;

```
INSERT INTO DEPARTMENTS  
VALUES (12,'Marketing and Sales','High Street','285 31 95',1)
```

SQL Data Manipulation Language

INSERT → **Insert Data**

Columns in INSERT statement should be specified according to the order in CREATE TABLE statement.

```
INSERT INTO DEPARTMENTS NO COLUMN NAME
VALUES (12,'Marketing and Sales','High Street','285 31 95',1)
```

```
CREATE TABLE DEPARTMENTS (
  DEPARTMENT_ID      INTEGER NOT NULL,
  NAME                VARCHAR2(32) NOT NULL,
  LOCATION            VARCHAR2(16) NULL,
  TELEPHONE           VARCHAR2(10) NULL,
  HEAD_DEPARTMENT    INTEGER NULL,
  PRIMARY KEY (DEPARTMENT_ID),
  FOREIGN KEY (HEAD_DEPARTMENT)
                  REFERENCES DEPARTMENTS
);
```

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SQL Data Manipulation Language

INSERT → **Insert Data**

- ◆ To insert a row by specifying some columns
You have to specify at least the not null columns. Column order may be mixed.

```
INSERT INTO DEPARTMENTS (NAME,DEPARTMENT_ID)
VALUES ('Marketing and Sales', 12);
```

```
CREATE TABLE DEPARTMENTS (
  DEPARTMENT_ID      INTEGER NOT NULL,
  NAME                VARCHAR2(32) NOT NULL,
  LOCATION            VARCHAR2(16) NULL,
  TELEPHONE           VARCHAR2(10) NULL,
  HEAD_DEPARTMENT    INTEGER NULL,
  PRIMARY KEY (DEPARTMENT_ID),
  FOREIGN KEY (HEAD_DEPARTMENT) REFERENCES DEPARTMENTS);
```

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INSERT  **Insert Data**

To insert row (or rows) by querying another tables using SELECT statement

**Using INSERT
and SELECT together**

Syntax is as follows to insert row (or rows) by querying another tables using SELECT statement

```
INSERT INTO TableToBeInserted [(COLUMN1,COLUMN2...)]  
  SELECT COLUMN1,COLUMN2... FROM TableToBeSelected  
  [WHERE .....]
```

NOTE: Column data types and order in INSERT part should be compatible in the second (SELECT) part.

**Using INSERT
and SELECT together**

First, let us define a table called DEPARTMENTS_BACKUP by following statement.

```
CREATE TABLE DEPARTMENTS_BACKUP (DEPARTMENT INTEGER NOT NULL,  
NAME VARCHAR(64))
```

**Using INSERT
and SELECT together**

Following statement copies the rows and columns of table DEPARTMENT for departments starting with 'A' into DEPARTMENTS_BACKUP Table.

```
INSERT INTO DEPARTMENTS (DEPARTMENT, NAME)  
SELECT DEPARTMENT_ID, NAME  
FROM DEPARTMENTS WHERE NAME LIKE 'A%'
```

COLUMN names may be different but data types should be same.

UPDATE → Update Data

UPDATE → Update Data

UPDATE statements are used to change data in columns.

UPDATE Statement may be used

- 1. To update columns in one row**
- 2. To update columns in many rows**

UPDATE → Update Data

UPDATING COLUMNS OF A ROW

Suppose you want to update DEPARTMENTS Table as follows;

for DEPARTMENT_ID=19

NEW VALUES

NAME='Quality Department'
HEAD_DEPARTMENT=1

COLUMN Name	Null?	DATA TYPE
DEPARTMENT_ID	NOT NULL	INTEGER
NAME	NOT NULL	VARCHAR(64)
HEAD_DEPARTMENT		INTEGER

Two columns will be updated herein.

UPDATE → Update Data

Syntax for UPDATE Statement

```
UPDATE <Table_Name>
  SET <COLUMN1> = <value1> [, <COLUMN2> = <value2> .... ]
  [WHERE condition]
```

There are 2 parts in UPDATE Statement as follows ;

- ◆ SET clause is used to specify column names to be updated and new values for these columns.
- ◆ WHERE clause is optional. Defines which rows should be changed. Where statement must be a condition which produces TRUE or FALSE.

SQL Data Manipulation Language

UPDATE → Update Data

Syntax for UPDATE Statement

```
UPDATE <Table_Name>  
  SET <COLUMN1> = <value1> [, <COLUMN2> = <value2> .... ]  
  [WHERE condition]
```

What is update statement to update the values of NAME and HEAD_DEPARTMENT in DEPARTMENTS Table with the following values for DEPARTMENT_ID=19 ?

NEW VALUES

NAME='Quality Control' HEAD_DEPARTMENT=1

```
UPDATE DEPARTMENTS  
  SET NAME='Quality Control', HEAD_DEPARTMENT=1  
  WHERE DEPARTMENT_ID=19;
```

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SQL Data Manipulation Language

UPDATE → Update Data

```
UPDATE DEPARTMENTS  
  SET NAME='Quality Control', HEAD_DEPARTMENT=1  
  WHERE DEPARTMENT_ID=19;
```

Before UPDATE

DEPARTMENT_ID	NAME	HEAD_DEPARTMENT
19	Quality Assurance Department	2

After UPDATE

DEPARTMENT_ID	NAME	HEAD_DEPARTMENT
19	Quality Control	1

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Answer the following question.

You want to change the values as `VEHICLE_TYPE='SERVICE'` and `PLATE='34-UN-1600'` in `VEHICLES` Table.

VEHICLE_ID	VEHICLE_TYPE	PLATE	MODEL	STATE
7	TOYOTA SLX	34-CD-123	1999	HIRED

Will the following UPDATE Statement perform this change?

```
UPDATE VEHICLES
SET VEHICLE_TYPE='SERVICE', PLATE='34-UN-1600';
```

TRUE

FALSE

NOTE: Since there is no `WHERE` condition, all rows will be changed.
It is dangerous to use `UPDATE` Statement without condition.

Updating many rows

Using `UPDATE` statement, you can change many rows at the same time. For example; you want to make 20% increase in salaries of employees who are `'PROGRAMMER'`.

Using `UPDATE` statement as in the next slide, you can make this change.

Updating Multiple Rows

Make 20% increase in salaries of employees who are 'PROGRAMMER'.

```
UPDATE EMPLOYEE
SET NET_SALARY=NET_SALARY+NET_SALARY*0,20
WHERE JOB='PROGRAMMER';
```

You can display changes using following SELECT Statement .

```
SELECT EMP_ID,SURNAME,JOB,NET_SALARY
FROM EMPLOYEE;
```

You can display changes using following SELECT Statement.

Before UPDATE

EMP_ID	SURNAME	JOB	NET_SALARY
4250	ÖZER	PROGRAMMER	10000
4351	ÖZTÜRK	DIRECTOR	12500
4432	SELVI	PROGRAMMER	9000
3321	SEROGLU	OPERATOR	3500

After UPDATE

EMP_ID	SURNAME	JOB	NET_SALARY
4250	ÖZER	PROGRAMMER	12000
4351	ÖZTÜRK	DIRECTOR	12500
4432	SELVI	PROGRAMMER	10800
3321	SEROGLU	OPERATOR	3500

SQL Data Manipulation Language

In **EMPLOYEE** Table (for **EMP_ID=4251**), you want to change the value of **DEPARTMENT** column as 'Marketing/Sales'.

What is the **UPDATE** statement for this?

- A** UPDATE EMPLOYEE
SET DEPARTMENT= 'Marketing/Sales'
WHERE DEPARTMENT_ID=4251;
- B** UPDATE EMPLOYEE
SET EMP_ID=4251
WHERE DEPARTMENT= 'Marketing/Sales'
- C** UPDATE EMPLOYEE
SET DEPARTMENT= 'Marketing/Sales'
WHERE EMP_ID=4251;
- D** UPDATE EMPLOYEE
SET DEPARTMENT= 'Marketing/Sales';

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SQL Data Manipulation Language

Update Data with NULL Values

For columns which can take null values, you can update some columns as NULL values.

Example

```
UPDATE EMPLOYEE
SET base_salary=base_salary*1.20,department=NULL
WHERE JOB='Salesman'
AND HIREDATE<'1-JAN-1992'
```

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SQL Data Manipulation Language

Update Data using Queries

You can supply search condition in WHERE clause as Queries. For example, you want to update the manager of all employees as 123 working in the same department with 'Khalid Omar'. The first thing to do is to learn the *department_id* of 'Khalid Omar'. Use the following SELECT Statement for this;

```
SELECT department FROM EMPLOYEE
WHERE name='Khalid' AND surname='Omar'
```

Suppose we get the value of 13 for *department_id*. Now you can update EMPLOYEE table with the following statement;

```
UPDATE EMPLOYEE
SET manager=123
WHERE department_id=13
```

SQL Data Manipulation Language

Update Data using Queries

You can join UPDATE and SELECT Statements for the same purpose.

```
UPDATE EMPLOYEE
SET manager=123
WHERE department_id=
(SELECT department FROM EMPLOYEE
WHERE name='Khalid' AND surname='Omar')
```

Deleting Rows from Tables

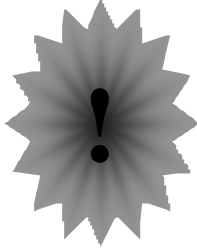
Using SQL Delete statements you can delete rows from tables

The syntax for DELETE Statement is given below.

```
DELETE FROM Table_Name  
[WHERE condition]
```

Suppose *Employee* with surname 'ESEN' left the job.
You want to delete his record under *EMPLOYEE* table.
You can do this with following statement;

```
DELETE FROM EMPLOYEE  
WHERE SURNAME='ESEN';
```

What happens if there are more than one employees with surname 'ESEN'?

```
DELETE FROM EMPLOYEE  
WHERE SURNAME='ESEN';
```

All employees with surname 'ESEN' will be deleted.

It is suggested that you use a primary key value in where condition not to delete any record by mistake.

```
DELETE FROM EMPLOYEE  
WHERE EMP_ID=4251;
```

```
DELETE FROM EMPLOYEE;
```

What happens after executing the SQL statement above?

- A Nothing. Statement is not executed due to error.
- B An error message is given.
- C EMPLOYEE Table is removed completely.
- D All rows in EMPLOYEE Table are deleted.

Be careful with using DELETE Statement.

It will delete all values in table.

```
DELETE FROM EMPLOYEE;
```



SQL Data Transaction Language

Transaction Concept
COMMIT Statement
ROLLBACK Statement
SAVEPOINT Statement (Not available in all DBMSs)

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SQL Data Transaction Language

What is a Transaction?

Let us try to explain *Transaction* with one example.
You went to ACM (Automated Cash Machine) to get some money. System updates your balance after subtracting the money you have taken. Suppose something bad happened (electricity cut) and you couldn't get your money at the end.

Will it be subtracted from your account?

We define all processes as *one transaction* until they really finish and made permanent in database.

A transaction is one single process containing chained processes.

We should be able to get back all changes whenever necessary.

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SQL Data Transaction Language

What is a Transaction?

Technically, Transaction is a group of SQL statement defined as one unit.

A transaction may for example contain following SQL statements;

- ▶ **INSERT Statement**
- ▶ **Another INSERT Statement**
- ▶ **DELETE Statement**
- ▶ **UPDATE Statement**

The changes made will be permanent by using COMMIT Statement. If you want to cancel a transaction then you can use ROLLBACK Statement. Transactions vary according to the job you are performing.

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SQL Data Transaction Language

COMMIT Statement

To make a transaction permanent you should use COMMIT Statement at the end of transaction. After COMMIT, all processes within transaction group are made permanent. A typical transaction is given below;

Transaction

1. **Insert a new employee row into EMPLOYEE Table**
2. **Update Salary of a specified EMPLOYEE**
3. **Update department for an employee**
4. **Delete the row of record for one employee**

```
COMMIT ;
```

COMMIT Statement makes these 4 SQL Statements permanent in database. Since there is no other COMMIT Statement, these 4 SQL Statements are named as only one transaction.

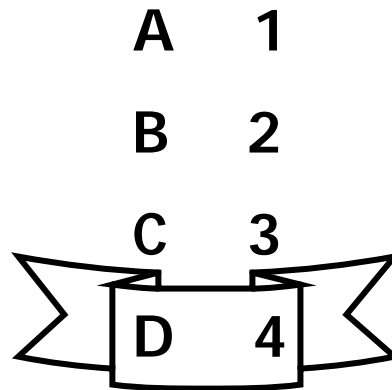
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SQL Data Transaction Language

There are some SQL statements below. How many transactions are available?

```
INSERT .....  
UPDATE .....  
DELETE .....  
COMMIT ;  
INSERT .....  
DELETE .....  
COMMIT ;  
UPDATE .....  
INSERT .....  
COMMIT ;  
UPDATE .....  
COMMIT ;
```



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SQL Data Transaction Language

Transactions are temporary until they are committed. You can see the changes you have made through INSERT, UPDATE and DELETE statements but other users cannot see the changes you have made until you or system COMMIT these changes.

You have to use COMMIT statement to make your transactions permanent.

If you disconnect the system. your changes will be automatically committed by the DBMS.

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SQL Data Transaction Language

Suppose you have entered the SQL statements on the right. Later you decided not to store these changes in database.

Without using COMMIT statement, you just disconnect the system to cancel the changes

FALSE

TRUE

```
DELETE FROM Employees  
WHERE EMP_NO=4251;
```

```
UPDATE Employees  
SET Salary=7500  
WHERE EMP_NO=4321;
```



When you disconnect the system the changes are committed automatically.

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SQL Data Transaction Language

ROLLBACK Statement

Using ROLLBACK Statement, you can cancel all changes in transaction.

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SQL Data Transaction Language

ROLLBACK Statement

Let's see how we execute ROLLBACK Statements. Following SQL Statements shows there is one transaction which is committed and one group uncommitted.

```
INSERT .....  
UPDATE .....  
DELETE .....  
COMMIT ;  
INSERT .....  
DELETE .....  
UPDATE .....
```

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SQL Data Transaction Language

ROLLBACK Statement

If you want to cancel the last 3 SQL Statements then you use ROLLBACK.

```
INSERT .....  
UPDATE .....  
DELETE .....  
COMMIT ;
```

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SQL Data Transaction Language

ROLLBACK Statement

If you want to cancel the last 3 SQL Statements then you use **ROLLBACK**.

```
INSERT .....  
UPDATE .....  
DELETE .....  
COMMIT;
```

All changes are cancelled after last **COMMIT** Statement. **INSERT**, **UPDATE** and **DELETE** statements cannot be cancelled since they are **COMMITTED**. You can rollback up to last commit statement.

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SQL Data Transaction Language

First Salary value is 5000 for employee with *emp_id=4251*. What is Salary value after SQL statements?

- 5000
- 8500
- 9000**
- Hiçbiri

```
UPDATE Employee  
  SET Salary=8500  
  WHERE emp_no=4251;  
COMMIT;  
UPDATE Employee  
  SET Salary=9000  
  WHERE emp_no=4251;  
COMMIT;  
ROLLBACK;
```

COMMIT is after **ROLLBACK** Statement.
There is nothing to cancel.

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SAVEPOINT Statement (Under ORACLE DBMS)

ROLLBACK Statement will cancel all changes after the last COMMIT Statement. In some DBMS such as ORACLE, there are alternatives to cancel part of the transaction with ROLLBACK.

You can use SAVEPOINT Statement under Oracle DBMS. SAVEPOINT is a point to which you can rollback the changes.

The syntax for SAVEPOINT is

```
SAVEPOINT savepoint_name;
```

***Savepoint_name* herein is a variable name. You can cancel all changes up to this point.**

Following pages show an example for using *Savepoints*.

SQL Data Transaction Language

The following transaction starts process by inserting a new line in a table.

Later, this transaction is made permanent in Database by COMMIT Statement.

A new transaction starts with UPDATE statement.

```
INSERT .....  
COMMIT;  
UPDATE .....
```

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SQL Data Transaction Language

Let's define a SAVEPOINT in a transaction as in the following example.

After SAVEPOINT statement there is DELETE statement. This transaction contains one UPDATE and one DELETE statement (INSERT is another transaction which is finished by COMMIT).

Suppose you want to cancel only the result of DELETE.

```
INSERT .....  
COMMIT;  
UPDATE .....  
SAVEPOINT FirstPoint;  
DELETE .....
```

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SQL Data Transaction Language

Here, you can use **ROLLBACK** statement. The syntax for **ROLLBACK** statement is given below;

```
ROLLBACK  
  [TO [SAVEPOINT] ReturnPoint];
```

Using **TO SAVEPOINT** parameter you can cancel only part of transaction (cancel after the ReturnPoint).

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SQL Data Transaction Language

The following **ROLLBACK** statement will only cancel the result of **DELETE** statement.

```
INSERT .....  
COMMIT;  
UPDATE .....  
SAVEPOINT firstpoint;  
DELETE .....  
ROLLBACK TO SAVEPOINT firstpoint;
```

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SQL Data Transaction Language

Why SAVEPOINT?

In a Transaction, you can define certain points using SAVEPOINT. Transactions may sometimes contain several time consuming functions/processes. You can define SAVEPOINTS before executing functions. If there is error in any point, you can turn back to any SAVEPOINT. In that case you don't need to re-execute the functions before this SAVEPOINT. You can continue the transaction after this point.

```
Define Savepoint 1
A Time Consuming Function
Define Savepoint 2
Another Time Consuming Process
ERROR
Go to Savepoint 2.....
```

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SQL Data Transaction Language

**For the Employee 4251, initial Salary value is 5000.
What is the new Salary value after applying the SQL statements on the right?**

- 500
- 8500
- 9000
- None

```
UPDATE Employees
  SET Salary=8500
  WHERE EMP_NO=4251;
SAVEPOINT point1;
UPDATE Employees
  SET Salary=9000
  WHERE EMP_NO=4251;
ROLLBACK TO
  SAVEPOINT point1;
COMMIT;
```

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SQL Data Query Language

Data from Databases are retrieved using SELECT statements.



SELECT statements are the richest part of SQL language.

Since they were the subjects taught before this course they will not be discussed herein.