Data and Its Structure

- Data is actually stored as bits, but it is difficult to work with data at this level.
- It is convenient to view data at different *levels of abstraction*.
- **Schema**: Description of data at some abstraction level. Each level has its own schema.
- We will be concerned with three schemas: *physical, conceptual, and external*. 
Physical Data Level

- *Physical schema* describes details of how data is stored: tracks, cylinders, indices etc.
- Early applications worked at this level – explicitly dealt with details.
- **Problem:** Routines were hard-coded to deal with physical representation.
  - Changes to data structure difficult to make.
  - Application code becomes complex since it must deal with details.
  - Rapid implementation of new features impossible.

Conceptual Data Level

- Hides details.
  - In the relational model, the conceptual schema presents data as a set of tables.
- DBMS maps from conceptual to physical schema automatically.
- Physical schema can be changed without changing application:
  - DBMS would change mapping from conceptual to physical transparently
  - This property is referred to as *physical data independence*
Conceptual Data Level (con’t)

- In the relational model, the external schema also presents data as a set of relations.
- An external schema specifies a view of the data in terms of the conceptual level. It is tailored to the needs of a particular category of users.
  - Portions of stored data should not be seen by some users.
    - Students should not see their files in full.
    - Faculty should not see billing data.
  - Information that can be derived from stored data might be viewed as if it were stored.
    - GPA not stored, but calculated when needed.

External Data Level

- In the relational model, the external schema also presents data as a set of relations.
- An external schema specifies a view of the data in terms of the conceptual level. It is tailored to the needs of a particular category of users.
  - Portions of stored data should not be seen by some users.
    - Students should not see their files in full.
    - Faculty should not see billing data.
  - Information that can be derived from stored data might be viewed as if it were stored.
    - GPA not stored, but calculated when needed.
External Data Level (con’t)

• Application is written in terms of an external schema.
• A view is computed when accessed (not stored).
• Different external schemas can be provided to different categories of users.
• Translation from external to conceptual done automatically by DBMS at run time.
• Conceptual schema can be changed without changing application:
  – Mapping from external to conceptual must be changed.
• Referred to as conceptual data independence.

Levels of Abstraction

[Diagram showing levels of abstraction with PAYROLL, ACCOUNTING, and ADVISING external schemas leading to Conceptual Schema, which leads to Physical Schema and Disk.]
Data Model

- **Schema**: description of data at some level (e.g., tables, attributes, constraints, domains)
- **Model**: tools and language for describing:
  - Conceptual and external schema
    - Data definition language (DDL)
  - Integrity constraints, domains (DDL)
  - Operations on data
    - Data manipulation language (DML)
  - Directives that influence the physical schema (affects performance, not semantics)
    - Storage definition language (SDL)

Relational Model

- A particular way of structuring data (using relations)
- Simple
- Mathematically based
  - Expressions (≡ queries) can be analyzed by DBMS
  - Queries are transformed to equivalent expressions automatically (*query optimization*)
    - Optimizers have limits (⇒ programmer needs to know how queries are evaluated and optimized)
Relation Instance

• Relation is a set of tuples
  – Tuple ordering immaterial
  – No duplicates
  – Cardinality of relation = number of tuples
• All tuples in a relation have the same structure; constructed from the same set of attributes
  – Attributes are named (ordering is immaterial)
  – Value of an attribute is drawn from the attribute’s domain
    • There is also a special value null (value unknown or undefined), which belongs to no domain
  – Arity of relation = number of attributes

Relation Instance (Example)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Id</th>
<th>Name</th>
<th>Address</th>
<th>Status</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1111111</td>
<td>John</td>
<td>123 Main</td>
<td>freshman</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2345678</td>
<td>Mary</td>
<td>456 Cedar</td>
<td>sophomore</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4433322</td>
<td>Art</td>
<td>77 So. 3rd</td>
<td>senior</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7654321</td>
<td>Pat</td>
<td>88 No. 4th</td>
<td>sophomore</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Relation Schema

- Relation name
- Attribute names & domains
- Integrity constraints like
  - The values of a particular attribute in all tuples are unique
  - The values of a particular attribute in all tuples are greater than 0
- Default values

Relational Database

- Finite set of relations
- Each relation consists of a schema and an instance
- Database schema = set of relation schemas constraints among relations (inter-relational constraints)
- Database instance = set of (corresponding) relation instances
Database Schema (Example)

- Student (Id: INT, Name: STRING, Address: STRING, Status: STRING)
- Professor (Id: INT, Name: STRING, DeptId: DEPTS)
- Course (DeptId: DEPTS, CrsName: STRING, CrsCode: COURSES)
- Transcript (CrsCode: COURSES, StudId: INT, Grade: GRADES, Semester: SEMESTERS)
- Department(DeptId: DEPTS, Name: STRING)

Integrity Constraints

- Part of schema
- Restriction on state (or of sequence of states) of database
- Enforced by DBMS
- Intra-relational - involve only one relation
  - Part of relation schema
  - e.g., all Ids are unique
- Inter-relational - involve several relations
  - Part of relation schema or database schema
Constraint Checking

- Automatically checked by DBMS
- Protects database from errors
- Enforces enterprise rules

Kinds of Integrity Constraints

- Static – restricts legal states of database
  - Syntactic (structural)
    - e.g., all values in a column must be unique
  - Semantic (involve meaning of attributes)
    - e.g., cannot register for more than 18 credits
- Dynamic – limitation on sequences of database states
  - e.g., cannot raise salary by more than 5%
Key Constraint

- A **key constraint** is a sequence of attributes $A_1, \ldots, A_n$ (n=1 possible) of a relation schema, $S$, with the following property:
  - A relation instance $s$ of $S$ satisfies the key constraint iff at most one row in $s$ can contain a particular set of values, $a_1, \ldots, a_n$, for the attributes $A_1, \ldots, A_n$
  - **Minimality**: no subset of $A_1, \ldots, A_n$ is a key constraint

- **Key**
  - Set of attributes mentioned in a key constraint
    - e.g., $Id$ in Student,
    - e.g., $(StudId, CrsCode, Semester)$ in Transcript
  - It is **minimal**: no subset of a key is a key
    - $(Id, Name)$ is not a key of Student

Key Constraint (cont’d)

- **Superkey** - set of attributes containing key
  - $(Id, Name)$ is a superkey of Student

- Every relation has a key
- Relation can have several keys:
  - **primary key**: $Id$ in Student (can’t be **null**)
  - **candidate key**: $(Name, Address)$ in Student
Foreign Key Constraint

- **Referential integrity:** Item named in one relation must refer to tuples that describe that item in another
  - Transcript (CrsCode) references Course(CrsCode)
  - Professor(DeptId) references Department(DeptId)
- Attribute $A_1$ is a **foreign key** of R1 referring to attribute $A_2$ in R2, if whenever there is a value $v$ of $A_1$, there is a tuple of R2 in which $A_2$ has value $v$, and $A_2$ is a key of R2
  - This is a special case of referential integrity: $A_2$ must be a candidate key of R2 (e.g., CrsCode is a key of Course in the above)
  - If no row exists in R2 => violation of referential integrity
  - Not all rows of R2 need to be referenced: relationship is not symmetric (e.g., some course might not be taught)
  - Value of a foreign key might not be specified (DeptId column of some professor might be null)

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Foreign Key Constraint (Example)
Foreign Key (cont’d)

• Names of the attrs $A_1$ and $A_2$ need not be the same.
  – With tables:
    
    Teaching($\text{CrsCode: COURSES, Sem: SEMESTERS, ProfId: INT}$)
    Professor($\text{Id: INT, Name: STRING, DeptId: DEPTS}$)
     
    $ProfId$ attribute of Teaching references $Id$ attribute of Professor

• $R_1$ and $R_2$ need not be distinct.
  – Employee($Id$:INT, $MgrId$:INT, ….)
    • Employee($MgrId$) references Employee($Id$)
  – Every manager is also an employee and hence has a unique row in Employee

Foreign Key (cont’d)

• Foreign key might consist of several columns
  – ($\text{CrsCode, Semester}$) of Transcript references ($\text{CrsCode, Semester}$) of Teaching

• $R_1(A_1, …A_n)$ references $R_2(B_1, …B_n)$
  – $A_i$ and $B_i$ must have same domains (although not necessarily the same names)
  – $B_1, …, B_n$ must be a candidate key of $R_2$
Inclusion Dependency

- Referential integrity constraint that is not a foreign key constraint
- Teaching\((CrsCode, Semester)\) references Transcript\((CrsCode, Semester)\)
  (no empty classes allowed)
- Target attributes do not form a candidate key in Transcript \((StudId\text{ missing})\)
- No simple enforcement mechanism for inclusion dependencies in SQL (requires *assertions -- later*)

Structured Query Language (SQL)

- Language for describing database schema and operations on tables
- *Data Definition Language* (DDL): sublanguage of SQL for describing schema
Tables

- SQL entity that corresponds to a relation
- An element of the database schema
- SQL-92 is currently the most supported standard but is now superseded by SQL:1999 and SQL:2003
- Database vendors generally deviate from the standard, but eventually converge

Table Declaration

```sql
CREATE TABLE Student (
    id: INTEGER,
    Name: CHAR(20),
    Address: CHAR(50),
    Status: CHAR(10)
)
```

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Id</th>
<th>Name</th>
<th>Address</th>
<th>Status</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>101222333</td>
<td>John</td>
<td>10 Cedar St</td>
<td>Freshman</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>234567890</td>
<td>Mary</td>
<td>22 Main St</td>
<td>Sophomore</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Student
Primary/Candidate Keys

CREATE TABLE Course (  
  CrsCode CHAR(6),  
  CrsName CHAR(20),  
  DeptId CHAR(4),  
  Descr CHAR(100),  
  PRIMARY KEY (CrsCode),  
  UNIQUE (DeptId, CrsName) -- candidate key
)

Null

- **Problem**: Not all information might be known when row is inserted (e.g., Grade might be missing from Transcript)
- A column might not be applicable for a particular row (e.g., MaidenName if row describes a male)
- **Solution**: Use place holder – **null**
  - Not a value of any domain (although called null value)
    - Indicates the absence of a value
  - Not allowed in certain situations
    - Primary keys and columns constrained by **NOT NULL**
Default Value

- Value to be assigned if attribute value in a row is not specified

```
CREATE TABLE Student ( 
  Id INTEGER, 
  Name CHAR(20) NOT NULL, 
  Address CHAR(50), 
  Status CHAR(10) DEFAULT 'freshman', 
  PRIMARY KEY (Id) )
```

Semantic Constraints in SQL

- Primary key and foreign key are examples of structural constraints
- Semantic constraints
- Express the logic of the application at hand:
- e.g., number of registered students maximum enrollment
Semantic Constraints (cont’d)

- Used for application dependent conditions
- *Example*: limit attribute values

```
CREATE TABLE Transcript (
  StudId  INTEGER,
  CrsCode  CHAR(6),
  Semester  CHAR(6),
  Grade  CHAR(1),
  CHECK (Grade IN ('A', 'B', 'C', 'D', 'F')),
  CHECK (StudId > 0 AND StudId < 1000000000)
)
```

- Each row in table must satisfy condition

Semantic Constraints (cont’d)

- *Example*: relate values of attributes in different columns

```
CREATE TABLE Employee (
  Id  INTEGER,
  Name  CHAR(20),
  Salary  INTEGER,
  MngrSalary  INTEGER,
  CHECK (MngrSalary > Salary)
)
```
Constraints – Problems

- **Problem 1**: Empty table always satisfies all CHECK constraints (an idiosyncrasy of the SQL standard)

  CREATE TABLE Employee (  
  Id INTEGER,  
  Name CHAR(20),  
  Salary INTEGER,  
  MgrSalary INTEGER,  
  CHECK (0 < (SELECT COUNT(*) FROM Employee)) )

  - If Employee is empty, there are no rows on which to evaluate the CHECK condition.

Constraints – Problems

- **Problem 2**: Inter-relational constraints should be symmetric

  CREATE TABLE Employee (  
  Id INTEGER,  
  Name CHAR(20),  
  Salary INTEGER,  
  MgrSalary INTEGER,  
  CHECK ((SELECT COUNT(*) FROM Manager) < (SELECT COUNT(*) FROM Employee)) )

  - Why should constraint be in Employee an not Manager?
  - What if Employee is empty?
Assertion

• Element of schema (like table)
• Symmetrically specifies an inter-relational constraint
• Applies to entire database (not just the individual rows of a single table)
  – hence it works even if Employee is empty

CREATE ASSERTION DontFireEveryone
CHECK (0 < SELECT COUNT (*) FROM Employee)

Assertion

CREATE ASSERTION KeepEmployeeSalariesDown
CHECK (NOT EXISTS(
  SELECT * FROM Employee E
  WHERE E.Salary > E.MngrSalary))
Assertions and Inclusion Dependency

```sql
CREATE ASSERTION NoEmptyCourses
CHECK (NOT EXISTS {
    SELECT * FROM Teaching T
    WHERE -- for each row T check
        -- the following condition
        NOT EXISTS {
            SELECT * FROM Transcript R
            WHERE T.CrsCode = R.CrsCode
            AND T.Semester = R.Semester
        }
})
```

Courses with no students

Students in a particular course

Domains

- Possible attribute values can be specified
  - Using a CHECK constraint or
  - Creating a new domain
- Domain can be used in several declarations
- Domain is a schema element

```sql
CREATE DOMAIN Grades CHAR (1)
CHECK (VALUE IN ('A', 'B', 'C', 'D', 'F'))
CREATE TABLE Transcript (...

    Grade: Grades,
    ...
)
CREATE TABLE Teaching {
    ProfId INTEGER,
    CrsCode CHAR (6),
    Semester CHAR (6),
    PRIMARY KEY (CrsCode, Semester),
    FOREIGN KEY (CrsCode) REFERENCES Course,
    FOREIGN KEY (ProfId) REFERENCES Professor (Id) )
Circularity in Foreign Key Constraint

Problem 1: Creation of A requires existence of B and vice versa
Solution:

```
CREATE TABLE A ( ... )    -- no foreign key
CREATE TABLE B ( ... )    -- include foreign key
ALTER TABLE A
  ADD CONSTRAINT cons
  FOREIGN KEY (A_3) REFERENCES B (B_1)
```

Circularity in Foreign Key Constraint (cont’d)

- Problem 2: Insertion of row in A requires prior existence of row in B and vice versa
- Solution: use appropriate constraint checking mode:
  - IMMEDIATE checking
  - DEFERRED checking
Reactive Constraints

• Constraints enable DBMS to recognize a bad state and reject the statement or transaction that creates it
• More generally, it would be nice to have a mechanism that allows a user to specify how to react to a violation of a constraint
• SQL-92 provides a limited form of such a reactive mechanism for foreign key violations

Handling Foreign Key Violations

• Insertion into A: Reject if no row exists in B containing foreign key of inserted row
• Deletion from B:
  – NO ACTION: Reject if row(s) in A references row to be deleted (default response)
Handling Foreign Key Violations (cont’d)

• Deletion from B (cont’d):
  – SET NULL: Set value of foreign key in referencing row(s) in A to null

![Diagram showing deletion from B with SET NULL]

• Deletion from B (cont’d):
  – SET DEFAULT: Set value of foreign key in referencing row(s) in A to default value (y) which must exist in B

![Diagram showing deletion from B with SET DEFAULT]
Handling Foreign Key Violations (cont’d)

• Deletion from B (cont’d):
  – **CASCADE**: Delete referencing row(s) in A as well

Handling Foreign Key Violations (cont’d)

• Update (change) foreign key in A: Reject if no row exists in B containing new foreign key
• Update candidate key in B (to z) – same actions as with deletion:
  – NO ACTION: Reject if row(s) in A references row to be updated (default response)
  – SET NULL: Set value of foreign key to null
  – SET DEFAULT: Set value of foreign key to default
  – CASCADE: Propagate z to foreign key
Handling Foreign Key Violations (cont’d)

• The action taken to repair the violation of a foreign key constraint in A may cause a violation of a foreign key constraint in C
  • The action specified in C controls how that violation is handled;
  • If the entire chain of violations cannot be resolved, the initial deletion from B is rejected.

Specifying Actions

CREATE TABLE Teaching (  
  ProfId INTEGER,  
  CrsCode CHAR (6),  
  Semester CHAR (6),  
  PRIMARY KEY (CrsCode, Semester),  
  FOREIGN KEY (ProfId) REFERENCES Professor (Id)  
    ON DELETE NO ACTION 
    ON UPDATE CASCADE,  
  FOREIGN KEY (CrsCode) REFERENCES Course (CrsCode)  
    ON DELETE SET NULL 
    ON UPDATE CASCADE )
Triggers

• A more general mechanism for handling events
  – Not in SQL-92, but is in SQL:1999
• Trigger is a schema element (like table, assertion, …)

```
CREATE TRIGGER CrsChange
AFTER UPDATE OF CrsCode, Semester ON Transcript
WHEN (Grade IS NOT NULL)
ROLLBACK
```

Views

• Schema element
• Part of external schema
• A virtual table constructed from actual tables on the fly
  – Can be accessed in queries like any other table
  – Not materialized, constructed when accessed
  – Similar to a subroutine in ordinary programming
Views - Examples

Part of external schema suitable for use in Bursar’s office:

CREATE VIEW CoursesTaken (StudId, CrsCode, Semester) AS
    SELECT T.StudId, T.CrsCode, T.Semester
    FROM Transcript T

CREATE VIEW CoursesITook (CrsCode, Semester, Grade) AS
    SELECT T.CrsCode, T.Semester, T.Grade
    FROM Transcript T
    WHERE T.StudId = '123456789'

Modifying the Schema

ALTER TABLE Student
    ADD COLUMN Gpa INTEGER DEFAULT 0

ALTER TABLE Student
    ADD CONSTRAINT GpaRange
    CHECK (Gpa >= 0 AND Gpa <= 4)

ALTER TABLE Transcript
    DROP CONSTRAINT Cons -- constraint names are useful

DROP TABLE Employee

DROP ASSERTION DontFireEveryone
Access Control

- Databases might contain sensitive information
- Access has to be limited:
  - Users have to be identified – *authentication*
    - Generally done with passwords
  - Each user must be limited to modes of access appropriate to that user - *authorization*
- SQL:92 provides tools for specifying an authorization policy but does not support authentication (vendor specific)

Controlling Authorization in SQL

```
GRANT access_list
  ON table
  TO user_list
```

access modes: SELECT, INSERT, DELETE, UPDATE, REFERENCES

```
GRANT UPDATE (Grade) ON Transcript TO prof_smith
  
  – Only the Grade column can be updated by prof_smith

GRANT SELECT ON Transcript TO joe
  
  – Individual columns cannot be specified for SELECT access (in the SQL standard) – all columns of Transcript can be read
  
  – But SELECT access control to individual columns can be simulated through views (next)
```
Controlling Authorization in SQL Using Views

GRANT access
ON view
TO user_list

GRANT SELECT ON CoursesTaken TO joe

– Thus views can be used to simulate access control to individual columns of a table

Authorization Mode REFERENCES

• Foreign key constraint enforces relationship between tables that can be exploited to
  – Control access: can enable perpetrator prevent deletion of rows

    CREATE TABLE DontDismissMe {
      Id INTEGER,
      FOREIGN KEY (Id) REFERENCES Student
      ON DELETE NO ACTION
    }

    INSERT INTO DontDismissMe ('111111111')

  – Reveal information: successful insertion into
    DontDismissMe means a row with foreign key value exists in Student

    INSERT INTO DontDismissMe ('1111111111')