1 Introduction

The purpose of this assignment is to provide you some hands-on experience with the SQL programming language. SQL is a declarative language, or a “relational calculus” in which you specify the data you are interested in in terms of logical expressions.

We will be using the PostgreSQL open source database, which provides a fairly standard SQL implementation. In reality, there are slight variations between the SQL dialects of different vendors—especially with respect to advanced features, built-in functions, and so on. The SQL tutorial at [http://www.postgresql.org/docs/current/static/tutorial-sql.html](http://www.postgresql.org/docs/current/static/tutorial-sql.html) included with the Postgres documentation, provides a good introduction to the basic features of SQL; after following this tutorial you should be able to answer most of the problems in this problem set (the last few questions may be a bit tricky). You may also wish to refer to Chapter 5 of “Database Management Systems.” This assignment mainly focuses on querying data rather than modifying it, though you should read the sections of the tutorial that describe how to create tables and modify records so you are familiar with these aspects of the language.

We have set up a Postgres database server for you to use; you will need to use the Postgres client (psql) – more details are given in Section 3 below.

2 NSF Grants Database

In this problem set, you will write queries over recent research grants from the National Science Foundation (NSF) awarded to professors at several major research universities. The National Science Foundation (NSF) is a significant funder of academic research in the United States. Researchers submit proposals to various programs (for example, the “INFO INTEGRATION & INFORMATICS” (III) program in the the “Computer Science Engineering” (CSE) directorate is primarily responsible for funding research on database systems.) Panels of peer reviewers (other academics in related fields) decide which proposals will be funded. After grants are funded (typical amounts range from $50,000 to many millions of dollars), they are administered by the university on behalf of the researchers. Researchers pay graduate students, postdocs, and staff, purchase equipment and supplies, and pay expenses (such as travel) from these grants.

In this problem set, you will write a series of SQL queries using the `SELECT` statement over a database of all recent (since the early – mid 1990’s) grants awarded to MIT, Harvard, Carnegie Mellon, Stanford, and UC Berkeley (there are approximately 10,000 such grants) in all fields (not just computer science.)

Figure 1 is a simplified “Entity-Relationship Diagram” that shows the relationships (lines) between objects (entities) stored in the database. This is a popular approach for conceptualizing the schema of a database; we will not study such diagrams in detail in 6.830, but you should be able to read and recognize this type of diagram.

Our database consists of six entities:

**Q1.** Grants, with their associated meta-data (e.g., amount of funding, start and end date, the researchers who work on them, etc.),

**Q2.** Organizations (e.g., universities) which receive grants,

**Q3.** Researchers who receive grants,

**Q4.** Programs run by the NSF that award grants,

**Q5.** Managers at NSF who run programs that award grants,
Q6. Fields (research areas) that describe high level topic-areas for grants. These entities are instantiated as a collection of nine tables in SQL. The “Data Definition Language” (DDL) SQL commands used to create these tables are as follows:

```sql
create table orgs (id int primary key, name varchar(100), streetaddr varchar(200), city varchar(100), state char(2), zip char(5), phone char(10));

create table researchers (id int primary key, name varchar(100), org int references orgs(id));

create table programs (id int primary key, name varchar(200), directorate char(3) -- the top-level part of NSF that runs this program);

create table managers (id int primary key, name varchar(100));
```
CREATE TABLE name defines a new table called name in SQL. Within each command is a list of field names and types (e.g., id INTEGER indicates that the table contains a field named id with type INTEGER). Each field definition may also be followed by one or more modifiers, such as:

- PRIMARY KEY: Indicates this is a part of the primary key (i.e., is a unique identifier for the row). Implies NOT NULL.
- NOT NULL: Indicates that this field may not have the special value NULL.
- REFERENCES: Indicates that this is a foreign key which references an attribute (i.e., column) in another table. Values of this field must match (join) with a value in the referenced attribute.

Phrases following the “--” in the above table definitions are comments.

Notice that the above tables reference each other via several foreign-key relationships. For example, grants are administered by an organization, as denoted by the line org int REFERENCES orgs(id).

Note that there are three “many-to-many” relationships (between grants and researchers, grants and fields, and grants and programs). In SQL, these many-to-many relationships are represented by additional tables (e.g., grant_researchers), which is why there are six distinct entities, but nine SQL tables.

3 Connecting to the Database

To connect to the database, you will need the psql Postgres client. This client is installed on the linux.mit.edu Athena dialup server, which you can SSH into. It can also be installed on cluster computers running DebAthena, the new version of Linux Athena, by running the following command at an Athena prompt:
sudo aptitude install postgresql-client

Follow the prompts (and type your Athena password again if prompted). After running this command, you’ll be able to use psql until you log out.

If you are familiar with the Linux “sudo” command but are new to DebAthena, you may have concerns about running “sudo” on a public workstation. Fear not; its use is fully supported, and any changes you make to the filesystem will be reverted on logout.

You may also connect to the database using psql installed on your local computer. In general, it can be installed through the “postgresql” or “postgresql-client” package in a package manager program, such as apt or yum for Linux, MacPorts for Mac, or Cygwin for Windows. Self-installation can be somewhat involved on some platforms; note that you can always use Athena if you run into trouble.

We have set up a database server for you to use:

• **hancock.csail.mit.edu**: To connect to the database on hancock, type the following (assuming you are in the directory in which you untarred psql):

```
./psql -h hancock.csail.mit.edu -p 5433 6.830-2009 username
```

_username_ is your Athena username that you signed up with on our signup sheet, or if you don’t have an Athena username, the part of the email address that you gave us prior to the @ sign. If you are unable to log in, please let us know. Currently, the database only permits incoming connections from an MIT or CSAIL machine, and we would prefer you use a machine within MIT (e.g., an Athena machine) to connect to the database and run queries, if possible. If you need to use a machine that’s not within MIT, you can use MIT’s VPN software, at [http://ist.mit.edu/services/network/vpn](http://ist.mit.edu/services/network/vpn) or you can use an SSH client to log into [linux.mit.edu](http://linux.mit.edu) and run the psql client from there.

Finally, if you wish to install a postgres server locally to run the queries on, you can download the entire nsf database from [http://db.csail.mit.edu/6.830/assignments/nsf.sql.gz](http://db.csail.mit.edu/6.830/assignments/nsf.sql.gz). To install this locally, you will need to do something like (assuming you have postgres installed and running):

```
wget http://db.csail.mit.edu/6.830/assignments/nsf.sql.gz
gunzip nsf.gz
createdb nsf
psql nsf < nsf.sql
```

## 4 Using the Database

Once connected, you should be able to type SQL queries directly. All queries in Postgres must be terminated with a semi-colon. For example, to get a list of all records in the grants table, you would type (note that running this query may take a long time, since it will yield thousands of answers, so please don’t do it – keep reading instead!):

```
SELECT * FROM grants;
```

A less expensive way to sample the contents of a table (which you may find useful) is to use the LIMIT SQL extension which specifies a limit to the number of records the database should return as an answer to a query. This is not part of the SQL standard, but is supported by many relational DBMSes, including Postgres. For example, to view 20 rows from the grants table, use the following query in Postgres:

```
SELECT * FROM grants LIMIT 20;
```

The LIMIT clause above returns only the first 20 rows of the result for the query SELECT * FROM grants. However, keep in mind that the relational model does not specify an ordering for rows in a relation. Therefore, there is no guarantee on which 20 rows from the result are returned, unless the query itself includes an ORDER BY clause, which sorts results by some expression. Nevertheless, LIMIT is very useful for playing around with a large database and sampling data from tables in it.

You can use the \h and \? commands for help on SQL syntax and Postgres specific commands, respectively. For example, \h SELECT will give the syntax of the SELECT command.

You may find the \dt command particularly useful; it allows you to see the names of the tables that are available and (when invoked with a particular table name) their schemas.

**A note on good database behavior:** No correctly written query for this problem set should require more than about 10 minutes to execute, although incorrect queries (that, for example, join large tables without a join condition) can run for much longer. Please kill queries (by typing Ctrl-C in psql) that have been running for a long time – such queries consume valuable resources on the database server and decrease the performance of every other user’s queries. We will kill connections to the database that run for longer than 10 minutes if server performance starts to become a problem.
5 Places to Look for More Help on SQL

The Postgres manual provides a good introduction to the basic features of SQL. There are a number of other online guides available; in particular, [http://sqlzoo.net](http://sqlzoo.net) provides a “Gentle Introduction to SQL” which is quite thorough and includes many examples.

6 Questions

For each of the following eight questions, please include both the SQL query and the result in your answer. Some of the more complex queries can take quite a while to run, so be patient!

Q1. Write a query to find the title and amount of the grants for which Professor Madden is the principal investigator (PI).

Q2. Write a query that finds the total dollars received since the date 1/1/2000 by each organization (e.g., MIT, Harvard, etc.) from the NSF directorate ‘CSE’. CSE is the directorate that funds computer science research.

6.1 Additional features of SQL you should know:

For the remainder of the queries, you will need to use some more advanced SQL features, which we briefly describe here.

Subqueries and nesting: In SQL, a subquery is a query over the results of another query. You can use subqueries in the SELECT list, the FROM list, or as a part of the WHERE clause. For example, suppose we want to find the name of the grant with the smallest id. To find the smallest id, we would write the query `SELECT min(id) FROM grants`, but SQL doesn’t provide a way to get the other attributes of that minimum-id grant without using a nested query. We can do this either with nesting in the FROM list or in the WHERE clause. Using the nesting FROM list, we would write:

```sql
SELECT title
FROM grants,
    (SELECT min(id) AS minid
     FROM grants) AS nested
WHERE grants.id = nested.minid;
```
Using nesting in the **WHERE** clause, we would write:

```
SELECT title
FROM grants
WHERE grants.id = (SELECT min(id) FROM grants);
```

As we discussed in class, there are usually several possible ways to write a given query, and some of those ways may provide different performance (despite the best efforts of database system designers to build optimizers that yield query performance that is independent of the query’s formulation).

Note that if you were interested in finding grants with researchers that matched a list of ids, you could replace the “=” sign in the query above with the **IN** keyword; e.g.:

```
SELECT grants.title
FROM grants,grant_researchers
WHERE grants.id = grant_researchers.grantid
AND grant_researchers.reseacherid IN (SELECT id FROM researchers WHERE ...)
```

It is usually the case that when confronted with a subquery of this form, it is possible to un-nest the query by rewriting it as a join.

**Q3.** Show what the **SELECT ...WHERE ...IN** query above would look like when the **IN** portion of the query is “un-nested” by rewriting it as a join. Use “...” in your query to denote the conditions in the **WHERE** predicate of the original query.

**Temporary Tables:** In addition to allowing you to nest queries, SQL supports saving the results of a query as temporary table. This table can be queried just like a normal table, providing similar functionality to nested queries, with the ability to reuse the results of a query. The command to create a temporary table is:

```
CREATE LOCAL TEMP TABLE name AS SELECT ...
```

where “...” are the typical **SELECT** arguments. This creates a table called **name**. **LOCAL** makes the table only visible to the current session. **TEMP** causes the table to automatically be deleted (or “dropped” in SQL nomenclature) when the session is over, such as when you quit **psql**.

Temporary tables can be useful when interactively developing a SQL query, since you can explore or build on previous results. It is usually possible to use nesting in place of temporary tables and vice versa; nesting will (generally) lead to better performance as query optimizers include special optimizations to “de-nest” queries that cannot be easily applied on temporary tables.

In addition to nesting (or temporary tables), to answer the next few questions, you must learn two concepts: **self-joins** and **aggregates**.

**Self joins:** A self-join is a join of a table with itself. This is often useful when exploring a transitive relationship. For example, the following query:

```
SELECT gr2.grantid
FROM grant_researchers AS gr1, grant_researchers AS gr2
WHERE gr1.researcherid = 0
AND gr1.researcherid = gr2.researcherid;
```

would return the list of the ids all grants written by the researcher with id 0.

**6.2 Advanced Questions**

**Q4.** Write a query that finds PIs who have received a grant in five consecutive years. Report the names of the PIs and the years in which they received the grants. If a researcher has received a grant for more than five consecutive years, only report the first five year period. (Hint: you can use the expression **extract(’year’ from date)** to get the year from a date column.)
Q5. Write a query that finds the total amount of grants given to each researcher by the ‘CSE’ directorate and reports the top 10 amounts and the name of the researcher receiving that amount. Include all proposals which the researcher works on (not just those for which he or she is the PI) (Hint: the LIMIT clause returns a fixed number of records; combine it with the ORDER BY clause to return the top 10.)

Q6. Find the managers who have given the largest number of grants to a single PI (based on the value of the grants.pi field).

Q7. Write a query to find the top 10 pairs of researchers from different organizations that have worked together on the most grants, and the number of grants they have worked together on.

Q8. Write a query that finds every organization that has grant support from all NSF directorates (e.g., CSE, ENG, etc.)