

(More) SQL

Introduction to Databases

CompSci 316 Spring 2020



DUKE
COMPUTER SCIENCE

Announcements (Tue. Feb. 4)

- HW3 posted (all questions now)
 - Due dates: Q1-Q3: Tuesday Feb 11 11:59 pm
 - Q4-Q5: Thursday Feb 13 11:59 pm
 - Many parts, keep working on it!
- Please form your groups by this Thursday Feb 6
 - So that we can help you find a group if needed well before MS1 is due
 - Project formation spreadsheet shared
 - 5 members for standard projects please! (otherwise we may have to shuffling later, better if you do it yourself)
 - If you want to do an open project, let me know asap

Recap: Basic SQL from Lecture 1-2

- Find addresses of all bars that 'Dan' frequents
 - `SELECT B.address
FROM Bar B, Frequents F
WHERE B.name = F.bar
AND F.drinker = 'Dan'`

We discussed

- `SELECT-FROM-WHERE`
- `DISTINCT`
- `ORDER BY`
- Bag vs. Set semantics (why bag?)
- Semantic of SQL evaluation (?)

Bar

name	address
The Edge	108 Morris Street
Satisfaction	905 W. Main Street

drinker	bar	times_a_week
Ben	Satisfaction	2
Dan	The Edge	1
Dan	Satisfaction	2

Frequents

SQL set and bag operations

- UNION, EXCEPT, INTERSECT

- Set semantics
 - Duplicates in input tables, if any, are first eliminated
 - Duplicates in result are also eliminated (for UNION)
- Exactly like set \cup , $-$, and \cap in relational algebra

- UNION ALL, EXCEPT ALL, INTERSECT ALL

- Bag semantics
- Think of each row as having an implicit **count** (the number of times it appears in the table)
- Bag union: **sum** up the counts from two tables
- Bag difference: **proper-subtract** the two counts
- Bag intersection: take the **minimum** of the two counts

Examples of bag operations

Bag1	Bag2
<i>fruit</i>	<i>fruit</i>
apple	apple
apple	orange
orange	orange

(SELECT * FROM Bag1)
 UNION ALL
 (SELECT * FROM Bag2);

<i>fruit</i>
apple
apple
orange
apple
orange
orange

(SELECT * FROM Bag1)
 EXCEPT ALL
 (SELECT * FROM Bag2);

<i>fruit</i>
apple

(SELECT * FROM Bag1)
 INTERSECT ALL
 (SELECT * FROM Bag2);

<i>fruit</i>
apple
orange

Examples of set versus bag operations

Poke (uid1, uid2, timestamp)

- (SELECT uid1 FROM Poke)
EXCEPT
(SELECT uid2 FROM Poke);
 - Users who poked others but never got poked by others
- (SELECT uid1 FROM Poke)
EXCEPT ALL
(SELECT uid2 FROM Poke);
 - Users who poked others more than others poke them

👉 Next: how to “nest” SQL queries and write sub-queries?

Table subqueries

Poke (uid1, uid2, timestamp)

- Use query result as a table
 - In **set and bag** operations, **FROM clauses**, etc.
 - A way to “nest” queries
- **Example: names of users who poked others more than others poked them**
 - ```
SELECT DISTINCT name
FROM User,
 ((SELECT uid1 AS uid FROM Poke)
 EXCEPT ALL
 (SELECT uid2 AS uid FROM Poke))
 AS T
WHERE User.uid = T.uid;
```



# IN subqueries

User(uid, name, age, pop)

- $x$  **IN** (*subquery*) checks if  $x$  is in the result of *subquery*
- **Example: users (all columns) at the same age as (some) Bart**

Let's first try without sub-queries

- ```
SELECT *  
FROM User  
WHERE age IN (SELECT age  
              FROM User  
              WHERE name = 'Bart');
```

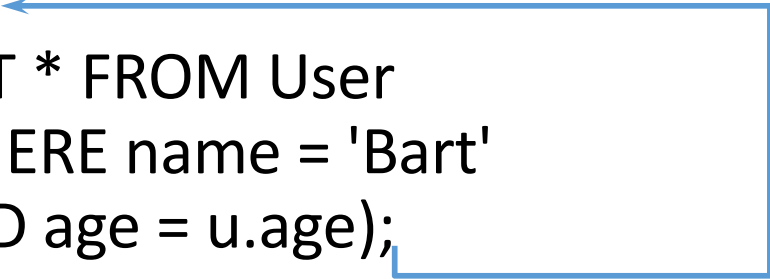
You can use **NOT IN** too

EXISTS subqueries

User(uid, name, age, pop)

- **EXISTS** (*subquery*) checks if the result of *subquery* is non-empty
- **Example: users at the same age as (some) Bart**

- SELECT *
FROM User AS u
WHERE EXISTS (SELECT * FROM User
WHERE name = 'Bart'
AND age = u.age);



- This happens to be a **correlated subquery**—a subquery that references tuple variables in surrounding queries

You can use **NOT EXISTS** too

- How about the previous one with “IN”?

Semantics of subqueries

- SELECT *
FROM User AS u
WHERE EXISTS (SELECT * FROM User
WHERE name = 'Bart'
AND age = u.age);
- For each row u in User
 - Evaluate the subquery with the value of u.age
 - If the result of the subquery is not empty, output u.*
- The DBMS query optimizer may choose to process the query in an equivalent, but more efficient way (example?)

Remember SQL evaluation!
FROM-WHERE-SELECT

“WITH” clause – very useful!

- You will find “WITH” clause very useful!

```
WITH Temp1 AS
    (SELECT ..... ..),
    Temp2 AS
    (SELECT ..... ..)
SELECT X, Y
FROM TEMP1, TEMP2
WHERE....
```

- Can simplify complex nested queries

Example: users at the same age as (some) Bart

```
WITH BartAge AS
    (SELECT age
     FROM User
     WHERE name = 'Bart')
SELECT U.uid, U.name, U.age, U.pop
FROM User U, BartAge B
WHERE U.age = B.age
```

WITH clause
not really needed
for this query!

Scalar subqueries

- A query that returns a single row can be used as a value in WHERE, SELECT, etc.

- **Example: users at the same age as Bart**

- SELECT *

FROM User

What's Bart's age?

```
WHERE age = (SELECT age  
             FROM User  
             WHERE name = 'Bart');
```

- **Runtime error if subquery returns more than one row**
 - Under what condition will this error never occur?
- **What if the subquery returns no rows?**
 - The answer is treated as a special value NULL, and the comparison with NULL will fail (later)

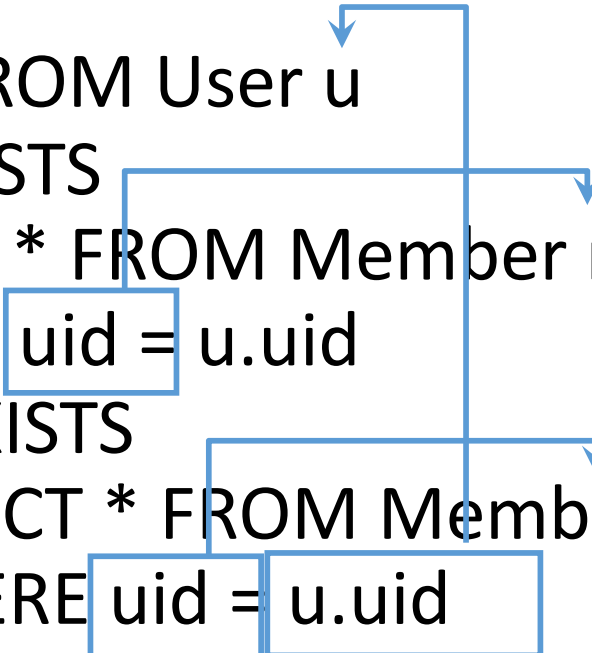
Scoping rule of subqueries

- To find out which table a column belongs to
 - Start with the immediately surrounding query
 - If not found, look in the one surrounding that; repeat if necessary
- Use *table_name.column_name* notation and AS (renaming) to avoid confusion

User(uid, name, pop)
Member(uid, gid)
Group(gid, name)

Another example

- ```
SELECT * FROM User u
WHERE EXISTS
 (SELECT * FROM Member m
 WHERE uid = u.uid
 AND EXISTS
 (SELECT * FROM Member
 WHERE uid = u.uid
 AND gid <> m.gid));
```



- What does this query return?
- Users who join at least two groups

# Quantified subqueries

Read this slide yourself  
Example in class (next slide)

- A quantified subquery can be used syntactically as a value in a WHERE condition
  - **Universal quantification** (for all):  
... WHERE  $x \text{ op } \mathbf{ALL}(\text{subquery})$  ...
    - True iff for all  $t$  in the result of *subquery*,  $x \text{ op } t$
  - **Existential quantification** (exists):  
... WHERE  $x \text{ op } \mathbf{ANY}(\text{subquery})$  ...
    - True iff there exists some  $t$  in *subquery* result such that  $x \text{ op } t$
- ☞ Beware
- In common parlance, “any” and “all” seem to be synonyms
  - In SQL, ANY really means “some”



# Examples of quantified subqueries

- Which users are the most popular?

```
User(uid, name, pop)
Member(uid, gid)
Group(gid, name)
```

- ```
SELECT *
FROM User
WHERE pop >= ALL(SELECT pop FROM User);
```
- ```
SELECT *
FROM User
WHERE NOT
(pop < ANY(SELECT pop FROM User));
```

☞ Use NOT to negate a condition

# More ways to get the most popular

- Which users are the most popular?

```
User(uid, name, pop)
Member(uid, gid)
Group(gid, name)
```

- ```
SELECT *
FROM User AS u
WHERE NOT EXISTS
  (SELECT * FROM User
   WHERE pop > u.pop);
```
- ```
SELECT * FROM User
WHERE uid NOT IN
 (SELECT u1.uid
 FROM User AS u1, User AS u2
 WHERE u1.pop < u2.pop);
```

👉 Next: aggregates, group-by,  
having!

# Aggregates

- Standard SQL aggregate functions: **COUNT, SUM, AVG, MIN, MAX**
- Example: number of users under 18, and their average popularity
  - **SELECT COUNT(\*), AVG(pop)**  
FROM User  
WHERE age < 18;
  - **COUNT(\*)** counts the number of rows

# Aggregates with DISTINCT

- Example: How many users are in some group?

- `SELECT COUNT(DISTINCT uid)  
FROM Member;`

is equivalent to:

- `SELECT COUNT(*)  
FROM (SELECT DISTINCT uid FROM Member);`

# Grouping

```
User(uid, name, age, pop)
```

- SELECT ... FROM ... WHERE ...  
GROUP BY *list\_of\_columns*;
- Example: compute average popularity for each age group
  - SELECT age, AVG(pop)  
FROM User  
GROUP BY age;

# Semantics of GROUP BY

See example  
On the next slide first

SELECT ... FROM ... WHERE ... GROUP BY ...;

- Compute FROM ( $\times$ )
  - Compute WHERE ( $\sigma$ )
  - Compute GROUP BY: group rows according to the values of GROUP BY columns
  - Compute SELECT for each group ( $\pi$ )
    - For aggregation functions with DISTINCT inputs, first eliminate duplicates within the group
- 👉 Number of groups =  
number of rows in the final output

# Example of computing GROUP BY

SELECT age, AVG(pop) FROM User GROUP BY age;

| uid | name     | age | pop |
|-----|----------|-----|-----|
| 142 | Bart     | 10  | 0.9 |
| 857 | Lisa     | 8   | 0.7 |
| 123 | Milhouse | 10  | 0.2 |
| 456 | Ralph    | 8   | 0.3 |

Compute GROUP BY: group rows according to the values of GROUP BY columns

| uid | name     | age | pop |
|-----|----------|-----|-----|
| 142 | Bart     | 10  | 0.9 |
| 123 | Milhouse | 10  | 0.2 |
| 857 | Lisa     | 8   | 0.7 |
| 456 | Ralph    | 8   | 0.3 |

Compute SELECT for each group

| age | avg_pop |
|-----|---------|
| 10  | 0.55    |
| 8   | 0.50    |



# Aggregates with no GROUP BY

- An aggregate query with no GROUP BY clause = all rows go into one group

```
SELECT AVG(pop) FROM User;
```

Group all rows  
into one group

Aggregate over  
the whole group

| <i>uid</i> | <i>name</i> | <i>age</i> | <i>pop</i> |
|------------|-------------|------------|------------|
| 142        | Bart        | 10         | 0.9        |
| 857        | Lisa        | 8          | 0.7        |
| 123        | Milhouse    | 10         | 0.2        |
| 456        | Ralph       | 8          | 0.3        |

| <i>uid</i> | <i>name</i> | <i>age</i> | <i>pop</i> |
|------------|-------------|------------|------------|
| 142        | Bart        | 10         | 0.9        |
| 857        | Lisa        | 8          | 0.7        |
| 123        | Milhouse    | 10         | 0.2        |
| 456        | Ralph       | 8          | 0.3        |

| <i>avg_pop</i> |
|----------------|
| 0.525          |

# Restriction on SELECT

- If a query uses aggregation/group by, then every column referenced in SELECT must be either
  - Aggregated, or
  - A GROUP BY column

## Why?

- ☞ This restriction ensures that any SELECT expression produces only one value for each group

Examples on blackboard

# Announcements (Thu. Feb. 6)

- If you are not in a project group yet, or in a standard project group with  $< 5$  members or  $> 5$  members, please send me an email by tomorrow (Friday) noon!

# Examples of invalid queries

Which one is correct?

- **WRONG!** `SELECT uid, age  
FROM User GROUP BY age;`
  - Recall there is one output row per group
  - There can be multiple *uid* values per group
- **WRONG!** `SELECT uid, MAX(pop) FROM User;`
  - Recall there is only one group for an aggregate query with no GROUP BY clause
  - There can be multiple *uid* values
  - Wishful thinking (that the output *uid* value is the one associated with the highest popularity) does NOT work

# HAVING

- Used to filter groups based on the group properties (e.g., aggregate values, GROUP BY column values)
- **SELECT ... FROM ... WHERE ... GROUP BY ... HAVING *condition*;**
  - Compute FROM ( $\times$ )
  - Compute WHERE ( $\sigma$ )
  - Compute GROUP BY: group rows according to the values of GROUP BY columns
  - Compute HAVING (another  $\sigma$  over the groups)
  - Compute SELECT ( $\pi$ ) for each group that passes HAVING

# HAVING examples

- List the average popularity for each age group with more than a hundred users
  - SELECT age, AVG(pop)  
FROM User  
GROUP BY age  
HAVING COUNT(\*) > 100;
  - Can be written using WHERE and table sub-queries
- Find average popularity for each age group over 10
  - SELECT age, AVG(pop)  
FROM User  
GROUP BY age  
HAVING age > 10;
  - Can be written using WHERE without table subqueries

# Views

- A **view** is like a “virtual” table
  - Defined by a query, which describes how to compute the view contents on the fly
  - DBMS stores the **view definition query** instead of view contents
  - Can be used in queries just like a regular table

# Creating and dropping views

- Example: members of Jessica's Circle
  - **CREATE VIEW** JessicaCircle **AS**  
SELECT \* FROM User  
WHERE uid IN (SELECT uid FROM Member  
WHERE gid = 'jes');
  - Tables used in defining a view are called “base tables”
    - *User* and *Member* above
- To drop a view
  - **DROP VIEW** JessicaCircle;

Why use views?



👉 Next: incomplete information –  
nulls, and outerjoins!

# 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*?

Ideas to handle unknown or missing attribute values?

# 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 (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?
  - Check yourself: Natural join doesn't work but outerjoins (soon) do -- Why?

# SQL's solution

- A special value **NULL**
  - For every domain
  - Special rules for dealing with NULL's
- Example: *User* (*uid*, *name*, *age*, *pop*)
  - $\langle 789, \text{"Nelson"}, \text{NULL}, \text{NULL} \rangle$

# 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
- $x$  AND  $y = \min(x, y)$
- $x$  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;`
  - Not equivalent
  - Although  $AVG(pop) = SUM(pop)/COUNT(pop)$  still

Are these equivalent?

- `SELECT * FROM User;`  
`SELECT * FROM User WHERE pop = pop;`
  - Not equivalent

☞ Be careful: NULL breaks many equivalences

# Another problem

- **Example: Who has NULL pop values?**
  - `SELECT * FROM User WHERE pop = NULL;`
    - Does not work; never returns anything
  - SQL introduced special, built-in predicates **IS NULL** and **IS NOT NULL**
    - `SELECT * FROM User WHERE pop IS NULL;`
- **Check yourself:**
  - `(SELECT * FROM User)`  
`EXCEPT ALL`  
`(SELECT * FROM User WHERE pop = pop);`
    - Works, but ugly

```
User(uid, name, age, pop)
Member(uid, gid)
```

# 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** ( $R \bowtie S$ ) 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 examples

Group ⋈ Member

Group

| <i>gid</i> | <i>name</i>            |
|------------|------------------------|
| abc        | Book Club              |
| gov        | Student Government     |
| dps        | Dead Putting Society   |
| nuk        | United Nuclear Workers |

Member

| <i>uid</i> | <i>gid</i> |
|------------|------------|
| 142        | dps        |
| 123        | gov        |
| 857        | abc        |
| 857        | gov        |
| 789        | foo        |

Group ⋈ Member

| <i>gid</i> | <i>name</i>            | <i>uid</i> |
|------------|------------------------|------------|
| abc        | Book Club              | 857        |
| gov        | Student Government     | 123        |
| gov        | Student Government     | 857        |
| dps        | Dead Putting Society   | 142        |
| nuk        | United Nuclear Workers | NULL       |

Group ⋈ Member

| <i>gid</i> | <i>name</i>          | <i>uid</i> |
|------------|----------------------|------------|
| abc        | Book Club            | 857        |
| gov        | Student Government   | 123        |
| gov        | Student Government   | 857        |
| dps        | Dead Putting Society | 142        |
| foo        | NULL                 | 789        |

| <i>gid</i> | <i>name</i>            | <i>uid</i> |
|------------|------------------------|------------|
| abc        | Book Club              | 857        |
| gov        | Student Government     | 123        |
| gov        | Student Government     | 857        |
| dps        | Dead Putting Society   | 142        |
| nuk        | United Nuclear Workers | NULL       |
| foo        | NULL                   | 789        |

# Outerjoin syntax

- SELECT \* FROM Group **LEFT OUTER JOIN** Member  
ON Group.gid = Member.gid;  
 $\approx \text{Group} \bowtie_{\text{Group.gid}=\text{Member.gid}} \text{Member}$
- SELECT \* FROM Group **RIGHT OUTER JOIN** Member  
ON Group.gid = Member.gid;  
 $\approx \text{Group} \bowtie_{\text{Group.gid}=\text{Member.gid}} \text{Member}$
- SELECT \* FROM Group **FULL OUTER JOIN** Member  
ON Group.gid = Member.gid;  
 $\approx \text{Group} \bowtie_{\text{Group.gid}=\text{Member.gid}} \text{Member}$

☞ 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

# Announcements (Tue. Feb. 11)

- HW3 : Q1-Q3 due tonight (Tuesday Feb 11 11:59 pm)
- HW3: Q4-Q5 due Saturday 02/15 \*\*12 NOON\*\*
- All project groups should be formed now
  - Otherwise you must let me know after class today
  - Keep working on Milestone 1 – due on 02/20 (Thursday)
- Midterm next Tuesday 02/18 in class
  - Open book, open notes
  - No electronic devices, no collaboration
  - Everything covered until and including Thursday 02/13 included
  - Sample midterm on sakai -> resources -> midterm
- HW2 grades posted on sakai
  - Sample solutions will be posted soon

👉 Next: how to create a table and insert/delete rows?



# Creating and dropping tables

- **CREATE TABLE** *table\_name*  
(..., *column\_name column\_type*, ...);
- **DROP TABLE** *table\_name*;
- Examples

```
create table User(uid integer, name varchar(30),
 age integer, pop float);
```

```
create table Group(gid char(10), name varchar(100));
```

```
create table Member(uid integer, gid char(10));
```

```
drop table Member;
```

```
drop table Group;
```

```
drop table User;
```

```
-- everything from -- to the end of line is ignored.
```

```
-- SQL is insensitive to white space.
```

```
-- SQL is insensitive to case (e.g., ...Group... is
```

```
-- equivalent to ...GROUP...).
```

# 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**

- `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

👉 Next: constraints and triggers!

# 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)
- Tuple- and attribute-based CHECK's
- (not covered for now -- General assertion)

# 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 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));

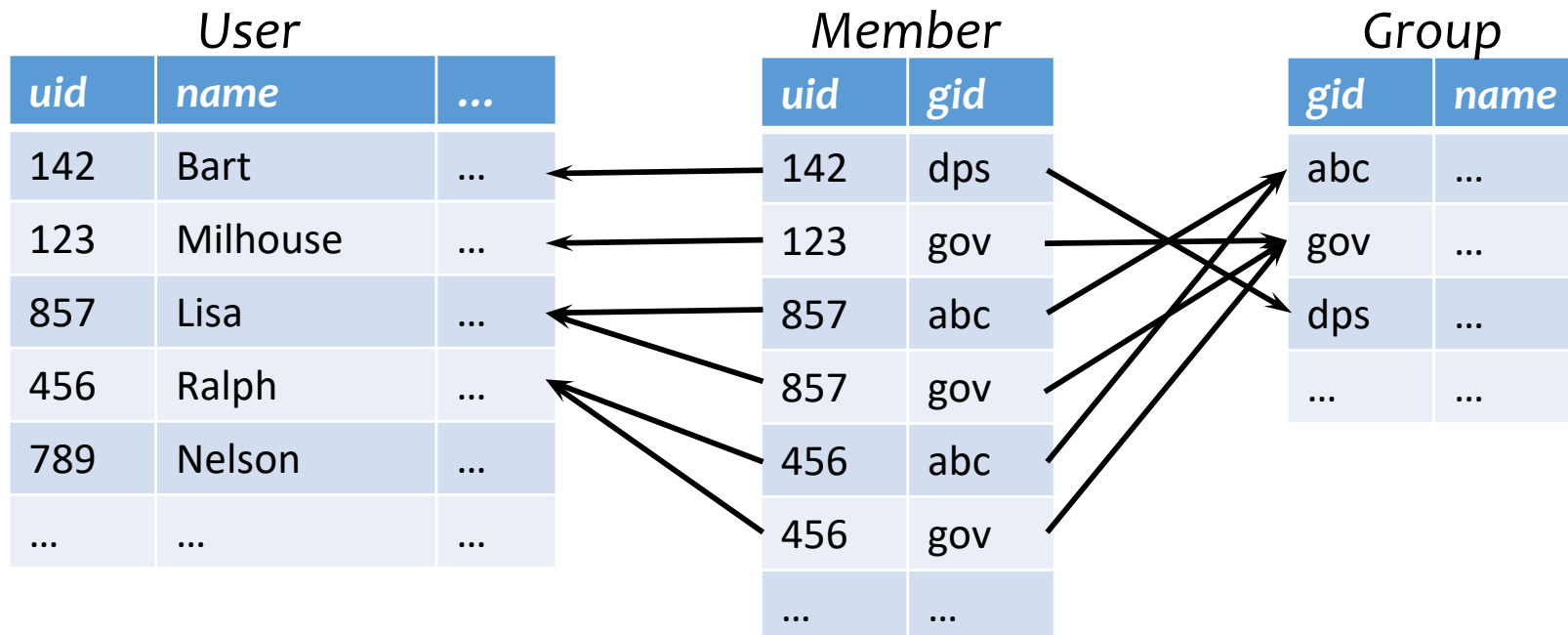
At most one primary key  
Any number of unique

 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));

 This form is useful for multi-attribute foreign keys

# 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

# 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
    - (unlike only TRUE in WHERE conditions!)
- 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

# “Active” data

- **Constraint enforcement:** When an operation violates a constraint, abort the operation or try to “fix” data
  - Example: enforcing referential integrity constraints
  - Generalize to arbitrary constraints?
- **Data monitoring:** When something happens to the data, automatically execute some action.

## Examples?

- Example: When price rises above \$20 per share, sell
- Example: When enrollment is at the limit and more students try to register, email the instructor

# Triggers

- A **trigger** is an **event-condition-action (ECA)** rule
  - When **event** occurs, test **condition**; if condition is satisfied, execute **action**
- **Example:**
  - **Event:** some user's popularity is updated
  - **Condition:** the user is a member of "Jessica's Circle," and *pop* drops below 0.5
  - **Action:** kick that user out of Jessica's Circle



*Jessica is picky about her group members!*

# Trigger example (Row Level)

```
CREATE TRIGGER PickyJessica
AFTER UPDATE OF pop ON User
REFERENCING NEW ROW AS newUser
FOR EACH ROW
WHEN (newUser.pop < 0.5)
AND (newUser.uid IN (SELECT uid
FROM Member
WHERE gid = 'jes'))
DELETE FROM Member
WHERE uid = newUser.uid AND gid = 'jes';
```

*Event*

*Condition*

*Action*



# Trigger options

- Possible events include:
  - **INSERT ON** *table*
  - **DELETE ON** *table*
  - **UPDATE [OF column] ON** *table*
- Granularity—trigger can be activated:
  - **FOR EACH ROW** modified
  - **FOR EACH STATEMENT** that performs modification
- Timing—action can be executed:
  - **AFTER** or **BEFORE** the triggering event
  - **INSTEAD OF** the triggering event on views (more later)

```

CREATE TRIGGER PickyJessica
AFTER UPDATE OF pop ON User
REFERENCING NEW ROW AS newUser
FOR EACH ROW
WHEN (newUser.pop < 0.5)
AND (newUser.uid IN (SELECT uid
 FROM Member
 WHERE gid = 'jes'))
DELETE FROM Member
WHERE uid = newUser.uid AND gid = 'jes';

```

Event

Condition

Action

# Transition variables

- **OLD ROW:** the modified row before the triggering event
- **NEW ROW:** the modified row after the triggering event
- **OLD TABLE:** a hypothetical read-only table containing all rows to be modified before the triggering event
- **NEW TABLE:** a hypothetical table containing all modified rows after the triggering event

☞ Not all of them make sense all the time, e.g.

- **AFTER INSERT statement-level triggers**
  - Can use only NEW TABLE
- **AFTER UPDATE row-level triggers**
  - Can use only OLD ROW and NEW ROW
- **BEFORE DELETE row-level triggers**
  - Can use only OLD ROW
- etc.

# Statement-level trigger example

```
CREATE TRIGGER PickyJessica
AFTER UPDATE OF pop ON User
REFERENCING NEW TABLE AS newUsers
FOR EACH STATEMENT
DELETE FROM Member
WHERE gid = 'jes'
AND uid IN (SELECT uid
 FROM newUsers
 WHERE pop < 0.5);
```

*Event*

*Action*

# BEFORE trigger example

- Never allow age to decrease

```
CREATE TRIGGER NoFountainOfYouth
```

```
BEFORE UPDATE OF age ON User
```

*Event*

```
REFERENCING OLD ROW AS o,
```

```
NEW ROW AS n
```

```
FOR EACH ROW
```

*Condition*

```
WHEN (n.age < o.age)
```

```
SET n.age = o.age;
```

☞ BEFORE triggers are often used to  
“condition” data

*Action*

☞ Another option is to raise an error in the trigger body to abort the transaction that caused the trigger to fire

# Statement- vs. row-level triggers

## Why are both needed?

- Certain triggers are only possible at statement level
  - If the number of users inserted by this statement exceeds 100 and their average age is below 13, then ...
- Simple row-level triggers are easier to implement
  - Statement-level triggers require significant amount of state to be maintained in OLD TABLE and NEW TABLE
  - However, a row-level trigger gets fired for each row, so complex row-level triggers may be less efficient for statements that modify many rows

# SQL features covered so far

- Query
  - Modification
  - Views
  - Constraints
  - Triggers
- 
- Still a lot more features of SQL not covered
  - Learn some of them yourself as you play with SQL queries!

# Practice problem for midterm

- The following SQL queries are equivalent for any tables R and S (possibly containing duplicates):

- Q1:

```
((SELECT * FROM R)
 UNION
 (SELECT * FROM S))
```

```
EXCEPT
```

```
(SELECT * FROM S);
```

- Q2:

```
SELECT * FROM R;
```

- True or False? Why?

# Practice problem for midterm - solution

- The following SQL queries are equivalent for any tables R and S (possibly containing duplicates):

- Q1:

```
((SELECT * FROM R)
 UNION
 (SELECT * FROM S))
EXCEPT
 (SELECT * FROM S);
```

- Q2:

```
SELECT * FROM R;
```

- False: Suppose R has (a), S has (a), the first query returns empty answer.
- What happens if we replace UNION and/or EXCEPT by UNION ALL and EXCEPT ALL?