W4111 – Introduction to Databases
Section 002, Spring 2022

Lecture 5: ER, Relational, SQL (IV)

COLUMBIA | ENGINEERING
The Fu Foundation School of Engineering and Applied Science

Contents

Codd's Rules
Metadata, Integrity

Codd's 12 Rules

Rule 1: Information Rule

The data stored in a database, may it be user data or metadata, must be a value of some table cell. Everything in a database must be stored in a table format.

Rule 2: Guaranteed Access Rule

Every single data element (value) is guaranteed to be accessible logically with a combination of table-name, primary-key (row value), and attribute-name (column value). No other means, such as pointers, can be used to access data.

Rule 3: Systematic Treatment of NULL Values

The NULL values in a database must be given a systematic and uniform treatment. This is a very important rule because a NULL can be interpreted as one the following – data is missing, data is not known, or data is not applicable.

Rule 4: Active Online Catalog

The structure description of the entire database must be stored in an online catalog, known as data dictionary, which can be accessed by authorized users. Users can use the same query language to access the catalog which they use to access the database itself.

Rule 5: Comprehensive Data Sub-Language Rule

A database can only be accessed using a language having linear syntax that supports data definition, data manipulation, and transaction management operations. This language can be used directly or by means of some application. If the database allows access to data without any help of this language, then it is considered as a violation.

Rule 6: View Updating Rule

All the views of a database, which can theoretically be updated, must also be updatable by the system.

Codd's 12 Rules

Rule 7: High-Level Insert, Update, and Delete Rule

A database must support high-level insertion, updation, and deletion. This must not be limited to a single row, that is, it must also support union, intersection and minus operations to yield sets of data records.

Rule 8: Physical Data Independence

The data stored in a database must be independent of the applications that access the database. Any change in the physical structure of a database must not have any impact on how the data is being accessed by external applications.

Rule 9: Logical Data Independence

The logical data in a database must be independent of its user's view (application). Any change in logical data must not affect the applications using it. For example, if two tables are merged or one is split into two different tables, there should be no impact or change on the user application. This is one of the most difficult rule to apply.

Rule 10: Integrity Independence

A database must be independent of the application that uses it. All its integrity constraints can be independently modified without the need of any change in the application. This rule makes a database independent of the front-end application and its interface.

Rule 11: Distribution Independence

The end-user must not be able to see that the data is distributed over various locations. Users should always get the impression that the data is located at one site only. This rule has been regarded as the foundation of distributed database systems.

Rule 12: Non-Subversion Rule

If a system has an interface that provides access to low-level records, then the interface must not be able to subvert the system and bypass security and integrity constraints.

Metadata and Catalog

- ‘Metadata is "data that provides information about other data". In other words, it is "data about data". Many distinct types of metadata exist, including descriptive metadata, structural metadata, administrative metadata, reference metadata and statistical metadata.’ (https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Metadata)

- “The database catalog of a database instance consists of metadata in which definitions of database objects such as base tables, views (virtual tables), synonyms, value ranges, indexes, users, and user groups are stored. ... ...

  The SQL standard specifies a uniform means to access the catalog, called the INFORMATION_SCHEMA, but not all databases follow this ...” (https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Database_catalog)

Metadata should also be relational

- Codd’s Rule 4: Dynamic online catalog based on the relational model:
  - The data base description is represented at the logical level in the same way as ordinary data, so that authorized users can apply the same relational language to its interrogation as they apply to the regular data.

Data Definition Language (DDL)

- Specification notation for defining the database schema

  Example: **create table** *instructor* (
  ID **char**(5),
  name **varchar**(20),
  dept_name **varchar**(20),
  salary **numeric**(8,2))

- DDL compiler generates a set of table templates stored in a ***data dictionary***
- Data dictionary contains metadata (i.e., data about data)
  - Database schema
  - Integrity constraints
    - Primary key (ID uniquely identifies instructors)
  - Authorization
    - Who can access what

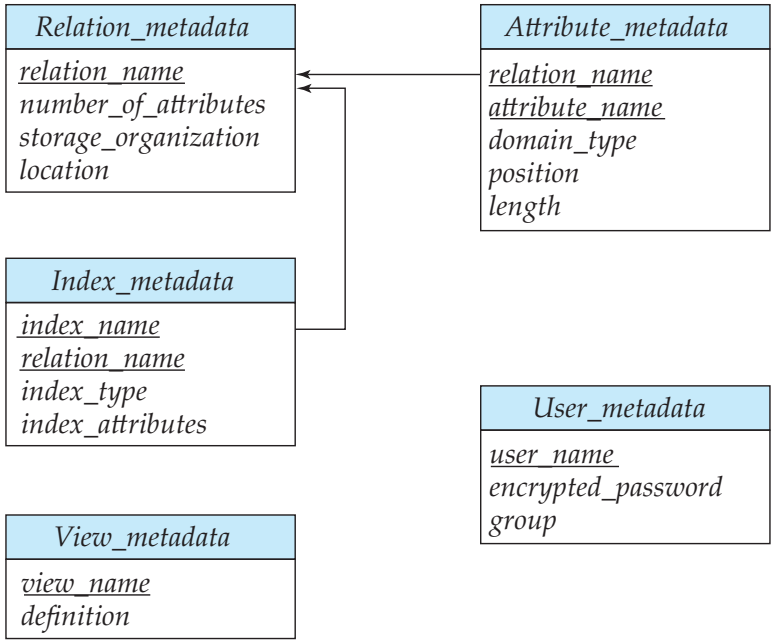
Data Dictionary Storage

The **Data dictionary** (also called **system catalog**) stores **metadata**; that is, data about data, such as

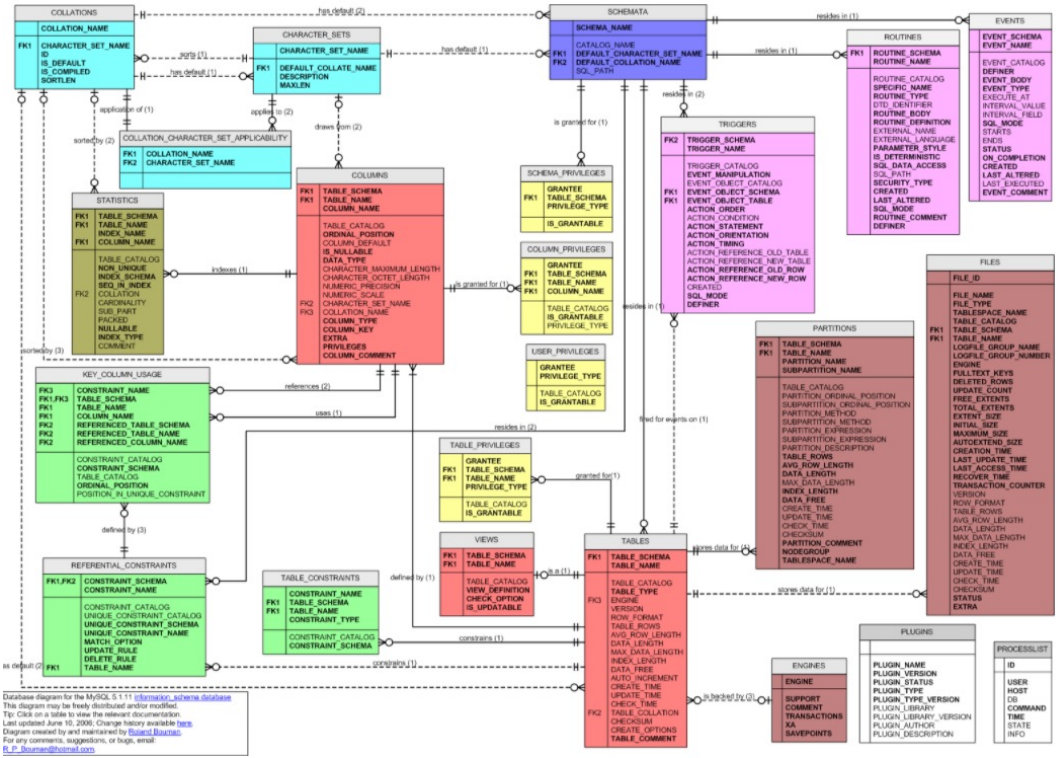
- Information about relations
  - names of relations
  - names, types and lengths of attributes of each relation
  - names and definitions of views
  - integrity constraints
- User and accounting information, including passwords
- Statistical and descriptive data
  - number of tuples in each relation
- Physical file organization information
  - How relation is stored (sequential/hash/…)
  - Physical location of relation
- Information about indices (Chapter 14)

Relational Representation of System Metadata

- Relational representation on disk
- Specialized data structures designed for efficient access, in memory



MySQL Catalog (Information_Schema)



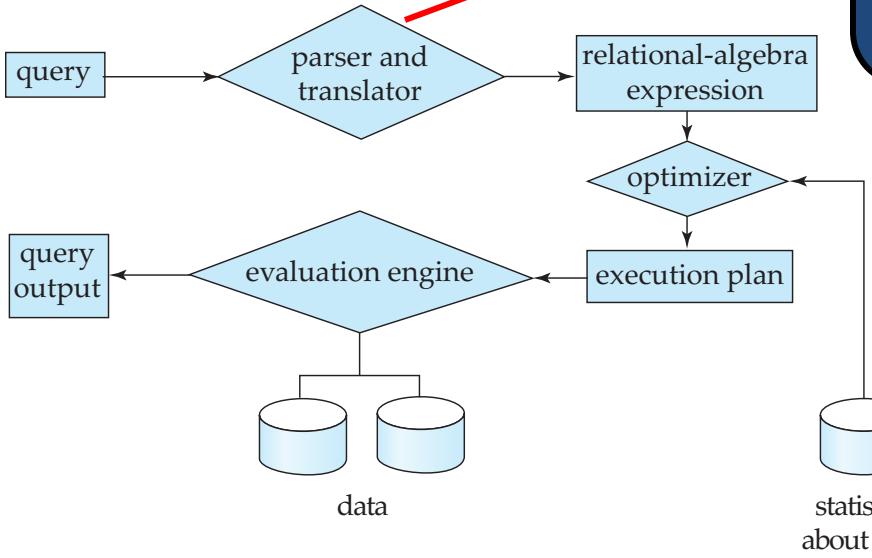
Some of the MySQL Information Schema Tables:

- 'ADMINISTRABLE_ROLE_AUTHORIZATIONS'
- 'APPLICABLE_ROLES'
- 'CHARACTER_SETS'
- 'CHECK_CONSTRAINTS'
- 'COLUMN_PRIVILEGES'
- 'COLUMN_STATISTICS'
- 'COLUMNS'
- 'ENABLED_ROLES'
- 'ENGINES'
- 'EVENTS'
- 'FILES'
- 'KEY_COLUMN_USAGE'
- 'PARAMETERS'
- 'REFERENTIAL_CONSTRAINTS'
- 'RESOURCE_GROUPS'
- 'ROLE_COLUMN_GRANTS'
- 'ROLE_ROUTINE_GRANTS'
- 'ROLE_TABLE_GRANTS'
- 'ROUTINES'
- 'SCHEMA_PRIVILEGES'
- 'STATISTICS'
- 'TABLE_CONSTRAINTS'
- 'TABLE_PRIVILEGES'
- 'TABLES'
- 'TABLESPACES'
- 'TRIGGERS'
- 'USER_PRIVILEGES'
- 'VIEW_ROUTINE_USAGE'
- 'VIEW_TABLE_USAGE'
- 'VIEWS'

- CREATE and ALTER statements modify the data.
- DBMS reads information:
  - Parsing
  - Optimizer
  - etc.

Usage Example: Basic Steps in Query Processing

1. Parsing and translation
2. Optimization
3. Evaluation



Database Catalog
- Tables, columns, types, ... needed to check syntax.
- Statistics used for cost based optimization and plans.

syntatic correctness?
if there exist such object?

Some More Relational Algebra

Some Additional Operations

- Left and right join
  - ⟕
  - ⟖
  - ⟗
- Semi-join
  - ⋉
  - ⋊
- Anti-join: ▷
- Order By: τ
- Group By: γ
- Division: ÷

- Many of these are obscure, and many SQL implementations do not support.
- You can “derive” them from other operations in many cases.
- They are so obscure that the textbook does not cover some of them.

Semi-Join

Semijoin (⋉)(⋊) [edit]

The left semijoin is a joining similar to the natural join and written as $R \ltimes S$ where R and S are relations.[3] The result is the set of all tuples in R for which there is a tuple in S that is equal on their common attribute names. The difference from a natural join is that other columns of S do not appear. For example, consider the tables *Employee* and *Dept* and their semijoin:

Employee

Name	EmpId	DeptName
Harry	3415	Finance
Sally	2241	Sales
George	3401	Finance
Harriet	2202	Production

Dept

DeptName	Manager
Sales	Sally
Production	Harriet

Employee* ⋉ *Dept

Name	EmpId	DeptName
Sally	2241	Sales
Harriet	2202	Production

More formally the semantics of the semijoin can be defined as follows:

$$R \ltimes S = \{\, t : t \in R \wedge \exists s \in S(Fun\ (t \cup s)) \,\}$$

where $Fun(r)$ is as in the definition of natural join.

The semijoin can be simulated using the natural join as follows. If a_1, ..., a_n are the attribute names of R, then

$$R \ltimes S = \Pi_{a_1,\ldots,a_n}(R \bowtie S).$$

Since we can simulate the natural join with the basic operators it follows that this also holds for the semijoin.

Anti-Join

Antijoin (▷) [edit]

The antijoin, written as $R \triangleright S$ where R and S are relations, is similar to the semijoin, but the result of an antijoin is only those tuples in R for which there is *no* tuple in S that is equal on their common attribute names.[5]

For an example consider the tables *Employee* and *Dept* and their antijoin:

Employee

Name	EmpId	DeptName
Harry	3415	Finance
Sally	2241	Sales
George	3401	Finance
Harriet	2202	Production

Dept

DeptName	Manager
Sales	Sally
Production	Harriet

Employee ▷ Dept

Name	EmpId	DeptName
Harry	3415	Finance
George	3401	Finance

The antijoin is formally defined as follows:

$$R \triangleright S = \{\, t : t \in R \wedge \neg \exists s \in S(Fun\ (t \cup s)) \,\}$$

or

$$R \triangleright S = \{\, t : t \in R, \text{there is no tuple } s \text{ of } S \text{ that satisfies } Fun\ (t \cup s) \,\}$$

where $Fun\ (t \cup s)$ is as in the definition of natural join.

The antijoin can also be defined as the complement of the semijoin, as follows:

$$R \triangleright S = R - R \ltimes S \qquad (5)$$

Given this, the antijoin is sometimes called the anti-semijoin, and the antijoin operator is sometimes written as semijoin symbol with a bar above it, instead of $\triangleright$.

Division

2.9 The **division operator** of relational algebra, "÷", is defined as follows. Let $r(R)$ and $s(S)$ be relations, and let $S \subseteq R$; that is, every attribute of schema S is also in schema R. Given a tuple t, let $t[S]$ denote the projection of tuple t on the attributes in S. Then $r \div s$ is a relation on schema $R - S$ (that is, on the schema containing all attributes of schema R that are not in schema S). A tuple t is in $r \div s$ if and only if both of two conditions hold:

- t is in $\Pi_{R-S}(r)$
- For every tuple t_s in s, there is a tuple t_r in r satisfying both of the following:

  a. $t_r[S] = t_s[S]$

  b. $t_r[R - S] = t$

- Well, that is crystal clear.
- My head hurts every time I must remember this for that one slide every semester. But, this makes a cool exam question!

Division

Division (÷) [edit]

The division is a binary operation that is written as $R \div S$. Division is not implemented directly in SQL. The result consists of the restrictions of tuples in R to the attribute names unique to R, i.e., in the header of R but not in the header of S, for which it holds that all their combinations with tuples in S are present in R. For an example see the tables *Completed*, *DBProject* and their division:

Completed

Student	Task
Fred	Database1
Fred	Database2
Fred	Compiler1
Eugene	Database1
Eugene	Compiler1
Sarah	Database1
Sarah	Database2

DBProject

Task
Database1
Database2

Completed ÷ ***DBProject***

Student
Fred
Sarah

If *DBProject* contains all the tasks of the Database project, then the result of the division above contains exactly the students who have completed both of the tasks in the Database project. More formally the semantics of the division is defined as follows:

$$R \div S = \{\ t[a_1,...,a_n] : t \in R \wedge \forall s \in S\ (\ (t[a_1,...,a_n] \cup s) \in R)\ \} \qquad (6)$$

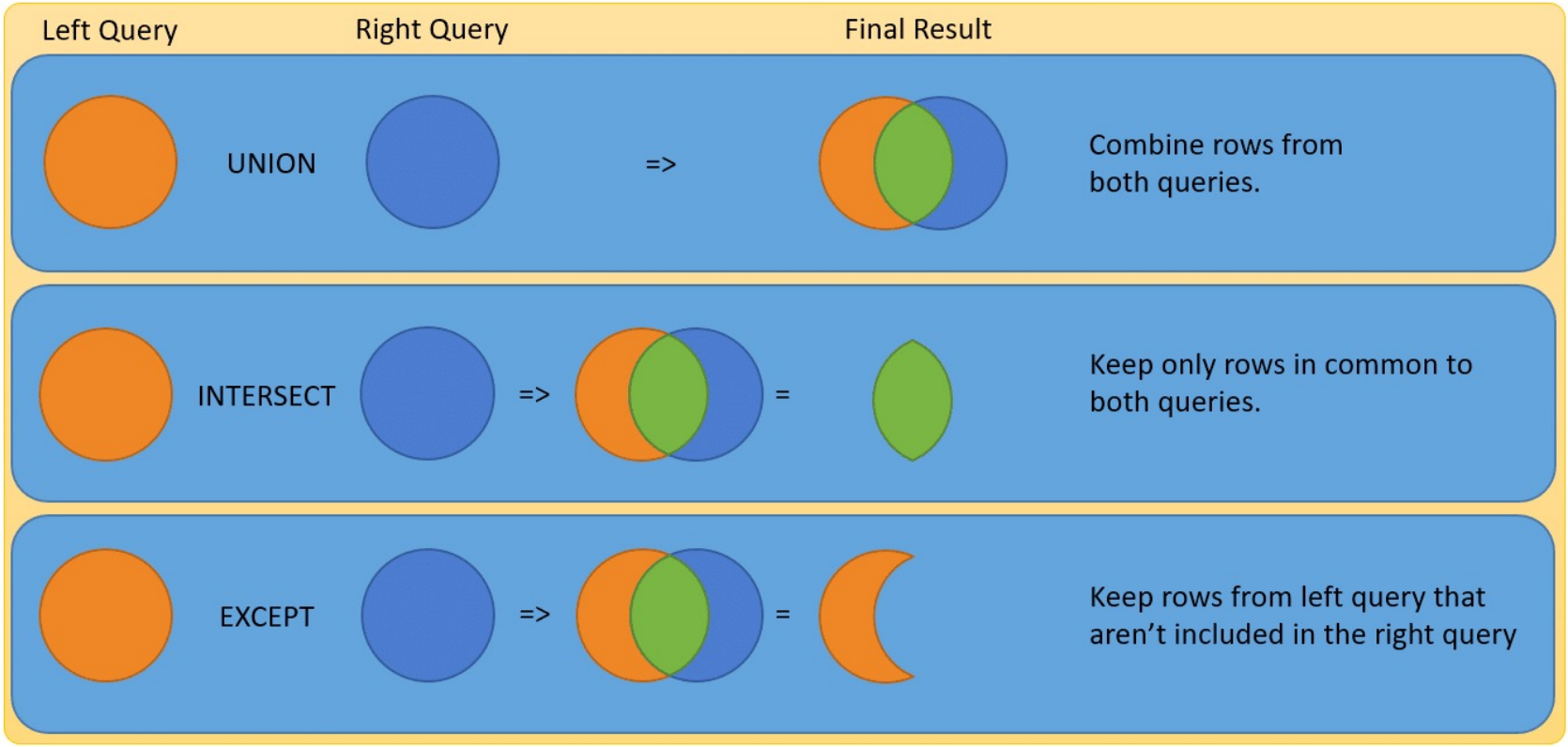
where $\{a_1,...,a_n\}$ is the set of attribute names unique to R and $t[a_1,...,a_n]$ is the restriction of t to this set. It is usually required that the attribute names in the header of S are a subset of those of R because otherwise the result of the operation will always be empty.

More Complex JOIN and Sets

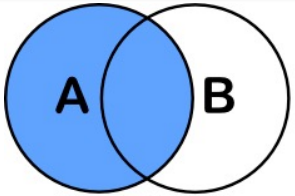
Set Operation Basics

Set Operations

Visual Explanation of UNION, INTERSECT, and EXCEPT operators

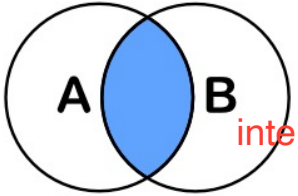


One Way to Think About Joins



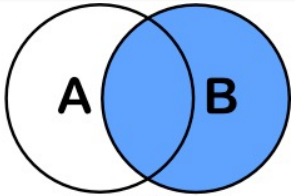
SELECT <auswahl>
FROM tabelleA A
LEFT JOIN tabelleB B
ON A.key = B.key

CHEATSHEET
SQL
JOINS

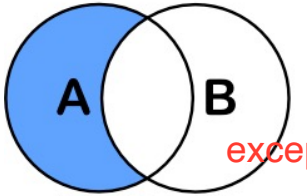


intersect

SELECT <auswahl>
FROM tabelleA A
INNER JOIN tabelleB B
ON A.key = B.key

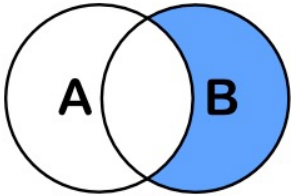


SELECT <auswahl>
FROM tabelleA A
RIGHT JOIN tabelleB B
ON A.key = B.key

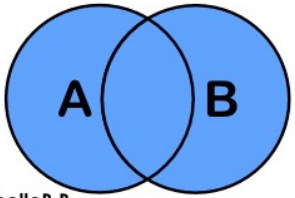


except

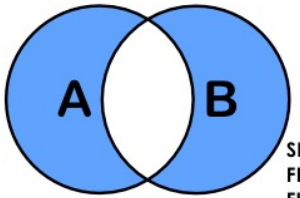
SELECT <auswahl>
FROM tabelleA A
LEFT JOIN tabelleB B
ON A.key = B.key
WHERE B.key IS NULL



SELECT <auswahl>
FROM tabelleA A
RIGHT JOIN tabelleB B
ON A.key = B.key
WHERE A.key IS NULL



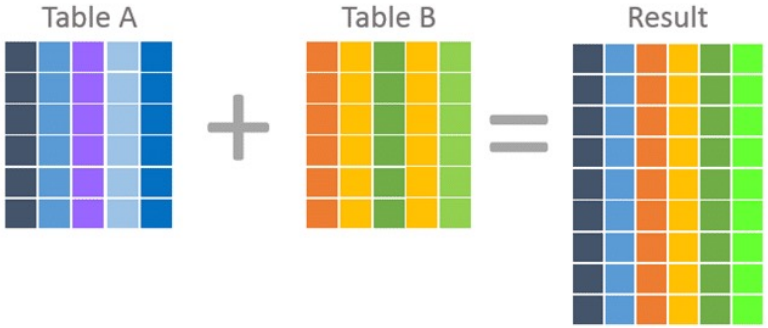
SELECT <auswahl>
FROM tabelleA A
FULL OUTER JOIN tabelleB B
ON A.key = B.key



SELECT <auswahl>
FROM tabelleA A
FULL OUTER JOIN tabelleB B
ON A.key = B.key
WHERE A.key IS NULL
OR B.key IS NULL

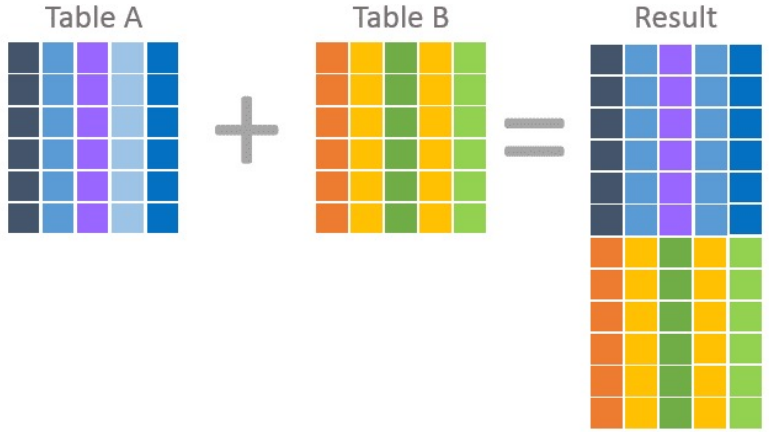
JOIN and UNION (and Set Operations)

Here is a visual depiction of a join. Table A and B's columns are combined into a single result.



Joins Combine Columns

Now compare the above depiction with that of a union. In a union, each row within the result is from one table OR the other. In a union, columns aren't combined to create results, rows are combined.



Unions Combine Rows

- UNION vs JOIN can be confusing. Basically,
  - JOIN puts the tables together "side by side."
  - Union puts the tables together "one on top of the oter."

RDBMS and Set Operations

- The SQL set operations are:
  - UNION
  - SELECT
  - EXCEPT

- Virtually all SQL implementations support UNION.

- Support for INTERSECT and EXCEPT is less consistent.
  Can be implemented using other primitives.

- We will some examples with another database that we will use.
  (Switch to notebook)

common table expression
with …..
only exsit in the query

Set Comparisons

Set Comparison

Set Comparison – “some” Clause

- Find names of instructors with salary greater than that of some (at least one) instructor in the Biology department.

```
select distinct T.name
from instructor as T, instructor as S
where T.salary > S.salary and S.dept name = 'Biology';
```

- Same query using > **some** clause

```
select name
from instructor
where salary > some (select salary
                     from instructor
                     where dept name = 'Biology');
```

at least one

Definition of "some" Clause

- F <comp> **some** $r \Leftrightarrow \exists\ t \in r$ such that (F <comp> t)
  Where <comp> can be: $<,\ \leq,\ >,\ =,\ \neq$

(5 < **some** | 0 / 5 / 6 |) = true (read: 5 < some tuple in the relation)

(5 < **some** | 0 / 5 |) = false

(5 = **some** | 0 / 5 |) = true

(5 ≠ **some** | 0 / 5 |) = true (since 0 ≠ 5)

(= **some**) ≡ **in**
However, (≠ **some**) ≢ **not in**

Set Comparison – “all” Clause

- Find the names of all instructors whose salary is greater than the salary of all instructors in the Biology department.

```
select name
from instructor
where salary > all (select salary
                    from instructor
                    where dept name = 'Biology');
```

Definition of "all" Clause

- F <comp> **all** $r \Leftrightarrow \forall\ t \in r$ (F <comp> *t)*

(5 < **all** | 0, 5, 6 |) = false

(5 < **all** | 6, 10 |) = true

(5 = **all** | 4, 5 |) = false

(5 ≠ **all** | 4, 6 |) = true (since 5 ≠ 4 and 5 ≠ 6)

(≠ **all**) ≡ **not in**

However, (= **all**) ≠ **in**

Test for Empty Relations

- The **exists** construct returns the value **true** if the argument subquery is nonempty.
- **exists** $r \Leftrightarrow r \neq \emptyset$
- **not exists** $r \Leftrightarrow r = \emptyset$

Use of "exists" Clause

- Yet another way of specifying the query "Find all courses taught in both the Fall 2017 semester and in the Spring 2018 semester"

```
select course_id
from section as S
where semester = 'Fall' and year = 2017 and
        exists  (select *
                 from section as T
                 where semester = 'Spring' and year= 2018
                         and S.course_id = T.course_id);
```

- **Correlation name** – variable S in the outer query
- **Correlated subquery** – the inner query

Use of “not exists” Clause

- Find all students who have taken all courses offered in the Biology department.

```
select distinct S.ID, S.name
from student as S
where not exists ( (select course_id
                    from course
                    where dept_name = 'Biology')
                   except
                    (select T.course_id
                     from takes as T
                     where S.ID = T.ID));
```

  - First nested query lists all courses offered in Biology
  - Second nested query lists all courses a particular student took
- Note that $X - Y = \emptyset \Leftrightarrow X \subseteq Y$
- Note: Cannot write this query using = all and its variants

Test for Absence of Duplicate Tuples

- The **unique** construct tests whether a subquery has any duplicate tuples in its result.
- The **unique** construct evaluates to “true” if a given subquery contains no duplicates .
- Find all courses that were offered at most once in 2017

```
select T.course_id
 from course as T
 where unique ( select R.course_id
                from section as R
                where T.course_id= R.course_id
                      and R.year = 2017);
```

Some Interesting JOINs
(Switch to notebook)

Subquery Again
(Because it is Complex)

Nested Subqueries

- SQL provides a mechanism for the nesting of subqueries. A **subquery** is a **select-from-where** expression that is nested within another query.
- The nesting can be done in the following SQL query

  select A_1, A_2, ..., A_n
  from r_1, r_2, ..., r_m
  where P

  as follows:

  - **From clause:** r_i can be replaced by any valid subquery
  - **Where clause:** P can be replaced with an expression of the form:

    B <operation> (subquery)

    B is an attribute and <operation> to be defined later.
  - **Select clause:**

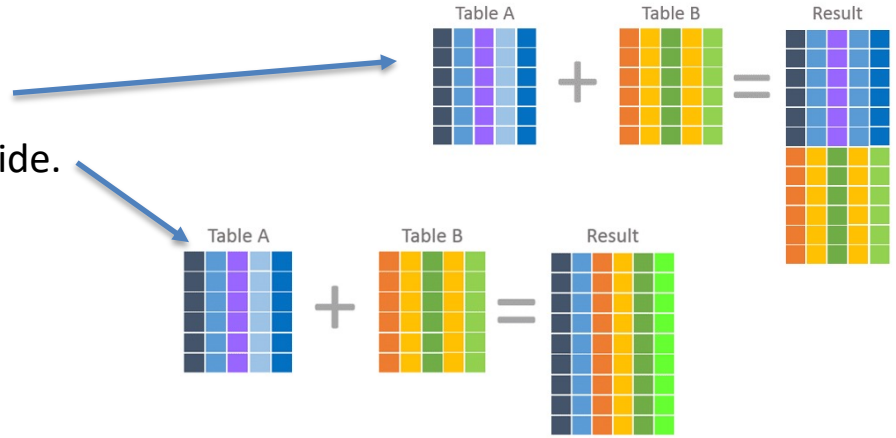
    A_i can be replaced be a subquery that generates a single value.

Note:

- This is a little cryptic.
- I think I know what they mean.
- There are some operations we will see later in the material, e.g IN, EXISTS, ...

Nested Subquery

- The slides that come with the book have surprisingly little material on nested subqueries.
- The concept is:
  - Extremely important.
  - Students often find subqueries more confusing than joins.
  - The relationship/difference of subqueries to joins is often, initial unclear.
- We have seen:
  - Union sort of puts a table on top of a table.
  - Join puts tables sort of puts tables side-by-side.
  - Subquery enables one query to call another during execution like a subfunction.



Consider Some Tables

Takes

ID	course_id	sec_id	semester	year	grade
00128	CS-101	1	Fall	2017	A
00128	CS-347	1	Fall	2017	A-
12345	CS-101	1	Fall	2017	C
12345	CS-190	2	Spring	2017	A
12345	CS-315	1	Spring	2018	A
12345	CS-347	1	Fall	2017	A
19991	HIS-351	1	Spring	2018	B
23121	FIN-201	1	Spring	2018	C+
44553	PHY-101	1	Fall	2017	B-
45678	CS-101	1	Fall	2017	F
45678	CS-101	1	Spring	2018	B+
45678	CS-319	1	Spring	2018	B
54321	CS-101	1	Fall	2017	A-
54321	CS-190	2	Spring	2017	B+
55739	MU-199	1	Spring	2018	A-
76543	CS-101	1	Fall	2017	A
76543	CS-319	2	Spring	2018	A
76653	EE-181	1	Spring	2017	C
98765	CS-101	1	Fall	2017	C-
98765	CS-315	1	Spring	2018	B
98988	BIO-101	1	Summer	2017	A
98988	BIO-301	1	Summer	2018	None

Student

ID	name	dept_name	tot_cred
00128	Zhang	Comp. Sci.	102
12345	Shankar	Comp. Sci.	32
19991	Brandt	History	80
23121	Chavez	Finance	110
44553	Peltier	Physics	56
45678	Levy	Physics	46
54321	Williams	Comp. Sci.	54
55739	Sanchez	Music	38
70557	Snow	Physics	0
76543	Brown	Comp. Sci.	58
76653	Aoi	Elec. Eng.	60
98765	Bourikas	Elec. Eng.	98
98988	Tanaka	Biology	120

Consider a Subquery Tables

select *, (select name from student where student.id=takes.id) as name from takes;

- Assume I wrote a function find_student_name(x)
  - Input is an x
  - Loops through all students and returns students with student.ID = x.
- The query with a subquery above is like:

```
result = []
For t in takes:
        new_r = t + find_student_name(t.id)
        result.append(new_r)
```

Switch to Notebook

Takes

ID	course_id	sec_id	semester	year	grade
00128	CS-101	1	Fall	2017	A
00128	CS-347	1	Fall	2017	A-
12345	CS-101	1	Fall	2017	C
12345	CS-190	2	Spring	2017	A
12345	CS-315	1	Spring	2018	A
12345	CS-347	1	Fall	2017	A
19991	HIS-351	1	Spring	2018	B
23121	FIN-201	1	Spring	2018	C+
44553	PHY-101	1	Fall	2017	B-
45678	CS-101	1	Fall	2017	F
45678	CS-101	1	Spring	2018	B+
45678	CS-319	1	Spring	2018	B
54321	CS-101	1	Fall	2017	A-
54321	CS-190	2	Spring	2017	B+
55739	MU-199	1	Spring	2018	A-
76543	CS-101	1	Fall	2017	A
76543	CS-319	2	Spring	2018	A
76653	EE-181	1	Spring	2017	C
98765	CS-101	1	Fall	2017	C-
98765	CS-315	1	Spring	2018	B
98988	BIO-101	1	Summer	2017	A
98988	BIO-301	1	Summer	2018	None

Student

ID	name	dept_name	tot_cred
00128	Zhang	Comp. Sci.	102
12345	Shankar	Comp. Sci.	32
19991	Brandt	History	80
23121	Chavez	Finance	110
44553	Peltier	Physics	56
45678	Levy	Physics	46
54321	Williams	Comp. Sci.	54
55739	Sanchez	Music	38
70557	Snow	Physics	0
76543	Brown	Comp. Sci.	58
76653	Aoi	Elec. Eng.	60
98765	Bourikas	Elec. Eng.	98
98988	Tanaka	Biology	120

Subqueries in the From Clause

- SQL allows a subquery expression to be used in the **from** clause
- Find the average instructors' salaries of those departments where the average salary is greater than $42,000."

```
select dept_name, avg_salary
from ( select dept_name, avg (salary) as avg_salary
        from instructor
        group by dept_name)
where avg_salary > 42000;
```

- Note that we do not need to use the **having** clause
- Another way to write above query

```
select dept_name, avg_salary
from ( select dept_name, avg (salary)
        from instructor
        group by dept_name)
        as dept_avg (dept_name, avg_salary)
where avg_salary > 42000;
```

Scalar Subquery

- Scalar subquery is one which is used where a single value is expected
- List all departments along with the number of instructors in each department

```
select dept_name,
        ( select count(*)
          from instructor
          where department.dept_name = instructor.dept_name)
        as num_instructors
from department;
```

- Runtime error if subquery returns more than one result tuple

Views

Views

- In some cases, it is not desirable for all users to see the entire logical model (that is, all the actual relations stored in the database.)
- Consider a person who needs to know an instructors name and department, but not the salary. This person should see a relation described, in SQL, by

  select *ID*, *name*, *dept_name*
  from *instructor*

- A **view** provides a mechanism to hide certain data from the view of certain users.
- Any relation that is not of the conceptual model but is made visible to a user as a "virtual relation" is called a **view**.

View Definition

- 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;
```

Views Defined Using Other Views

- One view may be used in the expression defining another view
- A view relation v_1 is said to ***depend directly*** on a view relation v_2 if v_2 is used in the expression defining v_1
- A view relation v_1 is said to ***depend on*** view relation v_2 if either v_1 depends directly to v_2 or there is a path of dependencies from v_1 to v_2
- A view relation v is said to be ***recursive*** if it depends on itself.

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';

View Expansion

- Expand the view :

```
create view physics_fall_2017_watson as
    select course_id, room_number
    from physics_fall_2017
    where building= 'Watson'
```

- To:

```
create view physics_fall_2017_watson as
    select course_id, room_number
    from (select course.course_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')
    where building= 'Watson';
```

View Expansion (Cont.)

- A way to define the meaning of views defined in terms of other views.
- Let view v_1 be defined by an expression e_1 that may itself contain uses of view relations.
- View expansion of an expression repeats the following replacement step:

  repeat
  Find any view relation v_i in e_1
  Replace the view relation v_i by the expression defining v_i
  until no more view relations are present in e_1

- As long as the view definitions are not recursive, this loop will terminate

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

- 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.

Integrity Constraints

Integrity Constraints

- Integrity constraints guard against accidental damage to the database, by ensuring that authorized changes to the database do not result in a loss of data consistency.
  - A checking account must have a balance greater than $10,000.00
  - A salary of a bank employee must be at least $4.00 an hour
  - A customer must have a (non-null) phone number

Constraints on a Single Relation

- **not null**
- **primary key**
- **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**

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

Complex Check Conditions

- The predicate in the check clause can be an arbitrary predicate that can include a subquery.

  check (*time_slot_id* **in** (**select** *time_slot_id* **from** *time_slot*))

  The check condition states that the time_slot_id in each tuple in the *section* relation is actually the identifier of a time slot in the *time_slot* relation.

  - The condition has to be checked not only when a tuple is inserted or modified in *section* , but also when the relation *time_slot* changes

Assertions

- An **assertion** is a predicate expressing a condition that we wish the database always to satisfy.
- 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>);

Built-in Data Types in SQL

- **date:** Dates, containing a (4 digit) year, month and date
  - Example: **date** '2005-7-27'
- **time:** Time of day, in hours, minutes and seconds.
  - Example: **time** '09:00:30' **time** '09:00:30.75'
- **timestamp:** date plus time of day
  - Example: **timestamp** '2005-7-27 09:00:30.75'
- **interval:** period of time
  - Example: interval '1' day
  - Subtracting a date/time/timestamp value from another gives an interval value
  - Interval values can be added to date/time/timestamp values

Large-Object Types

- Large objects (photos, videos, CAD files, etc.) are stored as a *large object*:
  - **blob**: binary large object -- object is a large collection of uninterpreted binary data (whose interpretation is left to an application outside of the database system)
  - **clob**: character large object -- object is a large collection of character data
- When a query returns a large object, a pointer is returned rather than the large object itself.

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'));

Indexes

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*

Let’s Practice

- Primary
- Unique
- Unique and Not Null
- Index

Some Advanced ER Concepts

Weak Entity Sets

- Consider a *section* entity, which is uniquely identified by a *course_id*, *semester, year*, and *sec_id*.
- Clearly, section entities are related to course entities. Suppose we create a relationship set *sec_course* between entity sets *section* and *course*.
- Note that the information in *sec_course* is redundant, since *section* already has an attribute *course_id*, which identifies the course with which the section is related.
- One option to deal with this redundancy is to get rid of the relationship s*ec_course*; however, by doing so the relationship between *section* and *course* becomes implicit in an attribute, which is not desirable.

Weak Entity Sets (Cont.)

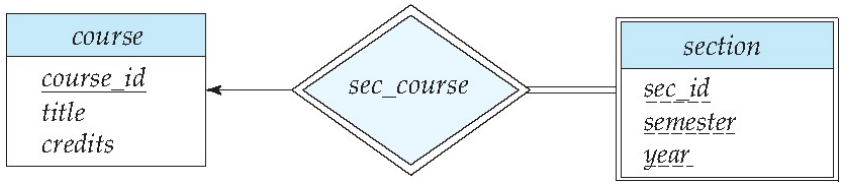
- An alternative way to deal with this redundancy is to not store the attribute *course_id* in the *section* entity and to only store the remaining attributes *section_id*, *year*, and *semester.*
  - However, the entity set *section* then does not have enough attributes to identify a particular *section* entity uniquely
- To deal with this problem, we treat the relationship *sec_course* as a special relationship that provides extra information, in this case, the *course_id*, required to identify *section* entities uniquely.
- A **weak entity set** is one whose existence is dependent on another entity, called its **identifying entity**
- Instead of associating a primary key with a weak entity, we use the identifying entity, along with extra attributes called **discriminator** to uniquely identify a weak entity.

Weak Entity Sets (Cont.)

- An entity set that is not a weak entity set is termed a **strong entity set**.
- Every weak entity must be associated with an identifying entity; that is, the weak entity set is said to be **existence dependent** on the identifying entity set.
- The identifying entity set is said to **own** the weak entity set that it identifies.
- The relationship associating the weak entity set with the identifying entity set is called the **identifying relationship**.
- Note that the relational schema we eventually create from the entity set *section* does have the attribute *course_id*, for reasons that will become clear later, even though we have dropped the attribute *course_id* from the entity set *section.*

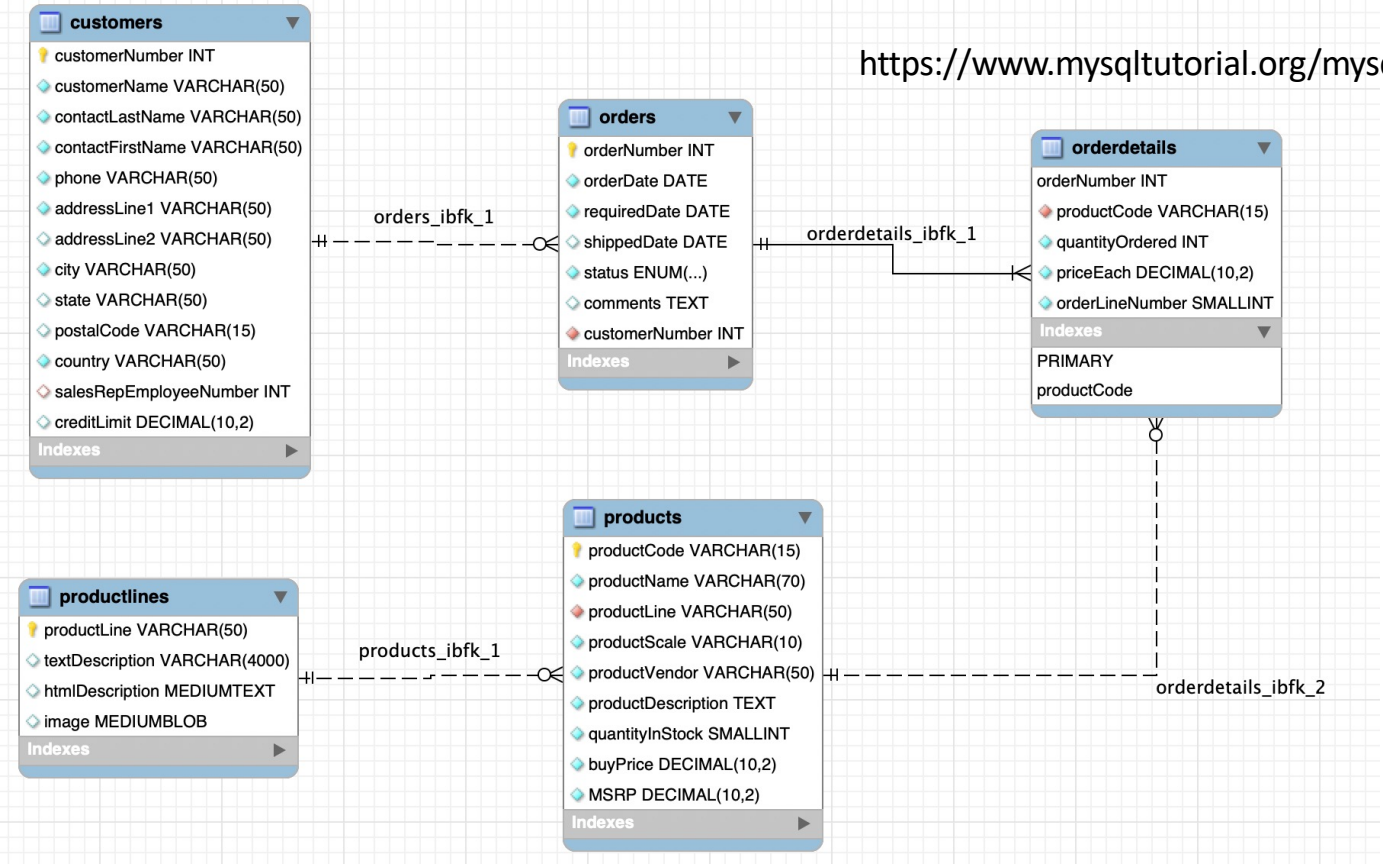
Expressing Weak Entity Sets

- In E-R diagrams, a weak entity set is depicted via a double rectangle.
- We underline the discriminator of a weak entity set with a dashed line.
- The relationship set connecting the weak entity set to the identifying strong entity set is depicted by a double diamond.
- Primary key for *section* – (*course_id, sec_id, semester, year*)



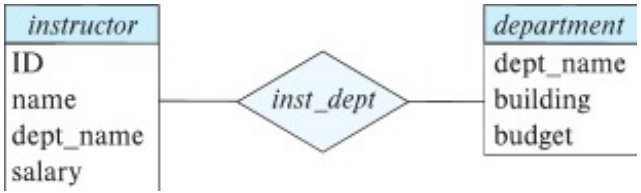
An Example – Classic Models

https://www.mysqltutorial.org/mysql-sample-database.aspx/



Redundant Attributes

- Suppose we have entity sets:
  - *instructor*, with attributes: *ID*, *name*, *dept_name, salary*
  - *department,* with attributes: *dept_name, building, budget*
- We model the fact that each instructor has an associated department using a relationship set *inst_dept*
- The attribute *dept_name* in *instructor* replicates information present in the relationship and is therefore redundant
  - and needs to be removed.
- BUT: when converting back to tables, in some cases the attribute gets reintroduced, as we will see later.



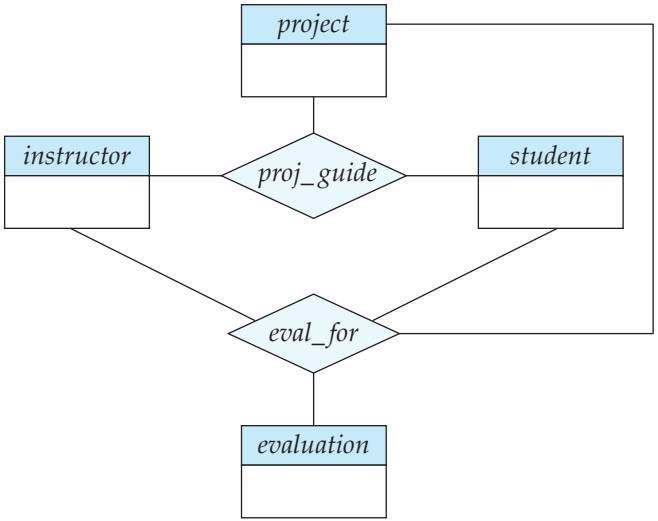
Design Alternatives

- In designing a database schema, we must ensure that we avoid two major pitfalls:
  - Redundancy: a bad design may result in repeat information.
    - **Redundant representation of information may lead to data inconsistency among the various copies of information**
  - Incompleteness: a bad design may make certain aspects of the enterprise difficult or impossible to model.
- Avoiding bad designs is not enough. There may be a large number of good designs from which we must choose.

Emphasis Added

Aggregation

- Consider the ternary relationship *proj_guide*, which we saw earlier
- Suppose we want to record evaluations of a student by a guide on a project

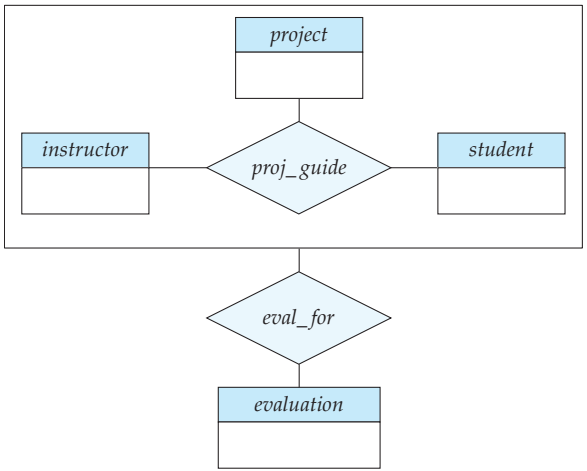


Aggregation (Cont.)

- Relationship sets *eval_for* and *proj_guide* represent overlapping information
  - Every *eval_for* relationship corresponds to a *proj_guide* relationship
  - However, some *proj_guide* relationships may not correspond to any *eval_for* relationships
    - So we can't discard the *proj_guide* relationship
- Eliminate this redundancy via *aggregation*
  - Treat relationship as an abstract entity
  - Allows relationships between relationships
  - Abstraction of relationship into new entity

Aggregation (Cont.)

- Eliminate this redundancy via *aggregation* without introducing redundancy, the following diagram represents:
  - A student is guided by a particular instructor on a particular project
  - A student, instructor, project combination may have an associated evaluation



Reduction to Relational Schemas

- To represent aggregation, create a schema containing
  - Primary key of the aggregated relationship,
  - The primary key of the associated entity set
  - Any descriptive attributes
- In our example:
  - The schema *eval_for* is:

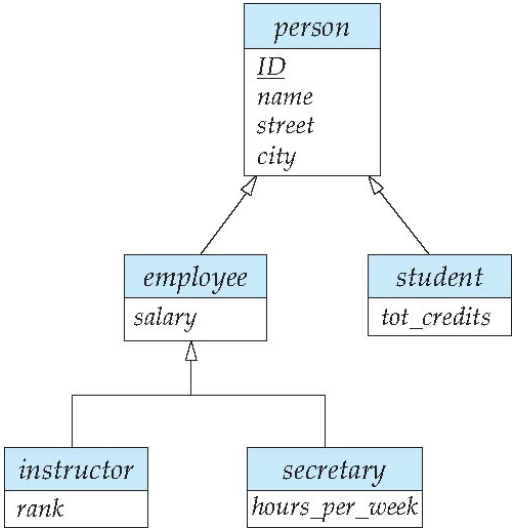
    eval_for (*s_ID, project_id, i_ID, evaluation_id*)
  - The schema *proj_guide* is redundant.

Specialization

- Top-down design process; we designate sub-groupings within an entity set that are distinctive from other entities in the set.
- These sub-groupings become lower-level entity sets that have attributes or participate in relationships that do not apply to the higher-level entity set.
- Depicted by a *triangle* component labeled ISA (e.g., *instructor* "is a" *person*).
- **Attribute inheritance** – a lower-level entity set inherits all the attributes and relationship participation of the higher-level entity set to which it is linked.

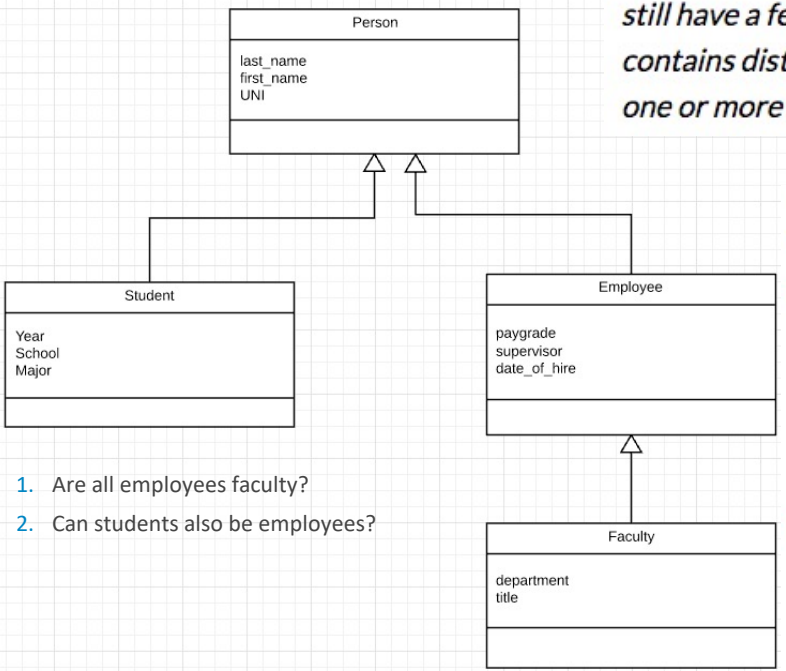
Specialization Example

- **Overlapping** – *employee* and *student*
- **Disjoint** – *instructor* and *secretary*
- Total and partial



Inheritance, IsA, Specialization

In the process of designing our entity relationship diagram for a database, we may find that attributes of two or more entities overlap, meaning that these entities seem very similar but still have a few differences. In this case, we may create a subtype of the parent entity that contains distinct attributes. A parent entity becomes a supertype that has a relationship with one or more subtypes.



1. Are all employees faculty?
2. Can students also be employees?

The subclass association line is labeled with specialization constraints. Constraints are described along two dimensions:

1 incomplete/complete

- In an **incomplete** specialization only some instances of the parent class are specialized (have unique attributes). Other instances of the parent class have only the common attributes.
- In a **complete** specialization, every instance of the parent class has one or more unique attributes that are not common to the parent class.

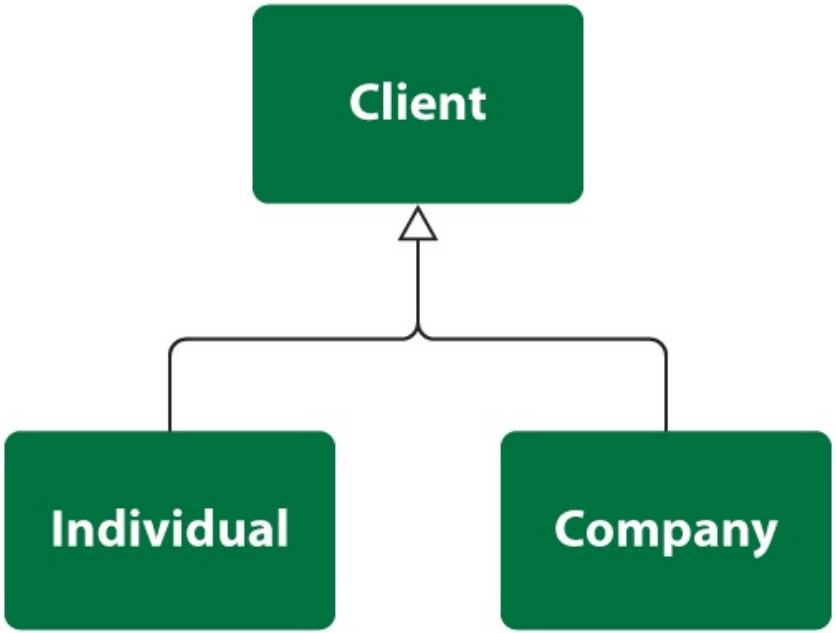
2 disjoint/overlapping

- In a **disjoint** specialization, an object could be a member of only one specialized subclass.
- In an **overlapping** specialization, an object could be a member of more than one specialized subclass.

http://www.vertabelo.com/blog/technical-articles/inheritance-in-a-relational-database

Simpler Example

In class Client we distinguish two subtypes: Individual and Company. This specialization is disjoint (client can be an individual or a company) and complete (these are all possible subtypes for supertype).

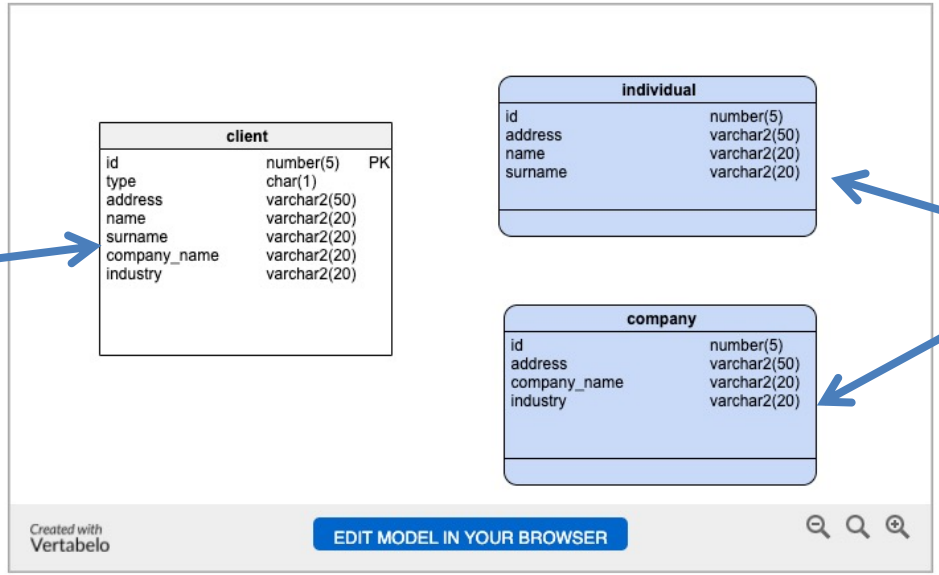


One Table Implementation

One table implementation

In a one table implementation, table `client` has attributes of both types.

The diagram below shows the table `client` and two views: `individual` and `company`:



Tables

Views

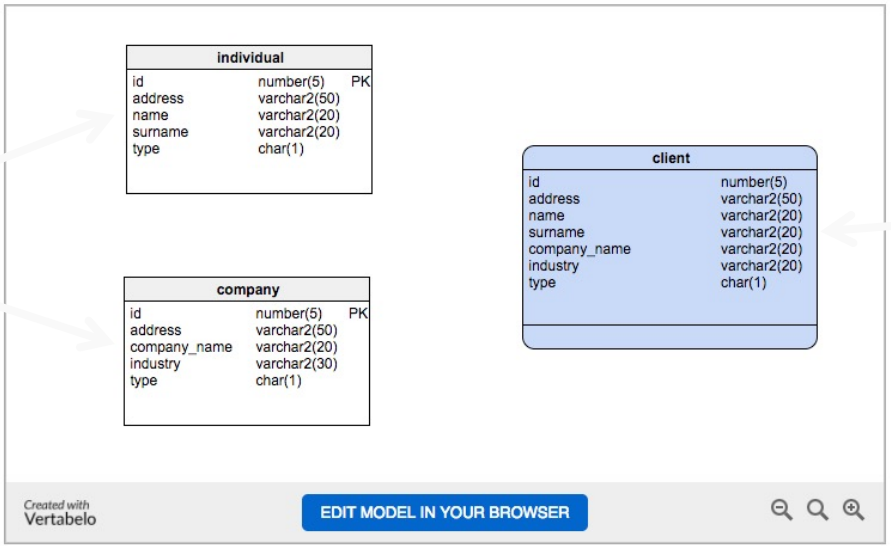
Two Table Implementation

Two-table implementation

In a two-table implementation, we create a table for each of the subtypes. Each table gets a column for all attributes of the supertype and also a column for each attribute belonging to the subtype. Access to information in this situation is limited, that's why it is important to create a view that is the union of the tables. We can add an additional attribute called 'type' that describes the subtype.

The diagram below presents two tables, `individual` and `company`, and a view (the blue one) called `client`.

Tables



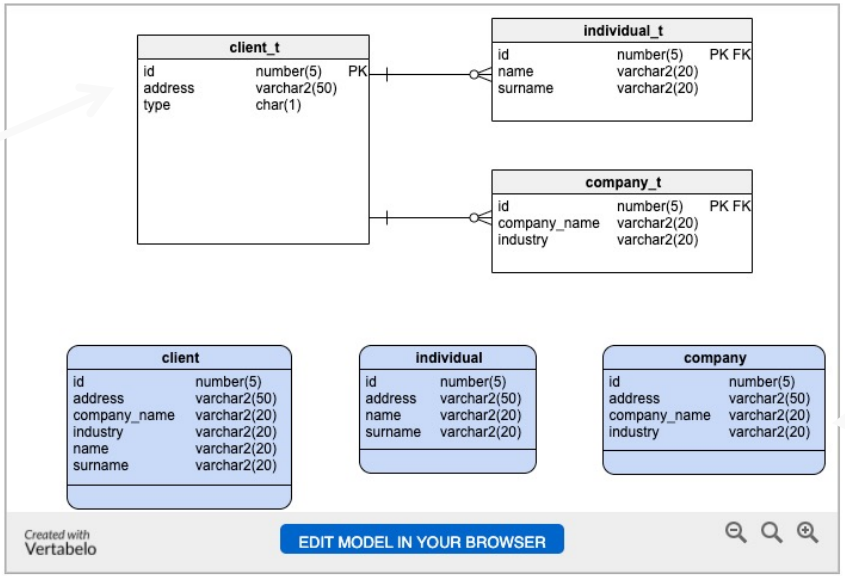
View

Two Table Implementation

Three-table implementation

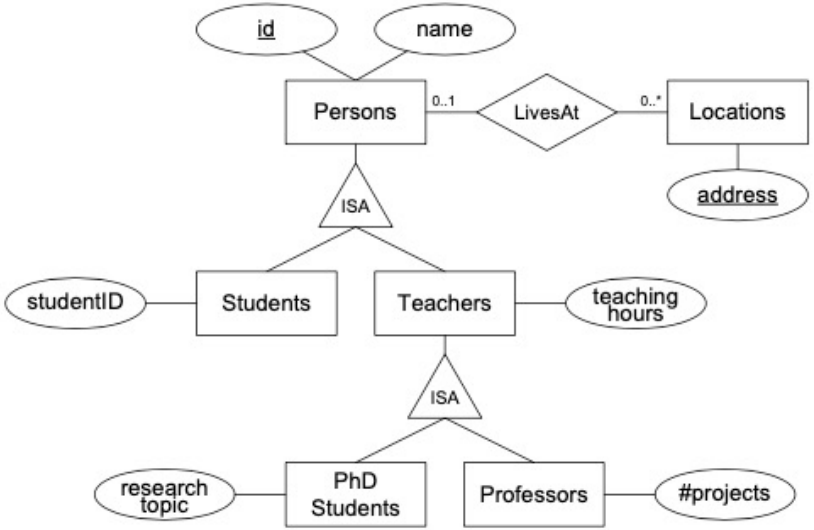
In a third solution we create a single table `client_t` for the parent table, containing common attributes for all subtypes, and tables for each subtype (`individual_t` and `company_t`) where the primary key in `client_t` (base table) determines foreign keys in dependent tables. There are three views: `client`, `individual` and `company`.

Tables



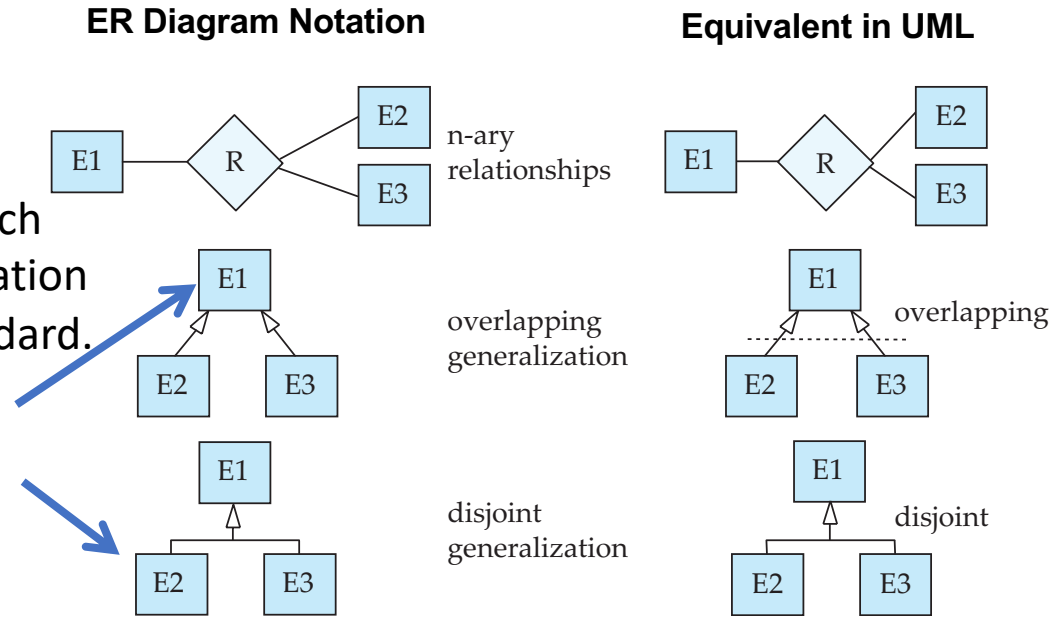
Views

ISA Relationship



ER vs. UML Class Diagrams

I use this approach in Crow's Foot Notation but that is not standard.



* Generalization can use merged or separate arrows independent of disjoint/overlapping

Faculty, Student Inheritance Example