# L5 SQL SQL SQL SQL SQL SQL

Eugene Wu Fall 2015

### Didn't Lecture 3 Go Over SQL?

#### Two sublanguages

**DDL** Data Definition Language define and modify schema (physical, logical, view) CREATE TABLE, Integrity Constraints

**DML** Data Manipulation Language get and modify data simple SELECT, INSERT, DELETE human-readable language

Yes, but only at a shallow amount of detail, we discussed .... What did we discuss in lecture 3?

Unlike relaitonal algebra, where your keyboard doesn't even have the characteres for the operators

# Gritty Details

DDL

NULL, Views

**DML** 

Basics, SQL Clauses, Expressions, Joins, Nested Queries, Aggregation, With, Triggers

Today we wil go into gritty details about SQL

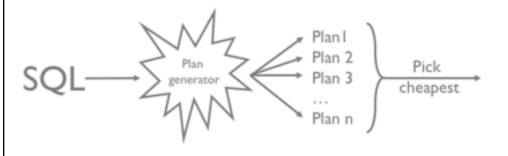
### Didn't Lecture 3 Go Over SQL?

DBMS makes it run efficiently

Key: precise query semantics

Reorder/modify queries while answers stay same

DBMS estimates costs for different evaluation plans



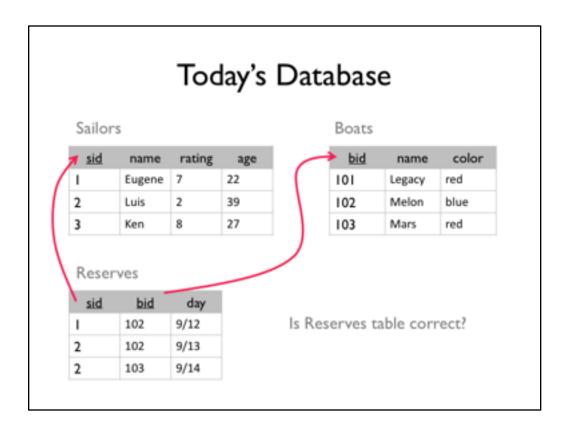
### Didn't Lecture 3 Go Over SQL?

More expressive power than Rel Alg
can be described by extensions of algebra
One key difference: multisets rather than sets
i.e. # duplicates in a table carefully accounted for

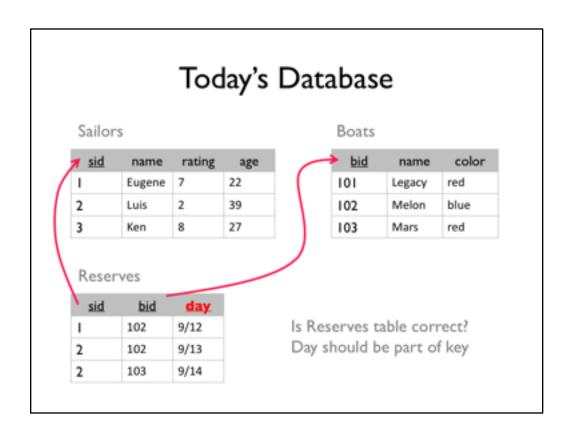
Most widely used query language, not just relational query language

Ironically, it was designed to be a very small language but over time the standard have been greatly extended, it's become extremely powerful, complicated.

Subtleties of nulls, multisets (bags), that make things tricky



Reserves has sid and bid as part of the primary key Sailorl has sid as primary key Boats uses bid as primary key



# Follow along at home!

http://w4111db1.cloudapp.net:8000/

psql -U demo -h w4111db1.cloudapp.net demo password: demo

# <30 year old sailors

SELECT \*
FROM Sailors
WHERE age < 30

 sid
 name
 rating
 age

 I
 Eugene
 7
 22

 3
 Ken
 8
 27

SELECT name, age FROM Sailors WHERE age < 30

name	age
Eugene	22
Ken	27

Cool, so this can be expressed in relaitonal algebra – how?

# <30 year old sailors

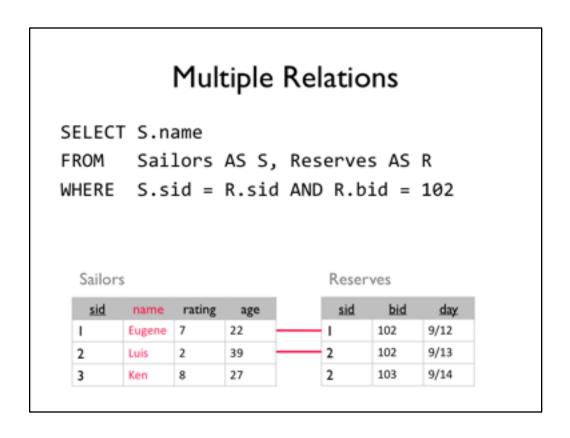
SELECT \*

FROM Sailors  $\sigma_{age < 30}$  (Sailors) WHERE age < 30

SELECT name, age

FROM Sailors WHERE age < 30

 $\pi_{\text{name, age}}\left(\sigma_{\text{age}<30}\right.$  (Sailors))



AS provides sailors with a variable name so we can reference it using a different name. We will see how this is useful for avoiding ambiguity Which rows are matched in this join? What kind of relational algebra join is this?

 $\pi_{\text{name}}(\sigma_{\text{bd}=2}(\text{Sailors} \bowtie_{\text{sid}} \text{Reserves}))$ 

# Multiple Relations

SELECT S.name

FROM Sailors AS S, Reserves AS R

WHERE S.sid = R.sid AND R.bid = 102

 $\pi_{name}$  ( $\sigma_{bid=2}$ (Sailors  $\bowtie_{sid}$  Reserves))

Which rows are matched in this join? What kind of relational algebra join is this?

## Structure of a SQL Query

#### DISTINCT

Optional, answer should not have duplicates Default: duplicates not removed (multiset)

#### target-list

List of expressions over attrs of tables in relation-list

SELECT [DISTINCT] target-list

FROM relation-list
WHERE qualification

#### relation-list

List of relation names Can define range-variable "AS X"

#### qualification

Boolean expressions Combined w/ AND,OR,NOT attr op const

 $attr_1 op attr_2$ op is =, <, >, !=, etc

How that we have a feel of some queries, let's talk about the structure of SQL queries

There can be a bit of a confusion between the select operator in relational algebra, which picks out rows, and the SELECT clause is SQL, which picks out attributes in the result set. The best way is to remember than relational algebra and SQL are distinct languages!

Recall that SQL, unlite relational algebra has way more features. One of them is that instead of sets, it models relations as multisets or bags – basically it allows duplicates. To remove duplicates, we need to explicitly use the DISTINCT keyword

Expression may be a simple attribute reference, or any value expression – a function call, operator (e.g., and or, etc),

### **Semantics**

SELECT [DISTINCT] target-list

FROM relation-list WHERE qualification

FROM compute cross product of relations

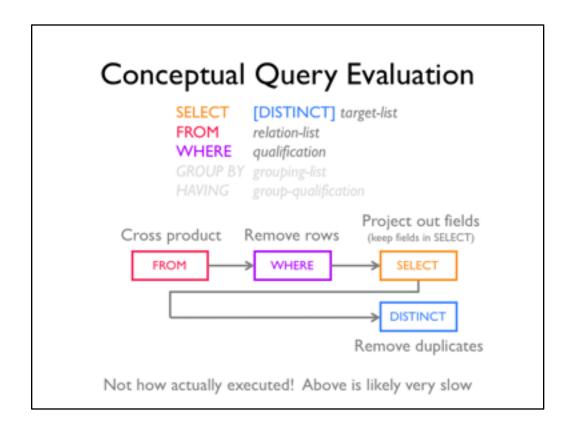
WHERE remove tuples that fail qualifications

SELECT remove fields not in target-list

DISTINCT remove duplicate rows

Take the cross product of all possible results, then start dwindling it down

Note that WHERE is the same as select SELECT is the same as project (naming is really confusing)

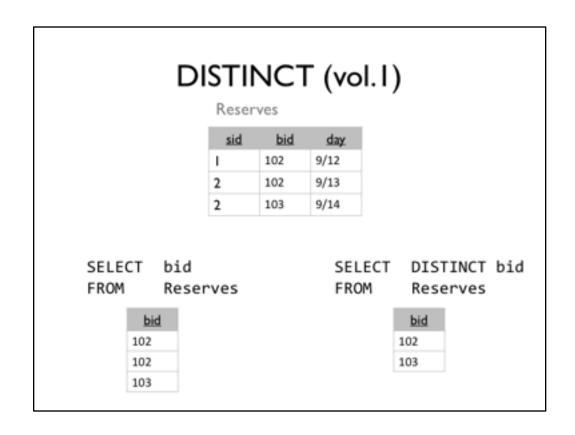


To give you an alternative way of thinking about it, we can view this as a sequence of steps

You'll notice that there are two more greyed out clauses GROUP BY and HAVING, and we'll defer their description to later in this lecture

Helps to write it in this order (first figure out what data in the from, then remove things, then figure out what fields you want)

Prettyy lame way, DBMSes usually use join algorithms to speed things up



#### WHOA what gives!?

Because SQL != relational algebra! So keep this multi-set business in mind, it'll show up in a lot of places

### Sailors that reserved 1+ boats

SELECT S.sid

FROM Sailors AS S, Reserves AS R

WHERE S.sid = R.sid

Would DISTINCT change anything in this query? What if SELECT clause was SELECT S.name?

Like the conceptual query evaluation, we would star with the FROM, where want sailors and reservations

Which combinatons do we want? The ones where the sailor is the one that made the reservation

And finally, we just want the sid

Yes of course distinct will change things, because the output for SQI is a multiset. Same thing. Of course!

Sid is a primary key so maybe it's no duplicates!

No, because of the join – the table with the foreign key dictates the number of duplicates and reservations has key over sid, bid, day!

### Range Variables

# Disambiguate relations same table used multiple times (self join)

```
SELECT sid
FROM Saliers, Sailors
WHERE age > age

SELECT S1.sid
FROM Sailors AS S1, Sailors AS S2
WHERE S1.age > S2.age
```

A range variable is used to provide a name for a relation in the FROM clause

By default, the relation has a variable name the same as the relation, but if we use the same relation multiple times, then we would need to disambiguate them! What does this query say?

Give me all sailfors whose age is greater than some other sailor. OR give me all sailors whose age is less than some other sailor! Which one!?

### Range Variables

# Disambiguate relations same table used multiple times (self join)

```
SELECT sid

FROM Sailers, Sailers

WHERE age > age

SELECT S1.name, S1.age, S2.name, S2.age

FROM Sailers AS S1, Sailers AS S2

WHERE S1.age > S2.age
```

OK, so what does the query express? Let's project out some more data and see what happens in the database

## Expressions (Math)

```
SELECT S.age, S.age - 5 AS age2, 2*S.age AS age3
FROM Sailors AS S
WHERE S.name = 'eugene'

SELECT S1.name AS name1, S2.name AS name2
FROM Sailors AS S1, Sailors AS S2
WHERE S1.rating*2 = S2.rating - 1
```

AS in the SELECT clause give the resulting column a name, so that it could be referenced in a query on top of this result.

And ofcourse, arithmetic expressions are expressions, so they can be in the qualification list as well

# Expressions (Strings)

SELECT S.name FROM Sailors AS S WHERE S.name LIKE 'e\_%'

- '\_' any one character (• in regex)
- "%" 0 or more characters of any kind (•\* in regex)

Most DBMSes have rich string manipulation support e.g., regex

#### PostgreSQL documentation

http://www.postgresql.org/docs/9.1/static/functions-string.html

## Expressions (Date/Time)

SELECT R.sid

FROM Reserves AS R

WHERE now() - R.date < interval '1 day'

TIMESTAMP, DATE, TIME types now() returns timestamp at start of transaction DBMSes provide rich time manipulation support exact support may vary by vender

#### Postgresql Documentation

http://www.postgresql.org/docs/9.1/static/functions-datetime.html

For example, we saw that reservations has a day attribute with type date. Extract(day from day)

Extract(dow from day)

# Expressions

Constant

Col reference Sailors.name

Arithmetic Sailors.sid \* 10

Unary operators NOT, EXISTS

Binary operators AND, OR, IN

Function calls abs(), sqrt(), ...

Casting 1.7::int, '10-12-2015'::date

```
SELECT
        R.sid
FROM
        Boats B, Reserves R
WHERE
        B.bid = R.bid AND
        (B.color = 'red' OR B.color = 'blue')
                    OR
        R.sid
SELECT
FROM
        Boats B, Reserves R
        B.bid = R.bid AND B.color = 'red'
WHERE
UNION ALL
SELECT
        R.sid
FROM
        Boats B, Reserves R
        B.bid = R.bid AND B.color = 'blue'
WHERE
```

#### Recall union compatibility

Why UNION ALL? Because R.sid doesn't remove duplicates, and UNION by default does, so UNION ALL allows duplicates to exist

DISTINCT R.sid

SELECT

```
FROM
        Boats B, Reserves R
        B.bid = R.bid AND
WHERE
        (B.color = 'red' OR B.color = 'blue')
                    OR
        R.sid
SELECT
        Boats B, Reserves R
FROM
        B.bid = R.bid AND B.color = 'red'
WHERE
UNION
SELECT
        R.sid
FROM
        Boats B, Reserves R
        B.bid = R.bid AND B.color = 'blue'
WHERE
```

Otherwise if we want only unique sids, we would use distinct or UNION. – be careful, this has bitten me many times

```
SELECT R.sid
        Boats B, Roserves R
FROM
WHERE
        B.bid = R.bid AND
         (B.color = 'red' AND B.color = 'blue')
SELECT
        R.sid
        Boats B, Reserves R
FROM
        B.bid = R.bid AND B.color = 'red'
WHERE
INTERSECT ALL
SELECT
        R.sid
FROM
        Boats B, Reserves R
        B.bid = R.bid AND B.color = 'blue'
WHERE
```

### Can use self-join instead

```
FROM Boats B1, Reserves R1
WHERE
B1.bid = R1.bid AND
B1.color = 'red'
```

There's yet another way to implement it using a self join Find sailors that render red boats, Sailors that rented blue boats And sailors whose ids are the same between the two groups of sailors

### Can use self-join instead

```
SELECT R.sid
FROM Boats B1, Reserves R1, Boats B2, Reserves R2
WHERE
B1.bid = R1.bid AND
B1.color = 'red'
```

This says want to compute a cross product between reserved red boats with all boats and all reservations

### Can use self-join instead

```
SELECT R.sid
FROM Boats B1, Reserves R1, Boats B2, Reserves R2
WHERE

B1.bid = R1.bid AND
B2.bid = R2.bid AND
B1.color = 'red' AND B2.color = 'blue'
```

This says want all combinations of red reservations and all blue reservations

#### Can use self-join instead

```
SELECT R.sid
FROM Boats B1, Reserves R1, Boats B2,Reserves R2
WHERE R1.sid = R2.sid AND
B1.bid = R1.bid AND
B2.bid = R2.bid AND
B1.color = 'red' AND B2.color = 'blue'
```

THIS does the join between the b1r1s and the b2r2s

Notice how similar this is to the intersection! We computed two different sets of reservations, then combined them together. First with intersection (which only works because they are union compatible), and one using join

#### sids of sailors that haven't reserved a boat

SELECT S.sid FROM Sailors S

EXCEPT

SELECT S.sid

FROM Sailors S, Reserves R

WHERE S.sid = R.sid

Can we write EXCEPT using more basic functionality?

EXCEPT is like UNION, it ignores duplicates and does set operator EXCEPT ALL actually takes duplicates into account (multi-set cardinality) will them matter. Try it out!

### SET Comparison Operators

UNION, INTERSECT, EXCEPT

EXISTS, NOT EXISTS IN, NOT IN UNIQUE, NOT UNIQUE

op ANY, op ALL op 
$$\in \{ <, >, =, \leq, \geq, \neq, \ldots \}$$

Many of these rely on Nested Query Support

What are nested queries? Queries within queries. Who says the WHERE clause has to only be ANDs, Ors, or simple arithemitec and logic statements? You can also run sub-queries.

The key is that these nested queries return sets of records, so you can just compare sailor.sid = nested query.

So SQL has some additional operators that let us operate on SETs. The ones we've already seen are union intersect and except.

However, there are others such as exists, not exists, in, unique ... In addition, there are the special key words that let us use normal comparison operators against sets. So single values (attr val or a constant) with sets.

### **Nested Queries**

SELECT S.sid FROM Sailors S

WHERE S.sid IN (SELECT R.sid

FROM Reserves R WHERE R.bid = 101)

#### Many clauses can contain SQL queries

WHERE, FROM, HAVING, SELECT

#### Conceptual model:

for each Sailors tuple run the subquery and evaluate qualification

What if we replaced IN with NOT IN? Logically very similar to JOIN, but not exactly the same. We'll see why...

How many duplicates?

Zero – because it's a fliter on the sailors table. It only returns at most once for each sailor

Duplicate semantics of this is different than for join, where can have mulitple return records for a given sailor

Although that's the conceptual model, we could precompute the subquery once and reuse the precomputed table

### **Nested Correlated Queries**

```
SELECT S.sid

FROM Sailors S

WHERE EXISTS (SELECT *

FROM Reserves R

WHERE R.bid = 101 AND

S.sid = R.sid)
```

#### Outer table referenced in nested query

#### Conceptual model:

```
for each Sailors tuple 
run the subquery and evaluate qualification
```

This is a correlated query, meaning that this outer sailor S is being referenced in the nested query.

So, unlike the previous query, we CAN'T precompute the nested query and re-use its results for every sailor row. We actually have to run this queryfor every record. This is a terrible idea, and thankfully, query optimizers are usually smart enough to rewrite this as a join -- however need to be careful to preserve the duplicate semantics.

# Nested Correlated Queries

```
SELECT S.sid
FROM Sailors S
WHERE UNIQUE (SELECT *
FROM Reserves R
WHERE R.bid = 101 AND
S.sid = R.sid)
```

UNIQUE checks that there are no duplicates

What does this do?

This just returns every sailor, because each row in reserves will be unique So this does nothing

## Nested Correlated Queries

```
SELECT S.sid

FROM Sailors S

WHERE UNIQUE (SELECT R.sid

FROM Reserves R

WHERE R.bid = 101 AND

S.sid = R.sid)
```

UNIQUE checks that there are no duplicates

What does this do?

So you need to be careful with sets — and pick s.sid s.Sid is going to be unique, so it's just sailors than reserved boat 101

# Sailors whose rating is greater than any sailor named "Bobby"

```
SELECT S1.name

FROM Sailors S1

WHERE S1.rating > ANY (SELECT S2.rating
FROM Sailors S2
WHERE S2.name = 'Bobby')
```

# What about this?

```
SELECT S1.name
FROM Sailors S1
WHERE S1.rating > ALL (SELECT S2.rating
FROM Sailors S2
WHERE S2.name = 'Bobby')
```

What about this?

# Rewrite INTERSECT using IN

```
        SELECT S.sid
        SELECT S.sid

        FROM Sailors S
        FROM Sailors S

        WHERE S.rating > 2
        WHERE S.rating > 2 AND

        INTERSECT
        SELECT R.sid

        SELECT R.sid
        FROM Reserves R

        FROM Reserves R
        )
```

Similar trick for EXCEPT → NOT IN

What if want names instead of sids?

If want sailor names, then should we just replace all the sids with names? NO. Be careful, because names is not a key, so

- On the left: need to have an outer query that translates the sids to names
- On the right, just change the SELECT clause to S.name

# Hint: double negation reserved all boats == no boat w/out reservation

```
SELECT S.name
FROM Sailors S
WHERE NOT EXISTS (

(SELECT B.bid FROM Boats B)

EXCEPT

(SELECT R.bid
FROM Reserves R
WHERE R.sid = S.sid)
)
```

# HWI bugs

# Conflicting CHECK constraints

# HWI bugs

At most once per semester translated as at most once

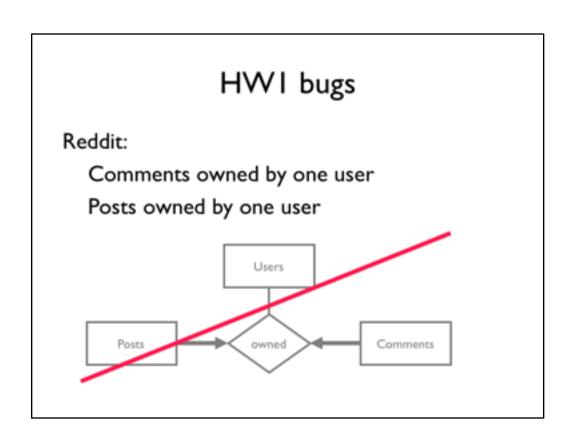
```
CREATE TABLE Offers (
   deptid text,
   courseid text,
   semester text,
   year int,
   ...
   PRIMARY KEY(deptid, courseid)
);
```

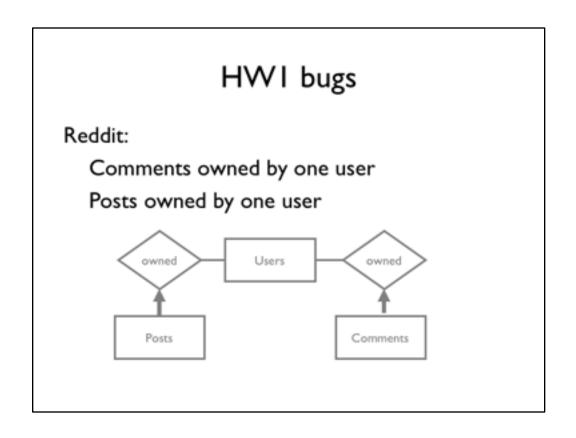
Wrong

# HWI bugs

At most once per semester translated as at most once

```
CREATE TABLE Offers (
   deptid text,
   courseid text,
   semester text,
   year int,
   ...
   PRIMARY KEY(deptid, courseid, semester, year)
);
```





Probably also want to make posts and comments weak entities

Hint: double negation reserved all boats == no boat w/out reservation

```
SELECT S.name
FROM Sailors S
WHERE NOT EXISTS (
```

Sailors S such that

There's no boat without

A reservation by S

Hint: double negation reserved all boats == no boat w/out reservation

```
SELECT S.name
FROM Sailors S
WHERE NOT EXISTS (SELECTB.bid
FROM Boats B
WHERE NOT EXISTS (
```

Sailors S such that

There's no boat without

A reservation by S

Hint: double negation reserved all boats == no boat w/out reservation

```
SELECT S.name
FROM Sailors S
WHERE NOT EXISTS (SELECTB.bid
FROM Boats B
WHERE NOT EXISTS (SELECT R.bid
FROM Reserves R
WHERE R.sid = S.sid))
```

There's no boat without

A reservation by S

#### NULL

Field values sometimes unknown or inapplicable SQL provides a special value null for such situations.

The presence of null complicates many issues e.g.,

Is age = null true or false?
Is null = null true or false?
Is null = 8 OR | = | true or false?

Special syntax "IS NULL" and "IS NOT NULL" 3 Valued Logic (true, false, unknown)

How does WHERE remove rows? if qualification doesn't evaluate to true New operators (in particular, outer joins) possible/needed.

We're going to switch over to talking about joins, which are really just useful convenience functions over what we have talked about But before, we need to understand NULLs

Equality is meaningless when talking about nulls, need special syntax Logic also needs to be extended to deal with these

There are a number of ways it complicates/enriches SQL For example, this entire time we've said that WHERE's job is to keep records where the qualification doesn't evaluate to TRUE But what if it evaluates to null? So we need to make a decision about this.

We'll also find that new operators—in particular, outer joins—are useful now that we have a concept of nulls

Notic this is something that relational algebra didn't talk about

# NULL

### Some truth tables

AND	Т	F	NULL
т	т	F	NULL
F	F	F	F
NULL	NULL	F	NULL

OR	Т	F	NULL
т	Т	Т	Т
F	Т	F	NULL
NULL	Т	NULL	NULL

# JOINS

```
SELECT [DISTINCT] target_list
FROM table_name
   [INNER | {LEFT |RIGHT | FULL } {OUTER}] JOIN table_name
   ON qualification_list
WHERE ...
```

#### INNER is default

Difference in how to deal with NULL values

PostgreSQL documentation: http://www.postgresql.org/docs/9.4/static/tutorial-join.html

By default, I mean that the way we have been doing joins so far, where the join condidion has been part of the WHERE clause, is equivalent to an inner join. also, note that inner join is like a THETA-join operator in rel alg

# Inner/Natural Join

```
SELECT s.sid, s.name, r.bid
FROM Sailors S, Reserves r
WHERE s.sid = r.sid

SELECT s.sid, s.name, r.bid
FROM Sailors s INNER JOIN Reserves r
ON s.sid = r.sid

SELECT s.sid, s.name, r.bid
FROM Sailors s NATURAL JOIN Reserves r
```

Natural Join means equi-join for each pair of attrs with same name

But natural join does something special, which is remove the duplicated sid if you use \*

Often I use the first one, but it's a matter of preference.

Recall why natural join can be dangerous, so it's generally discouraged. Instead, it's a good idea to explicitly list the columns in the SELECT clause and only do SELECT \* if you're debugging

### Sailor names and their reserved boat ids

SELECT s.sid, s.name, r.bid FROM Sailors s INNER JOIN Reserves r ON s.sid = r.sid

#### Sailors

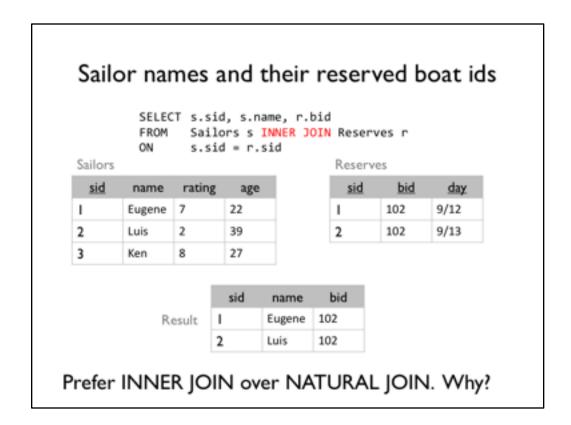
sid	name	rating	age
I	Eugene	7	22
2	Luis	2	39
3	Ken	8	27

#### Reserves

sid	bid	day
I	102	9/12
2	102	9/13

Result

sid	name	bid
1	Eugene	102
2	Luis	102

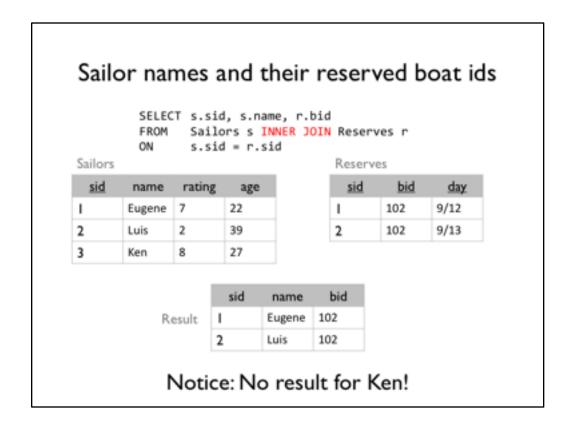


Generally a good idea to use INNER JOIN instead of natural join

Why? (if someone renames an attribute, you'd rather have the query fail than give you strangely different results!)

For example, if I added a bid for birthday id to the sailors table, then NATURAL JOIN would give a different answer.

Failure is better than the wrong answer. A wrong answer is pretty much impossible to debug – you'll see the app givincg weird – WRONG – results and impossible to figure out why!



There wasn't a reservation row with Ken's sid (due to join key)

What if we wanted all the sailors, and their reservation if possible, but otherwise just fill those attributes with null?

### Left Outer Join (or No Results for Ken)

Returns all matched rows and all unmatched rows from table on left of join clause

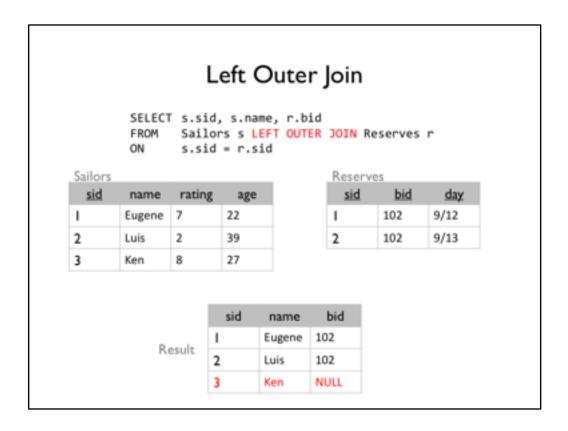
(at least one row for each row in left table)

```
SELECT s.sid, s.name, r.bid

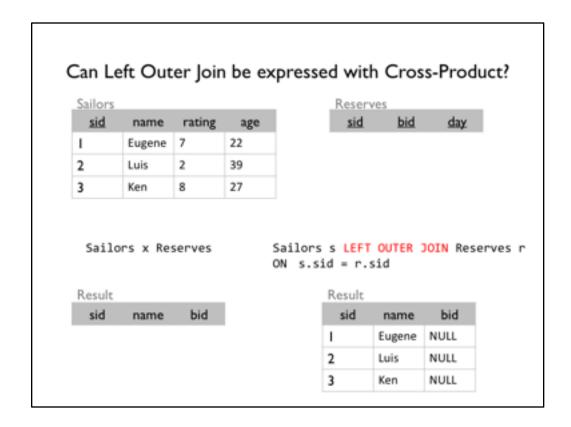
FROM Sailors s LEFT OUTER JOIN Reserves r

ON s.sid = r.sid
```

All sailors & bid for boat in their reservations Bid set to NULL if no reservation



Cool, we now have a row for ken despite him never reserving any boats



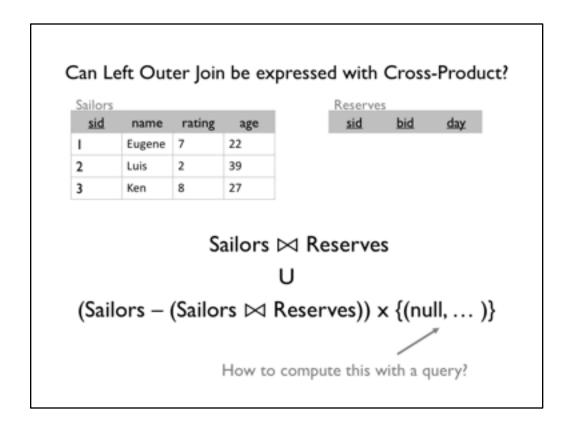
OK an important question. We've rewritten except, intersect etc using more fundamental operators.

What about left outer join? Is it a necessary operator, or is it a composite operator???

What's actually happening?

The cross product can only express inner join!

So we need to now fill in the records where sailors are not matched



There's something deeply unsatisfying about this query, can you guess?

So far we have rewritten queries into core operators over the base data but the null tuple is not base data!

The (null, ...) needs to have the same number of attributes as the reserves table for everything to work out right? And the types must be compatible with the reserves table.

Other than manually writing down the same number of nulls as attrs in reserves, is there a way to get this by writing a query?

-- I can't think of a way by manipulating data values.

So it requires a bit of cheating and knowning the metadata information

What does this mean!? You can manually rewrite the query string by working outside of direct data transformations to construct a left outer join.

First order logic basically allows programs to loop over and manipulate data (records) Second order logic allows programs to iterate over and manipulate metadata (attr names, table names, database names)

Notice how SQL has not been able to dynamically construct a new table e.g., the attribute names and types of a table based on DATA – we've always done it manually.

# Right Outer Join

Same as LEFT OUTER JOIN, but guarantees result for rows in table on right side of JOIN

```
SELECT s.sid, s.name, r.bid
FROM Reserves r RIGHT OUTER JOIN Sailors S
ON s.sid = r.sid
```

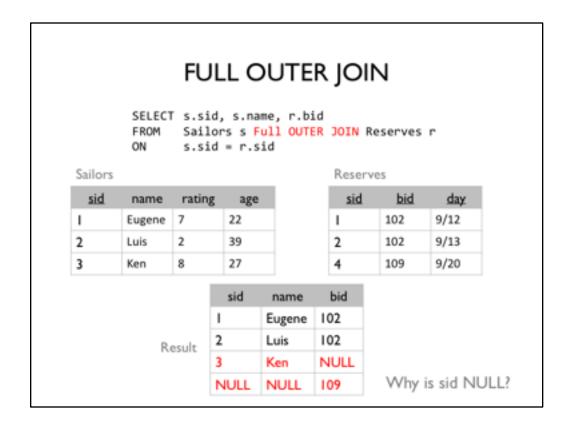
# **FULL OUTER JOIN**

Returns all matched or unmatched rows from both sides of JOIN

```
SELECT s.sid, s.name, r.bid

FROM Sailors s FULL OUTER JOIN Reserves r

ON s.sid = r.sid
```



OK, reserves is incorrect, but let's ignore that for now.

Since reserves has an sid, why is the sid in the result null (because it's projected from the sailor's table!)

OK, is full outer join fundamental given left and right outer joins? No, composite

# Serious people can count: Aggregation

```
SELECT COUNT(*)
      Sailors S
                                                 COUNT([DISTINCT] A)
                                                 SUM([DISTINCT] A)
SELECT AVG(S.age)
                                                 AVG([DISTINCT] A)
FROM Sailors S
                                                 MAX/MIN(A)
WHERE S.rating = 10
                                                 STDDEV(A)
                                                 CORR(A,B)
SELECT COUNT(DISTINCT S.name)
FROM Sailors S
WHERE S.name LIKE 'D%'
SELECT S.name
FROM Sailors
WHERE S.rating = (SELECT MAX(S2.rating)
                   FROM Sailors S2)
PostgreSQL documentation
http://www.postgresql.org/docs/9.4/static/functions-aggregate.html
```

Imagine you're the executive in the Columbia boating agency that rents these boats.

You don't care about individual boats – you're too important for that You want to know how the *business* is doing

You care about statistics!

How much money am I making, how many users? How many boats? What kinds of users?

How many sailors are using our service?

What's the average age of really good sailors?

I want to name my new baby and want a name starting with D because it's a strong letter.

What are the number of different names of sailors starting with D? Names of sailors whose ratings are at the top?

I don't recommend using distinct for stddev and corr because that's USUALLY not statistically sound.

# Name and age of oldest sailor(s)

```
SELECT S.name, MAX(S.age)

FROM Sailors S

SELECT S.name, S.age
FROM Sailors S
WHERE S.age >= ALL (SELECT S2.age
FROM Sailors S2)

SELECT S.name, S.age
FROM Sailors S
WHERE S.age = (SELECT MAX(S2.age)
FROM Sailors S2)

SELECT S.name, S.age
FROM Sailors S

SELECT S.name, S.age
FROM Sailors S

ORDER BY S.age DESC
LIMIT 1
```

We might say, we'll we have the maximum value, so let's just add sailor name to the SELECT clause and call it a day.

This doesn't work because max in this query returns one value for the entire table, whereas S.name hase one value per record, so they are not compatible!

ORDER BY -- When there are ties for oldest

SELECT min(s.age) FROM Sailors s

Minimum age among all sailors

What if want min age per rating level?
We don't even know how many rating levels exist!
If we did, could write (awkward):

for rating in [0...10]
 SELECT min(s.age)
 FROM Sailors s
 WHERE s.rating = <rating>

So in this case, we know that there are a fixed number of possible rating levels say 10, so we could enumerate them

SELECT count(\*) FROM Reserves R

Total number of reservations

What if want reservations per boat?

May not even know all our boats (depends on data)!

If we did, could write (awkward):

for boat in [0...10]

SELECT count(\*)

FROM Reserves R

WHERE R.bid = <boat>

But in this case, the number of boats is constantly changing – new boats are being purchased, other boats are being retired so it depends on the data and isn't perdetermined!

In this case, we may not even know all our boats without asking the database, so enumerating the boats may be infeasible

But for each of these cases, although you might be able to loop through each of the possible boats or rating levels, you still need to manually kludge each of the query results together, and now you are doing it in the programming language rather than in the database — so you can't just directly query the result of this

SELECT [DISTINCT] target-list
FROM relation-list
WHERE qualification
GROUP BY grouping-list
HAVING group-qualification

grouping-list is a list of expressions that defines groups set of tuples w/ same value for all attributes in grouping-list

target-list contains attribute-names ⊆ grouping-list aggregation expressions

To compute statistics over groups we need two things

- Define the groups
- Define the statistics

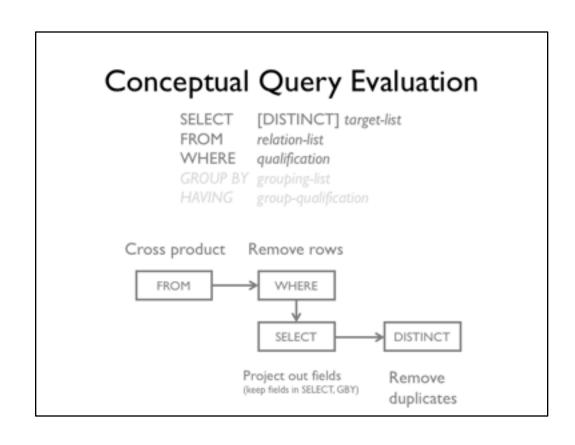
The group by clause defines the list of groups as a list of expressions. By evaluating these expressions on each record, it tells us what bucket to place this record. Once these buckets created, we can compute avgs, mins, maxs on the data in each bucket

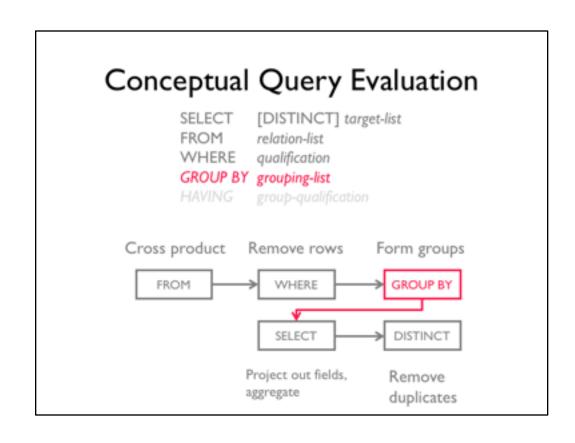
HAVING lets us then remove groups that we don't care about – buckets where avg age is too high

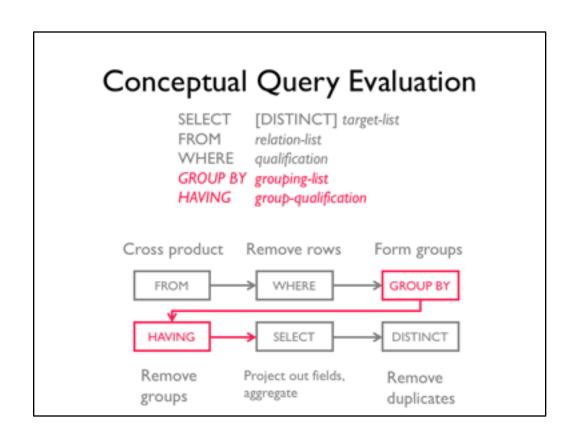
When this happens, it restricts the typse of expressions we can have in the SELECT clause.

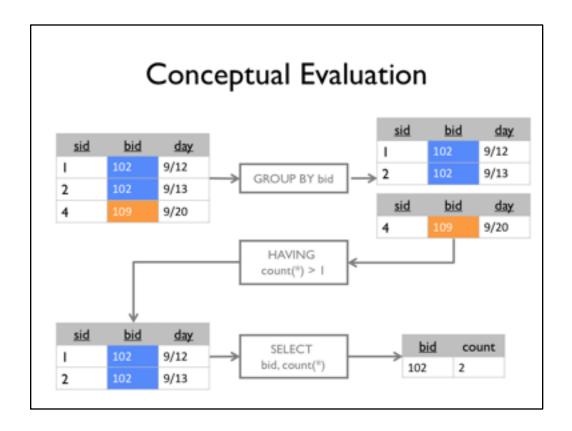
Data has been placed into buckets defined by the grouping list, so we can only talk abut these buckets, rather than individual records

- Either expressions in the grouping-list, which define the buckets
- Or statistics over the data in the buckets (aggregation expressions)









let's say we want the boats reserved more than once and the number of times they've been reserved

What should we group by?

What should we use for having?

Remember that in the SELECT clause, we can ONLY use aggregation functions or grouping expressions (bid). Picking sid would not make sense since its values are different within the bucket.

SELECT bid, count(\*) FROM Reserves R GROUP BY bid

Minimum age for each rating

SELECT bid, count(\*)
FROM Reserves R
GROUP BY bid
HAVING count(\*) > 1

Minimum age for each boat with more than I reservation

## **HAVING**

group-qualification used to remove groups similar to WHERE clause

Expressions must have one value per group. Either
An aggregation function or
In grouping-list

```
SELECT bid, count(*)
FROM Recerves R
GROUP BY bid
HAVING color = 'red'
```

Because we are not grouping on color, and color is not an aggregation function ,s othere could be

## AVG age of sailors reserving red boats, by rating

```
SELECT
FROM Sailors S, Boats B, Reserves R
WHERE S.sid = R.sid AND
R.bid = B.bid AND
B.color = 'red'
```

#### AVG age of sailors reserving red boats, by rating

```
SELECT S.rating, avg(S.age) AS age
FROM Sailors S, Boats B, Reserves R
WHERE S.sid = R.sid AND
R.bid = B.bid AND
B.color = 'red'
GROUP BY S.rating
```

What if move B. color='red' to HAVING clause?

You can't just move color to the having clause – needs to be in the groupby clause! In which case we would compute the count for each rating of each color, and only keep those with red boats. So the result would be similar.

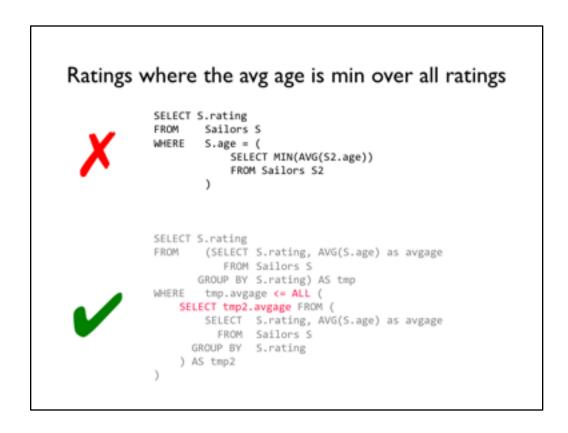
However, you could also say, only give me the ratings where the average age is greater than 40. And that's something you can't do in the WHERE clause.

```
Ratings where the avg age is min over all ratings

SELECT S.rating
FROM Sailors S
WHERE S.age = (
SELECT MIN(AVG(S2.age))
FROM Sailors S2
)

SELECT S.rating
FROM (SELECT S.rating, AVG(S.age) as avgage
FROM Sailors S
GROUP BY S.rating) AS tmp
WHERE tmp.avgage = (
SELECT MIN(tmp2.avgage) FROM (
SELECT S.rating, AVG(S.age) as avgage
FROM Sailors S
GROUP BY S.rating
) AS tmp2
)
```

Q1: ratings of sailors whose age is the average – the min doesn't do anything In the second case we're computing the avg age PERRATING, so it works.



Q1: ratings of sailors whose age is the average – the min doesn't do anything

#### Setting up Proj I Part 2 Users assigned to schemas (namespaces). Noticed user didn't have an assigned schema User created their tables under Public schema. Uh oh! Did I miss anyone else Students without a schema usename schemaname vx3948 et2039 et1827 sa2037 kt6765 etu4938 SELECT usename SELECT schemaname FROM pg\_user; FROM pg\_tables;

Pg\_tables is a list of all the tables that have been created in the database, and along with the tables, it also tracks the schema that they belong to. (show an output)

Pg\_user tracks all users in the database, so there should be about 190 users.

FROM (SELECT usename FROM pg\_user) AS U

(SELECT schemaname FROM pg\_tables) AS S

usename vx3948 et1827 etu4938

SELECT usename FROM pg\_user; schemaname et2039 sa2037 kt6765

SELECT schemaname FROM pg\_tables;

FROM (SELECT usename FROM pg\_user) AS U
LEFT OUTER JOIN
(SELECT schemaname FROM pg\_tables) AS S
ON U.usename = S.schemaname

usename
vx3948
et1827
etu4938

SELECT usename FROM pg\_user;

schemaname
et2039
sa2037
kt6765

SELECT schemaname FROM pg\_tables;

#### SELECT U.usename, S.schemaname

FROM (SELECT usename FROM pg\_user) AS U LEFT OUTER JOIN (SELECT schemaname FROM pg\_tables) AS S ON U.usename = S.schemaname

WHERE S.schemaname is null;

usename
vx3948
et1827
etu4938

SELECT usename FROM pg\_user;

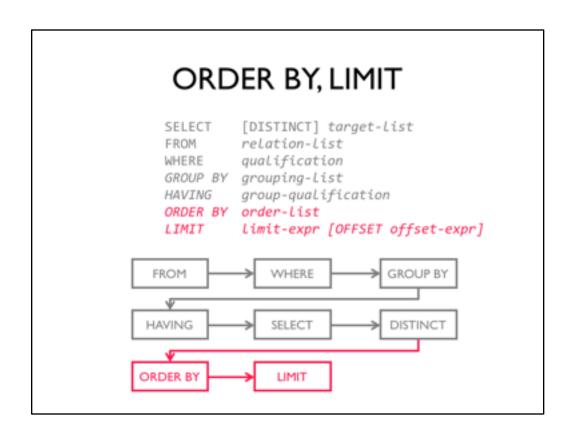
#### schemaname et2039 sa2037 kt6765

SELECT schemaname FROM pg\_tables;

124

but 190 users!

190 - 124 ~= 66 \* 2 ~= 132



OK we are going over topics that confused me as well, so ask tons of questions. I will be out of town immediately before the exam, so it is in your interest to ask questions early.

## **ORDER BY**

SELECT S.name
FROM Sailors S
ORDER BY (S.rating/2)::int ASC,
S.age DESC

List of order-list expressions dictates ordering precedence Sorted in ascending by age/rating ratio If ties, sorted high to low rating

ASC for ascending, meaning the smallest item is first, then the second smallest. DESC is the opposite

ties are arbitrarily decided, or by the next expression in the order-list

## ORDER BY

SELECT S.name, (S.rating/2)::int, S.age FROM Sailors S ORDER BY (S.rating/2)::int ASC, S.age DESC

Sailors

sid	name	rating	age
I	Eugene	7	22
2	Luis	2	39
3	Ken	8	27

c			

name	int4	age
Luis	1	39
Ken	4	27
Eugene	4	22

First sorted by the middle column, so it's 1, 4, 4.

But since 4 and 4 are the same value, the second expression inth e order by says to order them by age

(otherwise if no S.age DESC, ken and eugene could be in arbitrary order – since not specified)

## ORDER BY

SELECT S.name, (S.rating/2)::int, S.age FROM Sailors S ORDER BY (S.rating/2)::int ASC, S.age ASC

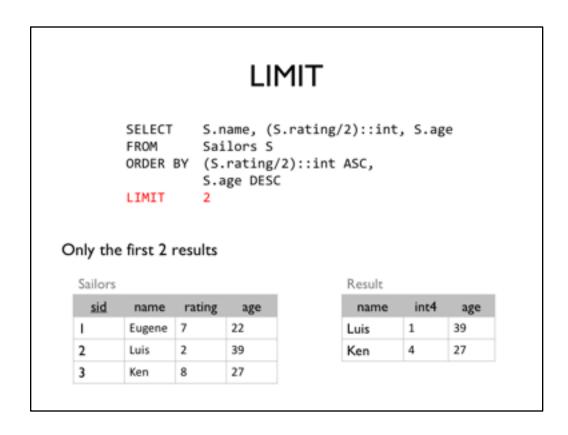
Sailors

sid	name	rating	age
1	Eugene	7	22
2	Luis	2	39
3	Ken	8	27

Result

name	int4	age
Luis	1	39
Eugene	4	22
Ken	4	27

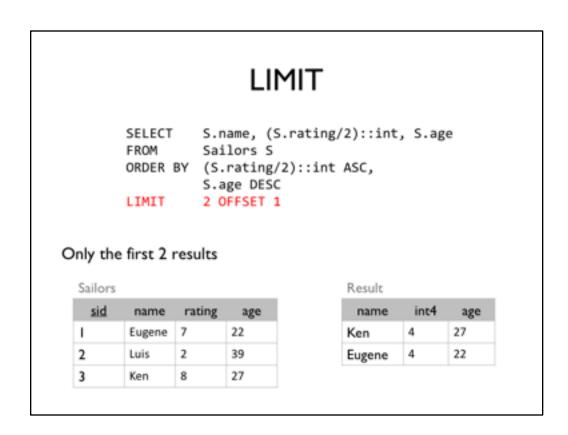
What about ASC?



This is an example where the second expression in the order by matters. If it were Asc, then Eugene would be in the result, but in this case, tis' desc by age, so ken is returned as the second element.

LIMIT is really common for example on google search results, they only show the first 15 or 20 search results because technically the entire web is the search result (many sites have raking scores of zero), but you only care about the top ones.

Any time you're showing a list of the data in your database, you'll want to either summarize the database, or show the top number of items.



So what happens when you go to the second page? You can use the offset to say how mayn items you want to skip



3/2 = 1.5 rounded down is 1 so there is a single result.

# Integrity Constraints

Conditions that every legal instance must satisfy Inserts/Deletes/Updates that violate ICs rejected Helps ensure app semantics or prevent inconsistencies

We've discussed

domain/type constraints, primary/foreign key
general constraints

Any time make change to database - I/D/U It's a way for the programmer to tell the database some info about the application logic and expectations about the data so it can be automatically enforced.

# Beyond Keys: Table Constraints

```
Runs when table is not empty
                    CREATE TABLE Sailors(
                        sid int,
                        PRIMARY KEY (sid),
                        CHECK (rating >= 1 AND rating <= 10)
                    CREATE TABLE Reserves(
                        sid int,
                        bid int.
Nested subqueries
                        day date,
Named constraints
                        PRIMARY KEY (bid, day),
                        CONSTRAINT no_red_reservations
                        CHECK ('red' NOT IN (SELECT B.color
                                          FROM Boats B
                                          WHERE B.bid = bid))
```

We've already seen and used simple per attribute table constraints, these are ones that are bound to a table, and fire whenever the table is not empty.

But you can have more general table constraints that are

- 1) Named
- 2) Run nested queries

Cant reserve red boats

Subqueries are not supported in postgres check constraints

## Multi-Relation Constraints

```
# of sailors + # of boats should be less than 100
CREATE TABLE Sailors (
    sid int,
    bid int,
    day date,
    PRIMARY KEY (bid, day),
    CHECK (
        (SELECT COUNT(S.sid) FROM Sailors S)
        +
        (SELECT COUNT(B.bid) FROM Boats B)
        < 100
    )</pre>
```

What if Sailors is empty?

Only runs if Sailors has rows (ignores Boats)

That was an example of multi-relation constraints that run queries on another table. For example, this ensures that the total number of sailors and boats is less than 100 It's an unnamed CHECK constraint

If sailors empty, the CHECK will never run because check constraints are for tables that are non-empty

and can have arbitrary number of boats in our club. Real estate is expensive, so this is going to ruin us

#### ASSERTIONS: Multi-Relation Constraints

```
CREATE ASSERTION small_club
CHECK (
    (SELECT COUNT(*) FROM Sailors S)
    +
    (SELECT COUNT(*) FROM Boats B)
    < 100
)
```

ASSERTIONs are not associated with any table

What's the whole point of Ics?

Assertions and constraints are a form of safety – when can incorrect things happen (wrt user intention)

Think of all possible databases for a given schema without constraints (types, relationships, etc)

My database could be ANYTHING!

This is the point of most languages – to make it easier to do certain types of tasks – scripting, multi-threaded programming etc – while making it hard to shoot yourself in the foot.

The way you do that is reduce the set of allowable BAD programs that can exist. In this case the behavior is the data in the database

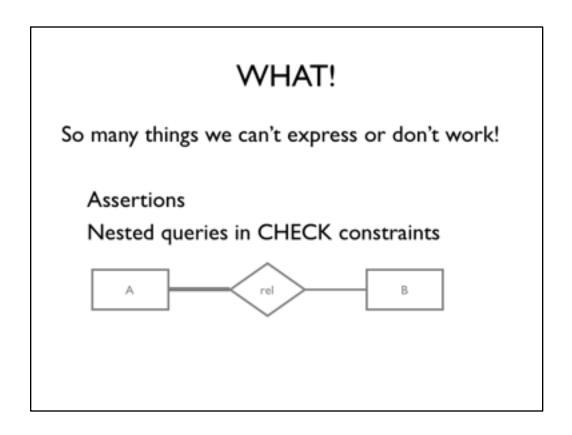
Likelihood that errors happen reduces AND
The overhead of checking that everything is OK is removed

Think of the police. Without an authority for public safety, I may need to keep a body guard around me at all times, and check over my shoulder because the environment is not safe. That's both expensie because I have to pay for the bodyguard, and really ineficient because I spend half of my brain cycles looking around to make sure I won't be robbed.

But by delegating certain declarative goals to the police (or DBMS) such as keep robberies low, hurting people is not good, then I can focus on my own stuff.

Note that unfortunately, posgresql doesn't support any of this stuff beyond simple non-nested query check constraints.

Regardless, good to know



Let's talk about a couple language features that can help us with SOME small versions of these.

We can solve the first two, and partial setup for solving the at-least-one problem

# Advanced Stuff

User defined functions

Triggers

WITH

Views

## User Defined Functions (UDFs)

Custom functions that can be called in database Many languages: SQL, python, C, perl, etc

CREATE FUNCTION function\_name(p1 type, p2 type, ...)
RETURNS type

What if I want to run my own functions?
What if abs() sucks and I want my own version?
What if I repeat the same operations and want to abstract them into a func?

The types can either be primitive types that we have seen,
Or abstract data types that we may cover later
Or records – in whiche case the type is the name of the relation (since that defines the structure of the row!)
Or ever sets of rows (relations)!!

We'll look at simple cases of returning scalar values and triggers The psotgresql documentation is thorough and goes into excruciating detail

# User Defined Functions (UDFs)

Custom functions that can be called in database Many languages: SQL, python, C, perl, etc

```
CREATE FUNCTION function_name(p1 type, p2 type, ...)
RETURNS type
AS $$
-- logic
$$ LANGUAGE language_name;
```

After the signature, we define the actual logic. In this case, we need to define the actual code (logic) and also tell the dbms what language the logic is written in!

## User Defined Functions (UDFs)

Custom functions that can be called in database Many languages: SQL, python, C, perl, etc

```
CREATE FUNCTION function_name(p1 type, p2 type, ...)
RETURNS type
AS $$
-- logic
$$ LANGUAGE language_name;
```

The \$\$ are just special strings that are not in the program to distinguish when the code starts and stops. For example, if we used parenthesizes, and we used a close paren in the code, then how does postgresql know to stop?

Remember that UDFs support many different langages so it needs to be flexible!

Almost all modern databases have powerful UDFS support.

We will see three example languages with which you can write UDFs. And project 2 will rquire some of this.

Here's a simple example using the SQL language. Basically a list of SQL statements, here the last one is returned.

So we can write crazy selcet statements to return, or insert delet and otherwise manipulate the database in this UDF

# A simple UDF (lang = SQL)

```
CREATE FUNCTION mult1(v int) RETURNS int
AS $$
SELECT v * 100;
$$ LANGUAGE SQL;
SELECT mult1(S.age)
FROM sailors AS S
```

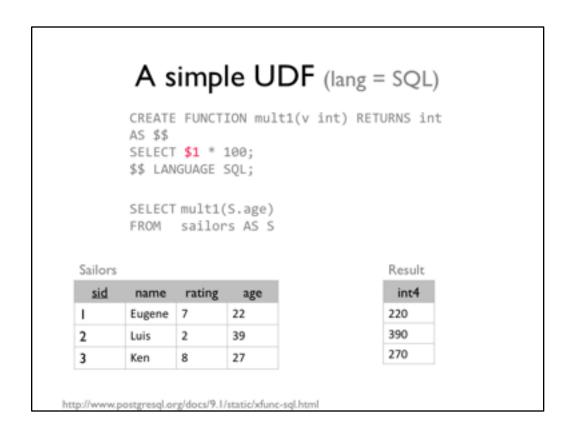
#### Sailors

sid	name	rating	age
1	Eugene	7	22
2	Luis	2	39
3	Ken	8	27

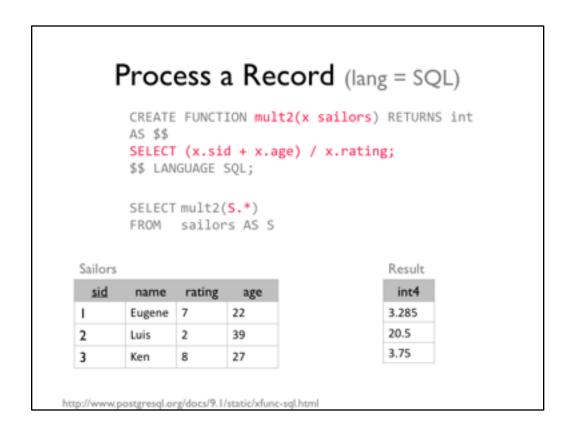
#### Result

int4
220
390
270

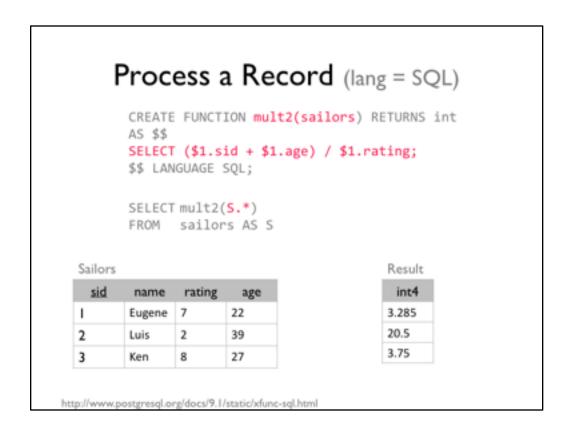
http://www.postgresql.org/docs/9.1/static/xfunc-sql.html



Instead of the keyword arguments, you can also use positional arguments



Here we gave the first argument the variable name  $\boldsymbol{x}$ 



x – need to make sure it doesn't collide with any existing table names! So usually easiest and most reliable to simply say the first arg's type is sailors and use positional references

```
Procedural Language/SQL(lang = plsql)

CREATE FUNCTION proc(v int) RETURNS int AS $$

DECLARE

-- define variables

BEGIN

-- PL/SQL code

END;

$$ LANGUAGE plpgsql;

http://www.postgresql.org/docs/9.4/static/plpgsql.html
```

A lot of people complain – writing PROGRAMS in SQL is a pain because we can't seem to do if else statements, exceptions, other logic very easily. PLSQL is an extension to SQL that adds procedures – procedural language SQL Really complicated, talk about some basic features

There are two regions where you write code – declare variables, and write actual logic.

Unlike SQL, you need explicit return statements.

Note that the entire DECLARE/BEGIN/END block can be thought of as a single statement, so there's only one semicolon at the end of the entire thing.

Also, BEGIN/END is just syntax, it has NO RELATION to begin/commit/abort of transactions

Plpgsql is pl with postgresql (pg) variant of sql

# Procedural Language/SQL(lang = plsql) CREATE FUNCTION proc(v int) RETURNS int AS \$\$ DECLARE -- define variables. VAR TYPE [= value] qty int = 10; BEGIN qty = qty \* v; INSERT INTO blah VALUES(qty); RETURN qty + 2; END; \$\$ LANGUAGE plpgsql;

http://www.postgresql.org/docs/9.4/static/plpgsql.html

Statements end with semicolons

The BEGIN block can contain both SQL as well as conditionals and other procedural code. We will see more examples of this

This program first defines a variable (variable type an optionally set the value)

## Procedural Code (lang = plpython2u)

```
CREATE FUNCTION proc(v int) RETURNS int
AS $$
import random
return random.randint(0, 100) * v
$$ LANGUAGE plpython2u;
```

#### Very powerful - can do anything so must be careful

run in a python interpreter with no security protection plpy module provides database access

```
plpy.execute("select 1")
```

http://www.postgresql.org/docs/9.4/static/plpython.html

#### The 2 is for python 2

The u is for untrusted – you can do pretty much ANYTHING – it just runs a python interpretor!

For example, you can import modules such as random And you can call functions.

You can also use a special python module called plpy that lets you access the database to ask about the schemas, to execute queries, etc

## Procedural Code (lang = plpython2u)

```
CREATE FUNCTION proc(word text) RETURNS text
AS $$
import requests
resp = requests.get('http://google.com/search?q=%s' % v)
return resp.content.decode('unicode-escape')
$$ LANGUAGE plpython2u;
```

#### Very powerful - can do anything so must be careful

run in a python interpreter with no security protection plpy module provides database access

```
plpy.execute("select 1")
```

http://www.postgresql.org/docs/9.4/static/plpython.html

As an example of it's power, you could imagine writing a UDF that takes as input text (such as the sailor name),

and returns the content of the research results page from querying google.

## def: procedure that runs automatically if specified changes in DBMS happen

CREATE TRIGGER name

Event activates the trigger

Condition tests if triggers should run

Action what to do

I want to emphasize that this is logical We won't go into excruciating details, but I will discuss the logical ideas behind triggers, and give you the basic of how to implement them in postgresql

The text book for example, focuses on the main properties of triggers which are very important to know. And doesn't actually show you how to run a trigger in practice.

But let's step back, what are properties we would like to have from triggers that run procedures on changes to a DBMS. If you were to design this, what would you want? Or what things would you like to be able to do with triggers?

Common one is implement assertions Another is to implement constraints

Or to fetch or populate tables based on data from users for example, user inputs the full address and you parse and clean it up for the normalized address, the state, city, etc and make sure they're correct.

# def: procedure that runs automatically if specified changes in DBMS happen

CREATE TRIGGER name
[BEFORE | AFTER | INSTEAD OF] event\_list
ON table

Event activates the trigger

Condition tests if triggers should run

Action what to do

Event: change to DB that activates a trigger

An event is for example, when I insert a record into a table, or when I delet a record, or when I change the value of a record.

If before, you can also preempt and avoid running the event, or replace the statement

Instead of means, whenever this event like an insert happens, replace it with this procedure.

If it's after, then clearly the procedure runs after the insert happens, so all of its changes are visible to the trigger.

# def: procedure that runs automatically if specified changes in DBMS happen

```
CREATE TRIGGER name
[BEFORE | AFTER | INSTEAD OF] event_list
ON table

WHEN trigger_qualifications
```

Event activates the trigger

Condition tests if triggers should run

Action what to do

Condition: boolean expression OR a select query that is true if result is nonempty and false otherwise

# def: procedure that runs automatically if specified changes in DBMS happen

```
CREATE TRIGGER name

[BEFORE | AFTER | INSTEAD OF] event_list
ON table

[FOR EACH ROW]
WHEN trigger_qualifications
procedure
```

Condition tests if triggers should run

Action what to do

Action: procedure to run – has access to condition answers, old and new versions of records being modified (added, rmed, changed) can pretty much do anything including adding new tables. It can run funtions that run arbitrary pieces of code – so it is VERY powerful

Remember the key diff: how many times the procedure is run! Row level, could be a million times if I insert a million records.

If statement, it happens only ONCE!

By default, the trigger procedure is run once for the entire statement – even if no rows are modified, or optionally once for each row that is being inserted/deleted/updated.

The statement level one typically has a way to provide access to the

#### Copy new young sailors into special table

(logical)

```
CREATE TRIGGER youngSailorUpdate
   AFTER INSERT ON SAILORS

REFERENCING NEW TABLE NewInserts
FOR EACH STATEMENT
   INSERT
   INTO YoungSailors(sid, name, age, rating)
   SELECT sid, name, age, rating
   FROM NewInserts N
   WHERE N.age <= 18
```

Event activates the trigger

Condition tests if triggers should run

Action what to do

AFTER INSERT ON SAILORs is the event, and says that the event should fire after the insertion actually happens.

There are cases where you can prevent inserts by using BEFORE INSERT instead.

NEW TABLE is the table containing the new inserted values Special syntax for referencing before and after for both the table and the row.

FOR EACH Statement allows both queries to be run – an insert query in this case, or to run an arbitrary function

Here we just look for young sailors in the newinserts table and add them to our yound sailors table

### Copy new young sailors into special table

(logical)

```
CREATE TRIGGER youngSailorUpdate

AFTER INSERT ON SAILORS

FOR EACH ROW

WHEN NEW.age <= 18

INSERT

INTO YoungSailors (sid, name, age, rating)

VALUES (NEW.sid, NEW.name, NEW.age, NEW.rating)
```

Event activates the trigger

Condition tests if triggers should run

Action what to do

Alternatively, we could use the for each row, not run the trigger action when the row has age <= 18, and insert the rows one at a time

#### Can be complicated to reason about

Triggers may (e.g., insert) cause other triggers to run If > I trigger match an action, which is run first?

CREATE TRIGGER recursiveTrigger

AFTER INSERT ON SAILORS

FOR EACH ROW

INSERT INTO Sailors(sid, name, age, rating)

SELECT sid, name, age, rating

FROM Sailors S

What if there are two BEFORE insert statements, and one cancels the statement while the other inserts a copy into another table? What happens? What if there are two triggers, one that inserts a record, and one that removes the same record?

- -- this is the classic problem with any event based system that performs call backs
- -- javascript and user events which callback is executed first// who knows?
- -- what if there's a feedback loop between the callback and the events (callback can generate events)?

What if there are RECURSIVE triggers?

As far as I can tell, statement level triggers are useful for logging, notification, and running queries. I haven't seen a way to access the modified DATA at the statement level – in postgresql.

What I care about

- Overall idea of triggers
- Difference between before after, etc type trigers
- What the pros and cons are
- How to write simple triggers

## Triggers vs Constraints

#### Constraint

Statement about state of database
Upheld by the database for any modifications
Doesn't modify the database state

#### Triggers

Operational: X should happen when Y Specific to statements Very flexible

Triggers can be USED to maintain integrity as we have seen. A simple case is using a BEFORE trigger to implement at most one relationships by prohibiting the insertion of more than one relationship (say inserting a second owner for a post).

Let's say we are able to repaint boat colors, so we might update a boat's color and change it.

Then we could use a trigger to keep a copy of each reservation along with the color of the boat at the time of reservation

Let's say we charge sailors for using our boats. Then we could use triggers to provide discounts, or if we are a socialist boat company, we might want to make sure no sailor spends more than 150% more than any other sailor. These are all things we can't do with constraints.

On the other hand, constraints are simple to reason about, and don't have the complicated mess like ordering and recursion.

## Triggers (postgres)

```
CREATE TRIGGER name

[BEFORE | AFTER | INSTEAD OF] event_list

ON table

FOR EACH (ROW | STATEMENT)

WHEN trigger_qualifications

EXECUTE PROCEDURE user_defined_function();
```

#### PostgreSQL only runs trigger UDFs

http://www.postgresql.org/docs/9.1/static/sql-createtrigger.html http://www.postgresql.org/docs/9.1/static/plpgsql-trigger.html

Very similar right? The main difference is it runs execute procedure rather than actual statements inline.

This is why we needed to learn about UDFs

BTW, sqlite3 supports triggers as well! It's so powerful. Only row level triggers. The details are VERY vendor specific

## Trigger Example

```
CREATE FUNCTION copyrecord() RETURNS trigger
AS $$
BEGIN
INSERT INTO blah VALUES(NEW.a);
RETURN NEW;
END;
$$ LANGUAGE plpgsql;
```

Signature: no args, return type is trigger

Returns NULL or same record structure as modified row

Special variables: OLD, NEW

```
CREATE TRIGGER t_copyinserts BEFORE INSERT ON a
FOR EACH ROW
EXECUTE PROCEDURE copyrecord();
```

http://www.postgresql.org/docs/9.1/static/sql-createtrigger.html http://www.postgresql.org/docs/9.1/static/plpgsql-trigger.html

These are special triggers that have a particular signature No arguments, return type is trigger

The special variables only apply to FOR EACH ROW triggers, because you have access to the entire row.

Notice that if you're doing INSERT, the OLD row isn't avilable (makes sense) Also, if you are doing a BEFORE UPDATE trigger, the OLD row would also not be available.

### Total boats and sailors < 100

```
CREATE FUNCTION checktotal() RETURNS trigger
          AS $$
          BEGIN
              IF ((SELECT COUNT(*) FROM sailors) +
                   (SELECT COUNT(*) FROM boats) < 100) THEN
                  RETURN NEW
              ELSE
                  RETURN null;
              END IF;
          END;
          $$ LANGUAGE plpgsql;
          CREATE TRIGGER t_checktotal BEFORE INSERT ON sailors
              FOR EACH ROW
                  EXECUTE PROCEDURE checktotal();
http://www.postgresql.org/docs/9.1/static/sql-createtrigger.html
http://www.postgresql.org/docs/9.1/static/plpgsql-trigger.html
```

This is how we would write the assertion

## You can get into trouble...

```
CREATE FUNCTION addme_bad() RETURNS trigger
AS $$
BEGIN
    INSERT INTO a VALUES (NEW.*);
    RETURN NEW;
END;
$$ LANGUAGE plpgsql;

CREATE TRIGGER t_addme_bad BEFORE INSERT ON a
    FOR EACH ROW
    EXECUTE PROCEDURE addme_bad();

http://www.postgresql.org/docs/9.1/static/sql-createtrigger.html
http://www.postgresql.org/docs/9.1/static/plpgsql-trigger.html
```

This is how we would write the assertion

## You can get into trouble...

```
CREATE FUNCTION addme_stillwrong() RETURNS trigger
AS $$
BEGIN

IF (SELECT COUNT(*) FROM a) < 100 THEN

INSERT INTO a VALUES (NEW.a + 1);
END IF;
RETURN NEW;
END;
$$ LANGUAGE plpgsql;

CREATE TRIGGER t_addme_stillwrong BEFORE INSERT ON a
FOR EACH ROW
EXECUTE PROCEDURE addme_stillwrong();

http://www.postgresql.org/docs/9.l/static/sql-createtrigger.html
http://www.postgresql.org/docs/9.l/static/splpgsql-trigger.html
```

We'll call this addme\_ok , Maybe this could make it better, we'll just limit it to 100 rows

Uh oh, it still hase the same problem. WHY?

Before inserting a record, we run this trigger, so it's an infinite loop still!

## You can get into trouble...

```
CREATE FUNCTION addme_works() RETURNS trigger
AS $$
BEGIN

IF (SELECT COUNT(*) FROM a) < 100 THEN

INSERT INTO a VALUES (NEW.a + 1);
END IF;
RETURN NEW;
END;
$$ LANGUAGE plpgsql;

CREATE TRIGGER t_addme_works AFTER INSERT ON a
FOR EACH ROW
EXECUTE PROCEDURE addme_works();

http://www.postgresql.org/docs/9.1/static/sql-createtrigger.html
http://www.postgresql.org/docs/9.1/static/plpgsql-trigger.html
```

We should run it after the insert, so we added the record, then the trigger runs. We check the count, if it's less than 100 we insert anoher record, then AFTERwards it runs the next trigger.

So it actually stops.

### WITH

```
WITH RedBoats(bid, count) AS

(SELECT B.bid, count(*)

FROM Boats B, Reserves R

WHERE R.bid = B.bid AND B.color = 'red'

GROUP BY B.bid)

SELECT name, count

FROM Boats AS B, RedBoats AS RB

WHERE B.bid = RB.bid AND count < 2
```

Names of unpopular boats

#### WITH

```
WITH RedBoats(bid, count) AS

(SELECT B.bid, count(*)

FROM Boats B, Reserves R

WHERE R.bid = B.bid AND B.color = 'red'

GROUP BY B.bid)

SELECT name, count

FROM Boats AS B, RedBoats AS RB

WHERE B.bid = RB.bid AND count < 2

WITH tablename(attr1, _) AS (select_query)

[,tablename(attr1, ...) AS (select_query)]

main_select_query
```

With also allows you to write recursive queries wheer the WITH clause can refer to itself! We won't get into this.

### **Views**

CREATE VIEW view\_name
AS select\_statement

"tables" defined as query results rather than inserted base data

Makes development simpler Used for security

Not materialized

References to view\_name replaced with select\_statement Similar to WITH, lasts longer than one query

It's like creating a temporary table, but you don't need to waste space, so it's very light weight and has a similar flavor to using the WITH clause before How is this different than WITH?

Security – you can only give users access to views, so they can ONLY see a subset of the database. For example, if I have different types of users some are admins, some are lowly professors, then professors can only see listings of other professors, but admins can see listings of everyone. You can accomplish this using views.

UPDATES to views tend to be difficult, and there are complex rules about what types of views are updatable – meaning you can run insert/update/delete queries over them.

## Names of popular boats

```
CREATE VIEW boat_counts
AS SELECT bid, count(*)
FROM Reserves R
GROUP BY bid
HAVING count(*) > 10
```

#### Used like a normal table

```
SELECT bname

FROM boat_counts bc, Boats B

WHERE bc.bid = B.bid

(SELECT bid, count(*) FROM Reserves R
GROUP BY bid
HAVING count(*) > 10) bc,
Boats B
WHERE bc.bid = B.bid

Names of popular boats

Rewritten expanded query
```

when you query a view, it equivalent to if you substituted the viw definition query wherever you referenced the view.

For example if we wanted to know the names of the popular boats.

We have seen numerous ways to write this query, and using views is another way

#### **CREATE TABLE**

CREATE TABLE <table\_name> AS

<SELECT STATEMENT>

#### Guess the schema:

```
CREATE TABLE used_boats1 AS

SELECT r.bid SELECT r.bid as foo

FROM Sailors s,

Reservations r

WHERE s.sid = r.sid WHERE s.sid = r.sid

used_boats1(bid int) used_boats2(foo int)
```

How is this different than views?

What if we insert a new record into Reservations?

It's a tradeoff between space and time and a bit more.

On one hand you could create a new tabel based on the result of the select statement and manually maintain it to keep it in sync as the base tables are updated. For example if the select statement computes popular boats, and I add new reservations that makes the bubba boat really opular, then I would want it to be reflected in the new table.

On the other hand, views simply rewrite any references with the select statement, so it doesn't take any storage space, and will always be in sync, but may thus be slower to run.

What if create table as select 1? And don't give column name? Default name Create table b as select 1;

Create table b as select 1, 2;

## Summary

SQL is pretty complex
Superset of Relational Algebra SQL99 turing complete!
Human readable

More than one way to skin a horse

Many alternatives to write a query

Optimizer (theoretically) finds most efficient plan



Especially with UDFs, you can do really crazy stuff and we only scratched the surface of UDFs.

Tries to be human readable – great for small queries, crazy for largue 10 table queries.

Many things like views, WITH, etc try to make things a bit simpler