

Review	
SELECT [DISTINCT]	
FROM	
WHERE	
GROUP BY	
HAVING;	

ORDER BY

- SELECT [DISTINCT] $E_1, E_2, E_3...$ FROM...WHERE...GROUP BY...HAVING... ORDER BY $E_{i_1}[ASC | DESC]$, $E_{i_2}[ASC | DESC]$, ...; • ASC = ascending, DESC = descending
- Operational semantics
 - After SELECT list has been computed and optional duplicate elimination has been carried out, sort the output according to ORDER BY specification

ORDER BY example

• List all students, sort them by GPA (descending) and then name (ascending)

- ASC is the default option
- Technically, only output columns can appear in ORDER BY clause (some DBMS support more)

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- Can use output index instead

Data modification: INSERT

• Insert one row Example: Student 456 takes CPS 216

- INSERT INTO Enroll VALUES (456, 'CPS 216');
- Insert the result of a query Example: Force everybody to take CPS 216

 INSERT INTO Enroll (SELECT SID, 'CPS 216' FROM Student

Data modification: DELETE

• Delete everything

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- DELETE FROM Enroll;
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- Delete according to a WHERE condition
- Example: Student 456 drops CPS 216
- DELETE FROM Enroll

WHERE SID = 456 AND CID = 'CPS 216'; Example: Drop students with GPA lower than 1.0 from

all CPS classes

Data modification: UPDATE

- Example: Student 142 changes name to "Barney" – UPDATE Student
 - SET name = 'Barney' WHERE SID = 142;
- Example: Let's be "fair"?
- UPDATE Student
 SET GPA = (SELECT AVG(GPA) FROM Student);

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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: CPS 216 roster

- CREATE VIEW CPS216Roster AS SELECT SID, name, age, GPA FROM Student WHERE SID IN (SELECT SID FROM Enroll WHERE CID = 'CPS 216');
- To drop a view (or table)
 - DROP VIEW view_name;
 - DROP TABLE table_name;

Using views in queries

- Example: find the average GPA of CPS 216 students
 - SELECT AVG(GPA) FROM CPS216Roster;
 - To process the query, replace the reference to the view by its definition

Why use views?

- To hide data from users
- To hide complexity from users
- Logical data independence
 - If applications deal with views, we can change the underlying schema without affecting applications
 - Recall physical data independence: change the physical organization of data without affecting applications
- Real database applications use tons of views

Modifying views

- Doesn't seems to make sense since views are virtual
- But does make sense if that's how users view the database
- Goal: modify the base tables such that the modification would appear to have been accomplished on the view

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A simple case

CREATE VIEW StudentGPA AS SELECT SID, GPA FROM Student;

DELETE FROM StudentGPA WHERE SID = 123;

translates to:

An impossible case

CREATE VIEW HighGPAStudent AS SELECT SID, GPA FROM Student WHERE GPA > 3.7; INSERT INTO HighGPAStudent VALUES(987, 2.5);

A case with too many possibilities

CREATE VIEW AverageGPA(GPA) AS SELECT AVG(GPA) FROM Student; – Note that you can rename columns in view definition UPDATE AverageGPA SET GPA = 2.5;

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SQL92 updatable views

- Single-table SFW
 - No aggregation
 - No subqueries
- Overly restrictive
- Still gets it wrong in some cases – See the slide titled "An impossible case"

Incomplete information

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- Example: Student (SID, name, age, GPA)
- Value unknown
- Value not applicable

Solution 1

- A dedicated special value for each domain
 - GPA cannot be –1, so use –1 as a special value
 SELECT AVG(GPA) FROM Student;
 - SELECT AVG(GPA) FROM Student WHERE GPA <> 0;
 - Complicates applications
 - Remember the pre-Y2K bug?
 - 09/09/99 was used as an invalid or missing date valueIt's tricky to make these assumptions!

Solution 2

- A valid-bit column for every real column

 Student (SID, name, name_is_valid, age, age_is_valid, GPA, GPA_is_valid)
 - Too much overhead
 - SELECT AVG(GPA) FROM Student WHERE GPA_valid;
 Still complicates applications

SQL's solution

- A special value NULL
 - Same for every domainSpecial rules for dealing with NULLs
- Example: Student (SID, name, age, GPA)
- <789, 'Nelson', NULL, NULL>

Computing with NULLs

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

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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 tuples if the condition evaluates to TRUE
 - UNKNOWN is insufficient

Unfortunate consequences

- select avg(GPA) from Student;
 select sum(GPA) / count(*) from Student;
- select * from Student; select * from Student where GPA > 3.0 or GPA <= 3.0;
- Be careful: NULL breaks many equivalences

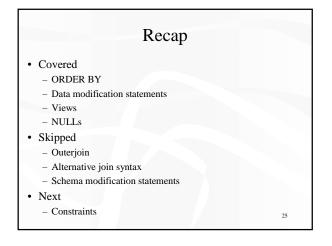
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Another problem

• Example: Who has NULL GPA values?

 New built-in predicates IS NULL and IS NOT NULL select * from Student where GPA is null;



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
 - Tell the DBMS about the data

Types of constraints

• NOT NULL

• Key

- Referential integrity
- General assertion
- Tuple- and attribute-based CHECKs

NOT NULL constraint example

 create table Student

 (SID integer not null, name varchar(30) not null, email varchar(30), age integer, GPA float);

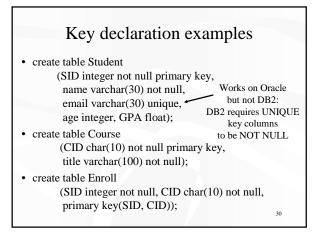
- create table Course (CID char(10) not null, title varchar(100) not null);
- create table Enroll (SID integer not null, CID char(10) not null);

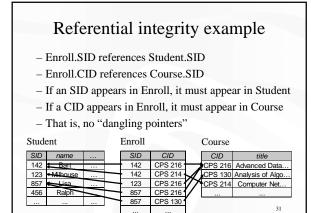
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Key declaration

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







Referential integrity in SQL

- Referenced column must be PRIMARY KEY
- Referencing column is called FOREIGN KEY
- Example declaration
 - create table Enroll
 - (SID integer not null references Student(SID), CID char(10) not null, primary key(SID, CID),
 - foreign key CID references Course(CID));

Enforcing referential integrity

Example: Enroll.SID references Student.SID

- Insert or update a Enroll tuple so it refers to a non-existent SID
- Reject
- Delete or update a Student tuple whose SID is referenced by some Enroll tuple
 - 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

General assertion

- CREATE ASSERTION assertion_name CHECK assertion_condition;
- *assertion_condition* is checked for each modification that could potentially violate it
- Example: Enroll.SID references Student.SID
 CREATE ASSERTION EnrollStudentRefIntegrity
 CHECK (
- SQL3, but not all (perhaps no) DBMS supports it

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Tuple- and attribute-based CHECKs

• Associated with a single table

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- Only checked when a tuple or an attribute is
- inserted or updated
- Example:
 - CREATE TABLE Enroll (SID integer not null CHECK (SID IN (SELECT SID FROM Student)), CID ...);
 - Is it a referential integrity constraint?

Next time	
Transactions!	
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