

## Constraints

Foreign Keys  
Local and Global Constraints  
Triggers

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## Constraints and Triggers

- ◆ A *constraint* is a relationship among data elements that the DBMS is required to enforce.
  - ◆ Example: key constraints.
- ◆ *Triggers* are only executed when a specified condition occurs, e.g., insertion of a tuple.
  - ◆ Easier to implement than many constraints.

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## Kinds of Constraints

- ◆ Keys.
- ◆ Foreign-key, or referential-integrity.
- ◆ Value-based constraints.
  - ◆ Constrain values of a particular attribute.
- ◆ Tuple-based constraints.
  - ◆ Relationship among components.
- ◆ Assertions: any SQL boolean expression.

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## Foreign Keys

- ◆ Consider Relation Sells(bar, beer, price).
- ◆ We might expect that a beer value is a real beer --- something appearing in Beers.name .
- ◆ A constraint that requires a beer in Sells to be a beer in Beers is called a *foreign-key* constraint.

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## Expressing Foreign Keys

- ◆ Use the keyword REFERENCES, either:
  1. Within the declaration of an attribute, when only one attribute is involved.
  2. As an element of the schema, as:  
FOREIGN KEY ( <list of attributes> )  
REFERENCES <relation> ( <attributes> )
- ◆ Referenced attributes must be declared PRIMARY KEY.

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## Example: With Attribute

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

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## Example: As Element

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

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## Enforcing Foreign-Key Constraints

- ◆ If there is a foreign-key constraint from attributes of relation  $R$  to the primary key of relation  $S$ , two violations are possible:
  1. An insert or update to  $R$  introduces values not found in  $S$ .
  2. A deletion or update to  $S$  causes some tuples of  $R$  to "dangle."

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## Actions Taken -- 1

- ◆ Suppose  $R = \text{Sells}$ ,  $S = \text{Beers}$ .
- ◆ An insert or update to Sells that introduces a nonexistent beer must be rejected.
- ◆ A deletion or update to Beers that removes a beer value found in some tuples of Sells can be handled in three ways.

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## Actions Taken -- 2

- ◆ The three possible ways to handle beers that suddenly cease to exist are:
  1. *Default*: Reject the modification.
  2. *Cascade*: Make the same changes in Sells.
    - ◆ Deleted beer: delete Sells tuple.
    - ◆ Updated beer: change value in Sells.
  3. *Set NULL*: Change the beer to NULL.

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## Example: Cascade

- ◆ Suppose we delete the Bud tuple from Beers.
  - ◆ Then delete all tuples from Sells that have beer = 'Bud'.
- ◆ Suppose we update the Bud tuple by changing 'Bud' to 'Budweiser'.
  - ◆ Then change all Sells tuples with beer = 'Bud' so that beer = 'Budweiser'.

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## Example: Set NULL

- ◆ Suppose we delete the Bud tuple from Beers.
  - ◆ Change all tuples of Sells that have beer = 'Bud' to have beer = NULL.
- ◆ Suppose we update the Bud tuple by changing 'Bud' to 'Budweiser'.
  - ◆ Same change.

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## Choosing a Policy

- ◆ When we declare a foreign key, we may choose policies SET NULL or CASCADE independently for deletions and updates.
- ◆ Follow the foreign-key declaration by: ON [UPDATE, DELETE][SET NULL CASCADE]
- ◆ Two such clauses may be used.
- ◆ Otherwise, the default (reject) is used.

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## Example

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

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## Attribute-Based Checks

- ◆ Put a constraint on the value of a particular attribute.
- ◆ CHECK( <condition> ) must be added to the declaration for the attribute.
- ◆ The condition may use the name of the attribute, but any other relation or attribute name must be in a subquery.

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## Example

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

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## Timing of Checks

- ◆ An attribute-based check is checked only when a value for that attribute is inserted or updated.
  - ◆ Example: CHECK (price <= 5.00) checks every new price and rejects it if it is more than \$5.
  - ◆ Example: CHECK (beer IN (SELECT name FROM Beers)) not checked if a beer is deleted from Beers (unlike foreign-keys).

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## Tuple-Based Checks

- ◆ CHECK ( <condition> ) may be added as another element of a schema definition.
- ◆ The condition may refer to any attribute of the relation, but any other attributes or relations require a subquery.
- ◆ Checked on insert or update only.

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## Example: Tuple-Based Check

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

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

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## Assertions

- ◆ These are database-schema elements, like relations or views.
- ◆ Defined by:  
CREATE ASSERTION <name>  
CHECK ( <condition> );
- ◆ Condition may refer to any relation or attribute in the database schema.

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## Example: Assertion

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

```
CREATE ASSERTION NoRipoffBars CHECK (  
  NOT EXISTS (  
      
  ));
```

Bars with an  
average price  
above \$5

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## Example: Assertion

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

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

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## Timing of Assertion Checks

- ◆ In principle, we must check every assertion after every modification to any relation of the database.
- ◆ A clever system can observe that only certain changes could cause a given assertion to be violated.
  - ◆ Example: No change to Beers can affect FewBar. Neither can an insertion to Drinkers.

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## Triggers: Motivation

- ◆ Attribute- and tuple-based checks have limited capabilities.
- ◆ Assertions are sufficiently general for most constraint applications, but they are hard to implement efficiently.
  - ◆ The DBMS must have real intelligence to avoid checking assertions that couldn't possibly have been violated.

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## Triggers: Solution

- ◆ A trigger allows the user to specify when the check occurs.
- ◆ Like an assertion, a trigger has a general-purpose condition and also can perform any sequence of SQL database modifications.

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## Event-Condition-Action Rules

- ◆ Another name for "trigger" is *ECA rule*, or event-condition-action rule.
- ◆ *Event* : typically a type of database modification, e.g., "insert on Sells."
- ◆ *Condition* : Any SQL boolean-valued expression.
- ◆ *Action* : Any SQL statements.

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## Example: A Trigger

- ◆ There are many details to learn about triggers.
- ◆ Here is an example to set the stage.
- ◆ Instead of using a foreign-key constraint and rejecting insertions into Sells(bar, beer, price) with unknown beers, a trigger can add that beer to Beers, with a NULL manufacturer.

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## Example: Trigger Definition

```
CREATE TRIGGER BeerTrig
  [The event]
  REFERENCING NEW ROW AS NewTuple
  FOR EACH ROW
  [The condition]
  [The action]
```

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## Options: CREATE TRIGGER

- ◆ CREATE TRIGGER <name>
- ◆ Option:  
CREATE OR REPLACE TRIGGER <name>
  - ◆ Useful if there is a trigger with that name and you want to modify the trigger.

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## Options: The Condition

- ◆ AFTER can be BEFORE.
  - ◆ Also, INSTEAD OF, if the relation is a view.
    - ◆ A great way to execute view modifications: have triggers translate them to appropriate modifications on the base tables.
- ◆ INSERT can be DELETE or UPDATE.
  - ◆ And UPDATE can be UPDATE . . . ON a particular attribute.

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## Options: FOR EACH ROW

- ◆ Triggers are either *row-level* or *statement-level*.
- ◆ FOR EACH ROW indicates row-level; its absence indicates statement-level.
- ◆ Row level triggers are executed once for each modified tuple.
- ◆ Statement-level triggers execute once for an SQL statement, regardless of how many tuples are modified.

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## Options: REFERENCING

- ◆ INSERT statements imply a new tuple (for row-level) or new set of tuples (for statement-level).
- ◆ DELETE implies an old tuple or table.
- ◆ UPDATE implies both.
- ◆ Refer to these by  
[NEW OLD][TUPLE TABLE] AS <name>

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## Options: The Condition

- ◆ Any boolean-valued condition is appropriate.
- ◆ It is evaluated before or after the triggering event, depending on whether BEFORE or AFTER is used in the event.
- ◆ Access the new/old tuple or set of tuples through the names declared in the REFERENCING clause.

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## Options: The Action

- ◆ There can be more than one SQL statement in the action.
  - ◆ Surround by BEGIN . . . END if there is more than one.
- ◆ But queries make no sense in an action, so we are really limited to modifications.

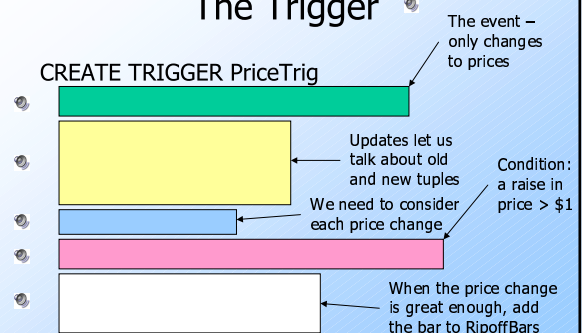
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## Another Example

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

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## The Trigger



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## Triggers on Views

- ◆ Generally, it is impossible to modify a view, because it doesn't exist.
- ◆ But an INSTEAD OF trigger lets us interpret view modifications in a way that makes sense.
- ◆ Example: We'll design a view Synergy that has (drinker, beer, bar) triples such that the bar serves the beer, the drinker frequents the bar and likes the beer.

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## Example: The View

```
CREATE VIEW Synergy AS
```

```
SELECT
```



Natural join of Likes,  
Sells, and Frequents

Pick one copy of  
each attribute

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## Interpreting a View Insertion

- ◆ We cannot insert into Synergy --- it is a view.
- ◆ But we can use an INSTEAD OF trigger to turn a (drinker, beer, bar) triple into three insertions of projected pairs, one for each of Likes, Sells, and Frequents.
  - ◆ The Sells.price will have to be NULL.

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## The Trigger

```
CREATE TRIGGER ViewTrig
  INSTEAD OF INSERT ON Synergy
  REFERENCING NEW ROW AS n
  FOR EACH ROW
  BEGIN
    INSERT INTO LIKES VALUES(n.drinker, n.beer);
    INSERT INTO SELLS(bar, beer) VALUES(n.bar, n.beer);
    INSERT INTO FREQUENTS VALUES(n.drinker, n.bar);
  END;
```

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