

Constraints

FOREIGN KEYS

LOCAL AND GLOBAL CONSTRAINTS

TRIGGERS

Constraints and Triggers

A *constraint* is a relationship among data elements that the DBMS is required to **enforce**.

- *Example*: key constraints.

Triggers are only executed when a specified condition occurs, e.g., insertion of a tuple.

- Easier to implement than complex constraints.

Kinds of Constraints

Keys.

Foreign-key, or referential-integrity.

Value-based constraints.

- Constrain values of a particular attribute.

Tuple-based constraints.

- Relationship among components.

Assertions: any SQL boolean expression.

Review: Single-Attribute Keys

Place PRIMARY KEY or UNIQUE after the type in the declaration of the attribute.

Example:

```
CREATE TABLE Beers (  
    name    CHAR(20) UNIQUE,  
    manf    CHAR(20)  
);
```

Review: Multiattribute Key

The bar and beer together are the key for Sells:

```
CREATE TABLE Sells (  
    bar          CHAR(20) ,  
    beer         VARCHAR(20) ,  
    price        REAL ,  
    PRIMARY KEY (bar, beer)  
);
```

Foreign Keys

Values appearing in attributes of one relation must appear together in certain attributes of another relation.

Example: in `Sells(bar, beer, price)`, we might expect that a beer value also appears in `Beers.name`.

Expressing Foreign Keys

Use keyword **REFERENCES**, either:

1. After an attribute (for one-attribute keys).
2. As an element of the schema:

FOREIGN KEY (<list of attributes>)

REFERENCES <relation> (<attributes>)

Referenced **attributes** must be declared PRIMARY KEY or UNIQUE KEY.

Example: With Attribute

```
CREATE TABLE Beers (  
    name      CHAR(20) PRIMARY KEY,  
    manf      CHAR(20) );
```

```
CREATE TABLE Sells (  
    bar CHAR(20),  
    beer CHAR(20) REFERENCES Beers(name),  
    price REAL );
```


Example: As Schema Element

```
CREATE TABLE Beers (  
  name CHAR(20) PRIMARY KEY,  
  manf CHAR(20) );
```

```
CREATE TABLE Sells (  
  bar CHAR(20),  
  beer CHAR(20),  
  price REAL,  
  FOREIGN KEY(beer) REFERENCES  
    Beers(name) );
```

Enforcing Foreign-Key Constraints

If there is a foreign-key constraint from relation R to relation S , two violations are possible:

1. An **insert** or **update** to R introduces values not found in S .
2. A **deletion** or **update** to S causes some tuples of R to “dangle.”

Actions Taken --- (1)

Example: suppose $R = \text{Sells}$, $S = \text{Beers}$.

An insert or update to **Sells** that introduces a nonexistent beer must be rejected.

A deletion or update to **Beers** that removes a beer value found in some tuples of **Sells** can be handled in three ways (next slide).

Actions Taken --- (2)

1. *Default* : Reject the modification.
2. *Cascade* : Make the same changes in Sells.
 - *Deleted beer*: delete Sells tuple.
 - *Updated beer*: change value in Sells.
3. *Set NULL* : Change the beer to NULL.

Example: Cascade

Delete the Bud tuple from Beers:

- Then delete all tuples from Sells that have beer = 'Bud'.

Update the Bud tuple by changing 'Bud' to 'Budweiser':

- Then change all Sells tuples with beer = 'Bud' to beer = 'Budweiser'.

Example: Set NULL

Delete the Bud tuple from Beers:

- Change all tuples of Sells that have beer = 'Bud' to have beer = NULL.

Update the Bud tuple by changing 'Bud' to 'Budweiser':

- Same change as for deletion.

Choosing a Policy

When we declare a foreign key, we may choose policies **SET NULL** or **CASCADE** independently for deletions and updates.

Follow the foreign-key declaration by:

ON [UPDATE, DELETE][SET NULL CASCADE]

Two such clauses may be used.

Otherwise, the **default** (reject) is used.

Example: Setting Policy

```
CREATE TABLE Sells (  
    bar    CHAR(20),  
    beer   CHAR(20),  
    price  REAL,  
    FOREIGN KEY (beer)  
        REFERENCES Beers (name)  
        ON DELETE SET NULL  
        ON UPDATE CASCADE  
);
```


Attribute-Based Checks

Constraints on the value of a particular attribute.

Add **CHECK**(<condition>) to the declaration for the attribute.

The condition may use the name of the attribute, but **any other relation or attribute name must be in a subquery.**

Example: Attribute-Based Check

```
CREATE TABLE Sells (  
    bar    CHAR(20),  
    beer   CHAR(20)    CHECK ( beer IN  
                               (SELECT name FROM Beers)),  
    price  REAL CHECK ( price <= 5.00 )  
);
```

Timing of Checks

Attribute-based checks are performed only when a value for that attribute is inserted or updated.

- **Example:** `CHECK (price <= 5.00)` checks every new price and rejects the modification (for that tuple) if the price is more than \$5.
- **Example:** `CHECK (beer IN (SELECT name FROM Beers))` not checked if a beer is deleted from Beers (unlike foreign-keys)!

Tuple-Based Checks

CHECK (<condition>) may be added as a relation-schema element.

The condition may refer to any attribute of the relation.

- But other attributes or relations require a subquery.

Checked on **insert** or **update only**.

Example: Tuple-Based Check

Only Joe's Bar can sell beer for more than \$5:

```
CREATE TABLE Sells (  
    bar          CHAR(20),  
    beer         CHAR(20),  
    price        REAL,  
    CHECK (bar = 'Joe''s Bar' OR  
           price <= 5.00)  
);
```

Assertions

These are **database-schema elements**, like relations.

Defined by:

```
CREATE ASSERTION <name>
```

```
    CHECK (<condition>);
```

Condition may refer to any **relation** or **attribute** in the database schema.

Example: Assertion

In `Sells(bar, beer, price)`, no bar may charge an average of more than \$5.


```
CREATE ASSERTION NoRipoffBars CHECK (  
  NOT EXISTS (  

```

```
    SELECT bar FROM Sells  
    GROUP BY bar  
    HAVING 5.00 < AVG(price)
```

```
  ));
```

Bars with an
average price
above \$5



Example: Assertion

In **Drinkers(name, addr, phone)** and **Bars(name, addr, license)**, there cannot be more bars than drinkers.

```
CREATE ASSERTION FewBar CHECK (  
    (SELECT COUNT(*) FROM Bars) <=  
    (SELECT COUNT(*) FROM Drinkers)  
);
```


Timing of Assertion Checks

In principle, we must check every assertion after every modification to any relation of the database.

A **clever system** can observe that only certain changes could cause a given assertion to be violated.

- **Example:** No change to Beers can affect FewBar. Neither can an insertion to Drinkers.

Triggers: Motivation

Assertions are powerful, but the DBMS often cannot tell when they need to be checked.

Attribute- and tuple-based checks are checked at known times, but are not powerful.

Triggers let the user decide when to check for any condition.

Event-Condition-Action Rules

Another name for “trigger” is ***ECA rule***, or *event-condition-action* rule.

Event : typically, a type of database modification, e.g., “insert on Sells.”

Condition : Any SQL **boolean-valued expression**.

Action : Any **SQL statements**.

Preliminary Example: A Trigger

Instead of using a foreign-key constraint and rejecting insertions into `Sells(bar, beer, price)` with unknown beers, a trigger can add that beer to Beers, with a NULL manufacturer.

Example: Trigger Definition

```
CREATE TRIGGER BeerTrig
BEFORE INSERT ON Sells
REFERENCING NEW ROW AS NewTuple
FOR EACH ROW
WHEN (NewTuple.beer NOT IN
      (SELECT name FROM Beers))
INSERT INTO Beers(name)
VALUES(NewTuple.beer);
```

The event

The condition

The action

Options: CREATE TRIGGER

CREATE TRIGGER <name>

Or:

REPLACE TRIGGER <name>

- Useful if there is a trigger with that name and you want to **modify the trigger**.

Options: The Event

AFTER can be BEFORE.

INSERT can be DELETE or UPDATE.

- And UPDATE can be UPDATE . . . ON a particular attribute.

Options: FOR EACH ROW

Triggers are either “**row-level**” or “**statement-level**.”

FOR EACH ROW indicates row-level; its absence indicates statement-level.

Row level triggers : execute once for each modified tuple.

Statement-level triggers : execute once for a SQL statement, regardless of how many tuples are modified.

Options: REFERENCING

INSERT statements imply a new tuple or table.

- The “table” is the set of inserted tuples.

DELETE implies an old tuple or table.

UPDATE implies both.

Refer to these by

[NEW OLD][ROW TABLE] AS <name>

Options: The Condition

Any boolean-valued condition.

Evaluated on the database as it would exist before or after the triggering event, depending on whether BEFORE or AFTER is used.

Access the new/old tuple/table through the names in the REFERENCING clause.

Options: The Action

There can be more than one SQL statement in the action.

- Surround by BEGIN . . . END if there is more than one.

But queries make no sense in an action, so we are really limited to modifications.

Another Example

Using `Sells(bar, beer, price)` and a unary relation `RipoffBars(bar)`, maintain a list of bars that raise the price of any beer by more than \$1.

The Trigger

```
CREATE TRIGGER PriceTrig
```

```
AFTER UPDATE OF price ON Sells
```

The event –
only changes
to prices

```
REFERENCING
```

```
OLD ROW AS ooo
```

```
NEW ROW AS nnn
```

Updates let us
talk about old
and new tuples

Condition:
a raise in
price > \$1

```
FOR EACH ROW
```

We need to consider
each price change

```
WHEN(nnn.price > ooo.price + 1.00)
```

```
INSERT INTO RipoffBars
```

```
VALUES(nnn.bar);
```

When the price change
is great enough, add
the bar to RipoffBars

Actions

Review slides!

Read Chapter 7: Constraints and Triggers from course book.