SQL: Part II

Introduction to Databases
CompSci 316 Fall 2017
Announcements (Thu., Sep. 21)

• **Homework #1 sample solution** to be posted on Sakai by this weekend

• **Homework #2** due in 1½ weeks

• Get started on your **project**!
  • For ideas, check out project handout and examples from previous years (in intro lecture slides), and talk to us
  • Again, 5 is the expected team size

• **Project mixer** next Tuesday
  • Send me your elevator pitch slides by Monday midnight
  • See email for details
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 (\texttt{uid, 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 (uid, name)
  • UserAge (uid, age)
  • UserPop (uid, 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 (uid, 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;

• (SELECT * FROM User) EXCEPT ALL (SELECT * FROM User WHERE pop = pop);
  • Works, but ugly

• 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, uid and 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** ($R \leftouterjoin S$) includes rows in $R \bowtie S$ plus dangling R rows padded with NULL’s

• A **right outerjoin** ($R \rightouterjoin S$) includes rows in $R \bowtie S$ plus dangling S rows padded with NULL’s
### Outerjoin examples

#### Group

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>gid</th>
<th>name</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>abc</td>
<td>Book Club</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>gov</td>
<td>Student Government</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>dps</td>
<td>Dead Putting Society</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>nuk</td>
<td>United Nuclear Workers</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

#### Member

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>uid</th>
<th>gid</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>142</td>
<td>dps</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>123</td>
<td>gov</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>857</td>
<td>abc</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>857</td>
<td>gov</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>789</td>
<td>foo</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

#### Group \(\bowtie\) Member

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>gid</th>
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<th>uid</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
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<tr>
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<td>Student Government</td>
<td>123</td>
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<tr>
<td>gov</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>dps</td>
<td>Dead Putting Society</td>
<td>142</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>nuk</td>
<td>United Nuclear Workers</td>
<td>NULL</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
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</tr>
<tr>
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<td>dps</td>
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<td>142</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>nuk</td>
<td>United Nuclear Workers</td>
<td>NULL</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>foo</td>
<td>NULL</td>
<td>789</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Outerjoin syntax

- SELECT * FROM Group LEFT OUTER JOIN Member
  ON Group.gid = Member.gid;
  \approx Group \Join_{\text{Group.gid}=\text{Member.gid}} Member

- SELECT * FROM Group RIGHT OUTER JOIN Member
  ON Group.gid = Member.gid;
  \approx Group \Join_{\text{Group.gid}=\text{Member.gid}} Member

- SELECT * FROM Group FULL OUTER JOIN Member
  ON Group.gid = Member.gid;
  \approx Group \Join_{\text{Group.gid}=\text{Member.gid}} Member

\* A similar construct exists for regular ("inner") joins:
  - SELECT * FROM Group JOIN Member
    ON Group.gid = Member.gid;

\* 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
  • \texttt{DELETE FROM Member;}

• Delete according to a \texttt{WHERE} condition

  Example: User 789 leaves Dead Putting Society
  • \texttt{DELETE FROM Member}
    WHERE uid = 789 AND gid = 'dps';

  Example: Users under age 18 must be removed from United Nuclear Workers
  • \texttt{DELETE FROM Member}
    WHERE uid IN (SELECT uid FROM User
      WHERE age < 18)
    AND gid = 'nuk';
UPDATE

• Example: User 142 changes name to “Barney”
  • UPDATE User
    SET name = 'Barney'
    WHERE uid = 142;

• Example: We are all popular!
  • 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
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”

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>User</th>
<th>Member</th>
<th>Group</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><em>uid</em></td>
<td><em>name</em></td>
<td><em>uid</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>142</td>
<td>Bart</td>
<td>...</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>123</td>
<td>Milhouse</td>
<td>...</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>857</td>
<td>Lisa</td>
<td>...</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>456</td>
<td>Ralph</td>
<td>...</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>789</td>
<td>Nelson</td>
<td>...</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>...</td>
<td>...</td>
<td>...</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>...</td>
<td>...</td>
<td>...</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
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 non-existent `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
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)));

> In 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?
  • Not quite; not checked when User is modified
SQL features covered so far

• Query
  • SELECT–FROM–WHERE statements
  • Set and bag operations
  • Table expressions, subqueries
  • Aggregation and grouping
  • Ordering
  • Outerjoins

• Modification
  • INSERT/DELETE/UPDATE

• Constraints

☞ Next: triggers, views, indexes