

# UNIT-IV (Relational Database Language , PL/SQL)

## Section-A (2 Marks)

### Important questions

#### 1. Define (i) Primary Key (ii) Foreign Key (iii) unique key.

(i)primary key:A primary key can consist of one or more columns on a table. Primary key constraints define a column or series of columns that uniquely identify a given row in a table. Any column that is defined as a primary key column is automatically set with a NOT NULL status.

(ii) foreignkey:A foreign key constraint is used to enforce a relationship between two tables. A foreign key is a column (or a group of columns) whose values are derived from the Primary key or unique key of some other table.

(iii)unique key: Unique key will not allow duplicate values. A table can have more than one Unique key. A unique constraint defines a column, or series of columns, that must be unique in value. Unique key may contain null values.

#### 2.What is SQL?

SQL stands for Structured Query Language ,SQL is a declarative (non-procedural) language. SQL is (usually) not case-sensitive, but we'll write SQL keywords in upper case for emphasis. Some database systems require a semicolon at the end of each SQL statement.

#### 3.What is procedure in PL/SQL?

PL/SQL subprograms are named PL/SQL blocks that can be invoked with a set of parameters. PL/SQL provides two kinds of subprograms –

- **Functions** – These subprograms return a single value; mainly used to compute and return a value.
- **Procedures** – These subprograms do not return a value directly; mainly used to perform an action.

#### 4.What is an Exception? Mention major types of Exceptions.

An exception is an error condition during a program execution. PL/SQL supports programmers to catch such conditions using **EXCEPTION** block in the program and an appropriate action is taken against the error condition. There are two types of exceptions –

- System-defined exceptions
- User-defined exceptions

#### 5.Mention different categories of SQL statements.

Data Definition Language (DDL)  
Data control language(DCL)  
Data manipulation language(DML)  
Transaction control language(TCL)

#### 6.Define (i) Tuple (ii) Query (iii) Domain.

(i)Tuple-a single row of a table,which contains a single record for the relation.

(ii)Query: Query is a request for data or information from a database table or combination of tables .eg:sql.

(iii) Domain : A **domain** is essentially a data type with optional constraints (restrictions on the allowed set of values). The user who defines a **domain** becomes its owner.

#### 7.What is Cursor?

A **cursor** is a pointer to this context area. PL/SQL controls the context area through a cursor. A cursor holds the rows (one or more) returned by a SQL statement. The set of rows the cursor holds is referred to as the **active set**.

#### 8.What is Trigger?

Triggers are stored programs, which are automatically executed or fired when some events occur. Triggers are, in fact, written to be executed in response to any of the following events –

- A **database manipulation (DML)** statement (DELETE, INSERT, or UPDATE)
- A **database definition (DDL)** statement (CREATE, ALTER, or DROP).

- A **database operation** (SERVERERROR, LOGON, LOGOFF, STARTUP, or SHUTDOWN).

Triggers can be defined on the table, view, schema, or database with which the event is associated.

## 9. List out different types of Join Operations.

There are different types of joins available in SQL:

INNER join  
 OUTER join (LEFT, RIGHT, FULL)  
 CROSS join

## 10. What is group by Clause? Explain the difference between Group by and Order by Clause.

The GROUP BY statement is often used with aggregate functions (COUNT, MAX, MIN, SUM, AVG) to group the result-set by one or more columns.

The **ORDER BY clause** is used to **sort** the data in **ascending** or **descending order**, based on one or more columns. Some databases **sort** the query results in an **ascending order** by default.

## 11. What is PL/SQL? Mention any two advantages of PL/SQL.

The PL/SQL programming language was developed by Oracle Corporation in the late 1980s as procedural extension language for SQL and the Oracle relational database. PL/SQL is a completely portable, high-performance transaction-processing language.

Advantages of PL/SQL

- PL/SQL supports both static and dynamic SQL. Static SQL supports DML operations and transaction control from PL/SQL block. In Dynamic SQL, SQL allows embedding DDL statements in PL/SQL blocks.
- PL/SQL gives high productivity to programmers as it can query, transform, and update data in a database.
- PL/SQL saves time on design and debugging by strong features, such as exception handling, encapsulation, data hiding, and object-oriented data types.
- Applications written in PL/SQL are fully portable.
- PL/SQL provides high security level.

## 12. Write the structure of PL/SQL.

The basic structure of a PL/SQL block –

```
DECLARE
<declarations section>
BEGIN
<executable command(s)>
EXCEPTION
<exception handling>
END;
```

Every PL/SQL statement ends with a semicolon (;).

### Declarations

This section starts with the keyword **DECLARE**. It is an optional section and defines all variables, cursors, subprograms, and other elements to be used in the program.

### Executable Commands

This section is enclosed between the keywords **BEGIN** and **END** and it is a mandatory section. It consists of the executable PL/SQL statements of the program.

### Exception Handling

This section starts with the keyword **EXCEPTION**. This optional section contains **exception(s)** that handle errors in the program.

## 13. Explain referential integrity.

**Referential integrity** (RI) is a relational **database** concept, which states that table relationships must always be consistent. In other words, any foreign key field must agree with the primary key that is referenced by the foreign key.

### Section-B (5 Marks and 10 Marks)

1. Explain numeric and aggregate functions in SQL.

Numerical functions:

Oracle allows arithmetic operators to be used while viewing records from a table or while performing data manipulation operations such as insert, update and delete.

These are:

+ Addition

- Subtraction

/ Division

\* Multiplication

() Enclosed Operations

Consider the below employee table(gkemp)

```
SQL> select * from gkemp;
```

EMPID	ENAME	ESAL
101	Nisarga	8500
102	Varsha G Kalyan	15000
103	Eenchara	5000
104	Mohith G Kalyan	12500
105	Kavitha	18000

```
SQL> select esal,esal+2500 from gkemp;
```

ESAL	ESAL+2500
8500	11000
15000	17500
5000	7500
12500	15000
18000	20500

```
SQL> select esal,esal-500 from gkemp;
```

ESAL	ESAL-500
8500	8000
15000	14500
5000	4500
12500	12000
18000	17500

```
SQL> select esal, esal/100 from gkemp;
```

ESAL	ESAL/100
8500	85
15000	150
5000	50
12500	125
18000	180

```
SQL> select esal, esal*10 from gkemp;
```

ESAL	ESAL*10
8500	85000
15000	150000
5000	50000
12500	125000
18000	180000

```
SQL> select esal,(10+esal)/100 from gkemp;
```

ESAL	(10+ESAL)/100
8500	85.1
15000	150.1
5000	50.1
12500	125.1
18000	180.1

## SQL Aggregate / Group Functions

Group functions return results based on groups of rows, rather than on single rows. returns the number of rows in the query. SQL aggregate functions return a single value, calculated from values in a column.

Useful aggregate functions:

- a) COUNT() - Returns the number of rows
- b) AVG() - Returns the average value
- c) MAX() - Returns the largest value
- d) MIN() - Returns the smallest value
- e) SUM() - Returns the total sum

Consider the below employee table(gkemp)

```
SQL> select * from gkemp;
```

EMPID	ENAME	ESAL
101	Nisarga	8500
102	Varsha G Kalyan	15000
103	Eenchara	5000
104	Mohith G Kalyan	12500
105	Kavitha	18000

- a) COUNT()

The COUNT() function counts number of values present in the column excluding Null values.

```
SQL> select count(empid) as totalemployee from gkemp;
```

TOTALEMLOYEE
5

- b) AVG()

The AVG() function returns the average value of a column specified.

```
SQL> select avg(esal) as averagesalary from gkemp;
```

```
AVERAGESALARY  
-----  
          11800
```

c) MAX()

The MAX() function returns the highest value of a particular column.

```
SQL> select max(esal) as maximumsalary from gkemp;
```

```
MAXIMUMSALARY  
-----  
          18000
```

d) MIN()

The MIN() function returns the smallest value of a particular column.

```
SQL> select min(esal) as minimumsalary from gkemp;
```

```
MINIMUMSALARY  
-----  
           5000
```

e) SUM()

The SUM() function returns the sum of column values.

```
SQL> select sum(esal) as totalsalary from gkemp;
```

```
TOTALSALARY  
-----  
         59000
```

## 2.Explain the following:

- (i) **IF statement.**
- (ii) **While loop**
- (iii) **FOR Loop**

### (i) IF statement

The **IF statement** associates a condition with a sequence of statements enclosed by the keywords **THEN** and **END IF**. If the condition is **TRUE**, the statements get executed, and if the condition is **FALSE** or **NULL**, then the **IF** statement does nothing.

Syntax

Syntax for **IF-THEN** statement is –

```
IF condition THEN  
S;
```

```
END IF;
```

Where *condition* is a Boolean or relational condition and S is a simple or compound statement. Following is an example of the IF-THEN statement –

```
IF (a <=20) THEN  
c:= c+1;  
END IF;
```

### WHILE Loop

A **WHILE LOOP** statement in PL/SQL programming language repeatedly executes a target statement as long as a given condition is true.

Syntax

```
WHILE condition LOOP  
sequence_of_statements  
END LOOP;
```

Example

```
DECLARE  
a number(2):=10;  
BEGIN  
    WHILE a <20 LOOP  
dbms_output.put_line('value of a: '|| a);  
a:= a +1;  
END LOOP;  
END;  
/
```

### FOR LOOP

A **FOR LOOP** is a repetition control structure that allows you to efficiently write a loop that needs to execute a specific number of times.

## Syntax

```
FOR counter IN initial_value ..final_value LOOP  
sequence_of_statements;  
END LOOP;
```

Following is the flow of control in a **For Loop** –

- The initial step is executed first, and only once. This step allows you to declare and initialize any loop control variables.
- Next, the condition, i.e., *initial\_value ..final\_value* is evaluated. If it is TRUE, the body of the loop is executed. If it is FALSE, the body of the loop does not execute and the flow of control jumps to the next statement just after the for loop.
- After the body of the for loop executes, the value of the counter variable is increased or decreased.
- The condition is now evaluated again. If it is TRUE, the loop executes and the process repeats itself (body of loop, then increment step, and then again condition). After the condition becomes FALSE, the FOR-LOOP terminates.

## Example

```
DECLARE  
  
a number(2);  
  
BEGIN  
  
  FOR a in 10..20 LOOP  
  
    dbms_output.put_line('value of a: '|| a);  
  
  END LOOP;  
  
END;  
  
/
```

### **3.Explain all categories of Database Languages.**

#### ***Data Definition Language (DDL)***

It is a set of SQL commands used to create, modify and delete database structure but not data. It also define indexes (keys), specify links between tables, and impose constraints between tables. DDL commands are auto COMMIT.

The most important DDL statements in SQL are:

- CREATE TABLE - creates a new table
- ALTER TABLE - modifies a table
- TRUNCATE TABLE- deletes all records from a table
- DROP TABLE - deletes a table

#### ***Data Manipulation Language (DML)***

It is the area of SQL that allows changing data within the database. The query and update commands form the DML part of SQL:

- INSERT - inserts new data into a database
- SELECT - extracts data from a database
- UPDATE - updates data in a database
- DELETE - deletes data from a database

### ***Data Control Language (DCL)***

It is the component of SQL statement that control access to data and to the database.

Occasionally DCL statements are grouped with DML Statements.

- COMMIT – Save work done.
- SAVEPOINT – Identify a point in a transaction to which you can later rollback. ROLLBACK – Restore database to original since the last COMMIT.
- GRANT – gives user's access privileges to database.
- REVOKE – withdraw access privileges given with GRANT command.

### **4.Explain types of Database Triggers in detail.**

Triggers are stored programs, which are automatically executed or fired when some events occur. Triggers are, in fact, written to be executed in response to any of the following events –

- A **database manipulation (DML)** statement (DELETE, INSERT, or UPDATE)
- A **database definition (DDL)** statement (CREATE, ALTER, or DROP).
- A **database operation** (SERVERERROR, LOGON, LOGOFF, STARTUP, or SHUTDOWN).

Triggers can be defined on the table, view, schema, or database with which the event is associated.

#### Creating Triggers

The syntax for creating a trigger is –

```
CREATE [OR REPLACE ] TRIGGER trigger_name
{ BEFORE | AFTER | INSTEAD OF }
{ INSERT [OR] UPDATE [OR] DELETE }
[OF col_name]
ON table_name
[REFERENCING OLD AS o NEW AS n]
[FOR EACH ROW]
WHEN (condition)
DECLARE
```

Declaration-statements

BEGIN

Executable-statements

EXCEPTION

Exception-handling-statements

END;

Where,

- CREATE [OR REPLACE] TRIGGER trigger\_name – Creates or replaces an existing trigger with the *trigger\_name*.
- {BEFORE | AFTER | INSTEAD OF} – This specifies when the trigger will be executed. The INSTEAD OF clause is used for creating trigger on a view.
- {INSERT [OR] | UPDATE [OR] | DELETE} – This specifies the DML operation.
- [OF col\_name] – This specifies the column name that will be updated.
- [ON table\_name] – This specifies the name of the table associated with the trigger.
- [REFERENCING OLD AS o NEW AS n] – This allows you to refer new and old values for various DML statements, such as INSERT, UPDATE, and DELETE.
- [FOR EACH ROW] – This specifies a row-level trigger, i.e., the trigger will be executed for each row being affected. Otherwise the trigger will execute just once when the SQL statement is executed, which is called a table level trigger.
- WHEN (condition) – This provides a condition for rows for which the trigger would fire. This clause is valid only for row-level triggers.

## 5.Explain types of Database Cursors in detail.

A **cursor** is a pointer to this context area. PL/SQL controls the context area through a cursor. A cursor holds the rows (one or more) returned by a SQL statement. The set of rows the cursor holds is referred to as the **active set**.

There are two types of cursors –

- Implicit cursors
- Explicit cursors

## Implicit Cursors

Implicit cursors are automatically created by Oracle whenever an SQL statement is executed, when there is no explicit cursor for the statement.

Whenever a DML statement (INSERT, UPDATE and DELETE) is issued, an implicit cursor is associated with this statement. For INSERT operations, the cursor holds the data that needs to be inserted. For UPDATE and DELETE operations, the cursor identifies the rows that would be affected.

The following table provides the description of the most used attributes in cursors –

S.No	Attribute & Description
1	<b>%FOUND</b> Returns TRUE if an INSERT, UPDATE, or DELETE statement affected one or more rows or a SELECT INTO statement returned one or more rows. Otherwise, it returns FALSE.
2	<b>%NOTFOUND</b> The logical opposite of %FOUND. It returns TRUE if an INSERT, UPDATE, or DELETE statement affected no rows, or a SELECT INTO statement returned no rows. Otherwise, it returns FALSE.
3	<b>%ISOPEN</b> Always returns FALSE for implicit cursors, because Oracle closes the SQL cursor automatically after executing its associated SQL statement.
4	<b>%ROWCOUNT</b> Returns the number of rows affected by an INSERT, UPDATE, or DELETE statement, or returned by a SELECT INTO statement.

## Explicit Cursors

Explicit cursors are programmer-defined cursors for gaining more control over the **context area**. An explicit cursor should be defined in the declaration section of the PL/SQL Block. It is created on a SELECT Statement which returns more than one row.

The syntax for creating an explicit cursor is –

```
CURSOR cursor_name IS select_statement;
```

Declaring the Cursor

Declaring the cursor defines the cursor with a name and the associated SELECT statement. For example –

```
CURSOR c_customers IS  
  
SELECT id, name, address FROM customers;
```

## 6.Explain various types of Join Operations in detail with Examples.

The SQL **Joins** clause is used to combine records from two or more tables in a database. A JOIN is a means for combining fields from two tables by using values common to each. Here, it is noticeable that the join is performed in the WHERE clause. Several operators can be used to join tables, such as =, <, >, <>, <=, >=, !=, BETWEEN, LIKE, and NOT; they can all be used to join tables. However, the most common operator is the equal symbol.

### SQL Join Types:

There are different types of joins available in SQL:

INNER

OUTER(LEFT,RIGHT,FULL)

CROSS

Consider the below tables for Join Operations examples

```
SQL> create table gkproduct(product_id number(3) primary key,  
2 product_name varchar(15),  
3 supplier_name varchar(15),  
4 price number(5));
```

Table created.

```
SQL> create table gkorder(order_id number(4) primary key,  
2 product_id number(3) references gkproduct(product_id),  
3 total_units number(3),  
4 customer_name varchar(15));
```

Table created.

```

SQL> insert into gkproduct values(100,'Camera','Nikon',30000);
1 row created.

SQL> insert into gkproduct values(101,'Television','Onida',15000);
1 row created.

SQL> insert into gkproduct values(102,'Refrigerator','videocon',18000);
1 row created.

SQL> insert into gkproduct values(103,'Ipod','Apple',16000);
1 row created.

SQL> insert into gkproduct values(104,'Mobile','Samsung',8000);
1 row created.

SQL> insert into gkorder values(5100,104,30,'Infosys');
1 row created.

SQL> insert into gkorder values(5101,102,15,'GKMU');
1 row created.

SQL> insert into gkorder values(5102,103,25,'Wipro');
1 row created.

SQL> insert into gkorder values(5103,101,10,'TCS');
1 row created.

```

```
SQL> select * from gkproduct;
```

PRODUCT_ID	PRODUCT_NAME	SUPPLIER_NAME	PRICE
100	Camera	Nikon	30000
101	Television	Onida	15000
102	Refrigerator	videocon	18000
103	Ipod	Apple	16000
104	Mobile	Samsung	8000

```
SQL> select * from gkorder;
```

ORDER_ID	PRODUCT_ID	TOTAL_UNITS	CUSTOMER_NAME
5100	104	30	Infosys
5101	102	15	GKMU
5102	103	25	Wipro
5103	101	10	TCS

## INNER Join

Inner join are also known as Equi Joins. They are the most common joins used in SQL. They are known as equi joins because it uses the equal sign as the comparison operator (=). The INNER join returns all rows from both tables where there is a match.

Consider the above tables (gkproduct and gkorder),

**For example: If you want to display the product information for each order the query will be as given below**

```
SQL> select gko.order_id,gkp.product_name,gkp.price, gkp.supplier_name,gko.total_units
 2  from gkproduct gkp, gkorder gko
 3  where gko.product_id=gkp.product_id;
```

ORDER_ID	PRODUCT_NAME	PRICE	SUPPLIER_NAME	TOTAL_UNITS
5103	Television	15000	Onida	10
5101	Refrigerator	18000	videocon	15
5102	Ipod	16000	Apple	25
5100	Mobile	8000	Samsung	30

## OUTER Join

OUTER join condition returns all rows from both tables which satisfy the join condition along with rows which do not satisfy the join condition from one of the tables. The sql outer join operator in Oracle is (+) and is used on one side of the join condition only.

For example: If you want to display all the product data along with order items data, with null values displayed for order items if a product has no order item, the sql query for outer join would be as shown below(ie First Query).

```
SQL> select gkp.product_id, gkp.product_name,gko.order_id,gko.total_units
 2  from gkproduct gkp, gkorder gko
 3  where gko.product_id(+)=gkp.product_id;
```

PRODUCT_ID	PRODUCT_NAME	ORDER_ID	TOTAL_UNITS
104	Mobile	5100	30
102	Refrigerator	5101	15
103	Ipod	5102	25
101	Television	5103	10
100	Camera		

```
SQL> select gkp.product_id, gkp.product_name,gko.order_id,gko.total_units
 2  from gkproduct gkp, gkorder gko
 3  where gkp.product_id(+)=gko.product_id;
```

PRODUCT_ID	PRODUCT_NAME	ORDER_ID	TOTAL_UNITS
101	Television	5103	10
102	Refrigerator	5101	15
103	Ipod	5102	25
104	Mobile	5100	30

**NOTE:** If the (+) operator is used in the left side of the join condition it is equivalent to left outer join. If used on the right side of the join condition it is equivalent to right outer join.

## **OUTER JOIN :**

Outer Join retrieves Either, the matched rows from one table and all rows in the other table Or, all rows in all tables (it doesn't matter whether or not there is a match).

There are three kinds of Outer Join :

**LEFT OUTER JOIN** or **LEFT JOIN**

This join returns all the rows from the left table in conjunction with the matching rows from the right table. If there are no columns matching in the right table, it returns NULL values.

**RIGHT OUTER JOIN** or **RIGHT JOIN**

This join returns all the rows from the right table in conjunction with the matching rows from the left table. If there are no columns matching in the left table, it returns NULL values.

**FULL OUTER JOIN** or **FULL JOIN**

This join combines left outer join and right outer join. It returns row from either table when the conditions are met and returns null value when there is no match.

In other words, OUTER JOIN is based on the fact that : **ONLY** the matching entries in **ONE OF** the tables of the tables(**FULL**) **SHOULD** be listed.

## CROSS Join

It is the Cartesian product of the two tables involved. It will return a table with consists of records which combines each row from the first table with each row of the second table.

The result of a CROSS JOIN will not make sense in most of the situations.

Moreover, we won't need this at all (or needs the least, to be precise).

```
SQL> select * from gkproduct
2 CROSS JOIN
3 gkorder;
```

PRODUCT_ID	PRODUCT_NAME	SUPPLIER_NAME	PRICE	ORDER_ID	PRODUCT_ID	TOTAL_UNITS	CUSTOMER_NAME
100	Camera	Nikon	30000	5100	104	30	Infosys
101	Television	Onida	15000	5100	104	30	Infosys
102	Refrigerator	videocon	18000	5100	104	30	Infosys
103	Ipod	Apple	16000	5100	104	30	Infosys
104	Mobile	Samsung	8000	5100	104	30	Infosys
100	Camera	Nikon	30000	5101	102	15	GKMU
101	Television	Onida	15000	5101	102	15	GKMU
102	Refrigerator	videocon	18000	5101	102	15	GKMU
103	Ipod	Apple	16000	5101	102	15	GKMU
104	Mobile	Samsung	8000	5101	102	15	GKMU
100	Camera	Nikon	30000	5102	103	25	Wipro

PRODUCT_ID	PRODUCT_NAME	SUPPLIER_NAME	PRICE	ORDER_ID	PRODUCT_ID	TOTAL_UNITS	CUSTOMER_NAME
101	Television	Onida	15000	5102	103	25	Wipro
102	Refrigerator	videocon	18000	5102	103	25	Wipro
103	Ipod	Apple	16000	5102	103	25	Wipro
104	Mobile	Samsung	8000	5102	103	25	Wipro
100	Camera	Nikon	30000	5103	101	10	TCS
101	Television	Onida	15000	5103	101	10	TCS
102	Refrigerator	videocon	18000	5103	101	10	TCS
103	Ipod	Apple	16000	5103	101	10	TCS
104	Mobile	Samsung	8000	5103	101	10	TCS

20 rows selected.

INNER JOIN: returns rows when there is a match in both tables.

LEFT JOIN: returns all rows from the left table, even if there are no matches in the right table.

RIGHT JOIN: returns all rows from the right table, even if there are no matches in the left table.

FULL JOIN: returns rows when there is a match in one of the tables.

SELF JOIN: is used to join a table to itself as if the table were two tables, temporarily renaming at least one table in the SQL statement.

CARTESIAN JOIN: returns the Cartesian product of the sets of records from the two or more joined tables.