

Chapter 4 : Intermediate SQL

Database System Concepts, 7th Ed.

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Chapter 4: Intermediate SQL

- Join Expressions
- Views
- Transactions
- Integrity Constraints
- SQL Data Types and Schemas
- Index Definition in SQL
- Authorization



Problem?

Employee		
<u>LastName</u>	DepartmentName	
Rafferty	Sales	
Jones	Engineering	
Heisenberg	Engineering	
Robinson	Clerical	
Smith	Clerical	
Williams	NULL	

Redundant Data!!!











Solution Add primary key (ID)

















Structured Query Language (SQL)

SELECT <attribute list> FROM WHERE <condition>

- Language for constructing a new table from argument table(s).
 - FROM indicates source tables
 - WHERE indicates which *rows* to retain
 - It acts as a filter
 - **SELECT** indicates which *columns* to extract from retained rows
 - Projection
- The result is a table.



Example

SELECT *Name* FROM *Student* WHERE *Id* > 4999;

Id	Name	Address	Status
1234	John	123 Main	fresh
5522	Mary	77 Pine	senior
9876	Bill	83 Oak	junior



Result

Student

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Examples

SELECT Id, Name FROM Student;

SELECT *Id*, *Name* FROM Student WHERE *Status* = 'senior';

SELECT * FROM Student WHERE *Status* = 'senior';

result is a table with one column and one row

SELECT COUNT(*) FROM Student WHERE *Status* = 'senior';



More Complex Example

- Goal: table in which each row names a senior and gives a course taken and grade
- Combines information in two tables:
 - Student: Id, Name, Address, Status
 - Transcript: StudId, CrsCode, Semester, Grade

SELECT Name, CrsCode, Grade FROM Student, Transcript WHERE StudId = Id AND Status = 'senior';

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Joi	n				
		T1		T2	
SELECT al bl	al	<i>a2</i>	<i>a3</i>	<i>b1</i>	<i>b2</i>
$\frac{1}{1} \frac{1}{1} \frac{1}$	А	1	xxy	3.2	17
WHERE $a^2 = h^2$	В	17	rst	4.8	17
	-		2	7 1	1.0
		<i>a2</i>	<i>a3</i>	bl	<u>b2</u>
	A	1	хху	3.2	17
FROM T1, T2	A	1	xxy	4.8	17
yields:	В	17	rst	3.2	17
	В	17	rst	4.8	17
		1 7		2.2	17
WHERE $a2 = b2$	B	1 /	rst	3.2	1/
yields:	В	17	rst	4.8	17
]
	SELEC	CT al.bl	B	3.2	
	yie	lds result	: B	4.8	14



Modifying Tables

UPDATE *Student* SET *Status* = 'soph' WHERE *Id* = 11111111;

INSERT INTO Student (*Id*, *Name*, *Address*, *Status*) VALUES (99999999, 'Bill', '432 Pine', 'senior')

DELETE FROM Student WHERE *Id* = 11111111

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Find the titles of courses in the Comp. Sci. department that have 3 credits.

select title
from course
where dept name = 'Comp. Sci.'
and credits = 3

Find the highest salary of any instructor.

select max(salary)
from instructor

Find all instructors earning the highest salary (there may be more than one with the same salary).

select ID, name
from instructor
where salary = (select max(salary) from instructor)



write a query that finds departments whose names contain the string "Sci" as a substring.

select dept_name
from department
where dept_name like '%Sci%'

Find all instructors who do not work for Computer Science department. (Assume that all people work for exactly one department). select name from instructor where dept_name <> 'Comp. Sci.'



Modify the database so that Kim now teaches in Biology. (Assume that each person has only one tuple in the *instructor* relation)

update instructor
set dept_name = 'Biology'
where name = 'Kim'

Increase the salary of each instructor in the Comp. Sci. department by 10%. update instructor set salary = salary * 1.10 where dept name = 'Comp. Sci.'



Joined Relations

- Join operations take two relations and return as a result another relation.
- A join operation is a Cartesian product which requires that tuples in the two relations match (under some condition). It also specifies the attributes that are present in the result of the join
- The join operations are typically used as subquery expressions in the **from** clause
- Three types of joins:
 - Natural join
 - Inner join
 - Outer join









Semantics of JOINs

 $\begin{array}{l} \textbf{SELECT} x_1.a_1, x_1.a_2, \ \dots, \ x_n.a_k \\ \textbf{FROM} \quad R_1 \ \textbf{AS} \ x_1, \ R_2 \ \textbf{AS} \ x_2, \ \dots, \ \textbf{R}_n \ \textbf{AS} \ \textbf{x}_n \\ \textbf{WHERE} \quad \textbf{Conditions}(\textbf{x}_1, \dots, \ \textbf{x}_n) \end{array}$



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An example of SQL semantics





MySQL supports the following types of joins:

Cross join Inner join Left join Right join

MySQl Tutorial: http://www.mysqltutorial.org/

https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Join_(SQL)







SELECT * FROM table1 CROSS JOIN table2;



In CROSS JOIN, each row from 1st table joins with all the rows of another table. If 1st table contain x rows and y rows in 2nd one the result set will be x * y rows.

Cross Join Cartesian Product

le. vs.			SEI FR CR	LECT * OM table OSS JOI	e_a N table	e_b;		Ĵ			
	100	desc11	des	c12	10	01	desc41	desc	42		
1	101	desc21	des	c22	10	03	desc51	desc	52		
A	102	desc31	l des	c32	10	05	desc61	desc	52		
	t	able_a					table_t)			
		101	desc41	desc42		100	desc11	desc12	101	desc41	desc42
100 desc11	desc12 🗙	103	desc51	desc52	_	100	desc11	desc12	103	desc51	desc52
		105	desc61	desc52		100	desc11	desc12	105	desc61	desc52
		101	desc41	desc42		101	desc21	desc22	101	desc41	desc42
🔌 101 desc21	desc22 🗙	103	desc51	desc52		101	desc21	desc22	103	desc51	desc52
		105	desc61	desc52		101	desc21	desc22	105	desc61	desc52
		101	desc41	desc42		102	desc31	desc32	101	desc41	desc42
→ 102 desc31	desc32 🔀	103	desc51	desc52	==	102	desc31	desc32	103	desc51	desc52
		105	desc61	desc52		102	desc31	desc32	105	desc61	desc52
id	des1	des	2	id		d	es 3	de	s4		
100 100	desc11 desc11	des des	c12 c12	101 103		d	esc41 esc51	de de	sc42 sc52		
100	desc11 desc21	des	c12	105		d	esc61	de	SC62		
101	desc21	des	c22	103		d	esc51	de	sc52	1	
101	desc21	des	C22	105		d	esc61	de	SC62		
102	desc31	des	c32	103		d	esc51	de	sc52		
102	desc31	des	c32	105		d	esc61	de	sc62		

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Employee		
<u>LastName</u>	DepartmentID	
Rafferty	31	
Jones	33	
Heisenberg	33	
Robinson	34	
Smith	34	
Williams	NULL	

Department		
<u>DepartmentID</u>	DepartmentName	
31	Sales	
33	Engineering	
34	Clerical	
35	Marketing	

Cross Join

Employee.LastName	Employee.DepartmentID	Department.DepartmentName	Department.DepartmentID
Rafferty	31	Sales	31
Jones	33	Sales	31
Heisenberg	33	Sales	31
Smith	34	Sales	31
Robinson	34	Sales	31
Williams	NULL	Sales	31
Rafferty	31	Engineering	33
Jones	33	Engineering	33
Heisenberg	33	Engineering	33
Smith	34	Engineering	33
Robinson	34	Engineering	33
Williams	NULL	Engineering	33
Rafferty	31	Clerical	34
Jones	33	Clerical	34
Heisenberg	33	Clerical	34
Smith	34	Clerical	34
Robinson	34	Clerical	34
Williams	NULL	Clerical	34
Rafferty	31	Marketing	35
Jones	33	Marketing	35
Heisenberg	33	Marketing	35
Smith	34	Marketing	35
Robinson	34	Marketing	35
Williams	NULL	Marketing	35



Inner Join





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Join Condition

- The on condition allows a general predicate over the relations being joined.
- This predicate is written like a where clause predicate except for the use of the keyword on.
- Query example

```
select *
```

from student join takes on student_ID = takes_ID

- The **on** condition above specifies that a tuple from *student* matches a tuple from *takes* if their *ID* values are equal.
- Equivalent to:

select *
from student , takes
where student_ID = takes_ID



Inner join

Employee		
<u>LastName</u>	DepartmentID	
Rafferty	31	
Jones	33	
Heisenberg	33	
Robinson	34	
Smith	34	
Williams	NULL	

Department		
<u>DepartmentID</u>	DepartmentName	
31	Sales	
33	Engineering	
34	Clerical	
35	Marketing	

Employee.LastName	Employee.DepartmentID	Department.DepartmentName
Robinson	34	Clerical
Jones	33	Engineering
Smith	34	Clerical
Heisenberg	33	Engineering
Rafferty	31	Sales



Outer Join

- An extension of the join operation that avoids loss of information.
- Computes the join and then adds tuples form one relation that does not match tuples in the other relation to the result of the join.
- Uses null values.
- Three forms of outer join:
 - left outer join
 - right outer join
 - full outer join



Left (outer) Join



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Left Outer Join



<u>LastName</u>	DepartmentID
Rafferty	31
Jones	33
Heisenberg	33
Robinson	34
Smith	34
Williams	NULL

Department		
DepartmentID	DepartmentName	
31	Sales	
33	Engineering	
34	Clerical	
35	Marketing	

Employee.LastName	Employee.DepartmentID	Department.DepartmentName	Department.DepartmentID
Jones	33	Engineering	33
Rafferty	31	Sales	31
Robinson	34	Clerical	34
Smith	34	Clerical	34
Williams	NULL	NULL	NULL
Heisenberg	33	Engineering	33



Right(Outer) Join





Right Outer Join



Employee			
LastNamo	DonartmontID	Department	
Lasuvaine L	Departmentin	DepartmentID	DepartmentName
Rafferty	31		
Jones	33	31	Sales
Heisenberg	33	33	Engineering
Robinson	34		Ligineering
Smith	34	34	Clerical
Williams	NULL	35	Marketing

Employee.LastName	Employee.DepartmentID	Department.DepartmentName	Department.DepartmentID
Smith	34	Clerical	34
Jones	33	Engineering	33
Robinson	34	Clerical	34
Heisenberg	33	Engineering	33
Rafferty	31	Sales	31
NULL	NULL	Marketing	35



Full Outer Join



Employee		Department	
LastName	DepartmentID	Берагішені	
*****		DepartmentID	DepartmentName
Rafferty	31		
Jones	33	31	Sales
Heisenberg	33	33	Engineering
Robinson	34	24	Classical
Smith	34	34	Clerical
Williams	NULL	35	Marketing

Employee.LastName	Employee.DepartmentID	Department.DepartmentName	Department.DepartmentID
Smith	34	Clerical	34
Jones	33	Engineering	33
Robinson	34	Clerical	34
Williams	NULL	NULL	NULL
Heisenberg	33	Engineering	33
Rafferty	31	Sales	31
NULL	NULL	Marketing	35



Other Join

Equi-join:

An equi-join is a specific type of comparator-based join, that uses only **equality (=)** comparisons in the join-predicate. Using other comparison operators (such as <) disqualifies a join as an equi-join. The query shown above has already provided an example of an equi-join:

SELECT * FROM employee JOIN department ON employee.DepartmentID = department.DepartmentID;

We can write equi-join as below:

SELECT * FROM employee, department

WHERE employee.DepartmentID = department.DepartmentID;


Other Join

Natural join:

The natural join is a special case of equi-join. Natural join (\bowtie) is a binary operator that is written as (R \bowtie S) where R and S are relations.

The result of the natural join is the set of all combinations of tuples in R and S that are **equal on their common attribute names**. For an example consider the tables Employee and Dept and their natural join:

Employee			Dept			Employee 🖂 Dept			
Name	Empld	DeptName	DeptName	Manager	Name	Empld	DeptName	Manager	
Harry	3415	Finance	Finance	George	Harry	3415	Finance	George	
Sally	2241	Sales	Sales	Harriet	Sally	2241	Sales	Harriet	
George	3401	Finance	Production	Charles	George	3401	Finance	George	
Harriet	2202	Sales			Harriet	2202	Sales	Harriet	

SELECT *
FROM employee NATURAL JOIN department;



Subquery

 A sub query is a select query that is contained inside another query. The inner select query is usually used to determine the results of the outer select query.



Subqueries are embedded queries inside another query. The embedded query is known as the **inner query** and the container query is known as the **outer query**.



Example

movies = (movie_id, title, director, year_released, category_id)

```
SELECT category name
FROM categories
WHERE category id = (SELECT MIN(category id)
                        FROM movies );
First the INNER Query is executed
  SELECT MIN(category id) from movies
 NNER Query gives following result
     MIN(category_id)
Ontput of INNER Query is substituted in OUTER Query
 SELECT category_name FROM categories WHERE category_id =1
On Execution OUTER Query gives following Result
      category name
     Comedy
```

The above is a form of **Row Sub-Query**. In such sub-queries the, inner query can give only **ONE result**. The permissible operators when work with row subqueries are [=, >, =, <=, ,!=,]

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Example

SELECT full_names,contact_number FROM members WHERE membership_number IN (SELECT membership_number FROM movierentals WHERE return date IS NULL);

First the INNER Query is executed



In this case, the inner query returns **more than one results**. The above is type of **Table sub-query.**



Subqueries

- A subquery may occur in:
 - A SELECT clause
 - A FROM clause
 - A WHERE clause
- **Rule of thumb**: avoid writing nested queries when possible; keep in mind that sometimes it's impossible



Correlated Nested Queries

Output a row <*prof, dept*> if *prof* has taught a course in *dept*.

SELECT P.Name, D.Name --outer query FROM Professor P, Department D WHERE P.Id IN -- set of all Profild's who have taught a course in D.DeptId (SELECT T.ProfId --subquery FROM Teaching T, Course C WHERE T.CrsCode = C.CrsCode AND C.DeptId = D.DeptId --correlation



Correlated Nested Queries (con't)

- Tuple variables T and C are local to subquery
- Tuple variables P and D are global to subquery
- Correlation: subquery uses a global variable, D
- Correlated queries can be expensive to evaluate



Product (<u>pname</u>, price, cid) Company(<u>cid</u>, cname, city)

For each product return the city where it is manufactured



Product (<u>pname</u>, price, cid) Company(<u>cid</u>, cname, city)

For each product return the city where it is manufactured

SELECT X.pname, (SELECT Y.city FROM Company Y WHERE Y.cid=X.cid) as City FROM Product X



Product (<u>pname</u>, price, cid) Company(<u>cid</u>, cname, city)

For each product return the city where it is manufactured

```
SELECT X.pname, (SELECT Y.city
FROM Company Y
WHERE Y.cid=X.cid) as City
FROM Product X
```

What happens if the subquery returns more than one city?

We get a runtime error (Some DBMS simply ignore the extra values)



Product (<u>pname</u>, price, cid) Company(<u>cid</u>, cname, city)

For each product return the city where it is manufactured



What happens if the subquery returns more than one city?

We get a runtime error (Some DBMS simply ignore the extra values)



Product (<u>pname</u>, price, cid) Company(<u>cid</u>, cname, city)

For each product return the city where it is manufactured



What happens if the subquery returns more than one city?

We get a runtime error (Some DBMS simply ignore the extra values)



Product (<u>pname</u>, price, cid) Company(<u>cid</u>, cname, city)

Whenever possible, don't use a nested queries:



FROM Product X

SELECT X.pname, Y.city FROM Product X, Company Y WHERE X.cid=Y.cid



Product (<u>pname</u>, price, cid) Company(<u>cid</u>, cname, city)

Whenever possible, don't use a nested queries:



FROM Product X







Product (<u>pname</u>, price, cid) Company(<u>cid</u>, cname, city)

Compute the number of products made by each company

SELECT DISTINCT C.cname, (SELECT count(*) FROM Product P WHERE P.cid=C.cid) FROM Company C

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Product (<u>pname</u>, price, cid) Company(<u>cid</u>, cname, city)

Compute the number of products made by each company

SELECT DISTINCT C.cname, (SELECT count(*) FROM Product P WHERE P.cid=C.cid) FROM Company C

Better: we can unnest by using a GROUP BY SELECT C.cname, count(*) FROM Company C, Product P WHERE C.cid=P.cid GROUP BY C.cname

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Product (<u>pname</u>, price, cid) Company(<u>cid</u>, cname, city)

But are these really equivalent?

SELECT DISTINCT C.cname, (SELECT count(*) FROM Product P WHERE P.cid=C.cid)

FROM Company C

SELECT C.cname, count(*) FROM Company C, Product P WHERE C.cid=P.cid GROUP BY C.cname



Product (<u>pname</u>, price, cid) Company(<u>cid</u>, cname, city)

But are these really equivalent?

SELECT DISTINCT C.cname, (SELECT count(*) FROM Product P WHERE P.cid=C.cid)

FROM Company C

SELECT C.cname, count(*) FROM Company C, Product P WHERE C.cid=P.cid GROUP BY C.cname

No! Different results if a company has no products

SELECT C.cname, count(pname) FROM Company C LEFT OUTER JOIN Product P ON C.cid=P.cid GROUP BY C.cname



2. Subqueries in FROM

Product (<u>pname</u>, price, cid) Company(<u>cid</u>, cname, city)

Find all products whose prices is > 20 and < 500

SELECT X.pname FROM (SELECT * FROM Product AS Y WHERE price > 20) as X WHERE X.price < 500

Unnest this query ! SELECT pname FROM Product WHERE price > 20 and price < 500



Product (<u>pname</u>, price, cid) Company(<u>cid</u>, cname, city)

Find all companies that make <u>some</u> products with price < 200



Find all companies that make <u>some</u> products with price < 200

Product (<u>pname</u>, price, cid) Company(<u>cid</u>, cname, city)

Existential quantifiers



Product (<u>pname</u>, price, cid) Company(<u>cid</u>, cname, city)

Find all companies that make <u>some</u> products with price < 200</p>

Existential quantifiers

Using IN

SELECT DISTINCT C.cname FROM Company C WHERE C.cid IN (SELECT P.cid FROM Product P WHERE P.price < 200)



SQL EXISTS Operator

- The EXISTS operator is used to test for the existence of any record in a subquery.
- The EXISTS operator returns true if the subquery returns one or more records.
- **Exists** Syntax:

```
SELECT column_name(s)
FROM table_name
WHERE EXISTS (SELECT column_name
FROM table_name
```

WHERE condition);



Example 1

ProductID	ProductName	SupplierID	Price
1	Chais	1	18
2	Chang	1	21
3	Syrup	1	10
4	Seasoning	2	22
5	Gumbo	2	19

SupplierID	SupplierName	ContactName	City
1	Exotic Liquid	Charlotte Cooper	LA
2	Cajun Delights	Shelley Burke	NY
3	Homestead	Regina Murphy	SF

SELECT DISTINCT SupplierName FROM Suppliers AS S WHERE EXISTS (SELECT ProductName FROM Products AS P WHERE P.SupplierID = S.SupplierID AND Price < 20);

This SQL statement returns TRUE and lists the suppliers with a product price less than 20



Example 2

ProductID	ProductName	SupplierID	Price	
1	Chais	1	18	
2	Chang	1	21	
3	Syrup	1	10	
4	Seasoning	2	22	
5	Gumbo	2	19	

SupplierID	SupplierName	ContactName	City
1	Exotic Liquid	Charlotte Cooper	LA
2	Cajun Delights	Shelley Burke	NY
3	Homestead	Regina Murphy	SF

SELECT DISTINCT SupplierName FROM Suppliers AS S WHERE EXISTS (SELECT ProductName FROM Products AS P WHERE P.SupplierID = S.SupplierID AND Price = 22);

This SQL statement returns TRUE and lists the suppliers with a product price equal to 22



Product (<u>pname</u>, price, cid) Company(<u>cid</u>, cname, city)

Find all companies that make <u>some</u> products with price < 200</p>

Existential quantifiers

• Using EXISTS:

SELECT DISTINCT C.cname FROM Company C WHERE EXISTS (SELECT * FROM Product P WHERE C.cid = P.cid and P.price < 200)



Product (<u>pname</u>, price, cid) Company(<u>cid</u>, cname, city)

Find all companies that make <u>some</u> products with price < 200</p>

Existential quantifiers

• Using ANY:

```
SELECT DISTINCT C.cname

FROM Company C

WHERE 200 > ANY (SELECT price

FROM Product P

WHERE P.cid = C.cid)
```

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Product (<u>pname</u>, price, cid) Company(<u>cid</u>, cname, city)

Find all companies that make <u>some</u> products with price < 200</p>

Existential quantifiers

• Using ANY:

SELECT DISTINCT C.cname FROM Company C WHERE 200 > ANY (SELECT price FROM Product P WHERE P.cid = C.cid)





Product (<u>pname</u>, price, cid) Company(<u>cid</u>, cname, city)

Find all companies that make <u>some</u> products with price < 200</p>

Existential quantifiers

Now let's unnest it:

SELECT DISTINCT C.cnameFROMCompany C, Product PWHEREC.cid= P.cid and P.price < 200</th>

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Product (<u>pname</u>, price, cid) Company(<u>cid</u>, cname, city)

Find all companies that make <u>some</u> products with price < 200</p>

Existential quantifiers

• Now let's unnest it:

SELECT DISTINCT C.cname FROM Company C, Product P WHERE C.cid= P.cid and P.price < 200

Existential quantifiers are easy! ©

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Find all companies s.t. <u>all</u> their products have price < 200

same as:

Find all companies that make <u>only</u> products with price < 200

Product (<u>pname</u>, price, cid) Company(<u>cid</u>, cname, city)



Find all companies s.t. <u>all</u> their products have price < 200

same as:

Find all companies that make <u>only</u> products with price < 200

Product (<u>pname</u>, price, cid) Company(<u>cid</u>, cname, city)

Universal quantifiers



Find all companies s.t. <u>all</u> their products have price < 200

same as:

Find all companies that make <u>only</u> products with price < 200

Product (<u>pname</u>, price, cid) Company(<u>cid</u>, cname, city)

Universal quantifiers

Universal quantifiers are hard! 😕



Find all companies s.t. <u>all</u> their products have price < 200

1. Find *the other* companies: i.e. s.t. <u>some</u> product \geq 200

SELECT DISTINCT C.cname FROM Company C WHERE C.cid IN (SELECT P.cid FROM Product P WHERE P.price >= 200)

Product (<u>pname</u>, price, cid) Company(<u>cid</u>, cname, city)



Find all companies s.t. <u>all</u> their products have price < 200

1. Find *the other* companies: i.e. s.t. <u>some</u> product \geq 200

SELECT DISTINCT C.cname FROM Company C WHERE C.cid IN (SELECT P.cid FROM Product P WHERE P.price >= 200)

Product (<u>pname</u>, price, cid) Company(<u>cid</u>, cname, city)

2. Find all companies s.t. all their products have price < 200

SELECT DISTINCT C.cname FROM Company C WHERE C.cid NOT IN (SELECT P.cid FROM Product P WHERE P.price >= 200)



Find all companies s.t. <u>all</u> their products have price < 200

Product (<u>pname</u>, price, cid) Company(<u>cid</u>, cname, city)

Universal quantifiers

Using EXISTS: SELECT DISTINCT C.cname FROM Company C WHERE NOT EXISTS (SELECT * FROM Product P WHERE P.cid = C.cid and P.price >= 200)


3. Subqueries in WHERE

Find all companies s.t. <u>all</u> their products have price < 200

Product (<u>pname</u>, price, cid) Company(<u>cid</u>, cname, city)

Universal quantifiers

Using ALL: SELECT DISTINCT C.cname FROM Company C WHERE 200 >= ALL (SELECT price FROM Product P WHERE P.cid = C.cid)

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3. Subqueries in WHERE

Find all companies s.t. <u>all</u> their products have price < 200

Product (<u>pname</u>, price, cid) Company(<u>cid</u>, cname, city)

Universal quantifiers

Using ALL: SELECT DISTINCT C.cname FROM Company C WHERE 200 > ALL (SELECT price FROM Product P WHERE P.cid = C.cid)



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Constraints on a Single Relation

- not null
- Default value
- unique
- **check** (P), where P is a predicate



Not Null Constraints

not null

 Declare name and budget to be not null name varchar(20) not null budget numeric(12,2) not null



Default Value

-Value to be assigned if attribute value in a row is not specified

CREATE TABLE Student (*Id* INTEGER, *Name* CHAR(20) NOT NULL, *Address* CHAR(50), *Status* CHAR(10) DEFAULT 'freshman', PRIMARY KEY (Id))

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Unique Constraints

- **unique** (*A*₁, *A*₂, ..., *A*_m)
 - The unique specification states that the attributes $A_1, A_2, ..., A_m$ form a candidate key.
 - Candidate keys are permitted to be null (in contrast to primary keys).



The check clause

- The check (P) clause specifies a predicate P that must be satisfied by every tuple in a relation.
- Example: ensure that semester is one of fall, winter, spring or summer

create table section

(course_id varchar (8), sec_id varchar (8), semester varchar (6), year numeric (4,0), building varchar (15), room_number varchar (7), time slot id varchar (4), primary key (course_id, sec_id, semester, year), check (semester in ('Fall', 'Winter', 'Spring', 'Summer')))



Referential Integrity

- Ensures that a value that appears in one relation for a given set of attributes also appears for a certain set of attributes in another relation.
 - Example: If "Biology" is a department name appearing in one of the tuples in the *instructor* relation, then there exists a tuple in the *department* relation for "Biology".
- Let A be a set of attributes. Let R and S be two relations that contain attributes A and where A is the primary key of S. A is said to be a **foreign key** of R if for any values of A appearing in R these values also appear in S.



Referential Integrity (Cont.)

 Foreign keys can be specified as part of the SQL create table statement

foreign key (dept_name) references department

- By default, a foreign key references the primary-key attributes of the referenced table.
- SQL allows a list of attributes of the referenced relation to be specified explicitly.

foreign key (dept_name) references department
(dept_name)



Cascading Actions in Referential Integrity

- When a referential-integrity constraint is violated, the normal procedure is to reject the action that caused the violation.
- An alternative, in case of delete or update is to cascade

```
create table course (
    (...
    dept_name varchar(20),
    foreign key (dept_name) references department
        on delete cascade
        on update cascade,
        ...)
```

- Instead of cascade we can use :
 - set null,
 - set default



Integrity Constraint Violation During Transactions

Consider:

create table person (*ID* char(10), *name* char(40), *mother* char(10), *father* char(10), primary key *ID*, foreign key father references person, foreign key mother references person)

- How to insert a tuple without causing constraint violation?
 - Insert father and mother of a person before inserting person
 - OR, set father and mother to null initially, update after inserting all persons (not possible if father and mother attributes declared to be **not null**)
 - OR defer constraint checking



Assertions

- An assertion is a predicate expressing a condition that we wish the database always to satisfy.
- Element of schema (like table)
- Applies to entire database (not just the individual rows of a single table)
 - hence it works even if Employee is empty
- The following constraints, can be expressed using assertions:
- For each tuple in the *student* relation, the value of the attribute *tot_cred* must equal the sum of credits of courses that the student has completed successfully.
- An instructor cannot teach in two different classrooms in a semester in the same time slot
- An assertion in SQL takes the form:

create assertion <assertion-name> check (<predicate>);



Assertion Example

CREATE ASSERTION DontFireEveryone CHECK (0 < SELECT COUNT (*) FROM Employee)



Sample

Employee

ld	Mgrld	EmpName	Salary	StartDate
1111	3333	Kathy	50K	2012
2222	3333	John	60K	2011
3333	0000	Cook	100K	2000
4444	0000	Mathew	75K	2012
5555	1111	Jun	40K	2015

Primary Key(ID),

FOREIGN KEY(Mgrld) References Employee(Id)

Query: Find the employee(s) who their salaries are higher than their managers



SELECT E1.Id, E1.MgrId, E1.EmpName, E1.salary, E2.salary as Manager_Salary FROM employee as E1 inner join employee as E2 On E1.MgrId = E2.Id where E1.salary > E2.salary



Assertion

CREATE ASSERTION KeepEmployeeSalariesDown CHECK (NOT EXISTS(SELECT * FROM Employee E WHERE E.Salary > E.MngrSalary))

EXISTS(R) is a boolean function (called predicate)

- Returns true when R it not empty
- Return false otherwise

NOT EXISTS(R) \equiv isEmpty(R) \equiv (R = Φ)



CREATE ASSERTION NoEmptyCourses CHECK (NOT EXISTS (SELECT * FROM Teaching T WHERE T.roster() = Φ))

Idea: search those courses in Teaching such that they have no registered students. But how to write T.roster() = Φ in SQL?



Assertions and Inclusion Dependency

```
CREATE ASSERTION NoEmptyCourses

CHECK (NOT EXISTS (

SELECT * FROM Teaching T

WHERE -- for each row T check the following condition

NOT EXISTS (

SELECT * FROM Transcript R

WHERE R.CrsCode = T.CrsCode

AND R.Semester = T.Semester )

))
```

Idea: search those courses in Teaching such that they have no registered students.



User-Defined Types

• **create type** construct in SQL creates user-defined type

create type Dollars as numeric (12,2) final

• Example:

create table *department* (*dept_name* **varchar** (20), *building* **varchar** (15), *budget Dollars*);



Domains

 create domain construct in SQL-92 creates user-defined domain types

create domain person_name char(20) not null

- Types and domains are similar. Domains can have constraints, such as **not null**, specified on them.
- Example:

create domain degree_level varchar(10)
constraint degree_level_test
check (value in ('Bachelors', 'Masters', 'Doctorate'));



MySQL: Enumeration Values

- Syntax: **ENUM**
- https://www.mysqltutorial.org/mysql-enum/



Index Creation

- Many queries reference only a small proportion of the records in a table.
- It is inefficient for the system to read every record to find a record with particular value
- An index on an attribute of a relation is a data structure that allows the database system to find those tuples in the relation that have a specified value for that attribute efficiently, without scanning through all the tuples of the relation.
- We create an index with the **create index** command

create index <name> on <relation-name> (attribute);



Index Creation Example

- create table student (ID varchar (5), name varchar (20) not null, dept_name varchar (20), tot_cred numeric (3,0) default 0, primary key (ID))
- create index studentID_index on student(ID)
- The query:

select *
from student
where ID = '12345'

can be executed by using the index to find the required record, without looking at all records of *student*



Authorization

- We may assign a user several forms of authorizations on parts of the database.
 - **Read** allows reading, but not modification of data.
 - **Insert** allows insertion of new data, but not modification of existing data.
 - **Update** allows modification, but not deletion of data.
 - **Delete** allows deletion of data.
- Each of these types of authorizations is called a privilege. We may authorize the user all, none, or a combination of these types of privileges on specified parts of a database, such as a relation or a view.



Authorization (Cont.)

- Forms of authorization to modify the database schema
 - Index allows creation and deletion of indices.
 - **Resources** allows creation of new relations.
 - Alteration allows addition or deletion of attributes in a relation.
 - **Drop** allows deletion of relations.



Authorization Specification in SQL

- The grant statement is used to confer authorization
 grant <privilege list> on <relation or view > to <user list>
- <user list> is:
 - a user-id
 - **public**, which allows all valid users the privilege granted
 - A role (more on this later)
- Example:
 - grant select on *department* to Amit, Satoshi
- Granting a privilege on a view does not imply granting any privileges on the underlying relations.
- The grantor of the privilege must already hold the privilege on the specified item (or be the database administrator).



Privileges in SQL

- select: allows read access to relation, or the ability to query using the view
 - Example: grant users U_1 , U_2 , and U_3 select authorization on the *instructor* relation:

grant select on *instructor* to U_1 , U_2 , U_3

- **insert**: the ability to insert tuples
- update: the ability to update using the SQL update statement
- **delete**: the ability to delete tuples.
- all privileges: used as a short form for all the allowable privileges



Revoking Authorization in SQL

- The revoke statement is used to revoke authorization.
 revoke <privilege list> on <relation or view> from <user list>
- Example:

revoke select on student from U_1 , U_2 , U_3

- <privilege-list> may be all to revoke all privileges the revokee may hold.
- If <revokee-list> includes public, all users lose the privilege except those granted it explicitly.
- If the same privilege was granted twice to the same user by different grantees, the user may retain the privilege after the revocation.
- All privileges that depend on the privilege being revoked are also revoked.





- A role is a way to distinguish among various users as far as what these users can access/update in the database.
- To create a role we use:
 - create a role <name>
- Example:
 - create role instructor
- Once a role is created we can assign "users" to the role using:
 - grant <role> to <users>



Roles Example

- create role instructor;
- grant instructor to Amit;
- Privileges can be granted to roles:
 - grant select on takes to instructor;
- Roles can be granted to users, as well as to other roles
 - **create role** *teaching_assistant*
 - **grant** teaching_assistant **to** instructor;
 - Instructor inherits all privileges of teaching_assistant
- Chain of roles
 - create role dean;
 - grant instructor to dean;
 - grant dean to Satoshi;





- In SQL, a view is a virtual table based on the result-set of an SQL statement.
- A view contains rows and columns, just like a real table. The fields in a view are fields from one or more real tables in the database.
- A view is defined using the create view statement which has the form

create view *v* **as** < query expression >

where <query expression> is any legal SQL expression. The view name is represented by *v*.





- Once a view is defined, the view name can be used to refer to the virtual relation that the view generates.
- View definition is not the same as creating a new relation by evaluating the query expression
 - Rather, a view definition causes the saving of an expression; the expression is substituted into queries using the view.



View Definition and Use

A view of instructors without their salary

create view faculty as select ID, name, dept_name from instructor

• Find all instructors in the Biology department

select name
from faculty
where dept_name = 'Biology'

Create a view of department salary totals

create view departments_total_salary(dept_name, total_salary) as
 select dept_name, sum (salary)
 from instructor
 group by dept_name;



View - Substitution

When used in an SQL statement, the view definition is substituted for the view name in the statement. As SELECT statement nested in FROM clause

SELECT S.Name, C.Cum FROM (SELECT T.Studid, AVG (T.Grade) FROM Transcript T GROUP BY T.Studid) C, Student S WHERE C.Studid = S.Studid AND C.Cum > 3.5



View Benefits

- Access Control: Users not granted access to base tables. Instead they are granted access to the view of the database appropriate to their needs.
 - *External schema* is composed of views.
 - View allows owner to provide SELECT access to a subset of columns (analogous to providing UPDATE and INSERT access to a subset of columns)



Views – Limiting Visibility

Grade projected out

CREATE VIEW PartOfTranscript (*StudId, CrsCode, Semester*) AS SELECT T. *StudId*, T.*CrsCode*, T.*Semester* -- *limit columns* FROM Transcript T WHERE T.*Semester* = 'S2000' -- *limit rows*

Give permissions to access data through view: GRANT SELECT ON PartOfTranscript TO joe

This would have been analogous to:

GRANT SELECT (StudId, CrsCode, Semester) ON Transcript TO joe


View Benefits (cont'd)

- Customization: Users need not see full complexity of database.
- View creates the illusion of a simpler database customized to the needs of a particular category of users
- A view is similar in many ways to a subroutine in standard programming
 - Can be reused in multiple queries



Views Defined Using Other Views

- create view physics_fall_2017 as select course.course_id, sec_id, building, room_number from course, section where course.course_id = section.course_id and course.dept_name = 'Physics' and section.semester = 'Fall' and section.year = '2017';
- create view physics_fall_2017_watson as select course_id, room_number from physics_fall_2017 where building= 'Watson';



Materialized Views

- Certain database systems allow view relations to be physically stored.
 - Physical copy created when the view is defined.
 - Such views are called **Materialized view**:
- If relations used in the query are updated, the materialized view result becomes out of date
 - Need to **maintain** the view, by updating the view whenever the underlying relations are updated.



Update of a View

create view faculty as select ID, name, dept_name from instructor

 Add a new tuple to *faculty* view which we defined earlier insert into *faculty*

values ('30765', 'Green', 'Music');

- This insertion must be represented by the insertion into the instructor relation
 - Must have a value for salary.
- Two approaches
 - Reject the insert
 - Inset the tuple

```
('30765', 'Green', 'Music', null)
```

into the instructor relation



Some Updates Cannot be Translated Uniquely

- create view instructor_info as select ID, name, building from instructor, department where instructor.dept_name= department.dept_name;
- insert into instructor_info

values ('69987', 'White', 'Taylor');

- Issues
 - Which department, if multiple departments in Taylor?
 - What if no department is in Taylor?



And Some Not at All

- create view history_instructors as select * from instructor where dept_name= 'History';
- What happens if we insert
 - ('25566', 'Brown', 'Biology', 100000)
 - into *history_instructors*?



View Updates in SQL

- Most SQL implementations allow updates only on simple views
 - The **from** clause has only one database relation.
 - The select clause contains only attribute names of the relation, and does not have any expressions, aggregates, or distinct specification.
 - Any attribute not listed in the select clause can be set to null
 - The query does not have a **group** by or **having** clause.



Authorization on Views

- create view geo_instructor as
 (select *
 from instructor
 where dept_name = 'Geology');
- grant select on geo_instructor to geo_staff



End of Chapter 4