

Relational Algebra and SQL

Chapter 5

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Relational Query Languages

- Languages for describing queries on a relational database
- *Structured Query Language (SQL)*
 - Predominant application-level query language
 - Declarative
- *Relational Algebra*
 - Intermediate language used within DBMS
 - Procedural

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What is an Algebra?

- A language based on operators and a domain of values
- Operators map values taken from the domain into other domain values
- Hence, an expression involving operators and arguments produces a value in the domain
- When the domain is a set of all relations (and the operators are as described later), we get the *relational algebra*
- We refer to the expression as a *query* and the value produced as the *query result*

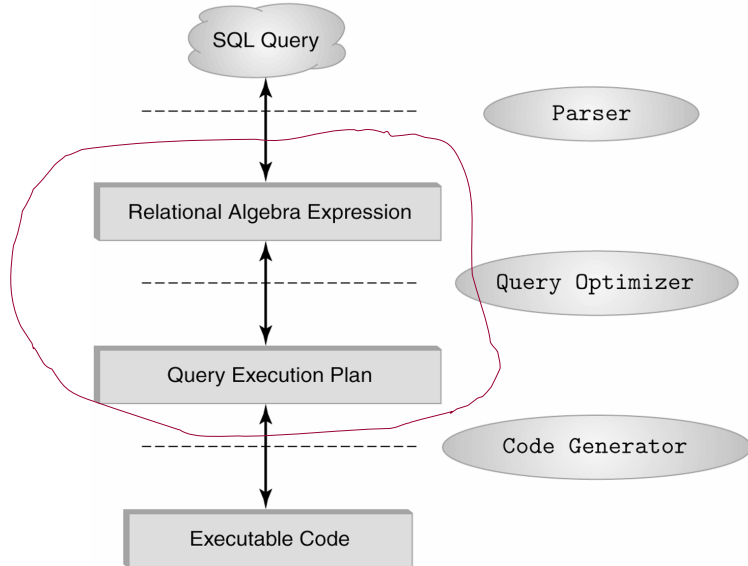
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Relational Algebra

- *Domain*: set of relations
- *Basic operators*: select, project, union, set difference, Cartesian product
- *Derived operators*: set intersection, division, join
- *Procedural*: Relational expression specifies query by describing an algorithm (the sequence in which operators are applied) for determining the result of an expression

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The Role of Relational Algebra in a DBMS



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Select Operator

- Produce table containing subset of rows of argument table satisfying condition

$$\sigma_{condition}(relation)$$

- Example:

Person

<i>Id</i>	<i>Name</i>	<i>Address</i>	<i>Hobby</i>
1123	John	123 Main	stamps
1123	John	123 Main	coins
5556	Mary	7 Lake Dr	hiking
9876	Bart	5 Pine St	stamps

$\sigma_{Hobby='stamps'}(Person)$

<i>Id</i>	<i>Name</i>	<i>Address</i>	<i>Hobby</i>
1123	John	123 Main	stamps
9876	Bart	5 Pine St	stamps

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Selection Condition

- Operators: $<$, \leq , \geq , $>$, $=$, \neq
- Simple selection condition:
 - $\langle \text{attribute} \rangle \text{ operator } \langle \text{constant} \rangle$
 - $\langle \text{attribute} \rangle \text{ operator } \langle \text{attribute} \rangle$
- $\langle \text{condition} \rangle$ AND $\langle \text{condition} \rangle$
- $\langle \text{condition} \rangle$ OR $\langle \text{condition} \rangle$
- NOT $\langle \text{condition} \rangle$

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Selection Condition - Examples

- $\sigma_{Id > 3000 \text{ OR } Hobby = 'hiking'}(\text{Person})$
- $\sigma_{Id > 3000 \text{ AND } Id < 3999}(\text{Person})$
- $\sigma_{\text{NOT}(Hobby = 'hiking')}(\text{Person})$
- $\sigma_{Hobby \neq 'hiking'}(\text{Person})$

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Project Operator

- Produces table containing subset of columns of argument table

$$\pi_{\text{attribute list}}(\text{relation})$$

- Example:

Person

<i>Id</i>	<i>Name</i>	<i>Address</i>	<i>Hobby</i>
1123	John	123 Main	stamps
1123	John	123 Main	coins
5556	Mary	7 Lake Dr	hiking
9876	Bart	5 Pine St	stamps

$\pi_{\text{Name,Hobby}}(\text{Person})$

<i>Name</i>	<i>Hobby</i>
John	stamps
John	coins
Mary	hiking
Bart	stamps

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Project Operator

- Example:

Person

<i>Id</i>	<i>Name</i>	<i>Address</i>	<i>Hobby</i>
1123	John	123 Main	stamps
1123	John	123 Main	coins
5556	Mary	7 Lake Dr	hiking
9876	Bart	5 Pine St	stamps

$\pi_{\text{Name,Address}}(\text{Person})$

<i>Name</i>	<i>Address</i>
John	123 Main
Mary	7 Lake Dr
Bart	5 Pine St

Result is a table (no duplicates); can have fewer tuples than the original

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Expressions

$\pi_{Id, Name} (\sigma_{Hobby='stamps' \text{ OR } Hobby='coins'} (\text{Person}))$

<i>Id</i>	<i>Name</i>	<i>Address</i>	<i>Hobby</i>
1123	John	123 Main	stamps
1123	John	123 Main	coins
5556	Mary	7 Lake Dr	hiking
9876	Bart	5 Pine St	stamps

Person

<i>Id</i>	<i>Name</i>
1123	John
9876	Bart

Result

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Set Operators

- Relation is a set of tuples, so set operations should apply: \cap , \cup , $-$ (set difference)
- Result of combining two relations with a set operator is a relation \Rightarrow all its elements must be tuples having same structure
- Hence, scope of set operations limited to *union compatible relations*

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Union Compatible Relations

- Two relations are *union compatible* if
 - Both have same number of columns
 - Names of attributes are the same in both
 - Attributes with the same name in both relations have the same domain
- Union compatible relations can be combined using *union*, *intersection*, and *set difference*

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Example

Tables:

Person (*SSN, Name, Address, Hobby*)

Professor (*Id, Name, Office, Phone*)

are not union compatible.

But

$\pi_{Name}(\text{Person})$ and $\pi_{Name}(\text{Professor})$

are union compatible so

$\pi_{Name}(\text{Person}) - \pi_{Name}(\text{Professor})$

makes sense.

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Cartesian Product

- If R and S are two relations, $R \times S$ is the set of all concatenated tuples $\langle x, y \rangle$, where x is a tuple in R and y is a tuple in S
 - R and S need not be union compatible
- $R \times S$ is expensive to compute:
 - Factor of two in the size of each row
 - Quadratic in the number of rows

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Renaming

- Result of expression evaluation is a relation
- Attributes of relation must have distinct names. This is not guaranteed with Cartesian product
 - e.g., suppose in previous example a and c have the same name
- Renaming operator tidies this up. To assign the names A_1, A_2, \dots, A_n to the attributes of the n column relation produced by expression $expr$ use

$$expr [A_1, A_2, \dots, A_n]$$

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Example

Transcript (*StudId*, *CrsCode*, *Semester*, *Grade*)

Teaching (*ProfId*, *CrsCode*, *Semester*)

$\pi_{StudId, CrsCode}(\text{Transcript})[StudId, CrsCode1]$
 $\times \pi_{ProfId, CrsCode}(\text{Teaching}) [ProfId, CrsCode2]$

This is a relation with 4 attributes:

StudId, *CrsCode1*, *ProfId*, *CrsCode2*

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Derived Operation: Join

A (*general* or *theta*) *join* of R and S is the expression

$R \bowtie_{join-condition} S$

where *join-condition* is a *conjunction* of terms:

$A_i \text{ oper } B_i$

in which A_i is an attribute of R ; B_i is an attribute of S ;

and *oper* is one of =, <, >, \geq , \neq , \leq .

The meaning is:

$\sigma_{join-condition'}(R \times S)$

where *join-condition* and *join-condition'* are the same, except for possible renamings of attributes (next)

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Join and Renaming

- **Problem:** R and S might have attributes with the same name – in which case the Cartesian product is not defined
- **Solutions:**
 1. Rename attributes prior to forming the product and use new names in *join-condition*.
 2. Qualify common attribute names with relation names (thereby disambiguating the names). For instance: *Transcript.CrsCode* or *Teaching.CrsCode*
 - This solution is nice, but doesn't always work: consider

$$R \bowtie_{\text{join-condition}} R$$

In $R.A$, how do we know which R is meant?

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Theta Join – Example

$\text{Employee}(\text{Name}, \text{Id}, \text{MngrId}, \text{Salary})$

$\text{Manager}(\text{Name}, \text{Id}, \text{Salary})$

Output the names of all employees that earn more than their managers.

$$\pi_{\text{Employee.Name}} (\text{Employee} \bowtie_{\text{MngrId=Id AND Salary>Salary}} \text{Manager})$$

The join yields a table with attributes:

$\text{Employee.Name}, \text{Employee.Id}, \text{Employee.Salary}, \text{MngrId}$

$\text{Manager.Name}, \text{Manager.Id}, \text{Manager.Salary}$

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Equijoin Join - Example

Equijoin: Join condition is a conjunction of *equalities*.

$\pi_{Name, CrsCode}(\text{Student} \bowtie_{Id=StudId} \sigma_{Grade='A'}(\text{Transcript}))$

Student				Transcript			
<i>Id</i>	<i>Name</i>	<i>Addr</i>	<i>Status</i>	<i>StudId</i>	<i>CrsCode</i>	<i>Sem</i>	<i>Grade</i>
111	John	111	CSE305	S00	B
222	Mary	222	CSE306	S99	A
333	Bill	333	CSE304	F99	A
444	Joe				

Mary	CSE306
Bill	CSE304

The equijoin is used very frequently since it combines related data in different relations.

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Natural Join

- Special case of equijoin:
 - join condition equates *all* and *only* those attributes with the same name (condition doesn't have to be explicitly stated)
 - duplicate columns eliminated from the result

Transcript (<i>StudId</i> , <i>CrsCode</i> , <i>Sem</i> , <i>Grade</i>)
Teaching (<i>ProfId</i> , <i>CrsCode</i> , <i>Sem</i>)

Transcript \bowtie Teaching =

$\pi_{StudId, Transcript.CrsCode, Transcript.Sem, Grade, ProfId}$
 (Transcript $\bowtie_{CrsCode=CrsCode \text{ AND } Sem=Sem}$ Teaching)
 [StudId, CrsCode, Sem, Grade, ProfId]

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Natural Join (cont'd)

- More generally:

$$R \bowtie S = \pi_{attr-list} (\sigma_{join-cond} (R \times S))$$

where

$attr-list = attributes(R) \cup attributes(S)$
 (duplicates are eliminated) and $join-cond$ has
 the form:

$$A_1 = A_1 \text{ AND } \dots \text{ AND } A_n = A_n$$

where

$$\{A_1 \dots A_n\} = attributes(R) \cap attributes(S)$$

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Natural Join Example

- List all Ids of students who took at least two different courses:

$$\pi_{StudId} (\sigma_{CrsCode \neq CrsCode2} ($$

$$\text{Transcript} \bowtie$$

$$\text{Transcript} [StudId, CrsCode2, Sem2, Grade2]))$$

We don't want to join on $CrsCode$, Sem , and $Grade$ attributes,
 hence renaming!

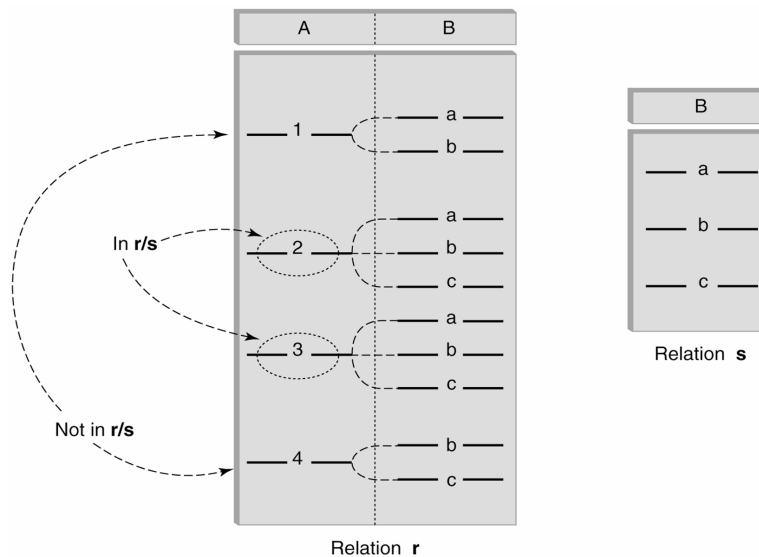
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Division

- Goal: Produce the tuples in one relation, r , that match *all* tuples in another relation, s
 - $r(A_1, \dots, A_n, B_1, \dots, B_m)$
 - $s(B_1 \dots B_m)$
 - r/s , with attributes A_1, \dots, A_n , is the set of all tuples $\langle a \rangle$ such that for every tuple $\langle b \rangle$ in s , $\langle a, b \rangle$ is in r
- Can be expressed in terms of projection, set difference, and cross-product

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Division (cont'd)



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Division - Example

- List the Ids of students who have passed *all* courses that were taught in spring 2000
- *Numerator*:
 - *StudId* and *CrsCode* for every course passed by every student:
$$\pi_{StudId, CrsCode} (\sigma_{Grade \neq 'F'} (\text{Transcript}))$$
- *Denominator*:
 - *CrsCode* of all courses taught in spring 2000
$$\pi_{CrsCode} (\sigma_{Semester='S2000'} (\text{Teaching}))$$
- Result is *numerator/denominator*

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Schema for Student Registration System

Student (*Id, Name, Addr, Status*)
Professor (*Id, Name, DeptId*)
Course (*DeptId, CrsCode, CrsName, Descr*)
Transcript (*StudId, CrsCode, Semester, Grade*)
Teaching (*ProfId, CrsCode, Semester*)
Department (*DeptId, Name*)

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Query Sublanguage of SQL

```
SELECT C.CrsName
FROM Course C
WHERE C.DeptId = 'CS'
```

- *Tuple variable* C ranges over rows of Course.
- Evaluation strategy:
 - FROM clause produces Cartesian product of listed tables
 - WHERE clause assigns rows to C in sequence and produces table containing only rows satisfying condition
 - SELECT clause retains listed columns
- Equivalent to: $\pi_{CrName} \sigma_{DeptId='CS'}(\text{Course})$

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Join Queries

```
SELECT C.CrsName
FROM Course C, Teaching T
WHERE C.CrsCode=T.CrsCode AND T.Semester='S2000'
```

- List CS courses taught in S2000
- Tuple variables clarify meaning.
- Join condition “C.CrsCode=T.CrsCode”
 - relates facts to each other
- Selection condition “ T.Semester='S2000' ”
 - eliminates irrelevant rows
- Equivalent (using natural join) to:

$$\pi_{CrName}(\text{Course} \bowtie \sigma_{Semester='S2000'}(\text{Teaching}))$$
$$\pi_{CrName}(\sigma_{Sem='S2000'}(\text{Course} \bowtie \text{Teaching}))$$

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Correspondence Between SQL and Relational Algebra

```
SELECT C.CrsName
FROM Course C, Teaching T
WHERE C.CrsCode = T.CrsCode AND T.Semester = 'S2000'
```

Also equivalent to:

$$\pi_{CrName} \sigma_{C_CrCode=T_CrCode \text{ AND } Semester='S2000'} \\ (\text{Course} [C_CrCode, DeptId, CrName, Desc] \\ \times \text{Teaching} [ProfId, T_CrCode, Semester])$$

- This is the simplest evaluation algorithm for SELECT.
- Relational algebra expressions are procedural.
 - Which of the two equivalent expressions is more easily evaluated?

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Self-join Queries

Find Ids of all professors who taught at least two courses in the same semester:

```
SELECT T1.ProfId
FROM Teaching T1, Teaching T2
WHERE T1.ProfId = T2.ProfId
      AND T1.Semester = T2.Semester
      AND T1.CrsCode <> T2.CrsCode
```

Tuple variables are essential in this query!

Equivalent to:

$$\pi_{ProfId} (\sigma_{T1.CrsCode \neq T2.CrsCode} (\text{Teaching} [ProfId, T1.CrsCode, Semester] \\ \bowtie \text{Teaching} [ProfId, T2.CrsCode, Semester]))$$

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Duplicates

- Duplicate rows not allowed in a relation
- However, duplicate elimination from query result is costly and not done by default; must be explicitly requested:

```
SELECT DISTINCT .....  
FROM .....
```

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Use of Expressions

Equality and comparison operators apply to strings (based on lexical ordering)

```
WHERE S.Name < 'P'
```

Concatenate operator applies to strings

```
WHERE S.Name || '--' || S.Address = ...
```

Expressions can also be used in SELECT clause:

```
SELECT S.Name || '--' || S.Address AS NmAdd  
FROM Student S
```

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Set Operators

- SQL provides UNION, EXCEPT (set difference), and INTERSECT for union compatible tables
- Example: Find all professors in the CS Department and all professors that have taught CS courses

```
(SELECT P.Name
FROM Professor P, Teaching T
WHERE P.Id=T.ProfId AND T.CrsCode LIKE 'CS%')
UNION
(SELECT P.Name
FROM Professor P
WHERE P.DeptId = 'CS')
```

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Nested Queries

List all courses that were not taught in S2000

```
SELECT C.CrsName
FROM Course C
WHERE C.CrsCode NOT IN
  (SELECT T.CrsCode --subquery
   FROM Teaching T
   WHERE T.Sem = 'S2000')
```

Evaluation strategy: subquery evaluated once to produces set of courses taught in S2000. Each row (as C) tested against this set.

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Correlated Nested Queries

Output a row $\langle prof, dept \rangle$ if *prof* has taught a course in *dept*.

```
SELECT P.Name, D.Name           --outer query
FROM Professor P, Department D
WHERE P.Id IN
    -- set of all ProfId's who have taught a course in D.DeptId
    (SELECT T.ProfId           --subquery
     FROM Teaching T, Course C
     WHERE T.CrsCode=C.CrsCode AND
           C.DeptId=D.DeptId  --correlation
    )
```

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Correlated Nested Queries (con't)

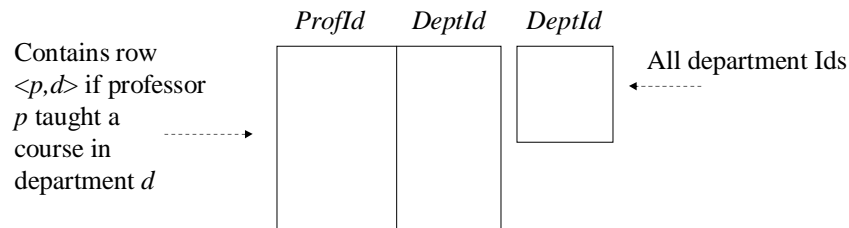
- Tuple variables T and C are *local* to subquery
- Tuple variables P and D are *global* to subquery
- *Correlation*: subquery uses a global variable, D
- The value of *D.DeptId* parameterizes an evaluation of the subquery
- Subquery must (at least) be re-evaluated for each distinct value of *D.DeptId*

- *Correlated queries can be expensive to evaluate*

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Division in SQL

- *Query type*: Find the subset of items in one set that are related to *all* items in another set
- *Example*: Find professors who taught courses in *all* departments
 - Why does this involve division?



$$\pi_{\text{ProfId, DeptId}}(\text{Teaching} \bowtie \text{Course}) / \pi_{\text{DeptId}}(\text{Department})$$

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Division in SQL

- *Strategy for implementing division in SQL*:
 - Find set, A, of all departments in which a particular professor, p , has taught a course
 - Find set, B, of all departments
 - Output p if $A \supseteq B$, or, equivalently, if $B - A$ is empty

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Division – SQL Solution

```
SELECT P.Id
FROM Professor P
WHERE NOT EXISTS
  (SELECT D.DeptId      -- set B of all dept Ids
   FROM Department D
   EXCEPT
   SELECT C.DeptId     -- set A of dept Ids of depts in
                        -- which P taught a course
   FROM Teaching T, Course C
   WHERE T.ProfId=P.Id -- global variable
         AND T.CrsCode=C.CrsCode)
```

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Aggregates

- Functions that operate on sets:
 - COUNT, SUM, AVG, MAX, MIN
- Produce numbers (not tables)
- Not part of relational algebra (but not hard to add)

```
SELECT COUNT(*)      SELECT MAX (Salary)
FROM Professor P     FROM Employee E
```

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Aggregates (cont'd)

Count the number of courses taught in S2000

```
SELECT COUNT (T.CrsCode)
FROM Teaching T
WHERE T.Semester = 'S2000'
```

But if multiple sections of same course
are taught, use:

```
SELECT COUNT (DISTINCT T.CrsCode)
FROM Teaching T
WHERE T.Semester = 'S2000'
```

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Grouping

- But how do we compute the number of courses taught in S2000 *per professor*?

– Strategy 1: Fire off a separate query for each professor:

```
SELECT COUNT(T.CrsCode)
FROM Teaching T
WHERE T.Semester = 'S2000' AND T.ProfId = 123456789
```

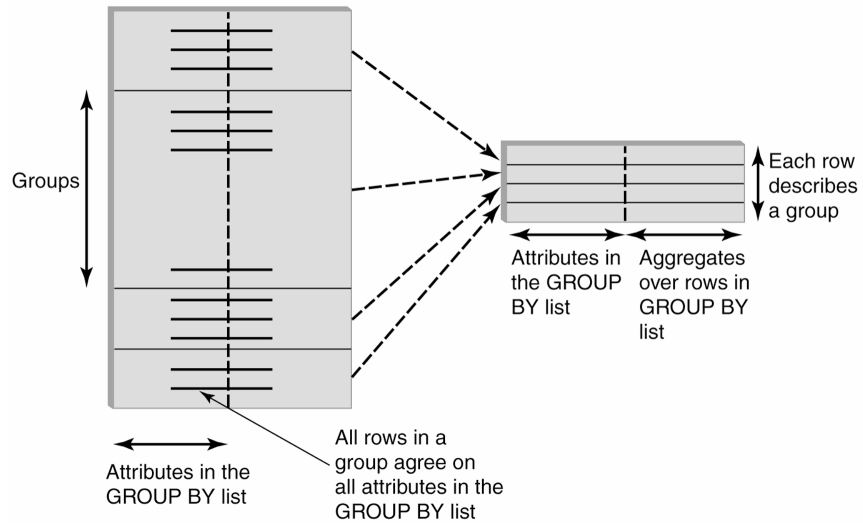
- Cumbersome
- What if the number of professors changes? Add another query?

– Strategy 2: define a special *grouping operator*:

```
SELECT T.ProfId, COUNT(T.CrsCode)
FROM Teaching T
WHERE T.Semester = 'S2000'
GROUP BY T.ProfId
```

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GROUP BY



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GROUP BY - Example

Transcript

1234	
1234	
1234	
1234	

1234	3.3	4

Attributes:

- student's *Id*
- avg grade
- number of courses

```
SELECT T.StudId, AVG(T.Grade), COUNT (*)
FROM Transcript T
GROUP BY T.StudId
```

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HAVING Clause

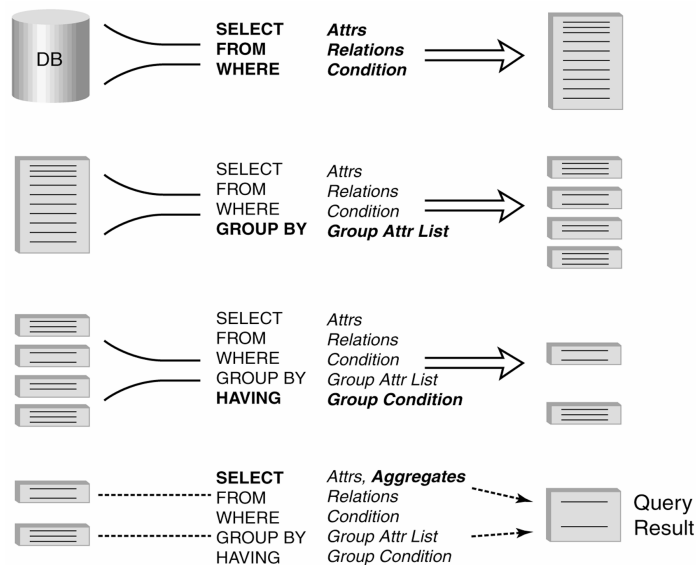
- Eliminates unwanted groups (analogous to WHERE clause, but works on groups instead of individual tuples)
- HAVING condition is constructed from attributes of GROUP BY list and aggregates on attributes not in that list

```

SELECT T.StudId,
       AVG(T.Grade) AS CumGpa,
       COUNT(*) AS NumCrs
FROM Transcript T
WHERE T.CrsCode LIKE 'CS%'
GROUP BY T.StudId
HAVING AVG(T.Grade) > 3.5
    
```

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Evaluation of GroupBy with Having



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Example

- Output the name and address of all seniors on the Dean's List

```
SELECT S.Id, S.Name
FROM Student S, Transcript T
WHERE S.Id = T.StudId AND S.Status = 'senior'
```

```
GROUP BY < S.Id          -- wrong
          S.Id, S.Name    -- right
```

Every attribute that occurs in SELECT clause must also occur in GROUP BY or it must be an aggregate. S.Name does not.

```
HAVING AVG (T.Grade) > 3.5 AND SUM (T.Credit) > 90
```

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Aggregates: Proper and Improper Usage

```
SELECT COUNT (T.CrsCode), T.ProfId
      – makes no sense (in the absence of
      GROUP BY clause)
```

```
SELECT COUNT (*), AVG (T.Grade)
      – but this is OK
```

```
WHERE T.Grade > COUNT (SELECT ...)
      – aggregate cannot be applied to result
      of SELECT statement
```

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ORDER BY Clause

- Causes rows to be output in a specified order

```
SELECT T.StudId, COUNT (*) AS NumCrs,  
       AVG(T.Grade) AS CumGpa  
FROM   Transcript T  
WHERE  T.CrsCode LIKE 'CS%'  
GROUP BY T.StudId  
HAVING AVG (T.Grade) > 3.5  
ORDER BY DESC CumGpa, ASC StudId
```

Descending

Ascending

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Query Evaluation with GROUP BY, HAVING, ORDER BY

- As before
- 1 Evaluate FROM: produces Cartesian product, A, of tables in FROM list
 - 2 Evaluate WHERE: produces table, B, consisting of rows of A that satisfy WHERE condition
 - 3 Evaluate GROUP BY: partitions B into groups that agree on attribute values in GROUP BY list
 - 4 Evaluate HAVING: eliminates groups in B that do not satisfy HAVING condition
 - 5 Evaluate SELECT: produces table C containing a row for each group. Attributes in SELECT list limited to those in GROUP BY list and aggregates over group
 - 6 Evaluate ORDER BY: orders rows of C

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Views

- Used as a relation, but rows are not physically stored.
 - The contents of a view is *computed* when it is used within an SQL statement
- View is the result of a SELECT statement over other views and base relations
- When used in an SQL statement, the view definition is substituted for the view name in the statement
 - As SELECT statement nested in FROM clause

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View - Example

```
CREATE VIEW CumGpa (StudId, Cum) AS
SELECT T.StudId, AVG (T.Grade)
FROM Transcript T
GROUP BY T.StudId
```

```
SELECT S.Name, C.Cum
FROM CumGpa C, Student S
WHERE C.StudId = S.StudId AND C.Cum > 3.5
```

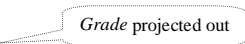
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View Benefits

- *Access Control*: Users not granted access to base tables. Instead they are granted access to the view of the database appropriate to their needs.
 - *External schema* is composed of views.
 - View allows owner to provide SELECT access to a subset of columns (analogous to providing UPDATE and INSERT access to a subset of columns)

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Views – Limiting Visibility

Grade projected out

```
CREATE VIEW PartOfTranscript (StudId, CrsCode, Semester) AS
  SELECT T. StudId, T. CrsCode, T. Semester  -- limit columns
  FROM Transcript T
  WHERE T. Semester = 'S2000'                -- limit rows
```

Give permissions to access data through view:

```
GRANT SELECT ON PartOfTranscript TO joe
```

This would have been analogous to:

```
GRANT SELECT (StudId,CrsCode,Semester)
              ON Transcript TO joe
```

on regular tables, if SQL allowed attribute lists in GRANT SELECT

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View Benefits (cont'd)

- *Customization*: Users need not see full complexity of database. View creates the illusion of a simpler database customized to the needs of a particular category of users
- A view is *similar in many ways to a subroutine* in standard programming
 - Can be reused in multiple queries

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Nulls

- *Conditions*: $x \text{ op } y$ (where op is $<$, $>$, $<>$, $=$, etc.) has value *unknown* (U) when either x or y is null
 - WHERE $T.cost > T.price$
- *Arithmetic expression*: $x \text{ op } y$ (where op is $+$, $-$, $*$, etc.) has value NULL if x or y is NULL
 - WHERE $(T.price/T.cost) > 2$
- *Aggregates*: COUNT counts NULLs like any other value; other aggregates ignore NULLs

```
SELECT COUNT (T.CrsCode), AVG (T.Grade)
FROM Transcript T
WHERE T.StudId = '1234'
```

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Nulls (cont'd)

- WHERE clause uses a *three-valued logic* – *T, F, U(undefined)* – to filter rows. Portion of truth table:

<i>C1</i>	<i>C2</i>	<i>C1 AND C2</i>	<i>C1 OR C2</i>
T	U	U	T
F	U	F	U
U	U	U	U

- Rows are discarded if WHERE condition is *F(false)* or *U(unknown)*
- Ex: WHERE *T.CrsCode = 'CS305' AND T.Grade > 2.5*

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Modifying Tables – Insert

- Inserting a single row into a table
 - Attribute list can be omitted if it is the same as in CREATE TABLE (but do not omit it)
 - NULL and DEFAULT values can be specified

```
INSERT INTO Transcript(StudId, CrsCode, Semester, Grade)  
VALUES (12345, 'CSE305', 'S2000', NULL)
```

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Bulk Insertion

- Insert the rows output by a SELECT

```
CREATE TABLE DeansList (  
    StudId    INTEGER,  
    Credits   INTEGER,  
    CumGpa   FLOAT,  
    PRIMARY KEY StudId )  
  
INSERT INTO DeansList (StudId, Credits, CumGpa)  
SELECT      T.StudId, 3 * COUNT (*), AVG(T.Grade)  
FROM        Transcript T  
GROUP BY   T.StudId  
HAVING     AVG (T.Grade) > 3.5 AND COUNT(*) > 30
```

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Modifying Tables – Delete

- Similar to SELECT except:
 - No project list in DELETE clause
 - No Cartesian product in FROM clause (only 1 table name)
 - Rows satisfying WHERE clause (general form, including subqueries, allowed) are deleted instead of output

```
DELETE FROM Transcript T  
WHERE T.Grade IS NULL AND T.Semester <> 'S2000'
```

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Modifying Data - Update

```
UPDATE Employee E
SET      E.Salary = E.Salary * 1.05
WHERE   E.Department = 'R&D'
```

- Updates rows in a single table
- All rows satisfying WHERE clause (general form, including subqueries, allowed) are updated

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Updating Views

- Question: Since views look like tables to users, can they be updated?
- Answer: Yes – a view update changes the underlying base table to produce the requested change to the view

```
CREATE VIEW CsReg (StudId, CrsCode, Semester) AS
SELECT      T.StudId, T. CrsCode, T.Semester
FROM        Transcript T
WHERE       T.CrsCode LIKE 'CS%' AND T.Semester='S2000'
```

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Updating Views - Problem 1

```
INSERT INTO CsReg (StudId, CrsCode, Semester)  
VALUES (1111, 'CSE305', 'S2000')
```

- **Question:** What value should be placed in attributes of underlying table that have been projected out (e.g., *Grade*)?
- **Answer:** NULL (assuming null allowed in the missing attribute) or DEFAULT

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Updating Views - Problem 2

```
INSERT INTO CsReg (StudId, CrsCode, Semester)  
VALUES (1111, 'ECO105', 'S2000')
```

- **Problem:** New tuple not in view
- **Solution:** Allow insertion (assuming the WITH CHECK OPTION clause has not been appended to the CREATE VIEW statement)

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Updating Views - Problem 3

- Update to a view might *not uniquely* specify the change to the base table(s) that results in the desired modification of the view (ambiguity)

```
CREATE VIEW ProfDept (PrName, DeName) AS
SELECT  P.Name, D.Name
FROM    Professor P, Department D
WHERE   P.DeptId = D.DeptId
```

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Updating Views - Problem 3 (cont'd)

- Tuple <Smith, CS> can be deleted from ProfDept by:
 - Deleting row for Smith from Professor (but this is inappropriate if he is still at the University)
 - Deleting row for CS from Department (not what is intended)
 - Updating row for Smith in Professor by setting *DeptId* to null (seems like a good idea, but how would the computer know?)

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Updating Views - Restrictions

- Updatable views are restricted to those in which
 - No Cartesian product in FROM clause
 - no aggregates, GROUP BY, HAVING
 - ...

For example, if we allowed:

```
CREATE VIEW AvgSalary (DeptId, Avg_Sal) AS
  SELECT E.DeptId, AVG(E.Salary)
  FROM   Employee E
  GROUP BY E.DeptId
```

then how do we handle:

```
UPDATE AvgSalary
  SET Avg_Sal = 1.1 * Avg_Sal
```

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