SQL: Part II

Introduction to Databases CompSci 316 Fall 2016



Announcements (Thu., Sep. 22)

- Homework #1 sample solution to be posted on Sakai tonight
- Homework #2 due in 1½ weeks
- Project mixer next Tuesday
 - Seating will be randomized (see instructions in email)
 - Pitches to the class (limited 5 minutes each): reserve your slot & submit your slides under proj-mixer
 - Discussion

Incomplete information

- Example: User (uid, name, age, pop)
- Value unknown
 - We do not know Nelson's age
- Value not applicable
 - Suppose pop is based on interactions with others on our social networking site
 - Nelson is new to our site; what is his pop?

Solution 1

- Dedicate a value from each domain (type)
 - pop cannot be -1, so use -1 as a special value to indicate a missing or invalid pop
 - Leads to incorrect answers if not careful
 - SELECT AVG(pop) FROM User;
 - Complicates applications
 - SELECT AVG(pop) FROM User WHERE pop <> -1;
 - Perhaps the value is not as special as you think!
 - Ever heard of the Y2K bug?
 "00" was used as a
 missing or invalid year value



Solution 2

- A valid-bit for every column
 - User (<u>uid</u>, name, name_is_valid, age, age_is_valid, pop, pop_is_valid)
 - Complicates schema and queries
 - SELECT AVG(pop) FROM User WHERE pop_is_valid;

Solution 3

- Decompose the table; missing row = missing value
 - UserName (<u>uid</u>, name)
 UserAge (<u>uid</u>, age)
 UserPop (<u>uid</u>, pop)
 - UserID (uid)
 - Conceptually the cleanest solution
 - Still complicates schema and queries
 - How to get all information about users in a table?

SQL's solution

- A special value **NULL**
 - For every domain
 - Special rules for dealing with NULL's
- Example: User (<u>uid</u>, name, age, pop)
 - (789, "Nelson", NULL, NULL)

Computing with NULL's

- When we operate on a NULL and another value (including another NULL) using +, -, etc., the result is NULL
- Aggregate functions ignore NULL, except COUNT(*) (since it counts rows)

Three-valued logic

- TRUE = 1, FALSE = 0, UNKNOWN = 0.5
- $x \text{ AND } y = \min(x, y)$
- $x \text{ OR } y = \max(x, y)$
- NOT x = 1 x
- When we compare a NULL with another value (including another NULL) using =, >, etc., the result is UNKNOWN
- WHERE and HAVING clauses only select rows for output if the condition evaluates to TRUE
 - UNKNOWN is not enough

Unfortunate consequences

- SELECT AVG(pop) FROM User; SELECT SUM(pop)/COUNT(*) FROM User;
- SELECT * FROM User; SELECT * FROM User WHERE pop = pop;
- *Be careful: NULL breaks many equivalences

Another problem

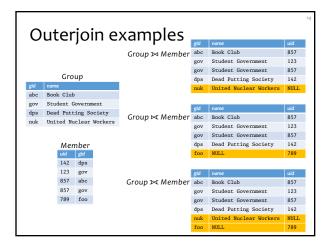
- Example: Who has NULL pop values?
 - SELECT * FROM User WHERE pop = NULL;
 - SQL introduced special, built-in predicates IS NULL and IS NOT NULL
 - SELECT * FROM User WHERE pop IS NULL;

Outerjoin motivation

- Example: a master group membership list
 - SELECT g.gid, g.name AS gname, u.uid, u.name AS uname FROM Group g, Member m, User u WHERE g.gid = m.gid AND m.uid = u.uid;
 - What if a group is empty?
 - It may be reasonable for the master list to include empty groups as well
 - For these groups, \emph{uid} and \emph{uname} columns would be NULL

Outerjoin flavors and definitions

- A full outerjoin between R and S (denoted $R \bowtie S$) includes all rows in the result of $R \bowtie S$, plus
 - "Dangling" R rows (those that do not join with any S rows) padded with NULL's for S's columns
 - "Dangling" S rows (those that do not join with any R rows) padded with NULL's for R's columns
- A left outerjoin $(R \bowtie S)$ includes rows in $R \bowtie S$ plus dangling R rows padded with NULL's
- A right outerjoin $(R \bowtie S)$ includes rows in $R \bowtie S$ plus dangling S rows padded with NULL's



Outerjoin syntax			
• SELECT * FROM Group LEFT OUTER JOIN Member ON Group.gid = Member.gid; ≈ Group Group.gid.→ Member.gid			
• SELECT * FROM Group RIGHT OUTER JOIN Member ON Group.gid = Member.gid; ≈ Group Group.gid=Member.gid Member			
• SELECT * FROM Group FULL OUTER JOIN Member ON Group.gid = Member.gid; ≈ Group Standard Member.gid			
<pre>FA similar construct exists for regular ("inner") joins:</pre>			
 These are theta joins rather than natural joins Return all columns in Group and Member 			
For natural joins, add keyword NATURAL; don't use ON			

SQL features covered so far

- SELECT-FROM-WHERE statements
- Set and bag operations
- Table expressions, subqueries
- Aggregation and grouping
- Ordering
- NULL's and outerjoins
- *Next: data modification statements, constraints

INSERT

- Insert one row
 - INSERT INTO Member VALUES (789, 'dps');
 - User 789 joins Dead Putting Society
- Insert the result of a query
 - INSERT INTO Member
 (SELECT uid, 'dps' FROM User
 WHERE uid NOT IN (SELECT uid
 FROM Member
 WHERE gid = 'dps'));
 - Everybody joins Dead Putting Society!

DELETE

- Delete everything from a table
 - DELETE FROM Member;
- Delete according to a WHERE condition

Example: User 789 leaves Dead Putting Society

• DELETE FROM Member WHERE uid = 789 AND gid = 'dps';

Example: Users under age 18 must be removed from United Nuclear Workers

UPDATE

• Example: User 142 changes name to "Barney"

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• UPDATE User
  SET name = 'Barney'
WHERE uid = 142;
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• Example: We are all popular!

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• UPDATE User
SET pop = (SELECT AVG(pop) FROM User);
```

But won't update of every row causes average pop to change?

Subquery is always computed over the old table

Constraints

- Restrictions on allowable data in a database
 - In addition to the simple structure and type restrictions imposed by the table definitions
 - Declared as part of the schema
 - Enforced by the DBMS
- Why use constraints?
 - Protect data integrity (catch errors)
 - Tell the DBMS about the data (so it can optimize better)

Types of SQL constraints

- NOT NULL
- Key
- Referential integrity (foreign key)
- General assertion
- Tuple- and attribute-based CHECK's

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NOT NULL constraint examples

• CREATE TABLE User
(uid INTEGER NOT NULL,
name VARCHAR(30) NOT NULL,
twitterid VARCHAR(15) NOT NULL,
age INTEGER,
pop FLOAT);
• CREATE TABLE Group
(gid CHAR(10) NOT NULL,
name VARCHAR(100) NOT NULL);
• CREATE TABLE Member
(uid INTEGER NOT NULL,
gid CHAR(10) NOT NULL);

Key declaration

- At most one PRIMARY KEY per table
 - Typically implies a primary index
 - Rows are stored inside the index, typically sorted by the primary key value ⇒ best speedup for queries
- Any number of **UNIQUE** keys per table
 - Typically implies a secondary index
 - Pointers to rows are stored inside the index ⇒ less speedup for queries

Key declaration examples

- CREATE TABLE User (uid INTEGER NOT NULL PRIMARY KEY, name VARCHAR(30) NOT NULL, twitterid VARCHAR(15) NOT NULL UNIQUE, age INTEGER, pop FLOAT);
- CREATE TABLE Group (gid CHAR(10) NOT NULL PRIMARY KEY, name VARCHAR(100) NOT NULL);
- CREATE TABLE Member (uid INTEGER NOT NULL, gid CHAR(10) NOT NULL, PRIMARY KEY(uid, gid));

This form is required for multi-attribute keys

Referential integrity example

- Member.uid references User.uid
 - If an uid appears in Member, it must appear in User
- Member.gid references Group.gid
 - If a gid appears in Member, it must appear in Group
- That is, no "dangling pointers"



Referential integrity in SQL

- Referenced column(s) must be PRIMARY KEY
- Referencing column(s) form a FOREIGN KEY
- Example
 - CREATE TABLE Member
 (uid INTEGER NOT NULL

 REFERENCES User(uid),
 gid CHAR(10) NOT NULL,
 PRIMARY KEY(uid, gid),
 FOREIGN KEY gid REFERENCES Group(gid));

Enforcing referential integrity

Example: Member.uid references User.uid

- Insert or update a *Member* row so it refers to a nonexistent *uid*
 - Reject
- Delete or update a *User* row whose *uid* is referenced by some *Member* row
 - Reject
 - Cascade: ripple changes to all referring rows
 - Set NULL: set all references to NULL
 - All three options can be specified in SQL

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Deferred constraint checking

- No-chicken-no-egg problem
 - CREATE TABLE Dept
 (name CHAR(20) NOT NULL PRIMARY KEY,
 chair CHAR(30) NOT NULL
 REFERENCES Prof(name)); CREATE TABLE Prof (name CHAR(30) NOT NULL PRIMARY KEY, dept CHAR(20) NOT NULL REFERENCES Dept(name));
- Deferred constraint checking is necessary
 - Check only at the end of a transaction
 - · Allowed in SQL as an option
- Curious how the schema was created in the first place?
 - ALTER TABLE ADD CONSTRAINT (read the manual!)

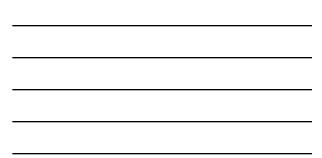
General assertion

- CREATE ASSERTION assertion_name CHECK assertion_condition;
- assertion_condition is checked for each modification that could potentially violate it
- Example: Member.uid references User.uid
 - CREATE ASSERTION MemberUserRefIntegrity CHECK (NOT EXISTS (SELECT * FROM Member WHERE uid NOT IN (SELECT uid FROM User)));

Fin SQL3, but not all (perhaps no) DBMS supports it

Tuple- and attribute-based CHECK's

- Associated with a single table
- Only checked when a tuple/attribute is inserted/updated
 - Reject if condition evaluates to FALSE
 - TRUE and UNKNOWN are fine
- Examples:
 - CREATE TABLE User(... age INTEGER CHECK(age IS NULL OR age > 0),
 - CREATE TABLE Member (uid INTEGER NOT NULL, CHECK(uid IN (SELECT uid FROM User)), ...);
 - · Is it a referential integrity constraint?



SQL features covered so far

- Query
 SELECT-FROM-WHERE statements

 - Table expressions, subqueries
 - Aggregation and groupingOrdering

 - Outerjoins
- Modification
 - INSERT/DELETE/UPDATE
- Constraints
- ☞ Next: triggers, views, indexes