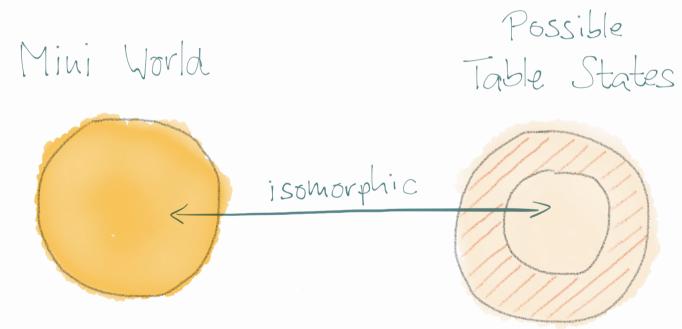
INTRODUCTION TO RELATIONAL DATABASE SYSTEMS DATENBANKSYSTEME 1 (INF 3131)

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Summer 2023

- Schemata capture the **structural aspects** of a mini-world and largely prescribe the possible contents of a table.
- The plain definition of tables and their column types, however, often admit too many (meaningless, illegal) table states:



Mini world states vs. possible table states

calendar

no	appointment	start		stop	
1	team meeting	2013-11-12	09:30	2013-11-12	10:30
2		2013-11-12	10:15	2013-11-12	11:45
2	lunch	2013-11-12	12:00	2013-11-12	12:30
3	presentation	2013-11-12	18:00	2013-11-12	20:00

- Mini-world rules (or: constraints) for table calendar (columns start and stop are of type timestamp):
 - 1. Appointment numbers must be present and be unique.
 - 2. Appointments may not overlap.
- 3. Breaks (lunches, ...) should last at least one hour.
- 4. No appointments beyond 7pm.
- 5. Appointments need a defined purpose (no "catch-all" appointments).

Constraints

An **integrity constraint** specifies conditions which the table states have to satisfy at all times. This restricts the set of possible states (ideally only admits images of possible mini-world scenarios).

The **current set of constraints** C is integral part of the database schema:

$$(\{(R_1, \alpha_1), (R_2, \alpha_2), ...\}, \mathbb{C})$$

- The RDBMS will refuse table state changes that violate any constraint $c \in \mathbb{C}$.
- Constraints are often local (intra-column, intra-table) but may also span tables.
- Note: The attribute-type assignment type(•) may be understood as a set of intra-column constraints.

- Once a table has been created, constraints can be added to/removed from it by the SQL DDL command ALTER TABLE. In effect, € is changed.

ALTER TABLE

Add to or remove constraints from existing table t. Various forms of actions exist:

```
ALTER TABLE [ IF EXISTS ] t action [, ...]
```

- ALTER TABLE can also modify the schema () and alter further features of a table. See the PotsgreSQL documentation. We will come back to this.

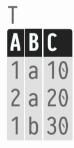
```
action is one of the following:

-- column column_name may (not) hold the NULL value (□)
   ALTER column_name SET [ NOT ] NULL
-- column column_name must contain unique values
   ADD [ CONSTRAINT constraint_name ] UNIQUE (column_name [, ...])
-- all rows of the table must satisfy the given condition
   ADD [ CONSTRAINT constraint_name ] CHECK (expression)
-- remove named constraint from table
   DROP CONSTRAINT [ IF EXISTS ] constraint_name
```

 Optional constraint naming allows for selective removal and dis-/enabling of constraints.

- ALTER TABLE notes:
 - 1. When UNIQUE(...) contains multiple column names, the combination of column values must be unique in the table.
 - Constraint UNIQUE(A,B) holds for table T below, while UNIQUE(A) or UNIQUE(B) do not.

The more columns are given, the weaker the UNIQUE constraint:



2. A CHECK(...) constraint is evaluated for each table row separately and the constraint's Boolean expression may only refer to columns of that row.

- Once specified, schema and constraints jointly definely the table:

```
=# \d calendar
                Table "public.calendar"
   Column
                        Type
                                          | Collation | Nullable | Default
    | integer
                                                        not null
 no
 appointment | text
                                                        not null
 start | timestamp without time zone
             | timestamp without time zone
 stop
Indexes:
   "calendar_no_key" UNIQUE CONSTRAINT, btree (no)
                                                                             A
Check constraints:
   "start before stop" CHECK (start < stop)
   "breaks last longer than one hour" CHECK ((appointment <> ALL (ARRAY['lunch',
'break'l))
                                            OR (stop - start) >=
'01:00:00'::interval)
   "no appointments beyond 7pm" CHECK (stop::time <= '19:00:00'::time)
```

 UNIQUE constraints are of particular importance for the relational data model. Since rows cannot be addressed by memory location or table position, we need to

identify individual rows of a table by value (of selected columns).

- Value-based row identification is so important, that RDBMS automatically create auxiliary data structures (e.g. B-tree **indexes**, see line marked \triangle on previous slide \rightarrow DB 2) to efficiently:
 - 1. check that uniqueness is not violated when rows are added/modified, and
 - 2. find a row given its unique column values.
- Recall: Uniqueness of the piece ID in tables bricks.cvs and minifigs.csv helped us to optimize the weight of LEGO Set 5610 PyQL queries.

Key

A **key** of a table $R(a_1, ..., a_n)$ is a set of columns $K \subseteq \{a_1, ..., a_n\}$ that **uniquely identifies** the rows of R:

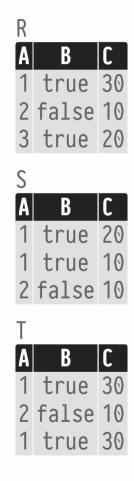
 $\forall t, u \in inst(R)$: $t.K = u.K \Rightarrow t = u$

Read: "If two rows agree on the columns in K, they are indeed the same row."

Or: "The values of the columns in K already suffice to locate a row in R."

- Note: Here we have generalized dot notation to work over column sets (not just single columns). If $K = \{a_{i1}, ..., a_{ik}\}$, then $t.K = (t.a_{i1}, ..., t.a_{ik})$. As before, equality of row values (via =) is defined column by column.

Quiz: Keys for Tables?



- Notes:

- 1. While (SQL) tables may have **no key** at all, this is impossible for relations in the sense of the original relational model. (Why?)
- 2. If K is key for $R(a_1, ..., a_n)$, then any K^+ with $K \subseteq K^+ \subseteq \{a_1, ..., a_n\}$ also is a key for R. Such keys K^+ are also referred to as **superkeys**.
- 3. Keys of minimal size (minimum column count) are the so-called candidate keys of R.

Key K is minimal if each attribute $a \in K$ is essential for row identification: let $K^- = K - \{a\}$, then

 $\exists t, u \in inst(R)$: $t.K^- = u.K^- \land t \neq u$

4. Keys are constraints: they have to be satisfied in **all table states**, not only the current one.

Example: Keys for the LEGO Set Mini-World

contains (excerpt)

set	piece	color	extra	quantity
00-1	29c01	1	f	6
00-1	29c01	5	f	8
00-1	3001old	5	f	9
00-4	3001old	3	f	4
00-4	3001old	3	t	1

- One LEGO set contains multiple pieces: {set} cannot be key. One piece occurs in different sets: {piece} cannot be key.
- In a set, a piece may occur multiple times (in various colors): {set,piece} is no key.
- From the excerpt above, {quantity} could be key, but knowledge of the miniworld says that this is coincidence (will not hold for all table states).
- {set, piece, color, extra} is candidate key for table contains ("Provide set number, LEGO piece ID, color, extra status to identify the piece's row.")

Example: Keys for the LEGO Set Mini-World

bricks

piece	type	name					cat	weight	img	X	y	Z
08010ac01	В	Electric,	Light	Brick	12V	•••	123	2.79999995	http://www/PL/08010ac01	2	2	1
08010bc02	В	Electric,	Light	Brick	12V	•••	123	2.79999995	http://www/PL/08010bc02	2	2	1
•	•	•					•	•	•	•	•	•

minifigs

piece	type	name	cat	weight	img
sw038	M	Watto	65	5.32999992	http://www/ML/sw038
sw040	M	Royal Guard	65	4.1500001	http://www/ML/sw040
85863pb099	M	Microfig Legends of Chima Eagle	252		http://www/ML/85863pb099
•	•	•	•	•	

- {piece} and {img} are candidate keys in both tables (we would need to scan the entire table to be sure but mini-world knowledge suggests so).
- In minifigs, {weight} could be candidate key. Mini-world knowledge says otherwise. Also, presence of NULL (□) is problematic: is NULL = NULL?

PRIMARY KEY

Primary Key

Among the candidate keys of table R, one key K is selected to be the **primary key**. It is expected that users/applications will identify rows of R primarily based on K.

- Selection of primary key K is primarily driven by
 - 1. **Pragmatics** ("this is how things are naturally identified in this mini-world")

2. Efficiency

Can expect frequent evaluation of predicates of the form t.K = u.K (for rows t, u) in queries. Minimum key size helps but equality comparison on key components should be efficient as well.

(Cf. candidate keys {piece} vs. {img} on previous slide.)

PRIMARY KEY

ALTER TABLE ... PRIMARY KEY

The SQL DDL command

```
ALTER TABLE [ IF EXISTS ] t
ADD PRIMARY KEY (column_name [, ...])
```

establishes the specified columns as the primary key of table t (there can be only one primary key).

- Primary keys serve as the row identifier and thus must be present and unique. Constraint PRIMARY KEY $(a_1,...,a_k)$ implies the following k+1 constraints:
 - 1. a_1 NOT NULL, ..., a_k NOT NULL, and
 - 2. UNIQUE $(a_1,...,a_k)$.

PRIMARY KEY (NOTATION)

- In SQL table design, it is *customary* to place the primary key column(s) first ("left") in the schema.
- In schemata and illustrations of keyed tables, key columns typically are underlined or otherwise emphasized:

$$R(\underline{A}, \underline{B}, C, D)$$

