Chapter 5: Advanced SQL

Database System Concepts, 6th Ed.

Outline

- Accessing SQL From a Programming Language
- Functions and Procedural Constructs
- Triggers
- Recursive Queries
- Advanced Aggregation Features
- OLAP

Accessing SQL From a Programming Language

Accessing SQL From a Programming Language

- API (application-program interface) for a program to interact with a database server
- Application makes calls to
  - Connect with the database server
  - Send SQL commands to the database server
  - Fetch tuples of result one-by-one into program variables
- Various tools:
  - ODBC (Open Database Connectivity) works with C, C++, C#, and Visual Basic. Other API's such as ADO.NET sit on top of ODBC
  - JDBC (Java Database Connectivity) works with Java
  - Embedded SQL

ODBC

- Open DataBase Connectivity (ODBC) standard
  - standard for application program to communicate with a database server.
  - application program interface (API) to
    - open a connection with a database,
    - send queries and updates,
    - get back results.
- Applications such as GUI, spreadsheets, etc. can use ODBC

JDBC

- **JDBC** is a Java API for communicating with database systems supporting SQL.
- JDBC supports a variety of features for querying and updating data, and for retrieving query results.
- JDBC also supports metadata retrieval, such as querying about relations present in the database and the names and types of relation attributes.
- Model for communicating with the database:
  - Open a connection
  - Create a “statement” object
  - Execute queries using the Statement object to send queries and fetch results
  - Exception mechanism to handle errors

JDBC Code

```
public static void JDBCexample(String dbid, String userid, String passwd)
{
    try (Connection conn = DriverManager.getConnection(
            "jdbc:oracle:thin:@db.yale.edu:2000:univdb", userid, passwd);
            Statement stmt = conn.createStatement();
        )
    {
            … Do Actual Work ….
    }
    catch (SQLException sqle) {
        System.out.println("SQLException : " + sqle);
    }
}
```

NOTE: Above syntax works with Java 7, and JDBC 4 onwards. Resources opened in "try (….)" syntax ("try with resources") are automatically closed at the end of the try block

JDBC Code for Older Versions of Java/JDBC

```
  public static void JDBCexample(String dbid, String userid, String passwd)
 {
       try {
           Class.forName ("oracle.jdbc.driver.OracleDriver");
           Connection conn = DriverManager.getConnection(
                  "jdbc:oracle:thin:@db.yale.edu:2000:univdb", userid, passwd);
          Statement stmt = conn.createStatement();
             … Do Actual Work ….
          stmt.close();
          conn.close();
      }
      catch (SQLException sqle) {
          System.out.println("SQLException : " + sqle);
      }
}
```

NOTE: Classs.forName is not required from JDBC 4 onwards. The try with resources syntax in prev slide is preferred for Java 7 onwards.

JDBC Code (Cont.)

- Update to database

```
try {
    stmt.executeUpdate(
        "insert into instructor values(’77987’, ’Kim’, ’Physics’,
98000)");
} catch (SQLException sqle)
{
   System.out.println("Could not insert tuple. " + sqle);
}
```

- Execute query and fetch and print results

```
ResultSet rset = stmt.executeQuery(
                        "select dept_name, avg (salary)
                         from instructor
                         group by dept_name");
while (rset.next()) {
      System.out.println(rset.getString("dept_name") + " " +
                            rset.getFloat(2));
}
```

JDBC Code Details

- Getting result fields:
  - **rs.getString("dept_name") and rs.getString(1) equivalent if dept_name is the first argument of select result.**
- Dealing with Null values

int a = rs.getInt("a");

if (rs.wasNull()) Systems.out.println("Got null value");

Prepared Statement

- PreparedStatement pStmt = conn.prepareStatement(
  "insert into instructor values(?,?,?,?)");
  pStmt.setString(1, "88877");
  pStmt.setString(2, "Perry");
  pStmt.setString(3, "Finance");
  pStmt.setInt(4, 125000);
  pStmt.executeUpdate();
  pStmt.setString(1, "88878");
  pStmt.executeUpdate();
- WARNING: always use prepared statements when taking an input from the user and adding it to a query
  - NEVER create a query by concatenating strings
  - "insert into instructor values(’ " + ID + " ’ , ’ " + name + " ’ , " + " ’ + dept name + " ’ , " ’ balance + ")“
  - What if name is “D’ Souza”?

SQL Injection

- Suppose query is constructed using
  - "select * from instructor where name = ’" + name + "’"
- Suppose the user, instead of entering a name, enters:
  - X’ or ’Y’ = ’Y
- then the resulting statement becomes:
  - "select * from instructor where name = ’" + "X’ or ’Y’ = ’Y" + "’"
  - which is:
    - select * from instructor where name = ’X’ or ’Y’ = ’Y’
  - User could have even used
    - X’; update instructor set salary = salary + 10000; --
- Prepared stament internally uses:
  "select * from instructor where name = ’X\’ or \’Y\’ = \’Y’
  - **Always use prepared statements, with user inputs as parameters**

Metadata Features

- ResultSet metadata
- E.g.after executing query to get a ResultSet rs:
  - ResultSetMetaData rsmd = rs.getMetaData();

```
for(int i = 1; i <= rsmd.getColumnCount(); i++) {
    System.out.println(rsmd.getColumnName(i));
    System.out.println(rsmd.getColumnTypeName(i));
}
```

- How is this useful?

Metadata (Cont)

- Database metadata
- DatabaseMetaData dbmd = conn.getMetaData();

```
// Arguments to getColumns: Catalog, Schema-pattern, Table-pattern,
// and Column-Pattern
// Returns: One row for each column; row has a number of attributes
// such as COLUMN_NAME, TYPE_NAME
// The value null indicates all Catalogs/Schemas.
// The value “” indicates current catalog/schema
// The value “%” has the same meaning as SQL like clause
ResultSet rs = dbmd.getColumns(null, "univdb", "department", "%");
while( rs.next()) {
        System.out.println(rs.getString("COLUMN_NAME"),
                                    rs.getString("TYPE_NAME");
}
```

- And where is this useful?

Metadata (Cont)

- Database metadata
- DatabaseMetaData dbmd = conn.getMetaData();

```
// Arguments to getTables: Catalog, Schema-pattern, Table-pattern,
// and Table-Type
// Returns: One row for each table; row has a number of attributes
// such as TABLE_NAME, TABLE_CAT, TABLE_TYPE, ..
// The value null indicates all Catalogs/Schemas.
// The value “” indicates current catalog/schema
// The value “%” has the same meaning as SQL like clause
// The last attribute is an array of types of tables to return.
//    TABLE means only regular tables
ResultSet rs = dbmd.getTables (“”, "", “%", new String[] {“TABLES”});
while( rs.next()) {
      System.out.println(rs.getString(“TABLE_NAME“));
}
```

- And where is this useful?

Finding Primary Keys

- DatabaseMetaData dmd = connection.getMetaData();

```
// Arguments below are:  Catalog, Schema, and Table
// The value “”  for Catalog/Schema indicates current catalog/schema
//  The value null indicates all catalogs/schemas
ResultSet rs = dmd.getPrimaryKeys(“”, “”, tableName);

while(rs.next()){
   // KEY_SEQ indicates the position of the attribute in
   // the primary key, which is required if a primary key has multiple
   // attributes
   System.out.println(rs.getString(“KEY_SEQ”),
                                   rs.getString("COLUMN_NAME");
}
```

Transaction Control in JDBC

- By default, each SQL statement is treated as a separate transaction that is committed automatically
  - bad idea for transactions with multiple updates
- Can turn off automatic commit on a connection
  - conn.setAutoCommit(false);
- Transactions must then be committed or rolled back explicitly
  - conn.commit(); or
  - conn.rollback();
- conn.setAutoCommit(true) turns on automatic commit.

Other JDBC Features

- Calling functions and procedures
  - CallableStatement cStmt1 = conn.prepareCall("{? = call some function(?)}");
  - CallableStatement cStmt2 = conn.prepareCall("{call some procedure(?,?)}");
- Handling large object types
  - getBlob() and getClob() that are similar to the getString() method, but return objects of type Blob and Clob, respectively
  - get data from these objects by getBytes()
  - associate an open stream with Java Blob or Clob object to update large objects
    - blob.setBlob(int parameterIndex, InputStream inputStream).

JDBC Resources

- JDBC Basics Tutorial
  - https://docs.oracle.com/javase/tutorial/jdbc/index.html

SQLJ

- JDBC is overly dynamic, errors cannot be caught by compiler
- SQLJ: embedded SQL in Java
  - #sql iterator deptInfoIter (String dept name, int avgSal);

```
deptInfoIter iter = null;
#sql iter = { select dept_name, avg(salary) from instructor
                  group by dept name };
while (iter.next()) {
     String deptName = iter.dept_name();
     int avgSal = iter.avgSal();
     System.out.println(deptName + " " + avgSal);
}
iter.close();
```

Embedded SQL

- The SQL standard defines embeddings of SQL in a variety of programming languages such as C, C++, Java, Fortran, and PL/1,
- A language to which SQL queries are embedded is referred to as a **host language**, and the SQL structures permitted in the host language comprise *embedded* SQL.
- The basic form of these languages follows that of the System R embedding of SQL into PL/1.
- **EXEC SQL** statement is used to identify embedded SQL request to the preprocessor

  EXEC SQL <embedded SQL statement >;

  Note: this varies by language:

  - In some languages, like COBOL, the semicolon is replaced with END-EXEC
  - In Java embedding uses # SQL { …. };

Embedded SQL (Cont.)

- Before executing any SQL statements, the program must first connect to the database. This is done using:

  EXEC-SQL **connect to** *server* **user** *user-name* **using** *password*;

  Here, *server* identifies the server to which a connection is to be established.

- Variables of the host language can be used within embedded SQL statements. They are preceded by a colon (:) to distinguish from SQL variables (e.g., :*credit_amount)*

- Variables used as above must be declared within DECLARE section, as illustrated below. The syntax for declaring the variables, however, follows the usual host language syntax.

```
EXEC-SQL BEGIN DECLARE SECTION}
      int credit-amount ;
EXEC-SQL END DECLARE SECTION;
```

Embedded SQL (Cont.)

- To write an embedded SQL query, we use the

  declare *c* **cursor for <SQL query>**

  statement. The variable *c* is used to identify the query
- Example:
  - From within a host language, find the ID and name of students who have completed more than the number of credits stored in variable credit_amount in the host langue
  - Specify the query in SQL as follows:

    EXEC SQL

    declare *c* **cursor for**
    select *ID, name*
    from *student*
    where tot_cred > *:credit_amount*

    END_EXEC

Embedded SQL (Cont.)

- Example:
  - From within a host language, find the ID and name of students who have completed more than the number of credits stored in variable credit_amount in the host langue
- Specify the query in SQL as follows:

```
EXEC SQL

    declare c cursor for
    select ID, name
    from student
    where tot_cred > :credit_amount

END_EXEC
```

- The variable *c* (used in the cursor declaration) is used to identify the query

Embedded SQL (Cont.)

- The open statement for our example is as follows:

  EXEC SQL **open** *c* ;

  This statement causes the database system to execute the query and to save the results within a temporary relation. The query uses the value of the host-language variable *credit-amount* at the time the **open** statement is executed.

- The fetch statement causes the values of one tuple in the query result to be placed on host language variables.

  EXEC SQL **fetch** *c* **into** :*si*, :*sn* END_EXEC

  Repeated calls to fetch get successive tuples in the query result

Embedded SQL (Cont.)

- A variable called SQLSTATE in the SQL communication area (SQLCA) gets set to '02000' to indicate no more data is available
- The **close** statement causes the database system to delete the temporary relation that holds the result of the query.

  EXEC SQL **close** *c* ;

Note: above details vary with language. For example, the Java embedding defines Java iterators to step through result tuples.

Updates Through Embedded SQL

- Embedded SQL expressions for database modification (**update**, **insert**, and **delete**)
- Can update tuples fetched by cursor by declaring that the cursor is for update

  EXEC SQL

  declare *c* **cursor for**
  select *
  from *instructor*
  where *dept_name* = 'Music'
  for update

- We then iterate through the tuples by performing **fetch** operations on the cursor (as illustrated earlier), and after fetching each tuple we execute the following code:

  update *instructor*
  set *salary* = *salary* + 1000
  where current of *c*

Extensions to SQL

Functions and Procedures

- SQL:1999 supports functions and procedures
  - Functions/procedures can be written in SQL itself, or in an external programming language (e.g., C, Java).
  - Functions written in an external languages are particularly useful with specialized data types such as images and geometric objects.
    - Example: functions to check if polygons overlap, or to compare images for similarity.
  - Some database systems support **table-valued functions**, which can return a relation as a result.
- SQL:1999 also supports a rich set of imperative constructs, including
  - Loops, if-then-else, assignment
- Many databases have proprietary procedural extensions to SQL that differ from SQL:1999.

SQL Functions

- Define a function that, given the name of a department, returns the count of the number of instructors in that department.

```
create function dept_count (dept_name varchar(20))
        returns integer
         begin
         declare d_count  integer;
                select count ( * ) into d_count
                from instructor
                where instructor.dept_name = dept_name
         return d_count;
  end
```

- The function *dept_*count can be used to find the department names and budget of all departments with more that 12 instructors.

```
select dept_name, budget
from department
where dept_count (dept_name ) > 12
```

SQL functions (Cont.)

- Compound statement: **begin … end**
  - May contain multiple SQL statements between **begin** and **end**.
- **returns** -- indicates the variable-type that is returned (e.g., integer)
- **return --** specifies the values that are to be returned as result of invoking the function
- SQL function are in fact parameterized views that generalize the regular notion of views by allowing parameters.

Table Functions

- SQL:2003 added functions that return a relation as a result
- Example: Return all instructors in a given department

create function *instructor_of* (*dept_name* **char**(20))
    returns table (
        ID **varchar**(5),
        name **varchar**(20),
        dept_name **varchar**(20),
        salary **numeric**(8,2))
    return table
        (**select** *ID, name, dept_name, salary*
         from *instructor*
         where *instructor.dept_name = instructor_of.dept_name*)

- Usage

    select *
    from table (*instructor_of* ('Music'))

SQL Procedures

- The *dept_count* function could instead be written as procedure:

  create procedure *dept_count_proc* (**in** *dept_name* **varchar**(20),
  out *d_count* **integer)**

  begin

  select count(*) **into** *d_count*
  from *instructor*
  where *instructor.dept_name = dept_count_proc.dept_name*

  end

- Procedures can be invoked either from an SQL procedure or from embedded SQL, using the **call** statement.

  declare *d_count* **integer**;
  call *dept_count_proc*('Physics', *d_count*);

  Procedures and functions can be invoked also from dynamic SQL

- SQL:1999 allows more than one function/procedure of the same name (called name **overloading**), as long as the number of arguments differ, or at least the types of the arguments differ

Language Constructs for Procedures & Functions

- SQL supports constructs that gives it almost all the power of a general-purpose programming language.
  - Warning: most database systems implement their own variant of the standard syntax below.
- Compound statement: **begin … end**,
  - May contain multiple SQL statements between **begin** and **end**.
  - Local variables can be declared within a compound statements
- **While** and **repeat** statements:
  - **while** *boolean expression* **do**
    sequence of statements ;
    end while

  - **repeat**
    sequence of statements ;
    until *boolean expression*
    end repeat

Language Constructs (Cont.)

- **For** loop
  - Permits iteration over all results of a query
- Example: Find the budget of all departments

```
declare n integer default 0;
 for r as
      select budget from department
 do
           set n = n + r.budget
 end for
```

Language Constructs (Cont.)

- Conditional statements (**if-then-else**)
  SQL:1999 also supports a **case** statement similar to C case statement
- Example procedure: registers student after ensuring classroom capacity is not exceeded
  - Returns 0 on success and -1 if capacity is exceeded
  - See book (page 177) for details
- Signaling of exception conditions, and declaring handlers for exceptions

  declare *out_of_classroom_seats* **condition**
  declare exit handler for *out_of_classroom_seats*
  begin
  …
  .. **signal** *out_of_classroom_seats*
  end

  - The handler here is **exit** -- causes enclosing **begin..end** to be exited
  - Other actions possible on exception

External Language Routines

- SQL:1999 permits the use of functions and procedures written in other languages such as C or C++
- Declaring external language procedures and functions

```
create procedure dept_count_proc(in dept_name varchar(20),
                                                    out count integer)
language C
external name ' /usr/avi/bin/dept_count_proc'

create function dept_count(dept_name varchar(20))
returns integer
language C
external name '/usr/avi/bin/dept_count'
```

External Language Routines

- SQL:1999 allows the definition of procedures in an imperative programming language, (Java, C#, C or C++) which can be invoked from SQL queries.
- Functions defined in this fashion can be more efficient than functions defined in SQL, and computations that cannot be carried out in SQL can be executed by these functions.
- Declaring external language procedures and functions

```
create procedure dept_count_proc(in dept_name varchar(20),
                                 out count integer)
language C
external name ' /usr/avi/bin/dept_count_proc'

create function dept_count(dept_name varchar(20))
returns integer
language C
external name '/usr/avi/bin/dept_count'
```

External Language Routines (Cont.)

- Benefits of external language functions/procedures:
  - more efficient for many operations, and more expressive power.
- Drawbacks
  - Code to implement function may need to be loaded into database system and executed in the database system's address space.
    - risk of accidental corruption of database structures
    - security risk, allowing users access to unauthorized data
  - There are alternatives, which give good security at the cost of potentially worse performance.
  - Direct execution in the database system's space is used when efficiency is more important than security.

Security with External Language Routines

- To deal with security problems, we can do on of the following:
  - Use **sandbox** techniques
    - That is, use a safe language like Java, which cannot be used to access/damage other parts of the database code.
  - Run external language functions/procedures in a separate process, with no access to the database process' memory.
    - Parameters and results communicated via inter-process communication
- Both have performance overheads
- Many database systems support both above approaches as well as direct executing in database system address space.

Triggers

Triggers

- A **trigger** is a statement that is executed automatically by the system as a side effect of a modification to the database.
- To design a trigger mechanism, we must:
  - Specify the conditions under which the trigger is to be executed.
  - Specify the actions to be taken when the trigger executes.
- Triggers introduced to SQL standard in SQL:1999, but supported even earlier using non-standard syntax by most databases.
  - Syntax illustrated here may not work exactly on your database system; check the system manuals

Triggering Events and Actions in SQL

- Triggering event can be **insert**, **delete** or **update**
- Triggers on update can be restricted to specific attributes
  - For example, **after update of** *takes* **on** *grade*
- Values of attributes before and after an update can be referenced
  - **referencing old row as :** for deletes and updates
  - **referencing new row as :** for inserts and updates
- Triggers can be activated before an event, which can serve as extra constraints. For example, convert blank grades to null.

```
create trigger setnull_trigger before update of takes
referencing new row as nrow
for each row
when (nrow.grade = ' ')
begin atomic
        set nrow.grade = null;
end;
```

Trigger to Maintain credits_earned value

```
create trigger credits_earned after update of takes on (grade)
referencing new row as nrow
referencing old row as orow
for each row
when nrow.grade <> 'F' and nrow.grade is not null
   and (orow.grade = 'F' or orow.grade is null)
begin atomic
    update student
    set tot_cred= tot_cred +
         (select credits
          from course
          where course.course_id= nrow.course_id)
    where student.id = nrow.id;
end;
```

Statement Level Triggers

- Instead of executing a separate action for each affected row, a single action can be executed for all rows affected by a transaction
  - Use **for each statement** instead of **for each row**
  - Use **referencing old table** or **referencing new table** to refer to temporary tables (called ***transition tables***) containing the affected rows
  - Can be more efficient when dealing with SQL statements that update a large number of rows

When Not To Use Triggers

- Triggers were used earlier for tasks such as
  - Maintaining summary data (e.g., total salary of each department)
  - Replicating databases by recording changes to special relations (called **change** or **delta** relations) and having a separate process that applies the changes over to a replica
- There are better ways of doing these now:
  - Databases today provide built in materialized view facilities to maintain summary data
  - Databases provide built-in support for replication
- Encapsulation facilities can be used instead of triggers in many cases
  - Define methods to update fields
  - Carry out actions as part of the update methods instead of through a trigger

When Not To Use Triggers (Cont.)

- Risk of unintended execution of triggers, for example, when
  - Loading data from a backup copy
  - Replicating updates at a remote site
  - Trigger execution can be disabled before such actions.
- Other risks with triggers:
  - Error leading to failure of critical transactions that set off the trigger
  - Cascading execution

Recursive Queries

Recursion in SQL

- SQL:1999 permits recursive view definition
- Example: find which courses are a prerequisite, whether directly or indirectly, for a specific course

```
with recursive rec_prereq(course_id, prereq_id) as (
        select course_id, prereq_id
        from prereq
    union
        select rec_prereq.course_id, prereq.prereq_id,
        from rec_prereq, prereq
        where rec_prereq.prereq_id = prereq.course_id
    )
select ∗
from rec_prereq;
```

This example view, *rec_prereq,* is called the *transitive closure* of the *prereq* relation

The Power of Recursion

- Recursive views make it possible to write queries, such as transitive closure queries, that cannot be written without recursion or iteration.
  - Intuition: Without recursion, a non-recursive non-iterative program can perform only a fixed number of joins of *prereq* with itself
    - This can give only a fixed number of levels of managers
    - Given a fixed non-recursive query, we can construct a database with a greater number of levels of prerequisites on which the query will not work
    - Alternative: write a procedure to iterate as many times as required
      - See procedure *findAllPrereqs* in book

The Power of Recursion

- Computing transitive closure using iteration, adding successive tuples to *rec_prereq*
  - The next slide shows a *prereq* relation
  - Each step of the iterative process constructs an extended version of *rec_prereq* from its recursive definition.
  - The final result is called the *fixed point* of the recursive view definition.
- Recursive views are required to be **monotonic**. That is, if we add tuples to *prereq* the view *rec_prereq* contains all of the tuples it contained before, plus possibly more

Advanced Aggregation Features

Ranking

- Ranking is done in conjunction with an order by specification.
- Suppose we are given a relation

  student_grades(ID, GPA)

  giving the grade-point average of each student
- Find the rank of each student.

  select *ID*, **rank**() **over** (**order by** *GPA* **desc) as** *s_rank*
  from *student_grades*

- An extra **order by** clause is needed to get them in sorted order

  select *ID*, **rank**() **over** (**order by** *GPA* **desc) as** *s_rank*
  from *student_grades*
  order by *s_rank*

- Ranking may leave gaps: e.g. if 2 students have the same top GPA, both have rank 1, and the next rank is 3
  - **dense_rank** does not leave gaps, so next dense rank would be 2

Ranking

- Ranking can be done using basic SQL aggregation, but resultant query is very inefficient

```
select ID, (1 + (select count(*)
                 from student_grades B
                 where B.GPA > A.GPA)) as s_rank
from student_grades A
order by s_rank;
```

Ranking (Cont.)

- Ranking can be done within partition of the data.
- "Find the rank of students within each department."

  select *ID*, *dept_name*,
  rank () **over** (**partition by** *dept_name* **order by** *GPA* **desc**)
  as *dept_rank*
  from *dept_grades*
  order by *dept_name*, *dept_rank*;

- Multiple **rank** clauses can occur in a single **select** clause.
- Ranking is done *after* applying **group by** clause/aggregation
- Can be used to find top-n results
  - More general than the **limit** *n* clause supported by many databases, since it allows top-n within each partition

Ranking (Cont.)

- Other ranking functions:
  - **percent_rank** (within partition, if partitioning is done)
  - **cume_dist** (cumulative distribution)
    - fraction of tuples with preceding values
  - **row_number** (non-deterministic in presence of duplicates)
- SQL:1999 permits the user to specify **nulls first** or **nulls last**

select *ID*,
        rank ( ) **over** (**order by** *GPA* **desc nulls last**) **as** *s_rank*
from *student_grades*

Ranking (Cont.)

- For a given constant *n*, the ranking the function *ntile*(*n*) takes the tuples in each partition in the specified order, and divides them into *n* buckets with equal numbers of tuples.
- E.g.,

  select *ID*, **ntile**(4) **over** (**order by** *GPA* **desc**) **as** *quartile*
  from *student_grades;*

Windowing

- Used to smooth out random variations.
- E.g., **moving average**: "Given sales values for each date, calculate for each date the average of the sales on that day, the previous day, and the next day"
- **Window specification** in SQL:
  - Given relation *sales(date, value)*

    select *date*, ***sum***(*value*) **over**
    (**order by** *date* **between rows** 1 **preceding and** 1 **following**)
    from *sales*

Windowing

- Examples of other window specifications:
  - **between rows unbounded preceding and current**
  - **rows unbounded preceding**
  - **range between** 10 **preceding and current row**
    - All rows with values between current row value –10 to current value
  - **range interval** 10 **day preceding**
    - Not including current row

Windowing (Cont.)

- Can do windowing within partitions
- E.g., Given a relation *transaction* (*account_number, date_time, value*), where value is positive for a deposit and negative for a withdrawal
  - "Find total balance of each account after each transaction on the account"

```
select account_number, date_time,
   sum (value) over
         (partition by account_number
          order by date_time
          rows unbounded preceding)
  as balance
from transaction
order by account_number, date_time
```


OLAP

Data Analysis and OLAP

- **Online Analytical Processing (OLAP)**
  - Interactive analysis of data, allowing data to be summarized and viewed in different ways in an online fashion (with negligible delay)
- Data that can be modeled as dimension attributes and measure attributes are called **multidimensional data**.
  - **Measure attributes**
    - measure some value
    - can be aggregated upon
    - e.g., the attribute *number* of the *sales* relation
  - **Dimension attributes**
    - define the dimensions on which measure attributes (or aggregates thereof) are viewed
    - e.g., attributes *item_name, color,* and *size* of the *sales* relation

Example sales relation

item_name	*color*	*clothes_size*	*quantity*
skirt	dark	small	2
skirt	dark	medium	5
skirt	dark	large	1
skirt	pastel	small	11
skirt	pastel	medium	9
skirt	pastel	large	15
skirt	white	small	2
skirt	white	medium	5
skirt	white	large	3
dress	dark	small	2
dress	dark	medium	6
dress	dark	large	12
dress	pastel	small	4
dress	pastel	medium	3
dress	pastel	large	3
dress	white	small	2
dress	white	medium	3
dress	white	large	0
shirt	dark	small	2
shirt	dark	medium	6
...	...	...	...
...	...	...	...

Cross Tabulation of *sales* by *item_name* and *color*

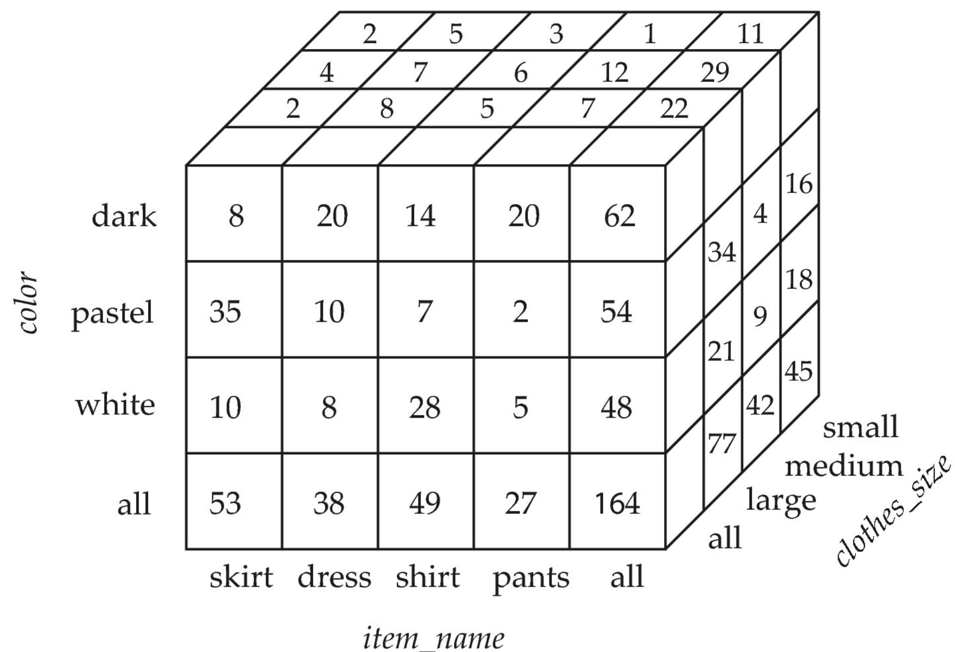
clothes_size **all**

		color			
		dark	pastel	white	total
item_name	skirt	8	35	10	53
	dress	20	10	5	35
	shirt	14	7	28	49
	pants	20	2	5	27
	total	62	54	48	164

- The table above is an example of a **cross-tabulation** (**cross-tab**), also referred to as a **pivot-table**.
  - Values for one of the dimension attributes form the row headers
  - Values for another dimension attribute form the column headers
  - Other dimension attributes are listed on top
  - Values in individual cells are (aggregates of) the values of the dimension attributes that specify the cell.

Data Cube

- A **data cube** is a multidimensional generalization of a cross-tab
- Can have *n* dimensions; we show 3 below
- Cross-tabs can be used as views on a data cube



Cross Tabulation With Hierarchy

- Cross-tabs can be easily extended to deal with hierarchies
  - Can drill down or roll up on a hierarchy

clothes_size: **all**

category	*item_name*	*color*: dark	pastel	white	total	
womenswear	skirt	8	8	10	53	
	dress	20	20	5	35	
	subtotal	28	28	15		88
menswear	pants	14	14	28	49	
	shirt	20	20	5	27	
	subtotal	34	34	33		76
total		62	62	48		164

Relational Representation of Cross-tabs

- Cross-tabs can be represented as relations
  - We use the value **all** is used to represent aggregates.
  - The SQL standard actually uses null values in place of **all** despite confusion with regular null values.

item_name	*color*	*clothes_size*	*quantity*
skirt	dark	**all**	8
skirt	pastel	**all**	35
skirt	white	**all**	10
skirt	**all**	**all**	53
dress	dark	**all**	20
dress	pastel	**all**	10
dress	white	**all**	5
dress	**all**	**all**	35
shirt	dark	**all**	14
shirt	pastel	**all**	7
shirt	White	**all**	28
shirt	**all**	**all**	49
pant	dark	**all**	20
pant	pastel	**all**	2
pant	white	**all**	5
pant	**all**	**all**	27
all	dark	**all**	62
all	pastel	**all**	54
all	white	**all**	48
all	**all**	**all**	164

Extended Aggregation to Support OLAP

- The **cube** operation computes union of **group by**' s on every subset of the specified attributes
- Example relation for this section
  sales(*item_name, color, clothes_size, quantity*)
- E.g. consider the query

  select *item_name, color, size,* **sum**(*number*)
  from *sales*
  group by cube(*item_name, color, size*)

  This computes the union of eight different groupings of the *sales* relation:

  { (*item_name, color, size*), (*item_name, color*),
  (*item_name, size*), (*color, size*),
  (*item_name*), (*color*),
  (*size*), ( ) }

  where ( ) denotes an empty **group by** list.
- For each grouping, the result contains the null value for attributes not present in the grouping.

Online Analytical Processing Operations

- Relational representation of cross-tab that we saw earlier, but with *null* in place of **all**, can be computed by

  select *item_name*, *color*, **sum**(*number*)
  from *sales*
  group by cube(*item_name, color*)

- The function **grouping()** can be applied on an attribute
  - Returns 1 if the value is a null value representing all, and returns 0 in all other cases.

select *item_name, color, size*, **sum**(*number*),
    grouping(*item_name*) **as** *item_name_flag*,
    grouping(*color*) **as** *color_flag*,
    grouping(*size*) **as** *size_flag*,
from *sales*
group by cube(*item_name, color, size*)

Online Analytical Processing Operations

- Can use the function **decode()** in the **select** clause to replace such nulls by a value such as **all**
  - E.g., replace *item_name* in first query by
    decode(**grouping**(item_*name*), 1, ‘all’ , *item_name*)

Extended Aggregation (Cont.)

- The **rollup** construct generates union on every prefix of specified list of attributes
- E.g.,

  select *item_name*, *color*, *size*, **sum**(*number*)
  from *sales*
  group by rollup(*item_name, color, size*)

  Generates union of four groupings:

  { (*item_name, color, size*), (*item_name, color*), (*item_name*), ( ) }
- Rollup can be used to generate aggregates at multiple levels of a hierarchy.
- E.g., suppose table *itemcategory*(*item_name, category*) gives the category of each item. Then

  select *category, item_name*, **sum**(*number*)
  from *sales, itemcategory*
  where *sales.item_name = itemcategory.item_name*
  group by rollup(*category, item_name*)

  would give a hierarchical summary by *item_name* and by *category.*

Extended Aggregation (Cont.)

- Multiple rollups and cubes can be used in a single group by clause
  - Each generates set of group by lists, cross product of sets gives overall set of group by lists
- E.g.,

  select *item_name, color, size*, **sum**(*number*)
  from *sales*
  group by rollup(*item_name*), **rollup**(*color, size*)

  generates the groupings

  {item_name, ()} X {(color, size), (color), ()}

  = { (*item_name, color, size*), (*item_name, color*), (*item_name*), (*color, size*), (*color*), ( ) }

Online Analytical Processing Operations

- **Pivoting:** changing the dimensions used in a cross-tab is called
- **Slicing:** creating a cross-tab for fixed values only
  - Sometimes called **dicing**, particularly when values for multiple dimensions are fixed.
- **Rollup:** moving from finer-granularity data to a coarser granularity
- **Drill down:** The opposite operation - that of moving from coarser-granularity data to finer-granularity data

OLAP Implementation

- The earliest OLAP systems used multidimensional arrays in memory to store data cubes, and are referred to as **multidimensional OLAP (MOLAP)** systems.
- OLAP implementations using only relational database features are called **relational OLAP (ROLAP)** systems
- Hybrid systems, which store some summaries in memory and store the base data and other summaries in a relational database, are called **hybrid OLAP (HOLAP)** systems.

OLAP Implementation (Cont.)

- Early OLAP systems precomputed *all* possible aggregates in order to provide online response
  - Space and time requirements for doing so can be very high
    - 2^n combinations of **group by**
  - It suffices to precompute some aggregates, and compute others on demand from one of the precomputed aggregates
    - Can compute aggregate on (*item_name, color*) from an aggregate on (*item_name, color, size*)
      - For all but a few "non-decomposable" aggregates such as *median*
      - is cheaper than computing it from scratch
- Several optimizations available for computing multiple aggregates
  - Can compute aggregate on (*item_name, color*) from an aggregate on (*item_name, color, size*)
  - Can compute aggregates on (*item_name, color, size*), (*item_name, color*) and (*item_name*) using a single sorting of the base data

End of Chapter 5