

Companion Web Site

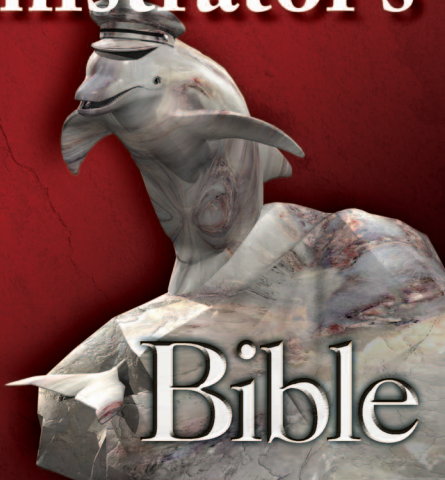
Sheeri K. Cabral and Keith Murphy

MySQL[®] Administrator's

Learn best practices for
administering MySQL

Transition from other
databases to MySQL

Optimize MySQL
queries and schemas



The book you need to succeed!

MySQL[®] Administrator's Bible

**Chapter 4: How MySQL
Extends and Deviates from SQL**

ISBN: 978-0-470-41691-4

**Sheeri K. Cabral
Keith Murphy**



WILEY

Copyright of Wiley Publishing, Inc.
Posted with Permission

Chapter 4

How MySQL Extends and Deviates from SQL

Mysql was originally designed with three basic ideas in mind: to be fast, reliable, and easy to use. Like every database system, MySQL does not completely follow the SQL standard and has its own extensions to SQL. Some very basic SQL standards, however, did not exist for a very long time — the data dictionary was only added in MySQL 5.0, released in October 2005.

MySQL became popular because of its relative ease of use. For example, the SQL standard way of finding out which tables are in the `sakila` database is:

```
SELECT TABLE_NAME
FROM INFORMATION_SCHEMA.TABLES
WHERE TABLE_SCHEMA='sakila';
```

The easiest way to find out this information in MySQL is:

```
SHOW TABLES FROM sakila;
```

Most of the differences from standard SQL and SQL extensions in MySQL come from the desire to make the database system easy to use. In the past several years, there has been more of a commitment to support the current SQL standard — as of the time of the writing of this book, that standard is the ANSI/ISO SQL:2003 standard. When we refer to “the SQL standard” or “standard SQL,” we are referring to ANSI/ISO SQL:2003.

For information on the different SQL modes supported, see Chapter 5.

IN THIS CHAPTER

Learning MySQL language Structure

Understanding MySQL deviations

Using MySQL extensions

Using the Sample Database

In Chapter 3, you imported the `sakila` sample database. Throughout this chapter and the rest of the book, we will be using the `sakila` sample database to demonstrate database features. The `sakila` sample database was created by Mike Hillyer and contains data that might be found in a video rental store. For the purpose of our examples, we refer to a fictional video store whose data is stored in the `sakila` database and whose owner, Ziesel Skelley, uses a MySQL backend to store and query her company's information.

Learning MySQL Language Structure

Before getting into the extensions to SQL and deviations from SQL, there are some important rules to know about some of the language structure in MySQL, specifically relating to:

- Comments and portability
- Case-sensitivity
- Escape characters
- Naming limitations
- Quoting
- Time zones
- Character sets and collations

While some of these may be seen as SQL deviations or extensions, they are important enough to discuss before learning about the rest of MySQL's customized SQL syntax.

ON the WEBSITE If you are new to SQL, there is an **SQL Primer** on the accompanying website for this book at www.wiley.com/go/mysqladminbible.

Comments and portability

One of the cleverest MySQL extensions to the SQL standard is actually a way to manage portability. In some cases, portability of the schema and queries is desired, but being able to use MySQL-specific extensions when the environment is right is also desired. MySQL has an extension that specifies a MySQL version as part of a comment. The comment will be only parsed if the `mysqld` server is of an appropriate version; otherwise, the comment will be left as a comment and ignored by other databases and `mysqld` versions.

The `--` is the standard SQL simple comment introducer. Everything on a line after this is considered a comment. The SQL standard bracketed comment introducer and terminator `/* */` allow

partial line and multi-line commenting. Putting ! after the bracketed comment introducer indicates that this is MySQL specific code, and the `mysqld` server will parse it:

```
/*! SHOW DATABASES */;
```

The `mysqld` server will parse the `SHOW DATABASES` statement, but other database systems will not — that is, if the other database systems follow the SQL standard for comments. A five-digit number after the ! can be used to specify a minimum `mysqld` version. The first digit of the number is the major version, the next two digits are the minor version, and the last two digits are the revision number. For example, the output of `mysqldump sakila` starts with:

```
-- MySQL dump 10.13  Distrib 6.0.8-alpha
--
-- Host: localhost      Database: sakila
--
-----
-- Server version      6.0.8-alpha

/*!40101 SET @OLD_CHARACTER_SET_CLIENT=@@CHARACTER_SET_CLIENT */;
/*!40101 SET @OLD_CHARACTER_SET_RESULTS=@@CHARACTER_SET_RESULTS */;
/*!40101 SET @OLD_COLLATION_CONNECTION=@@COLLATION_CONNECTION */;
/*!40101 SET NAMES utf8 */;
/*!40103 SET @OLD_TIME_ZONE=@@TIME_ZONE */;
/*!40103 SET TIME_ZONE='+00:00' */;
/*!40014 SET @OLD_UNIQUE_CHECKS=@@UNIQUE_CHECKS, UNIQUE_CHECKS=0 */;
/*!40014 SET @OLD_FOREIGN_KEY_CHECKS=@@FOREIGN_KEY_CHECKS,
FOREIGN_KEY_CHECKS=0
*/;
/*!40101 SET @OLD_SQL_MODE=@@SQL_MODE, SQL_MODE='NO_AUTO_VALUE_
ON_ZERO' */;
/*!40111 SET @OLD_SQL_NOTES=@@SQL_NOTES, SQL_NOTES=0 */;
```

This means that `mysqld` versions 4.1.1 and higher will apply the first statement, and `mysqld` versions 4.1.11 and higher will apply the last statement. A comment that will only be applied to `mysqld` versions 6.0.8 and higher begins with `/*!60008`.

While this syntax makes the code portable, it does not guarantee that the code will work as expected. For example, `mysqldump` exports tables in alphabetical order. The `SET FOREIGN_KEY_CHECKS=0` statement is utilized so that a table with a foreign key constraint can be imported even if the referencing table has not yet been created. Attempting to import this on a different database server should result in an error, because a reference is being generated to a table that does not exist.

MySQL extends commenting by parsing anything after an unquoted, unescaped `#` as a comment, regardless of whitespace around the `#`:

```
mysql> SELECT#example of # as a comment
-> 0;
```

```

+----+
| 0 |
+----+
| 0 |
+----+
1 row in set (0.00 sec)

```

See the “Escape characters” and “Naming limitations and quoting” sections in this chapter for more information on escaping and quoting characters.

Case-sensitivity

Traditionally, SQL reserved words are written in uppercase, such as `SELECT`, `FROM`, `NULL`, and `AS`. These words are case-insensitive, meaning that `SELECT`, `select`, and `SeLeCt` are all parsed by `mysqld` as the same reserved word. Throughout this book, we will format reserved words in uppercase, even though `mysqld` will properly parse reserved words regardless of case.

In general, `mysqld` is case-insensitive with respect to names of fields, indexes, stored routines and events. However, `mysqld` stores information on the file system and makes assumptions based on the files and directories found on the file system. For example, `mysqld` assumes that any directory in the data directory (`datadir`) is a database. This means that a directory with a path of `datadir/backup` will show up as a database named `backup` when `SHOW DATABASES` is run — whether or not `backup` was intended to be a database. All tables must have a `.frm` format file within the directory that represents the database they belong to; otherwise, `mysqld` does not recognize the table as existing.

MyISAM tables are defined by a `.frm` format file, a `.MYD` data file, and a `.MYI` index file (see Chapter 11 for more information on MyISAM tables). It is possible to move a MyISAM table to a different database by moving the associated files to a different directory. It is also possible to rename a MyISAM table by renaming the associated files. However, it is not recommended that you make these types of changes. To change the database of the `move_me` table from `test` to `test2`, issue the statement:

```
ALTER TABLE test.move_me RENAME test2.move_me;
```

To change the name of the `move_me` table to `keep_me`, issue:

```
ALTER TABLE move_me RENAME keep_me;
```

NOTE

It is not necessarily harmful to have a directory appear as a database (such as a `lost+found` directory). However, this may lead to errors with code that automatically traverse all databases, such as a custom backup script. It is important to be extremely careful when deleting and moving directories and files within the data directory and dropping databases.

The way `mysqld` stores information on the file system has the consequence that some names are case-sensitive, if the file system is case-sensitive. Unix has a case-sensitive file system, and

Windows has a case-insensitive file system. Mac OS X uses a case-insensitive file system by default, although it supports other, case-sensitive file systems. Case-sensitivity for names is determined by whether or not the file system is case-sensitive for the following:

- Databases
- Tablespaces
- Tables
- Views
- Aliases
- Triggers
- Log file groups

In general, there should not be problems unless the databases are used on different file systems, for example when migrating from one file system to another. The static, global `lower_case_table_names` system variable can be set to change the default behavior of `mysqld`:

- If `lower_case_table_names=0` is set, table and database names are stored using the case specified in the `CREATE` statement. In queries, table names, table aliases, and database names are case-sensitive. This is the default value on Unix, where the file system is case-sensitive.
- If `lower_case_table_names=1` is set, table and database names are stored using lowercase. In queries, table names, table aliases, and database names are case-insensitive — they are actually converted to lowercase by `mysqld`. This is the default value on Windows, where the file system is case-insensitive.
- If `lower_case_table_names=2` is set, most table and database names are stored using the case specified in the `CREATE` statement. The exception is InnoDB table names, which are stored using lowercase. In queries, table names, table aliases, and database names are case-insensitive — they are converted to lowercase by `mysqld`, as they are when the value is set to 1. This is the default value on Mac OS X.

TIP

Come up with a naming convention that includes rules about case. For example, perhaps databases and tables will be all lowercase, with underscores to show different words (such as in `table_name`) and fields will use *camelCase* (such as in `fieldName`). In this way, the issue of case is resolved, no matter what platform is being used.

Escape characters

The escape character is the backslash (`\`). An *escape sequence* is a backslash followed by one character. Chapter 3 discussed some commands that looked like escape sequences such as `\P` and `\u` — these are actually translated into other commands by the `mysql` command line client. However, `mysqld` has actual escape sequences, which are independent of the `mysql` commands.

These escape sequences are used only within strings (the `mysql` ones are not within strings) and are parsed unless the `NO_BACKSLASH_ESCAPES` SQL mode is set. See Chapter 5 for more information on SQL modes.

The escape sequences for strings in `mysqld` are:

- `\\` to print the `\` character.
- `\'` to print the `'` character, even if the string is quoted with `'`.
- `\"` to print the `"` character, even if the string is quoted with `"`.
- `_` prints the `_` character. This can be used to search for the actual value when using `LIKE`. If `_` is not escaped, it is used as the wildcard character for one character.
- `\%` prints the `%` character. This can be used to search for the actual value `%` when using `LIKE`. If `%` is not escaped, it is used as the wildcard character for one or more characters.
- `\b` prints a backspace character, which actually means that it deletes the previous character. For example, `SELECT "Hi!\b"` returns `Hi`, not `Hi!` because of the backspace.
- `\r` and `\n` print a carriage return and a new line, respectively.
- `\t` prints a tab separator, as actually hitting the `Tab` key may try to use the auto-complete function of the `mysql` client. For more information on the auto-complete function in `mysql`, see Chapter 3.
- `\0` and `\Z` print ASCII 0 (NUL) and ASCII 26 (`Ctrl-Z`), respectively. In Windows, `Ctrl-Z` is a special character marking an end of a file, and on Mac OS X and Unix, `Ctrl-Z` is the special key sequence that will suspend the current foreground process.

These escape sequences are case-sensitive. In a string, a backslash followed by any other character will just print the character. The following queries exemplify this behavior:

```
mysql> SELECT 'Hi!';
+-----+
| Hi! |
+-----+
1 row in set (0.00 sec)

mysql> SELECT 'Hi!\b';
+-----+
| Hi |
+-----+
1 row in set (0.00 sec)
```



```
mysql> SELECT 'Hi!\B';
+-----+
| Hi!B |
+-----+
| Hi!B |
+-----+
1 row in set (0.00 sec)
```

Naming limitations and quoting

Identifiers are names of: databases, tables, views, fields, indexes, tablespaces, stored routines, triggers, events, servers, log file groups, and aliases (specified with the AS keyword). Identifiers are all limited to 64 characters except aliases, which are limited to 255 characters. Note that characters may be one or more bytes; see Chapter 5 for a discussion of the difference between characters and bytes. Identifiers are stored using the `utf8` character set.

WARNING

The `utf8` character set before MySQL 6.0 used up to 3 bytes to store each character. In MySQL 6.0 and up, that character set was renamed to `utf8mb3`, and the character set named `utf8` is a true implementation of Unicode, using up to 4 bytes to store each character. When upgrading from MySQL 5.1 to MySQL 6.0, fields using `utf8` follow the renaming of the character set and are shown to use `utf8mb3`. There is no conversion that takes place during an upgrade from MySQL 5.1 to MySQL 6.0. Therefore, to use a true implementation of Unicode, MySQL must be upgraded to version 6.0 or higher, and an explicit conversion must be done of all fields using `utf8mb3`. For more information about this type of upgrade, see the MySQL manual at <http://dev.mysql.com/doc/refman/6.0/en/charset-unicode-upgrading.html>.

Identifiers can be almost anything. However, identifiers may not end with one or more spaces:

```
mysql> CREATE TABLE `space ` (id INT);
ERROR 1103 (42000): Incorrect table name 'space '
mysql> CREATE TABLE space (`id ` INT);
ERROR 1166 (42000): Incorrect column name 'id '
```

Identifier names can be reserved words or numbers, and include punctuation. However, to be parsed correctly, such identifiers need to be quoted. When `sql_mode` includes `ANSI_QUOTES` (see “SQL Modes” in Chapter 5), the double quotation mark character (") is used to quote identifiers such as database and table names, and strings are quoted by the single quotation mark character ('). When `sql_mode` does not include `ANSI_QUOTES`, as is the default, the backtick character (`) is used to quote identifiers such as database and table names, and strings are quoted by the either the double quotation mark character (") or the single quotation mark character (').

The escape string is the backslash (\) — see the “Escape characters” section earlier in this chapter for more information. This is used in conjunction with strings to escape special

characters. For example, % and _ are wildcard characters as specified in the SQL standard. To find a string that contains the actual character % using the LIKE operator, escape it with \:

```
mysql> USE sakila;
Database changed
mysql> SELECT first_name FROM staff WHERE first_name LIKE 'M%';
+-----+
| first_name |
+-----+
| Mike      |
+-----+
1 row in set (0.00 sec)

mysql> SELECT first_name FROM staff WHERE first_name LIKE 'M\%';
```

The empty set (0.00 sec) in queries, strings needs to be quoted to distinguish it from an identifier. The following example shows that, when the string Mike is not quoted, mysqld parses it as the name of a field. However, when the string is quoted, mysqld parses it as a string:

```
mysql> SELECT last_name FROM staff WHERE first_name=Mike;
ERROR 1054 (42S22): Unknown column 'Mike' in 'where clause'
mysql> SELECT last_name FROM staff WHERE first_name='Mike';
+-----+
| last_name |
+-----+
| Hillyer  |
+-----+
1 row in set (0.00 sec)
```

On the other hand, numbers will be parsed as numbers. In order to parse a number as an identifier, it must be quoted. The following example shows that when the number 1 is not quoted, mysqld parses it as a number. However, when the number is quoted, mysqld parses it as a field name:

```
mysql> SELECT first_name, last_name FROM staff WHERE active=1;
+-----+-----+
| first_name | last_name |
+-----+-----+
| Mike      | Hillyer  |
| Jon       | Stephens |
+-----+-----+
2 rows in set (0.00 sec)

mysql> SELECT first_name, last_name FROM staff WHERE active='1';
ERROR 1054 (42S22): Unknown column '1' in 'where clause'
```

Note that a number can be any of the following:

- An unsigned integer such as 12345
- A signed integer such as +12345 or -12345

- A signed or unsigned decimal such as 12.345, +12.345 or -12.345
- A signed or unsigned number in scientific notation format, such as 123.4e+5, 123.4e-5, or -123.4e5
- A number in binary format, such as 0b100 (the number 4)
- A number in hexadecimal format, such as 0x100 or 0x1F4 (the numbers 256 and 500, respectively)
- If used in a numeric context, a string beginning with a number will be parsed as a number equal to the first numeric part of the string. For example, '10q4' is parsed as 10 when used in a numeric context:

```
mysql> SELECT 1+'10q4';
+-----+
| 1+'10q4' |
+-----+
|          11 |
+-----+
1 row in set, 1 warning (0.00 sec)
```

```
mysql> SHOW WARNINGS;
+-----+-----+-----+-----+
| Level | Code | Message |
+-----+-----+-----+-----+
| Warning | 1292 | Truncated incorrect DOUBLE value: '10q4' |
+-----+-----+-----+-----+
1 row in set (0.00 sec)
```

- If such a truncation occurs when storing a value in a table, by default `mysqld` issues a similar warning and stores the truncated value. For `mysqld` to issue an error and refuse to store such values, a strict SQL mode must be used. See Chapter 5 for more information on SQL modes. Errors only apply to storing values in tables; the preceding example will always issue a warning and calculate the expression with the truncated value, even if a strict SQL mode is used.
- An expression that results in a number, such as 1+1 or ABS(-1)

Like numbers, the reserved words TRUE, FALSE, and NULL do not need to be quoted. As with other reserved words, TRUE, FALSE, and NULL are case-insensitive.

Dot notation

MySQL has a special *dot notation* that can be used to specify a database when referring to a table. Simply place a dot character (.) between the database and table name. The following example shows that the TABLES table does not exist in the current working database (`sakila`) but prefixing the table name with the string "INFORMATION_SCHEMA." specifies the database to which the TABLES table belongs:

```
mysql> SELECT TABLE_NAME FROM TABLES LIMIT 1;
ERROR 1146 (42S02): Table 'sakila.tables' doesn't exist
```

```
mysql> SELECT TABLE_NAME FROM INFORMATION_SCHEMA.TABLES LIMIT 1;
+-----+
| TABLE_NAME |
+-----+
| CHARACTER_SETS |
+-----+
1 row in set (0.01 sec)
```

MySQL allows identifiers such as tables and fields to have any name, including reserved words, such as `FROM`, and function names, such as `COUNT` and `DATE`. Furthermore, table names can use any character, including punctuation such as `.` and `;`. Reserved words and punctuation other than `_` must be enclosed by the quotation mark that specifies an identifier; this is usually the backtick (```) character (see the “Naming limitations and quoting” section earlier in this chapter for more information). Function names do not need to be enclosed by quotation marks. The following example shows that `mysql`d returns an error if reserved words (`FROM`) and special punctuation (`.`) are not enclosed by the backtick character, but function names (`DATE`) do not need to be enclosed similarly to work:

```
mysql> CREATE TABLE name.test(from DATE);
ERROR 1049 (42000): Unknown database 'name'
mysql> CREATE TABLE `name.test`(from DATE);
ERROR 1064 (42000): You have an error in your SQL syntax; check
the manual that corresponds to your MySQL server version for the
right syntax to use near 'from DATE)' at line 1
mysql> CREATE TABLE `name.test`(date DATE);
Query OK, 0 rows affected (0.37 sec)

mysql> SELECT COUNT(*) FROM dot.test;
ERROR 1146 (42S02): Table 'dot.test' doesn't exist
mysql> SELECT COUNT(*) FROM test.dot.test;
ERROR 1064 (42000): You have an error in your SQL syntax; check
the manual that corresponds to your MySQL server version for the
right syntax to use near '.test' at line 1
mysql> SELECT COUNT(*) FROM test.`dot.test`;
+-----+
| COUNT(*) |
+-----+
|          0 |
+-----+
1 row in set (0.01 sec)
```

Identifier names can be a numbers, such as a table named `12345`, but they must be quoted as an identifier just as reserved words and punctuation are. This dot notation also extends to fields:

```
mysql> SELECT test.`dot.test`.foo FROM test.`dot.test` limit 1;
Empty set (0.00 sec)

mysql> SELECT `dot.test`.foo FROM test.`dot.test` limit 1;
Empty set (0.00 sec)
```

Note that the table name `dot.test` had to be quoted with backticks. Using dot notation to specify fields is not done very often, but it can be useful when querying fields with similar names.

TIP

Avoid problematic naming of your databases, tables, and fields. Do not use a number, reserved word, function name, or punctuation other than `_` in your database, table, and field names. If you are getting an error because `-` is being parsed as the subtraction function, use `_` instead. Because `mysqld` requires quoting for numbers, reserved words, and punctuation, those are easily avoided. It is more difficult to realize when function names such as `COUNT` and `DATE` are used.

Time zones

When `mysqld` starts, it determines the time zone of the operating system and sets the `system_time_zone` system variable accordingly. By default, `mysqld` sets the value of `time_zone` to `SYSTEM`, which means that it operates using the time zone in `system_time_zone`. Fields with a `TIMESTAMP` value are converted to UTC and stored. When retrieved, `TIMESTAMP` fields are converted to the value of `time_zone`. Because `TIMESTAMP` fields are stored as UTC values and conversion is transparent, there are no problems if the underlying operating system time zone changes.

Because of the many issues surrounding time zones, it is best to keep the `time_zone` variable set to a value of `SYSTEM`. Even when `mysqld` uses the operating system time zones, problems can arise in the following scenarios:

- Unlike `TIMESTAMP`, `DATE`, `TIME`, and `DATETIME` fields are not converted and stored as UTC. Furthermore, there is no time zone information in these fields. If a `DATETIME` value is stored as `'2009-01-01 00:00:00'`, there is no way to specify what the time zone associated with that time is. For other differences between `TIMESTAMP` and other time-based data types, see Chapter 5.
- Web servers and database servers may have different time zones, and thus have different times. An order coming from an application on a web server whose time is in PST (UTC-8) and stored on a database server whose time is in EST (UTC-5) has a problem: At what time was the order made? Was it made on December 31, 2008 at 9 PM PST or January 1, 2009 at midnight EST? While both of those represent the same time, recall that `DATE`, `TIME`, and `DATETIME` fields do not store time zone information. For taxes, tariffs, legal purposes, and financial reports, does that order belong in 2008 or 2009?
- If the application code uses the time local to the web server as the order time, orders from web servers configured with different time zones will be stored in the database as if they occurred at different times. For example, if two different web servers are configured so that one uses PST and the other uses EST, orders coming in at the exact same time — January 1, 2009 at 5 AM UTC — and stored in a `DATETIME` field will appear to have been made three hours apart, because the time zone information will be lost.

- To avoid this issue, do not have application code determine the time. Instead, use the `CURRENT_TIMESTAMP()` function or the `NOW()` alias to insert the current time into a field. These values are replication-safe (do not use the `SYSDATE()` function; it is not safe for replication).

NOTE

If you feel up to the challenge of trying to manage time zones within MySQL and can brave adding another level of complexity to time management, the MySQL manual has information on how to specify time zones in MySQL at:

<http://dev.mysql.com/doc/refman/6.0/en/time-zone-support.html>

In practice, managing time zones in MySQL adds so much headache and hassle that is rarely worth it. In our experience, it is much more worthwhile to set operating systems to the same time zone (preferably UTC) and configure time synchronization software (such as `ntpd`) so that all servers have the same times and time zones.

Character sets and collations

MySQL supports many different *character sets* and *collations*. A character set, or *charset*, is the set of available characters that can be used — similar to an alphabet. Different languages have different alphabets, and the most often used character sets contain the letters of many alphabets (for example, the default `latin1` character set includes all of the characters in Latin languages, including accented characters and characters using the cedilla). A collation specifies the lexical sort order; in English the lexical sort order begins with `a, b, c, d`; in Spanish the lexical sort order begins with `a, b, c, ch, d`; in Greek the lexical sort order begins with $\alpha, \beta, \chi, \delta$. A collation can also specify if a sort order is case-sensitive or not; a *binary collation* is a collation that is case-sensitive. In MySQL, binary collations usually end in `_bin`, such as `ascii_bin`. In a binary collation, the sort order is determined by the numeric representation of the character. This has the result that sort order is case-sensitive, because the same letter in a different case has a different numeric representation.

To illustrate the difference among case-insensitive sort order, case-sensitive sort order, and binary sort order, create a table that specifies three fields, each with its own sort order, and insert some values:

```
mysql> use test;
Database changed
mysql> CREATE TABLE sort_test (
-> ci CHAR(1) CHARACTER SET latin1 COLLATE latin1_general_ci,
-> cs CHAR(1) CHARACTER SET latin1 COLLATE latin1_general_cs,
-> cbin CHAR(1) CHARACTER SET latin1 COLLATE latin1_bin);
Query OK, 0 rows affected (0.39 sec)
```

```
mysql> INSERT INTO sort_test VALUES
-> ('A','A','A'), ('a','a','a'), ('b','b','b'), ('B','B','B');
Query OK, 4 rows affected (0.00 sec)
Records: 4  Duplicates: 0  Warnings: 0
```

In case-insensitive search, first the letters a and A are displayed, and then the letters b and B are displayed:

```
mysql> SELECT ci FROM sort_test ORDER BY ci;
+-----+
| ci    |
+-----+
| A     |
| a     |
| b     |
| B     |
+-----+
4 rows in set (0.00 sec)
```

Note that the order with regard to case does not matter — in this case, the order of the input determines the order of the output. A case-sensitive ordering, on the other hand, sorts the letters a and A before b and B, but also sorts with respect to capital letters — within a letter, the capital letter is sorted first:

```
mysql> SELECT cs FROM sort_test ORDER BY cs;
+-----+
| cs    |
+-----+
| A     |
| a     |
| B     |
| b     |
+-----+
4 rows in set (0.00 sec)
```

In a binary collation, the order depends on the order of the numeric representation. The numeric order of the letters in the preceding example is:

```
mysql> SELECT ASCII('a'),ASCII('A'),ASCII('b'),ASCII('B');
+-----+-----+-----+-----+
| ASCII('a') | ASCII('A') | ASCII('b') | ASCII('B') |
+-----+-----+-----+-----+
|          97 |          65 |          98 |          66 |
+-----+-----+-----+-----+
1 row in set (0.00 sec)
```

Therefore, a binary collation should sort these letters as A B a b, because numerically the order is 65 66 97 98. And indeed, this is the case:

```
mysql> SELECT cbin FROM sort_test ORDER BY cbin;
+-----+
| cbin |
+-----+
| A    |
| B    |
| a    |
| b    |
+-----+
4 rows in set (0.00 sec)
```

Many other database systems support only one character set, utf8. The default character set in MySQL is latin1, and the default collation is latin1_swedish_ci. Each character set has at least one collation, and each collation is associated with exactly one character set. Collation names are of the form *charset_description_suffix*, where *charset* is the character set (such as latin1), *description* is a brief description (such as swedish or general), and *suffix* is either ci (case insensitive), cs (case sensitive), or bin (binary).

NOTE

The exception to the collation naming rule is the binary collation, which is associated with the binary character set and is a binary collation. If it conformed to the naming algorithm, its name would be binary_binary_bin.

Each character set has a default collation and may have other collations associated with it as well. The default character set for MySQL, latin1, has a default collation of latin1_swedish_ci and seven additional collations:

```
mysql> SELECT COLLATION_NAME, IS_DEFAULT
-> FROM INFORMATION_SCHEMA.COLLATIONS
-> WHERE CHARACTER_SET_NAME='latin1';
+-----+-----+
| COLLATION_NAME | IS_DEFAULT |
+-----+-----+
| latin1_german1_ci |           |
| latin1_swedish_ci | Yes       |
| latin1_danish_ci  |           |
| latin1_german2_ci |           |
| latin1_bin        |           |
| latin1_general_ci |           |
| latin1_general_cs |           |
| latin1_spanish_ci |           |
+-----+-----+
8 rows in set (0.00 sec)
```

For more information on the COLLATIONS system view in the INFORMATION_SCHEMA database, see Chapter 21.

All collations disregard trailing whitespace in sort ordering. Some data types automatically strip trailing whitespace; see Chapter 5 for more details.

The default character set and collation in MySQL can be set at many different levels. Changing the character set without changing the collation will result in the character set's default collation to be used. Changing the collation without changing the character set will result in the character set being changed to the character set associated with the specified collation.

Standard SQL defines the CHARACTER SET and COLLATE clauses in CREATE TABLE and ALTER TABLE statements only when adding fields. Specifying a character set and collation on a table level is not supported by standard SQL. When specifying character sets on any level in MySQL, CHARSET is an alias for CHARACTER SET.

The different levels to which character set and collation can be set are:

- **Server** — The system variables `character_set_server` and `collation_server` specify the default character set and collation for a database when a CREATE DATABASE statement does not have any CHARACTER SET or COLLATE clauses.
- **Database** — The system variables `character_set_database` and `collation_database` specify the default character set and collation for the current database. These are set with the CHARACTER SET and COLLATE clauses of the CREATE DATABASE and ALTER DATABASE statements. The database character set and collation are used by LOAD DATA INFILE and specify the default character set and collation for a table when a CREATE TABLE statement does not have any CHARACTER SET or COLLATE clauses.
- The session variables will change the current database only, and the global variables will change all databases. When checking the default character set for the current database, make sure that you are in the correct database and are looking at the correct variable scope (GLOBAL or SESSION).

WARNING

The SHOW VARIABLES and SET commands default to using session-level variables. To avoid confusion, always use SHOW SESSION VARIABLES or SHOW GLOBAL VARIABLES and SET GLOBAL, SET @@global, SET SESSION, or SET @@session.

- Database options such as the default character set and collation are stored in plain text in the `db.opt` file in each database.
- **Table** — A CREATE TABLE or ALTER TABLE `tblname` ADD COLUMN statement can use a CHARACTER SET or COLLATE clause. This will set the default character set and collation for a field added with no character set or collation specified.
- **Field** — The earlier example with the `sort_test` table showed how to specify CHARACTER SET and COLLATE clauses to fields that are the CHAR, VARCHAR, TINYTEXT, TEXT, MEDIUMTEXT or LONGTEXT data type. For more information on data types, see Chapter 5. The syntax for the CHARACTER SET and COLLATE clauses is the same for CREATE TABLE and ALTER TABLE statements. Each field can have its own character set and collation, as shown in the example with the `sort_test` table.

NOTE

Most of the time, individual fields are not given different character sets and collations. Make sure that your default character sets and collations are set appropriately.

- **String** — The system variables `character_set_connection` and `collation_connection` specify the default character set and collation for the strings sent via the current connection. A string such as the one in `SELECT "hi"` will be returned with the character set and collation specified by the `character_set_connection` and `collation_connection` system variables.
- Standard SQL allows the character set of a string to be specified with an *introducer*, which is simply the underscore character (`_`) followed by the character set name. The introducer appears before the string:

```
mysql> SELECT 'hi', CHARSET('hi');
+----+-----+
| hi | CHARSET('hi') |
+----+-----+
| hi | latin1         |
+----+-----+
1 row in set (0.00 sec)
```

```
mysql> SELECT _ascii 'hi', CHARSET(_ascii 'hi');
+----+-----+
| hi | CHARSET(_ascii 'hi') |
+----+-----+
| hi | ascii                |
+----+-----+
1 row in set (0.00 sec)
```

- The introducer tells `mysqld` to parse the string using that character set. Similarly, the `COLLATE` clause, also standard SQL, tells `mysqld` to parse the string using the specified collation. Unlike the introducer, the `COLLATE` clause comes after the string:

```
mysql> SELECT COLLATION(_ascii 'hi'),
-> COLLATION (_ascii 'hi' COLLATE ascii_bin)\G
***** 1. row *****
          COLLATION(_ascii 'hi'): ascii_general_ci
COLLATION (_ascii 'hi' COLLATE ascii_bin): ascii_bin
1 row in set (0.00 sec)
```

- The introducer and the `COLLATE` clause are different from the `CAST` and `CONVERT` functions. The `CAST` and `CONVERT` functions take a string of one character set and collation and change it to another character set and collation. The introducer and `COLLATE` clause inform `mysqld` of the character set and collation of the string.
- The default collation of a result can be overridden by specifying an introducer and `COLLATE` clause for a string. For example, to override the `latin1_bin` collation on the `cbin` field of the `sort_test` table use:

```
mysql> SELECT cbin FROM sort_test
-> ORDER BY cbin COLLATE latin1_general_ci;
+-----+
| cbin |
+-----+
| A    |
| a    |
| b    |
| B    |
+-----+
4 rows in set (0.00 sec)
```

- This yields the same result as when the `ci` field was sorted using its default collation.
- The `character_set_client` variable specifies the character set used by the client application. Statements are converted from `character_set_client` to `character_set_connection`, unless an introducer and `COLLATE` clause are applied to a string. Often (and by default), the `character_set_client` and `character_set_connection` are set to the same value, so this conversion does not need to happen. However, in the event that a client uses an ASCII character set, connects to a database, and wants all statements to be converted to UTF-8, the `character_set_client` would be set to `ascii` and the `character_set_connection` would be set to `utf8`. The conversions will be done automatically by `mysqld`. These two variables ensure that clients using different character sets can send the same queries to `mysqld` and achieve the same results.
- The `character_set_results` variable is similar to the `character_set_client` variable. However, the `character_set_results` variable sets the character set that results should be returned as. If a retrieved field has a character set of `latin1` and the `character_set_results` value is `utf8`, `mysqld` will convert the retrieved field to `utf8` before sending the result back to the client.

NOTE

To summarize the confusing connection/client/results relationship, consider this: A client sends a statement in `character_set_client`, which is converted to `character_set_connection` and `collation_connection` by `mysqld`. After query execution, results are converted by `mysqld` to `character_set_results`. Almost all of the time, the `character_set_client` and `character_set_results` variables will be set with the same value — the character set of the client.

- **File system** — The `character_set_filesystem` system variable specifies the character set of the file system. When a filename is specified (such as in a `LOAD DATA INFILE` statement), `mysqld` converts the filename from the character set specified by `character_set_client` to the one specified by `character_set_filesystem`. The default value is `binary`, which means that no conversion is done and the filename is used as specified.

- **System** — The `character_set_system` variable is always set to `utf8`, as that is the character set `mysqld` uses to store information such as identifiers.

The `SET CHARACTER SET charset_name` statement sets the value of the session variables `character_set_client` and `character_set_connection` to `charset_name` for the duration of the session, or until the system variables are changed again.

The `SET NAMES charset_name` statement sets the value of the session variables `character_set_client`, `character_set_connection`, and `character_set_results` to `charset_name` for the duration of the session, or until the system variables are changed again. `SET NAMES charset_name COLLATE collation_name` additionally sets the session variable `collation_connection` to `collation_name`.

The `charset charset_name` command is a `mysql` client command, which behaves as a `SET NAMES` command, except that values will not be lost if a reconnect (such as with `\r`) occurs.

To have the `mysql` client behave as if it connects and immediately runs a `SET NAMES charset_name` statement, use the `--default-character-set=charset_name` option to `mysql`.

WARNING Converting data from one character set to another can produce unexpected results. Consult the MySQL manual for more information about how to convert fields from one character set to another.

Functions that manipulate strings will return a string in the same character set and collation as the input string. Functions do not change the character set or collation of a string unless explicitly told to do so (with `CAST`, `CONVERT`, `BINARY`, `COLLATE`, or the use of an introducer). Note that other conversions may occur, for instance, if `mysqld` changes the character set due to values of `character_set_client`, `character_set_connection` and `character_set_results`. Also, note that the `REPLACE` function always does a case-insensitive match, regardless of the collation of the strings involved.

MySQL uses the standard SQL `CONVERT(text_expr USING charset_name)` syntax. MySQL extends SQL with the `CAST(text_expr AS text_data_type CHARACTER SET charset_name)` syntax. For example:

```
mysql> SELECT CAST('hi' AS CHAR(2) CHARACTER SET ascii);
+-----+
| CAST('hi' AS CHAR(2) CHARACTER SET ascii) |
+-----+
| hi                                         |
+-----+
1 row in set (0.00 sec)
```

`CAST` cannot specify a collation. However, because `CAST` returns a string expression, a `COLLATE` clause can follow a `CAST` function to indicate what collation should be associated with the string. If the previous example wanted to specify that the return from the `CAST` function should

be considered the `ascii_bin` collation, the following `SELECT` statement would have been issued:

```
mysql> SELECT
  -> CAST('hi' AS CHAR(2) CHARACTER SET ascii) COLLATE ascii_bin;
```

For information on how to examine the available character sets and collations, see Chapter 21.

Understanding MySQL Deviations

MySQL has worked on supporting the ODBC SQL standard and the ANSI SQL standard. However, as with all other database systems, some of the SQL commands do not function as the standard indicates. For example, there are many privilege system differences in how the `GRANT` and `REVOKE` commands work; some deviations are listed in the “Privileges and Permissions” section. For more complete information on how the privilege system works in MySQL, see Chapter 14. How MySQL handles transactions and isolation levels is discussed in Chapter 9.

While this section explains deviations from theoretical SQL standards and some of the more outstanding differences from expected behavior, it does not explain all specific deviations from other database management systems, such as Oracle, Microsoft SQL Server, Sybase, or DB2. There are many details that SQL standards do not explain, and many of these details are implementation details. For instance, materialized views are an implementation detail of how views are handled by a database management system. The SQL standard covers syntax to create and drop views, but it does not specify that views should be materialized. However, if you are experienced in a database management system that uses materialized views, you may assume that a view in MySQL is materialized. This assumption can lead to poor query performance. As much as possible, we have tried to explain how MySQL works, particularly with respect to implementation details that are radically different from other database management systems. For example, Chapter 8 discusses views and explains that MySQL does not use materialized views, showing examples of how MySQL parses and optimizes view queries.

MySQL deviates from how most database administrators expect it to behave in the following ways:

- **Storage engines** — Each table is an instantiation of a storage engine. Different tables can have different storage engines. Different storage engines function differently with regard to performance, ACID (atomicity, consistency, isolation, durability) compliance (see Chapter 9 for more information on ACID compliance), supported features, and more. Information about how different storage engines work appears throughout the book; however, Chapter 11 focuses on the major differences among the storage engines.
- **Errors** — MySQL makes attempts to make sense of what should throw an error. By default, `mysql_d` automatically allows inserting invalid data, automatically truncates data that is too large for a data type, implicitly converts data and more. The `sql_mode` server variable can be set to change most of this type of behavior. See Chapter 5 for more details on SQL modes.

- **String comparison** — By default, strings are compared in the order determined by the collation (see the “Character sets and collations” section earlier in this chapter for more information). However, strings are compared in a case-insensitive manner, unless a string is cast using the `BINARY()` function or a string is stored in a field that specifies the `BINARY` attribute. See Chapter 5 for more details on specifying the `BINARY` attribute in a field that stores strings.
- In addition, `LIKE` can be used to compare numbers:

```
mysql> SELECT 0 LIKE 0;
+-----+
| 0 LIKE 0 |
+-----+
|          1 |
+-----+
1 row in set (0.00 sec)
```

MySQL deviates from the SQL standard in the following ways:

- **Data types** — See Chapter 5 for how MySQL deviates from the SQL standard data types.
- **Index types** — See Chapter 6 for how MySQL deviates from the SQL standard index types.
- MySQL has no refined concept of `GLOBAL` or `LOCAL` tables. A `TEMPORARY` table can be considered local, as it is an in-memory table that is only available to the session that defines it. All other tables can be considered global, as they are available to other sessions as soon as a successful `CREATE TABLE` statement completes.
- MySQL does not support the `ON COMMIT`, `REF IS`, `UNDER` and `AS SUBQUERY` clauses to `CREATE TABLE`. The `LIKE` clause to `CREATE TABLE` only takes a table name as an argument; no options (such as `INCLUDING DEFAULTS` and `EXCLUDING DEFAULTS`) are allowed.
- `SCHEMA` is an alias to `DATABASE` in the `CREATE SCHEMA`, `ALTER SCHEMA` and `DROP SCHEMA` statements. MySQL does not support the `AUTHORIZATION` clause.
- Stored code such as the stored procedures, stored functions, triggers, and events can only use SQL statements. MySQL has no equivalent to a procedural programming language such as `PL/SQL`. Stored code in MySQL does not contain many of the options in the SQL standard and contains a few extensions. See Chapter 7 for more information about stored procedures, stored functions, triggers, and events.
- User-defined system views (metadata) are allowed, though they can only be written only in `C`. See the “Custom Metadata section” in Chapter 21 for more information.
- User-defined functions are allowed, though they can only be written only in `C`.

ON the WEBSITE

More information on how to create and use a user-defined function can be found on the accompanying website for this book at www.wiley.com/go/mysqladminible.

- Comparison operators can be used in the result expressions of the `SELECT` fields. If used, these will return `TRUE` (1), `FALSE` (0), or `NULL` (`NULL`). For example:

```
mysql> use sakila;Database changed
mysql> SELECT staff_id, staff_id>1, '|',
       -> first_name, first_name LIKE 'M%'
       -> FROM staff;
```

staff_id	staff_id>1		first_name	first_name LIKE 'M%'
1	0		Mike	1
2	1		Jon	0

```
2 rows in set (0.00 sec)
```

- MySQL does not support the concept of catalogs. The INFORMATION_SCHEMA database has many system views with fields relating to catalogs where the value is NULL. In addition, the SET CATALOG statement is not supported.
- **Foreign key constraints** — MySQL accepts foreign key constraints in table definitions, but only tables using transactional storage engines (such as InnoDB and Falcon) actually implement foreign key checking. All other storage engine types disregard foreign key constraint definitions without producing an error. See Chapter 6 for more details on foreign key constraints in MySQL.
- In MySQL, foreign key constraints are always checked, unless the FOREIGN_KEY_CHECKS session variable is set to OFF or 0. There is no way to disable foreign key constraints on an individual basis. Thus, MySQL does not support the REFERENCES ARE CHECKED and REFERENCES ARE NOT CHECKED clauses.
- The MATCH clause in a foreign key constraint is disregarded in all storage engines, even InnoDB and Falcon, which implement foreign keys.
- Prepared statements in MySQL have a local scope; that is, a prepared statement can only be used by the session that creates it. MySQL does not have as big a performance boost when using prepared statements, because each session has to compile each prepared statement the first time it is used in the session. In addition, the PREPARE syntax in MySQL is very basic — it only allows the name of the prepared statement and the statement itself to be specified (using a string or a user-defined variable containing a string). PREPARE in MySQL does not support the ATTRIBUTES keyword.
- MySQL does not support querying data samples using the TABLESAMPLE clause.
- CAST() and CONVERT() — According to the SQL standard, the CAST() and CONVERT() functions should be able to cast to any data type. However, in MySQL, CAST() and CONVERT() cannot be used to cast a number to the REAL or BIGINT data type.
- In standard SQL, the TRIM() function can only be used to remove a single leading character and a single trailing character. In MySQL, the TRIM() function can be used to remove multiple leading and trailing characters.
- **String concatenation** — The || string concatenation function is not supported. Use CONCAT() instead. In MySQL, || is an alias for OR.

- MySQL does not support assertions. The `CREATE ASSERTION` and `DROP ASSERTION` statements are not supported.
- MySQL does not support the SQL standard way of defining character sets and collations. The `CREATE CHARACTER SET`, `DROP CHARACTER SET`, `CREATE COLLATION`, and `DROP COLLATION` statements are not supported. For details on how to add a character set to MySQL, see the manual page at:

`http://dev.mysql.com/doc/refman/6.0/en/adding-character-set.html`
- For details on how to add a collation to MySQL, see the manual page at:

`http://dev.mysql.com/doc/refman/6.0/en/adding-collation.html`
- `GROUP BY` in MySQL does not support the `CUBE` or `GROUPING SETS` options.
- MySQL does not support the following functions: binary set functions (including `CORR`, `COVAR_POP`, `COVAR_SAMP`, etc.), `COLLECT`, `FUSION`, and `INTERSECTION`.
- MySQL does not support windowing functions such as `RANK`, `DENSE_RANK`, `PERCENT_RANK`, `CUME_DIST`.
- MySQL does not support static cursors. In MySQL, all cursors are dynamic (prepared at runtime). However, cursors are stored (cached) in temporary tables, so they are not fully dynamic. The performance of cursors in MySQL is usually worse than the performance of cursors in other database management systems. See `http://forge.mysql.com/worklog/task.php?id=3433` for more details on the tasks that need to be completed in order for cursors to be fully dynamic.
- MySQL does not support domains or domain constraints. The `CREATE DOMAIN`, `ALTER DOMAIN`, and `DROP DOMAIN` statements are not supported, and `DOMAIN` permissions cannot be granted using `GRANT`.
- MySQL does not support sequences. The `CREATE SEQUENCE`, `ALTER SEQUENCE`, and `DROP SEQUENCE` statements are not supported, and `SEQUENCE` permissions cannot be granted using `GRANT`. In addition, field definitions in MySQL do not support the `GENERATED`, `ALWAYS`, `BY DEFAULT`, and `AS IDENTITY` keywords. The `LIKE` clause of a `CREATE TABLE` statement in MySQL does not support the `INCLUDING IDENTITY` and `EXCLUDING IDENTITY` options.
- MySQL does not support user-defined types nor transform functions for user-defined types. The `CREATE CAST`, `DROP CAST`, `CREATE ORDERING FOR`, `DROP ORDERING FOR`, `CREATE TYPE`, `ALTER TYPE`, `DROP TYPE`, `CREATE TRANSFORM`, `ALTER TRANSFORM`, and `DROP TRANSFORM` statements are not supported, and `TYPE` permissions cannot be granted using `GRANT`.
- MySQL does not support transliterations. The `CREATE TRANSLATION` and `DROP TRANSLATION` statements are not supported, and `TRANSLATION` permissions cannot be granted using `GRANT`.
- MySQL does not support any embedded declarations. `DECLARE` is supported for cursors but not for embedded SQL, embedded authorization declarations, and temporary table

declarations. Temporary tables can be created by specifying `CREATE TEMPORARY TABLE` instead of `CREATE TABLE` and dropped with `DROP TEMPORARY TABLE`. MySQL extends `DECLARE` to be able to specify variables, conditions, and handlers. See Chapter 7 for more details on the `DECLARE` extensions.

- Updatable cursors and the `WHERE CURRENT OF` clauses in `UPDATE` and `DELETE` statements are not supported in MySQL.
- MySQL does not support recursive queries or the `SEARCH DEPTH FIRST BY`, `SEARCH BREADTH FIRST BY`, and `CYCLE` clauses.
- In the SQL standard, `DESCRIBE` is used to obtain information about prepared statement input and output parameters. In MySQL, `DESCRIBE` is an alias for `SHOW COLUMNS`. Table 4-1 shows the `DESCRIBE` syntax and how it is translated into `SHOW COLUMNS` statements.

TABLE 4-1

Translating `DESCRIBE` into `SHOW COLUMNS`

DESCRIBE Statement	Corresponding SHOW COLUMNS Statement
<code>DESCRIBE tblname;</code>	<code>SHOW COLUMNS FROM tblname;</code>
<code>DESCRIBE tblname fldname;</code>	<code>SHOW COLUMNS FROM tblname WHERE Field='fldname';</code>
<code>DESCRIBE tblname 'fldname';</code>	<code>SHOW COLUMNS FROM fldname WHERE Field LIKE 'fldname';</code>

- The third syntax can be used with the `%` and `_` wildcard characters. `DESC` can be used in place of `DESCRIBE`, if desired. For more information on `SHOW COLUMNS`, see Chapter 21.
- MySQL does not support descriptor areas. The `ALLOCATE DESCRIPTOR`, `DEALLOCATE DESCRIPTOR`, `GET DESCRIPTOR`, and `SET DESCRIPTOR` statements are not supported.
- MySQL does not support connection management with the `CONNECT TO`, `SET CONNECTION`, and `DISCONNECT` statements. In addition, session management is not supported — the `SET ROLE` and `SET TIME ZONE` statements are not supported by MySQL. The SQL standard `SET SESSION` statement is not supported by MySQL. However, MySQL has a conflicting syntax — the `SET` statement takes an optional keyword of `GLOBAL` or `SESSION` when setting a system variable. Therefore, even though SQL standard `SET SESSION` commands such as `SET SESSION AUTHORIZATION`, and `SET SESSION CHARACTERISTICS` are not valid, there are valid nonstandard `SET SESSION` commands, such as:

```
SET SESSION character_set_client=latin1;
```

- MySQL does not support the `SET SCHEMA` statement. The default database can be set by specifying a default database as a client option when connecting, and it can be changed in the `mysql` client program with the `\u` or `use` command.

- MySQL does not support dynamically prepared statements using `EXECUTE IMMEDIATE`. Regular prepared statements are supported, as is the `EXECUTE` statement without the `IMMEDIATE` qualifier.
- MySQL does not support diagnostics management with the `GET DIAGNOSTICS` statement. The `SHOW ERRORS` and `SHOW WARNINGS` statements can be used to see errors and warnings from the previous statement, and the error log can be monitored for errors (and warnings if the `log_warnings` system variable is set). More information on `SHOW ERRORS` and `SHOW WARNINGS` can be seen later in this chapter in The “SHOW extension” section.

Privileges and permissions

MySQL uses the `GRANT` and `REVOKE` syntax as specified in the SQL standard, with some changes already mentioned (such as lack of domains and thus a lack of `DOMAIN` privileges) in addition to the following deviations:

- There is no `WITH ADMIN OPTION`; instead the `SUPER` privilege exists, and the `WITH GRANT OPTION` can be specified to allow a user to `GRANT` any subset of privileges that user has to another user.
- MySQL does not support the `GRANTED BY` or `WITH HIERARCHY OPTION` clauses.
- MySQL has a limited concept of users; a user is unique with respect to its `user-name@host` value. However, because of wildcards, `localhost`, and multiple hostname support, it is possible that a user connecting from a particular host may not receive the expected permissions. Fields cannot be associated with a user, role or path.
- MySQL does not support the concept of roles. The `DROP ROLE` statement is not supported.
- One or more users can be renamed using the `RENAME USER` statement:

```
RENAME USER user1@host1 TO user2@host2;  
RENAME USER user1@host1 TO user2@host2, userA@hostA TO userB@hostB;
```
- A user can be created without having any privileges explicitly granted via a `CREATE USER user@host [IDENTIFIED BY 'password_string']` statement. The `USAGE ON *.*` privilege is implicitly granted by this statement.
- `DROP USER user@host` will revoke all privileges, including `USAGE`, from `user@host`.
- There are no `CHARACTER SET` or `COLLATION` privileges.

For more information about privileges and permissions, see Chapter 14.

Transaction management

Transaction management is partially supported in MySQL. Transactions are only supported when using tables defined with transactional storage engines, such as InnoDB and Falcon.

For more information on storage engines, see Chapter 11; for more information on transactions in MySQL, see Chapter 9.

MySQL supports the `START TRANSACTION` command to note the beginning of a transaction. However, `START TRANSACTION` in MySQL does not allow any optional arguments to specify transaction modes. Table 4-2 shows the SQL standard transaction modes and how those transaction modes can be set in MySQL.

TABLE 4-2

Setting Transaction Modes in MySQL

SQL Standard	MySQL Equivalent
ISOLATION LEVEL <code>iso_level</code>	See Chapter 9 for how to set isolation levels.
READ ONLY	Change permissions for the user. See Chapter 14 for more information on granting privileges. Set the server to <code>read_only</code> . See the “Promoting a new master” section in Chapter 22 for more information on the <code>read_only</code> server variable.
READ WRITE	Change permissions for the user; see Chapter 14 for more information on granting privileges.
DIAGNOSTICS SIZE	N/A (MySQL does not support this feature with an alternative syntax)

`SET TRANSACTION` and `SET LOCAL TRANSACTION` commands are not supported by MySQL.

Check constraints

MySQL does not support check constraints, other than those implemented by specifying data types, foreign key constraints, and unique key constraints (for more information about key constraints, see Chapter 6). The `SET CONSTRAINTS` statement is not supported.

Check constraints defined with the `CONSTRAINT...CHECK` clause in the `CREATE TABLE` or `ALTER TABLE` statements are allowed but ignored, no matter what storage engine is used. The following example defines a check constraint where the `id` field must only have a value of 0, and shows how the check constraint is ignored:

```
mysql> CREATE TABLE check_test (id INT PRIMARY KEY) ENGINE=InnoDB;
Query OK, 0 rows affected (0.37 sec)

mysql> ALTER TABLE check_test
-> ADD CONSTRAINT is_ignored CHECK (id=0);
Query OK, 0 rows affected (0.39 sec)
Records: 0 Duplicates: 0 Warnings: 0
```

```
mysql> SHOW CREATE TABLE check_test\G
***** 1. row *****
      Table: check_test
Create Table: CREATE TABLE `check_test` (
  `id` int(11) NOT NULL,
  PRIMARY KEY (`id`)
) ENGINE=InnoDB DEFAULT CHARSET=latin1
1 row in set (0.00 sec)

mysql> INSERT INTO check_test (id) VALUES (0),(1);
Query OK, 2 rows affected (0.00 sec)
Records: 2  Duplicates: 0  Warnings: 0

mysql> SELECT id FROM check_test;
+----+
| id |
+----+
|  0 |
|  1 |
+----+
2 rows in set (0.00 sec)
```

Upsert statements

MySQL does not support *upsert* statements with the standard SQL MERGE statement. An upsert statement either inserts a new record or, if a certain condition is met, updates existing records. MySQL supports limited upsert statements with the ON DUPLICATE KEY UPDATE clause to an INSERT statement. The SQL standard MERGE statement supports any condition, but the ON DUPLICATE KEY UPDATE clause in MySQL only supports the condition where a unique or primary key already exists.

To test this, first find a suitable key constraint on the `store` table in the `sakila` database, and some data to work with:

```
mysql> SELECT INDEX_NAME, SEQ_IN_INDEX, COLUMN_NAME
  -> FROM INFORMATION_SCHEMA.STATISTICS
  -> WHERE NON_UNIQUE=0 AND TABLE_SCHEMA='sakila'
  -> AND TABLE_NAME='store';
+-----+-----+-----+
| INDEX_NAME          | SEQ_IN_INDEX | COLUMN_NAME          |
+-----+-----+-----+
| PRIMARY             |             1 | store_id             |
| idx_unique_manager |             1 | manager_staff_id    |
+-----+-----+-----+
2 rows in set (0.00 sec)

mysql> use sakila
Database changed
mysql> SELECT store_id, manager_staff_id, address_id, last_update
```

```

-> FROM store;
+-----+-----+-----+-----+
| store_id | manager_staff_id | address_id | last_update |
+-----+-----+-----+-----+
|          1 |                1 |          1 | 2006-02-15 04:57:12 |
|          2 |                2 |          2 | 2006-02-15 04:57:12 |
+-----+-----+-----+-----+
2 rows in set (0.00 sec)

```

Ziesel (the store owner of our fictional video store rental company that utilizes the `sakila` database) wants to make sure that all of her stores are in the database. The data to upsert (insert or update records) is shown in Table 4-3.

TABLE 4-3

Data to Upsert to Store

Store_id	Manager_staff_id	Address_id
1	1	1
2	2	3

As Ziesel feared, the data in the `store` table is not correct. Specifically, the `address_id` for store 2 is incorrect. Table 4-3 corresponds with the following upsert statement, which should update the `address_id` for the record with a `store_id` of 2:

```

mysql> INSERT INTO store (store_id, manager_staff_id, address_id)
-> VALUES (1,1,1),(2,2,3)
-> ON DUPLICATE KEY UPDATE address_id=VALUES(address_id);
Query OK, 2 rows affected (0.00 sec)
Records: 2 Duplicates: 1 Warnings: 0

```

```

mysql> SELECT store_id, manager_staff_id, address_id, last_update
FROM store;
+-----+-----+-----+-----+
| store_id | manager_staff_id | address_id | last_update |
+-----+-----+-----+-----+
|          1 |                1 |          1 | 2006-02-15 04:57:12 |
|          2 |                2 |          3 | 2009-01-25 04:35:18 |
+-----+-----+-----+-----+
2 rows in set (0.00 sec)

```

As desired, the record with a `store_id` of 2 was updated.

Similar upsert behavior can be accomplished with the `REPLACE` statement. A `REPLACE` statement, like the `ON DUPLICATE KEY UPDATE` statement, will insert a record if there is no existing

record with a duplicate PRIMARY or UNIQUE KEY constraint. However, if there is a duplicate key constraint, REPLACE will DELETE the existing record and INSERT a new one. This has many consequences — two actions are performed (DELETE and INSERT) instead of one (UPDATE, as with ON DUPLICATE KEY UPDATE). In an ON DUPLICATE KEY UPDATE statement, any INSERT or any UPDATE trigger may fire, depending on whether data was inserted or updated. In a REPLACE statement, either the INSERT trigger(s) or the INSERT and DELETE triggers will fire — either the record is inserted, in which case the INSERT trigger(s) will fire, or the record is replaced via DELETE and INSERT statements, in which case those triggers will fire.

WARNING

REPLACE can be useful, but keep in mind that performance may suffer because there are two actions being performed.

The REPLACE statement has almost the same syntax as the INSERT statement, including the LOW_PRIORITY and DELAYED extensions (see the “DML extensions” section later in this chapter). However, the IGNORE and ON DUPLICATE KEY UPDATE extensions are not part of REPLACE syntax. This is acceptable, as the desired behavior when a duplicate key is found is either:

- Delete the existing record and insert a new record (as with REPLACE)
- Update the existing record (as with ON DUPLICATE KEY UPDATE)
- Do nothing (as with IGNORE)

Thus, the REPLACE, ON DUPLICATE KEY UPDATE, and IGNORE clauses are mutually exclusive.

Using MySQL Extensions

Many of the extensions to MySQL have been developed to make MySQL easier to use. Many of the MySQL SHOW statements, for example, are much easier to use for a beginner than having to query the INFORMATION_SCHEMA database. Some of the extensions to SQL are actually commands in the client, such as use (\u) and source (\.) and have been discussed in Chapter 3. Many of the extensions are in `mysqld`. The following extensions are explained throughout the rest of this chapter:

- Aliases
- ALTER TABLE extensions
- CREATE extensions
- DML extensions (INSERT, UPDATE, DELETE)
- DROP extensions
- The LIMIT extension
- SELECT extensions

- Server maintenance extensions
- The SET extension
- The SHOW extension
- Table definition extensions
- Table maintenance extensions
- Transactional statement extensions

ON the WEBSITE

MySQL has added numerous new functions and extensions to existing functions. Appendix B contains a reference of all of the functions and their syntaxes. On the accompanying website for this book at www.wiley.com/go/mysqladminbible, you will find examples and uses for the functions with nonstandard behaviors, and the more frequently used nonstandard functions.

Aliases

The following MySQL extensions are aliases to standard SQL statements:

- BEGIN and BEGIN WORK are aliases for START TRANSACTION.
- DROP PREPARE stmt_prep is a synonym for DEALLOCATE PREPARE stmt_prep.
- EXPLAIN tbl_name is an alias for SHOW COLUMNS FROM tbl_name.
- num1 % num2 is the same as MOD(num1, num2).

ALTER TABLE extensions

The ALTER TABLE statement has a number of extensions in MySQL that add features to allow an ALTER TABLE statement to do almost everything a CREATE TABLE statement can do. Many ALTER TABLE statements are *offline* statements — to change the table, the statements copy the table, blocking access to the table, as if the table itself were offline. The largest performance enhancement is that many ALTER TABLE statements are *online* statements — ALTER TABLE statements that do not copy the table. Online statements are done in the background.

The following statements are online statements:

- ADD INDEX and DROP INDEX for variable-width indexed fields.
- Renaming a field using CHANGE COLUMN and specifying the same data type.
- Using CHANGE COLUMN or MODIFY COLUMN to modify the default value for a field.
- Adding items to the end of an ENUM or SET value data type (with CHANGE COLUMN or MODIFY COLUMN). See Chapter 5 for more information about data types, including the ENUM and SET data types.

Unfortunately, that still leaves many operations as offline operations. However, a MySQL extension to ALTER TABLE that can help that is the ability to specify more than one operation at a

time on a table, using a comma-separated list of ALTER TABLE options. For example, Ziesel uses the following query on the `film` table in the `sakila` database to perform three offline operations at the same time: adding a new field for the film's country of origin with a default country of the United States (`country_id` 103), creating an index on that field, and creating a foreign key constraint on that field to the `country_id` field of the `country` table.

```
mysql> use sakila;
Database changed
mysql> ALTER TABLE film
-> ADD COLUMN origin_country SMALLINT(5) UNSIGNED
-> NOT NULL DEFAULT 103,
-> ADD INDEX idx_fk_origin_country (origin_country),
-> ADD CONSTRAINT fk_film_country FOREIGN KEY (origin_country)
-> REFERENCES country(country_id);
Query OK, 1000 rows affected (1.12 sec)
Records: 1000 Duplicates: 0 Warnings: 0
```

Other than check constraints, which MySQL does not handle (see the “Understanding MySQL Deviations” section earlier in this chapter), the SQL standard defines the following actions an ALTER TABLE can perform:

- ADD/ALTER/DROP COLUMN
- ADD/DROP PRIMARY/UNIQUE/FOREIGN KEY

MySQL has added many extensions that add functionality to ALTER TABLE and provide methods to control the performance of ALTER TABLE:

- ADD FULLTEXT INDEX — Add a fulltext index. See Chapter 6 for more details on fulltext indexes.
- ADD INDEX — Add an index. See Chapter 6 for more details on indexes.
- ADD SPATIAL INDEX — Add a spatial index.

ON the WEBSITE

For more information about spatial indexes, see the companion website for this book at www.wiley.com/go/mysqladminbible.

- CHANGE COLUMN `old_fld_name` `new_fld_name` `new_fld_definition` — Change the field name and definition. Note that there is no way to change the field name without specifying the field definition as well. In addition, the field definition can end with either `FIRST` or `AFTER other_fld_name` to specify the position the field should be put in.
- CONVERT TO CHARACTER SET `charset_name`
- CONVERT TO CHARACTER SET `charset_name` COLLATION `collation_name`
- DISABLE KEYS — Disables any indexes so that they are not updated when records are inserted, deleted, or updated. Speeds up large data imports in conjunction with `ENABLE KEYS`.

- **ENABLE KEYS** — Enables automatic index updating and rebuilds all indexes on the table. Speeds up large data imports in conjunction with `DISABLE KEYS`.
- **IGNORE** — If an `ALTER TABLE` statement results in a duplicate key error, the table copy is stopped and the table is reverted to its original schema. All of the changes in the `ALTER TABLE` are lost, even if the change did not cause the duplicate key error. When you specify `IGNORE` between `ALTER` and `TABLE`, duplicate records that would cause such errors are deleted from the table.

To see this behavior, Ziesel copies her customer table:

```
mysql> use sakila;
Database changed
mysql> CREATE TABLE customer_test LIKE customer;
Query OK, 0 rows affected (0.04 sec)

mysql> INSERT INTO customer_test SELECT * FROM customer;
Query OK, 599 rows affected (0.17 sec)
Records: 599 Duplicates: 0 Warnings: 0
```

Now that she has a table with all 599 customers that she can test without destroying her production data, Ziesel purposefully causes a duplicate key error, so that she can later compare `ALTER TABLE` to `ALTER IGNORE TABLE`:

```
mysql> SELECT COUNT(*), active
-> FROM customer_test
-> GROUP BY active;
+-----+-----+
| COUNT(*) | active |
+-----+-----+
|          15 |      0 |
|          584 |      1 |
+-----+-----+
2 rows in set (0.02 sec)
```

```
mysql> ALTER TABLE customer_test ADD UNIQUE KEY(active);
ERROR 1062 (23000): Duplicate entry '1' for key 'active'
```

Now that she has caused a duplicate key error, she compares the behavior of using the `IGNORE` keyword:

```
mysql> ALTER IGNORE TABLE customer_test ADD UNIQUE KEY(active);
Query OK, 599 rows affected (0.40 sec)
Records: 599 Duplicates: 597 Warnings: 0

mysql> SELECT COUNT(*), active
-> FROM customer_test
-> GROUP BY active;
```

```
+-----+-----+
| COUNT(*) | active |
+-----+-----+
|          1 |        0 |
|          1 |        1 |
+-----+-----+
2 rows in set (0.00 sec)
```

```
mysql> SELECT COUNT(*) from customer_test;
+-----+
| COUNT(*) |
+-----+
|          2 |
+-----+
1 row in set (0.00 sec)
```

There were 597 duplicate keys that were deleted because of the ALTER IGNORE. Only two records are left in the table — one record with an `active` value of 0, and the other with an `active` value of 1. Take care not to lose important data when using ALTER IGNORE TABLE.

- `MODIFY COLUMN fld_name new_fld_definition` — Note that there is no way to change a part of the field definition without specifying the whole field definition. For example, to change an `INT NOT NULL` to an `UNSIGNED INT NOT NULL`, the entire field definition `UNSIGNED INT NOT NULL` must be used. In addition, the field definition can end with either `FIRST` or `AFTER other_fld_name` to specify the position the field should be put in.
- `ORDER BY fld_list` — Performs a one-time sort of the data records, sorting each row in order of the comma-separated field list (just as if it was the result of a SELECT query with the same ORDER BY clause).
- `RENAME new_tblname` or `RENAME TO new_tblname` will change the name of a table and associated objects such as triggers and foreign key constraints.

Other table-level extensions are listed in the “Table definition extensions” section later in this chapter. Table extensions are valid for both CREATE TABLE and ALTER TABLE statements. For example, `ENGINE=MyISAM` is valid for both CREATE TABLE and ALTER TABLE:

```
CREATE TABLE foo (id int) ENGINE=MyISAM
ALTER TABLE foo ENGINE=MyISAM
```

CREATE extensions

Many MySQL CREATE statements contain an IF NOT EXISTS extension. This specifies that a warning, not an error, should be issued if `mysqld` cannot complete the CREATE statement because of an existing identifier conflict. For example:

```
mysql> CREATE DATABASE IF NOT EXISTS test;
Query OK, 0 rows affected, 1 warning (0.00 sec)
```

```
mysql> SHOW WARNINGS;
```

```
+-----+-----+-----+-----+
| Level | Code | Message                                     |
+-----+-----+-----+-----+
| Note  | 1007 | Can't create database 'test'; database exists |
+-----+-----+-----+-----+
1 row in set (0.00 sec)
```

- Creating an index in a CREATE TABLE statement is a MySQL extension to standard SQL. In addition, creating a named index, specifying an index storage method (such as USING HASH) and creating an index that uses a column prefix are also nonstandard SQL — whether the index is created with CREATE INDEX or ALTER TABLE ADD INDEX. See Chapter 6 for more details on all of the standard and nonstandard features of indexes in MySQL.
- CREATE VIEW can be specified as CREATE OR REPLACE VIEW view_name to create a view if a view with view_name does not exist, or delete the existing view and replace it with the new view being defined if it does exist.
- Other table-level extensions are listed in the “Table definition extensions” section later in this chapter. Table extensions are valid for both CREATE TABLE and ALTER TABLE statements. For example, the ENGINE=MyISAM is valid for both of these:

```
CREATE TABLE foo (id int) ENGINE=MyISAM
ALTER TABLE foo ENGINE=MyISAM
```

DML extensions

MySQL extends DML (Data Manipulation Language — INSERT, REPLACE, UPDATE, and DELETE statements) with the following:

- IGNORE — Any errors caused by executing the specified DML are issued as warnings. This will cause the statement to continue instead of stopping at the first error. All errors appear as warnings and can be seen by issuing SHOW WARNINGS after the DML finishes.
- LOW_PRIORITY — Does not receive a write lock and execute the specified DML (INSERT/REPLACE/UPDATE/DELETE) until all read locks have been granted and there are no locks waiting in the read lock queue. (The default behavior is for all write locks to be granted before any read locks). The LOW_PRIORITY option is specified just after the first word of the statement — for example, INSERT LOW_PRIORITY INTO tblname.

The `low-priority-updates` option to `mysqld` changes the default behavior so that all DML acts as if it were specified with LOW_PRIORITY. In other words, the

`low-priority-updates` option changes the default behavior to grant all read locks before granting a write lock.

If the `low-priority-updates` option is specified, the `INSERT` statement can take a `HIGH_PRIORITY` option to prioritize the write lock for specific `INSERT` statements. The `HIGH_PRIORITY` option is specified in the same position the `LOW_PRIORITY` option is. However, the `HIGH_PRIORITY` option is only valid with the `INSERT` statement — the `LOW_PRIORITY` statement is valid with all DML. Both `LOW_PRIORITY` and `HIGH_PRIORITY` only affect storage engines with table-level locks as their most granular lock.

See the “Table-level locks” section in Chapter 9 for more information on read and write lock queues.

- **LIMIT** — `UPDATE` and `DELETE` statements can change or delete a subset of matching rows. See “The `LIMIT` extension” section earlier in this chapter for details.
- **ORDER BY** — `UPDATE` and `DELETE` statements can specify a particular order. This is usually used with the `LIMIT` clause to change or delete only some rows — for example, `ORDER BY` and `LIMIT` can be used together in a `SELECT` statement to retrieve the oldest five records in a table. In the same way, `ORDER BY` and `LIMIT` can be used with `UPDATE` or `DELETE` to change or remove the oldest five records in a table.
- **Upsert** — MySQL has extended the `INSERT` statement to include upsert (`insert/update`) functionality. See the Upsert statements subsection (under the “Understanding MySQL deviations” section) earlier in this chapter for more information about upsert statements in MySQL, including the `ON DUPLICATE KEY` option to `INSERT` and the new `REPLACE` statement.
- **DELETE QUICK** — The `QUICK` option to `DELETE` may speed up some deletes by not merging index leaves when it changes the index to reflect that records have been removed. This can lead to more fragmentation in the index.
- **TRUNCATE** — Issue `TRUNCATE tbl_name` (or `TRUNCATE TABLE tbl_name`) to very quickly remove all the rows from a table. This does not actually issue any `DELETE` statements, so no `DELETE` triggers are invoked. Most storage engines drop and re-create the table; in addition to being faster than a `DELETE` statement, this will reset the `AUTO_INCREMENT` value to 0.

InnoDB will drop and re-create the table unless there are foreign key constraints, in which case it will act exactly as `DELETE FROM tbl_name`, with no filter specified in a `WHERE` clause so all rows are deleted. If foreign keys are present, rows are deleted one at a time and foreign key `ON DELETE` clauses are processed as usual.

Aside from the speed, another reason to use `TRUNCATE` instead of `DELETE` is if a `DELETE` cannot be used, for example when a table has a corrupt index or the data itself is corrupt. In addition, a `DELETE` statement requires the `DELETE` privilege, and a `TRUNCATE` statement requires the `DROP` privilege. Therefore, `TRUNCATE` can be used to remove all rows from a table if a user has the `DROP` privilege but not the `DELETE` privilege.

- **INSERT readability** — The INSERT statement has an alternate syntax for better readability when inserting many fields. This alternate syntax uses one or more SET fld=value clauses, like the standard syntax for UPDATE. The following two queries illustrate the difference between the SQL standard for INSERT statements (first query) and the alternative INSERT syntax allowed by MySQL (second query):

```
INSERT INTO address (address, address2, district, city_id,
postal_code, phone) VALUES
('44 Massachusetts Avenue', 'Apt. 102', 'Bergen County', 5,
'07742', '867-5309');
```

```
INSERT INTO address SET address='44 Massachusetts Avenue',
address2='Apt. 102', district='Bergen County', city_id=5,
postal_code='07742', phone='867-5309';
```

Both queries are valid in MySQL and would insert the exact same row into the address table. Although it is longer, the second syntax makes it easier to correspond field names and the values being inserted. This also makes it very difficult to specify a different number of field names and values, such as in the following query (there is no value for the phone field):

```
INSERT INTO address (address, address2, district, city_id,
postal_code, phone) VALUES
('44 Massachusetts Avenue','Apt. 102', 'Bergen County', 5,
'07742');
ERROR 1136 (21S01): Column count doesn't match value count at row 1
```

- **DELETE using more than one table** — Alternate syntaxes for DELETE allow rows from multiple tables to be used in the deletion criteria, or allow rows from multiple tables to be deleted, or both. ORDER BY and LIMIT cannot be used when more than one table is specified, but the LOW_PRIORITY, QUICK and IGNORE options can be used.

The syntaxes that allow DELETE to reference and/or delete from more than one table are:

```
DELETE tbl_list FROM tbl_expr [ WHERE condition ]
DELETE FROM tbl_list USING tbl_expr [ WHERE condition ]
```

In both syntaxes, tbl_list is a comma-separated list of tables whose rows should be deleted based on the tbl_expr and the optional WHERE clause. The expression tbl_expr can be any expression that returns a table, including any type of JOIN clause and subqueries. Any tables that are in tbl_expr that are not in tbl_list will not have rows deleted.

- **INSERT DELAYED** — The DELAYED option to INSERT specifies that the data should be queued for a later batch insertion. When an INSERT DELAYED is issued, mysqld puts the information into a queue and returns successfully. The session can continue without waiting for the INSERT to finish. Many INSERT DELAYED statements are batched together and written at the same time, which is faster than many individual writes when there is a

lot of activity on the table. INSERT DELAYED will wait until there is no activity on the table and then insert a batch of records.

If there is not a lot of activity on a table, INSERT DELAYED will not perform better than individual INSERT statements. If there is not a lot of activity on a table when an INSERT DELAYED is issued, `mysqld` still puts the INSERT DELAYED information into a queue and returns successfully. However, the queue can immediately insert the batch in the queue. If the table has little activity, `mysqld` will be doing batch inserts where the batch size is 1 record. Regular INSERT statements would be faster in this case, because INSERT DELAYED has the additional overhead of enqueueing and dequeuing the information and the extra thread per table used to insert the batch. The MySQL manual has a detailed account of what takes place in an INSERT DELAYED statement at <http://dev.mysql.com/doc/refman/6.0/en/insert-delayed.html>.

INSERT DELAYED is not appropriate for data that needs to be stored in the database immediately. The batch queue is stored in memory, and in the event of a crash or a schema change from a higher priority ALTER TABLE statement, the information in the batch queue will be lost and *not* inserted. In addition, `LAST_INSERT_ID()` will not function as expected, because it reflects the most recent value actually inserted.

INSERT DELAYED can only be used on tables using the MyISAM, ARCHIVE, BLACK-HOLE, and MEMORY storage engines and cannot be used on views or partitioned tables. The DELAYED option is ignored if an upsert is specified with `ON DUPLICATE KEY`, and when the SQL standard `INSERT INTO...SELECT` syntax is used.

- **LOAD DATA INFILE** — The `LOAD DATA INFILE` command is used to load data from a text file created by the `SELECT INTO OUTFILE` command. See the section on `SELECT` extensions for more information about `SELECT INTO OUTFILE`.

To show an example of `LOAD DATA INFILE` first export the `rental` table from the `sakila` database, using `SELECT ... INTO OUTFILE`. By default, this puts the file in the directory of the database, but a location for the file can be specified optionally.

```
mysql> SELECT * FROM rental INTO OUTFILE 'rental.sql';
Query OK, 16044 rows affected (0.05 sec)
```

There is no table definition included in the `SELECT ... INTO OUTFILE` so you should always ensure that you have a copy of the table definition for restoration of the file:

```
shell> mysqldump --no-data sakila rental > /tmp/rental-schema.sql
```

To create a new database `sakila2` and load the `rental` table definition into it:

```
shell> mysqladmin create sakila2
shell> mysql sakila2 < /tmp/rental-schema.sql
```

Then, load the data into the `sakila2.rental` table:

```
mysql> use sakila2;
Database changed
```

```
mysql> LOAD DATA INFILE '/tmp/rental.sql' INTO TABLE rental;
Query OK, 16044 rows affected (1.24 sec)
Records: 16044 Deleted: 0 Skipped: 0 Warnings: 0
```

The default options for both `SELECT ... INTO OUTFILE` and `LOAD DATA INFILE` are quite reasonable and will work in most cases. There are two optional clauses `FIELDS` and `LINES` that can be used for specific cases where it is necessary to change the options such as quoting, field boundaries (to separate fields by a custom character such as the tab character or comma) and line boundaries.

For more information on the `FIELDS` and `LINES` options for both `LOAD DATA INFILE` and `SELECT ... INTO OUTFILE`, see the MySQL manual at <http://dev.mysql.com/doc/refman/6.0/en/load-data.html>.

- **LOAD XML INFILE** — The `LOAD XML INFILE` command can be used to load XML data into tables. The text file for input can be any XML file. To generate XML output by using the `mysql` client, use the `--xml` option, as shown here:

```
shell> mysql --xml -e 'SELECT * FROM sakila.film' > /tmp/film.xml
```

Remember, the output file does not contain the table structure! Use `mysqldump` to save the structure:

```
shell> mysqldump --no-data sakila film > /tmp/film-schema.sql
```

Here is a sample of the output generated by the command executed previously:

```
<?xml version="1.0"?>

<resultset statement="SELECT * FROM sakila.film
" xmlns:xsi="http://www.w3.org/2001/XMLSchema-instance">
  <row>
    <field name="film_id">1</field>
    <field name="title">ACADEMY DINOSAUR</field>
    <field name="description">A Epic Drama of a Feminist And a Mad
Scientist who must Battle a Teacher in The Canadian Rockies</field>
    <field name="release_year">2006</field>
    <field name="language_id">1</field>
    <field name="original_language_id" xsi:nil="true" />
    <field name="rental_duration">6</field>
    <field name="rental_rate">0.99</field>
    <field name="length">86</field>
    <field name="replacement_cost">20.99</field>
    <field name="rating">PG</field>
    <field name="special_features">Deleted Scenes,Behind the
Scenes</field>
    <field name="last_update">2006-02-15 05:03:42</field>
  </row>
```

The `<row>` and `</row>` tags are used to reference the start and end of a row in the output file. The `<field name>` and `</field>` tags are used to represent the columns in the row. The name attribute of the `<field>` tag specifies the name of the column.

In the following example the film table that was exported previously is loaded into an existing sakila2 database. First, the empty table with the proper schema must be created:

```
shell> mysql sakila2 < /tmp/film-schema.sql
```

Then, the data can be loaded with LOAD XML INFILE:

```
mysql> load xml infile '/tmp/film.xml' into table film;
Query OK, 1000 rows affected, 3 warnings (0.18 sec)
Records: 1000 Deleted: 0 Skipped: 0 Warnings: 3
```

The LOAD XML INFILE command was added in MySQL 6.0. More information about the available options for LOAD XML INFILE is available in the MySQL Manual at <http://dev.mysql.com/doc/refman/6.0/en/load-xml.html>.

DROP extensions

Similar to the IF NOT EXISTS extension to many CREATE statements, MySQL has the IF EXISTS extension to many DROP statements. For example:

```
mysql> DROP DATABASE IF EXISTS db_does_not_exist;
Query OK, 0 rows affected, 1 warning (0.00 sec)

mysql> SHOW WARNINGS\G
***** 1. row *****
Level: Note
Code: 1008
Message: Can't drop database 'db_does_not_exist'; database
doesn't exist
1 row in set (0.00 sec)
```

In addition to the IF EXISTS extension to many DROP statements, MySQL extends other DROP statements:

- DROP TABLE can delete one or more tables in a comma-separated list. For example:

```
mysql> use test;
Database changed
mysql> CREATE TABLE drop_me1 (id int);
Query OK, 0 rows affected (0.35 sec)

mysql> CREATE TABLE drop_me2 (id int);
Query OK, 0 rows affected (0.36 sec)

mysql> SHOW TABLES LIKE 'drop%';
```



```
+-----+
| Tables_in_test (drop%) |
+-----+
| drop_me1                |
| drop_me2                |
+-----+
2 rows in set (0.00 sec)
```

```
mysql> DROP TABLE drop_me1, drop_me2;
Query OK, 0 rows affected (0.00 sec)
```

```
mysql> SHOW TABLES LIKE 'drop%';
Empty set (0.00 sec)
```

- Dropping an index with the DROP INDEX statement is nonstandard SQL. MySQL's DROP INDEX extension may take an ONLINE or OFFLINE option. Currently DROP OFFLINE INDEX has no function, as all DROP INDEX commands behave as if specified as DROP ONLINE INDEX.

The LIMIT extension

The LIMIT extension applies mostly to SELECT statements, although other statements may use the same syntax (such as UPDATE, DELETE, and SHOW ERRORS). It is a clause that begins with the reserved word LIMIT and takes one or two numeric arguments. If only one argument is present, it is the number of rows to constrain the output to. For example:

```
mysql> SELECT TABLE_SCHEMA, TABLE_NAME
-> FROM INFORMATION_SCHEMA.TABLES
-> WHERE ENGINE='InnoDB'
-> LIMIT 5;
+-----+-----+
| TABLE_SCHEMA | TABLE_NAME |
+-----+-----+
| sakila        | actor       |
| sakila        | actor2     |
| sakila        | address    |
| sakila        | category   |
| sakila        | city       |
+-----+-----+
5 rows in set (0.03 sec)
```

If the LIMIT clause has two arguments, the first value is the offset and the second value is the number of rows to constrain the output to. The offset starts at 0 (no offset) — thus, a single argument to LIMIT such as LIMIT 5 acts as LIMIT 0,5. To get the middle three records from the previous example, use:

```
mysql> SELECT TABLE_SCHEMA, TABLE_NAME
-> FROM INFORMATION_SCHEMA.TABLES
-> WHERE ENGINE='InnoDB'
```

```

-> LIMIT 1,3;
+-----+-----+
| TABLE_SCHEMA | TABLE_NAME |
+-----+-----+
| sakila        | actor2      |
| sakila        | address     |
| sakila        | category   |
+-----+-----+
3 rows in set (0.03 sec)

```

The syntax for two arguments to `LIMIT` can be comma separated, as in the example above (`LIMIT 1, 3`) or it can be specified as `LIMIT 3 OFFSET 1`.

Although the `LIMIT` clause can be useful, its implementation is very basic. In order to retrieve the information, `mysqld` processes a query as if there were no `LIMIT`, and stops when it reaches the row count it needs to. This means that a query, including an `ORDER BY` or `GROUP BY` with a `LIMIT`, still has to sort all the data. Additionally, a query that has a `LIMIT` and specifies an offset will have to process all the rows in the offset first — to retrieve the results of a query containing the clause `LIMIT 99, 20`, the `mysqld` server will process 120 rows and return 20.

The `LIMIT` clause is the very last clause in a query or subquery.

SELECT extensions

The `SELECT` statement is one of the most frequently used SQL statements. In standard SQL, `SELECT` is a versatile tool for a wide variety of record retrieval and reporting activities. MySQL has extended the functionality of `SELECT` with many new nonstandard options and clauses, some of which relate to performance and backup.

ON the WEBSITE MySQL has extended how the `GROUP BY` clause interacts with the `SELECT` fields by adding more aggregating functions, the `WITH ROLLUP` clause, `ASC` and `DESC` sort orders, and more. See the accompanying website for this book at www.wiley.com/go/mysqladminbible for explanations and examples of the `GROUP BY` extensions.

The `SELECT` extensions `SQL_CACHE` and `SQL_NO_CACHE` control query interaction with the `mysqld` internal query cache. For information about the query cache and how to use these extensions, see Chapter 12.

SELECT . . . INTO OUTFILE/SELECT . . . INTO DUMPFIELD

The `SELECT . . . INTO OUTFILE` command is used to create a text file of the contents of database table. This can be used to logically export an entire table or a subset of the table data. The `mysqldump` tool for logical export (See Chapter 13 for more information on `mysqldump`) can

support filters with its `--where` option; however it will always export all fields in a table. `SELECT...INTO OUTFILE` allows you to export only some fields.

By default, `SELECT...INTO OUTFILE` writes to a file in `datadir`, but a location for the file can be specified optionally. The following shows how to export part of `sakila.rental`:

```
mysql> SELECT rental_id INTO OUTFILE '/tmp/rental-data.sql'  
-> FROM rental WHERE staff_id=1;  
Query OK, 8042 rows affected (0.05 sec)
```

`SELECT...INTO OUTFILE` will not overwrite existing files. If the file specified already exists, `mysqld` throws an error:

```
ERROR 1086 (HY000): File '/tmp/rental-data.sql' already exists
```

There is no table definition included in the `SELECT...INTO OUTFILE` so you should make sure to save a copy of the table definition for restoration of the file.

The `SELECT INTO DUMPFILE` command works similarly to the `SELECT...INTO OUTFILE` command. However, it will only write one row with no processing of any kind. If you want to dump a BLOB object this would be a good option.

SQL_SMALL_RESULT/SQL_BIG_RESULT

With the `SELECT` statement the `SQL_SMALL_RESULT` option can be used in conjunction with the `GROUP BY` or `DISTINCT` clauses to specify that the result set of the query will be small enough that the server can use in-memory temporary tables. This could potentially result in faster execution.

The `SQL_BIG_RESULT` option is used in conjunction with the `GROUP BY` or `DISTINCT` clauses to specify that the result set of the query will be too large to fit an in-memory temporary table. Instead, a disk-based temporary table will be constructed.

UNION...ORDER BY

The `ORDER BY` clause can be used with the `UNION` statement joining two or more `SELECT` statements to specify a sort order to the returned results. Any column references in the `ORDER BY` clause are not allowed to include the table name. You should use an alias in the `SELECT` statement and then use this alias in the `ORDER BY` clause.

SELECT...FOR UPDATE

When using the `FOR UPDATE` clause a write lock is placed on any rows the `SELECT` statement processes. This lock is held for the duration of the transaction and released at the end of the transaction. For more information about transaction and locking, see Chapter 9.

SELECT . . . LOCK IN SHARE MODE

When using the `LOCK IN SHARE MODE` clause a read lock is placed on the rows the `SELECT` statement processes. Other transactions are allowed to read the locked rows, but they are not allowed to either update or delete any of the locked rows. This lock is released at the end of the transaction. See the “Row level lock” section of Chapter 9 for details on the `LOCK IN SHARE MODE` extension to `SELECT`.

DISTINCTROW

The `DISTINCTROW` option specifies that only distinct rows are returned in the result set of a `SELECT` statement. `DISTINCTROW` is a synonym of the SQL standard `DISTINCT`.

SQL_CALC_FOUND_ROWS

The `SQL_CALC_FOUND_ROWS` option is used to force `mysqld` to calculate how many rows are in the result set. After the `SELECT` with the `SQL_CALC_FOUND_ROWS` option finishes executing, the row count can be returned with the `SELECT FOUND_ROWS()` query. The following example demonstrates that using the `LIMIT` clause does not change the result of this calculation:

```
mysql> SELECT SQL_CALC_FOUND_ROWS rental_date, inventory_id,
-> customer_id, return_date FROM RENTAL LIMIT 1\G
***** 1. row *****
rental_date: 2005-05-24 22:53:30
inventory_id: 367
customer_id: 130
return_date: 2005-05-26 22:04:30
1 row in set (0.01 sec)
```

In this case the `LIMIT` clause caused the `SELECT` to return data from one record. Now to see what the row count was:

```
mysql> SELECT FOUND_ROWS();
+-----+
| found_rows() |
+-----+
|          16044 |
+-----+
1 row in set (0.00 sec)
```

Then to verify that the row count is accurate:

```
mysql> SELECT COUNT(*) FROM RENTAL;
+-----+
| count(*) |
+-----+
|          16044 |
+-----+
1 row in set (0.00 sec)
```

SQL_BUFFER_RESULT

Specifying `SQL_BUFFER_RESULT` in a `SELECT` means that the result sets of `SELECT` statements are placed into temporary tables. With storage engines that use table-level locking this can speed up the release of the table lock. There is a corresponding global system variable, `sql_buffer_result`, which controls this behavior for all `SELECT` statements. By default this system variable is set to 0 (off). Setting this system variable to 1 will enable it, and cause all `SELECT` statements to act as if they were `SELECT SQL_BUFFER_RESULT` statements.

HIGH_PRIORITY/LOW_PRIORITY

See the “Table-level locks” section in Chapter 9 for more information on using `SELECT HIGH_PRIORITY` and `SELECT LOW_PRIORITY` to change the behavior of how `mysqld` chooses the next lock to grant from the read and write lock queues.

- `D0` — Though not actually a `SELECT` extension, `D0` is a separate statement that can be used instead of `SELECT` to execute a statement and ignore the results. The syntax for `D0` is the same as for `SELECT`. Use `D0` when the query execution is the important part, not the results from the query execution (such as when running queries for the purpose of preloading the query cache). The `SLEEP()` function is a good example of a function whose execution is more important than its results:

```
mysql> SELECT SLEEP(1);
+-----+
| SLEEP(1) |
+-----+
|          0 |
+-----+
1 row in set (1.00 sec)
```

```
mysql> D0 SLEEP(1);
Query OK, 0 rows affected (1.00 sec)
```

- `LIMIT` — See the section “The `LIMIT` extension” in this chapter for details.
- `PROCEDURE ANALYSE()` — See Chapter 5 for how to use `PROCEDURE ANALYSE()` to determine the optimal data type for fields already populated with data.
- `EXPLAIN SELECT` — See Chapter 18 for how to use `EXPLAIN SELECT` to analyze query performance.

Server maintenance extensions

MySQL has extended SQL to include server maintenance extensions. Most of these server maintenance extensions are described in other parts of this book; however, for the sake of completeness, they are listed here and the relevant chapter(s) are referenced.

All of the FLUSH statements are written to the binary log by default and will be replicated to any slaves. To change this default behavior, specify `NO_WRITE_TO_BINLOG TABLE` right after FLUSH, for example:

```
FLUSH NO_WRITE_TO_BINLOG TABLE TABLES;
```

TIP

`LOCAL` is a shorter alias for `NO_WRITE_TO_BINLOG`.

The server maintenance statements are:

- **KILL** — `KILL QUERY thread_id` kills the query currently running from the `thread_id` thread. The values of `thread_id` for all connections to `mysqld` are shown in the output of `SHOW PROCESSLIST` and can be queried in the `PROCESSLIST` system view in the `INFORMATION_SCHEMA` database.
- **KILL CONNECTION** `thread_id` kills the query and the connection from the `thread_id` thread. `KILL thread_id` is an alias for `KILL CONNECTION thread_id`.

WARNING

The `KILL CONNECTION` and `KILL QUERY` statements both kill the query associated with the specified `thread_id`. However, if a connection is interrupted in any other way, the query will continue until it finishes or `mysqld` knows the connection has been broken. This means that pressing `Ctrl-C` to abort a long-running query may only abort the connection, not the query itself!

It is important to always double-check that your expectations match reality. After using the `KILL` command, run a `SHOW PROCESSLIST` to ensure that the command is gone or has the status `Killed`, which means that `mysqld` is killing the process. After aborting a connection in any other way, reconnect to the database and check `SHOW PROCESSLIST` to make sure that there are no unwanted queries. This includes connections that were accidentally aborted, such as a network interruption, and programs aborted by external kill commands, such as `Ctrl-C` or an operating-system-level kill.

- **FLUSH HOSTS**, **FLUSH TABLES**, and **FLUSH STATUS** — These server maintenance extensions can be run as SQL statements in a client. They can also be run via the `mysqladmin` command line client, specifying `flush-hosts`, `flush-tables`, and `flush-status`. See the “`mysqladmin`” section of Chapter 3 for the description of what these statements do.
- **FLUSH DES_KEY_FILE** — Disregard the DES keys currently in memory and reload them from the file specified in the `--des_key_file` option to `mysqld`.
- **FLUSH LOGS** and **FLUSH BACKUP LOGS** — See Chapter 16 for more information about logs and the `FLUSH LOGS` and `FLUSH BACKUP LOGS` statements. `FLUSH LOGS` can also be run via `mysqladmin`; see the “`mysqladmin`” section of Chapter 3 for the description of what the `flush-logs` option does.
- **FLUSH PRIVILEGES** and **FLUSH USER_RESOURCES** — See Chapter 14 for more information about managing permissions and privileges, and the `FLUSH PRIVILEGES` and `FLUSH USER_RESOURCES` statements. `FLUSH PRIVILEGES` can also be run via `mysqladmin`; see the “`mysqladmin`” section of Chapter 3 for the description of what the `flush-privileges` option does.

- **FLUSH TABLES WITH READ LOCK** — This will lock the tables, preventing modifications from happening until the lock is released, flush MyISAM buffers to disk, and close any open file descriptors. The read lock can be released explicitly by issuing an `UNLOCK TABLES` command or by issuing a command that implicitly releases the lock.
- **FLUSH QUERY CACHE and RESET QUERY CACHE** — See Chapter 12 for the query cache and information about the `FLUSH QUERY CACHE` and `RESET QUERY CACHE` statements.
- **RESET MASTER and RESET SLAVE** — See Chapter 22 for information about how `RESET MASTER` and `RESET SLAVE` commands are used in replication setups.
- **CACHE INDEX...IN** — The `CACHE INDEX` statement is used to configure MyISAM tables to utilize a named key cache. The following command would configure `table_one` and `table_two` to use the key cache `small_cache` instead of the global key cache.

```
mysql> CACHE INDEX table_one, table_two IN small_cache
```

The named key cache must be created before the `CACHE INDEX` statement is run. To create a key cache called `small_cache`, you could include the following in your configuration file in the `[mysqld]` directive:

```
small_cache.key_buffer_size=128M
```

- **LOAD INDEX INTO CACHE** — The `LOAD INDEX INTO CACHE` statement can be used to preload one or more tables into a key cache. The key cache can be the default key cache or an explicitly named key cache. To preload the two tables used in the previous example:

```
mysql> LOAD INDEX INTO CACHE table_one, table_two;
```

The SET extension and user-defined variables

The `SET` extension in `mysqld` is used to assign values to variables. Values can be assigned to user-defined variables, using either of the following syntaxes, which differ only in the assignment operator:

```
SET @varname:=value
SET @varname=value commands
```

In the first example, the assignment operator is `:=` and the second syntax just uses `=` as the assignment operator. To use a user-defined variable, simply replace any number or string with the variable itself. For example:

```
mysql> SELECT 100+100;
+-----+
| 100+100 |
+-----+
|      200 |
+-----+
1 row in set (0.00 sec)
```

```
mysql> SET @num:=100;
Query OK, 0 rows affected (0.05 sec)
```

```
mysql> SELECT @num+100;
+-----+
| @num+100 |
+-----+
|      200 |
+-----+
1 row in set (0.00 sec)

mysql> SELECT @num+@num;
+-----+
| @num+@num |
+-----+
|      200 |
+-----+
1 row in set (0.00 sec)
```

Changing the value of a number is as easy as setting the value:

```
mysql> SET @num:=100+@num;
Query OK, 0 rows affected (0.00 sec)

mysql> SELECT @num;
+-----+
| @num |
+-----+
|  200 |
+-----+
1 row in set (0.00 sec)
```

User-defined variables are local in scope. They cannot be seen by other sessions, and if you exit the session, the user-defined variables are lost. User-defined variables are case-insensitive:

```
mysql> SELECT @NUM;
+-----+
| @NUM |
+-----+
|  200 |
+-----+
1 row in set (0.01 sec)
```

In a SELECT statement, the `:=` assignment operator sets the value of a user-defined variable and returns the new value. For example:

```
mysql> SELECT @num, @num:=@num+100, @num;
+-----+-----+-----+
| @num | @num:=@num+100 | @num |
+-----+-----+-----+
|  200 |              300 |  300 |
+-----+-----+-----+
```



```

1 row in set (0.01 sec)
mysql> SELECT @num, @num:=@num+100, @num;
+-----+-----+-----+
| @num | @num:=@num+100 | @num |
+-----+-----+-----+
| 300 | 400 | 400 |
+-----+-----+-----+
1 row in set (0.00 sec)

```

Note how `mysqld` processes the query from left to right. This is an implementation detail that has been used for many purposes, including row numbering and running totals. For example, Ziesel wants to show a running total of rental fees and the average fee collected. She uses the payment table in the `sakila` database and two user-defined variables to keep track of the total count (`@count`) and the total amount of fees collected (`@payments`):

```

mysql> use sakila;
Database changed
mysql> SET @payments:=0, @count:=0;
Query OK, 0 rows affected (0.00 sec)

mysql> SELECT @count:=@count+1 AS '#', amount,
-> @payments:=@payments+amount AS running_total,
-> @payments/@count AS running_avg
-> FROM payment LIMIT 5;
+-----+-----+-----+-----+
| # | amount | running_total | running_avg |
+-----+-----+-----+-----+
| 1 | 2.99 | 2.99 | 2.990000000 |
| 2 | 0.99 | 3.98 | 1.990000000 |
| 3 | 5.99 | 9.97 | 3.323333333 |
| 4 | 0.99 | 10.96 | 2.740000000 |
| 5 | 9.99 | 20.95 | 4.190000000 |
+-----+-----+-----+-----+
5 rows in set (0.01 sec)

```

To be able to use the running average after the query is complete, Ziesel initializes a third variable, `@run_avg`, and changes the query to:

```

SELECT @count:=@count+1 AS '#', amount,
@payments:=@payments+amount AS running_total,
@run_avg:=@payments/@count AS running_avg
FROM payment LIMIT 5;

```

After the query is run, each variable retains its most current value. Ziesel can now use `@run_avg` in her next reporting query, if she so desires. Or, she can disconnect, and the values of `@count`, `@payments` and `@run_avg` will be `NULL`.

Local variables in stored code

Setting and manipulating local variables in stored code (such as stored procedures) is also done with SET and SELECT. However, in stored code, variables do not need @ in front of their names. See the sections on local variables in Chapter 7 for examples of how local variables are used in stored code.

Assigning values to dynamic server variables

Dynamic server variables can be changed while `mysqld` is running — there is no need to restart `mysqld` for the variable to be set. Server variables can be viewed at a GLOBAL or SESSION scope using `SHOW GLOBAL VARIABLES` and `SHOW SESSION VARIABLES`, respectively (see the `SHOW` extension later in this chapter). Similarly, dynamic server variables can be set on a GLOBAL or SESSION level as in the following:

```
mysql> SET GLOBAL max_allowed_packet=2*1024*1024;
Query OK, 0 rows affected (0.00 sec)

mysql> SET SESSION max_allowed_packet=4*1024*1024;
Query OK, 0 rows affected (0.00 sec)
```

Just as user-defined variables are accessible via a special prefix (@), server variables are similarly accessible, with the (@@) prefix:

```
mysql> SELECT @@global.max_allowed_packet,
-> @@session.max_allowed_packet\G
***** 1. row *****
@@global.max_allowed_packet: 2097152
@@session.max_allowed_packet: 4194304
1 row in set (0.00 sec)

mysql> SET @@session.max_allowed_packet = @@global.max_
allowed_packet;
Query OK, 0 rows affected (0.00 sec)

mysql> SELECT @@global.max_allowed_packet, @@session.max_allowed_
packet\G
***** 1. row *****
@@global.max_allowed_packet: 2097152
@@session.max_allowed_packet: 2097152
1 row in set (0.00 sec)
```

TIP

As with `SHOW VARIABLES`, and `SHOW STATUS`, the `SET server_variable` command without a GLOBAL or SESSION scope setting will default to SESSION. To avoid confusion, always specify GLOBAL or SESSION. Similarly, always specify @@global.server_variable or @@session.server_variable in SELECT and SET statements.

The LOCAL and @@local specifiers are aliases for SESSION and @@session, respectively. We recommend using SESSION and @@session so there is no question about the difference between a “local” server variable and a user-defined variable.

The SHOW extension

Metadata is available in the INFORMATION_SCHEMA database (See Chapter 21 for more details). Much of the information in the INFORMATION_SCHEMA database can be retrieved by using the SHOW extension. Although the SHOW syntax is less flexible than querying the INFORMATION_SCHEMA database, it is simpler than using a standard SQL query. SHOW statements are usually shorter than a standard SQL query, and thus faster to type. There are some SHOW commands that do not have INFORMATION_SCHEMA equivalents, such as the SHOW CREATE statements, which return CREATE statements.

The sql_quote_show_create system variable is a session-level variable settable via an option file such as my.cnf or via command line. This system variable takes a value of 0 or 1, with 1 being the default. When set to 0, identifiers (such as table, database, and field names) are not quoted:

```
mysql> select @@sql_quote_show_create;
+-----+
| @@sql_quote_show_create |
+-----+
|                          1 |
+-----+
1 row in set (0.00 sec)

mysql> SHOW CREATE DATABASE sakila;
+-----+-----+-----+
| Database | Create Database |
+-----+-----+-----+
| sakila   | CREATE DATABASE `sakila` /*!40100 DEFAULT
          | CHARACTER SET latin1 */ |
+-----+-----+-----+
1 row in set (0.41 sec)

mysql> set @@sql_quote_show_create=0;
Query OK, 0 rows affected (0.00 sec)

mysql> SHOW CREATE DATABASE sakila;
+-----+-----+-----+
| Database | Create Database |
+-----+-----+-----+
| sakila   | CREATE DATABASE sakila /*!40100 DEFAULT
          | CHARACTER SET latin1 */ |
+-----+-----+-----+
1 row in set (0.00 sec)
```

Many SHOW commands support a LIKE clause, which will return all values where a specific field matches the pattern in the LIKE clause. For example, SHOW CHARACTER SET matches a LIKE pattern to the Charset field:

```
mysql> SHOW CHARACTER SET LIKE 'utf%';
+-----+-----+-----+-----+
| Charset | Description | Default collation | Maxlen |
+-----+-----+-----+-----+
| utf8mb3 | UTF-8 Unicode | utf8mb3_general_ci | 3 |
| utf8    | UTF-8 Unicode | utf8_general_ci    | 4 |
| utf16   | UTF-16 Unicode | utf16_general_ci   | 4 |
| utf32   | UTF-32 Unicode | utf32_general_ci   | 4 |
+-----+-----+-----+-----+
4 rows in set (0.00 sec)
```

Some will also support a WHERE clause, which is more flexible than a LIKE clause:

```
mysql> SHOW CHARACTER SET WHERE Maxlen=4;
+-----+-----+-----+-----+
| Charset | Description | Default collation | Maxlen |
+-----+-----+-----+-----+
| utf8    | UTF-8 Unicode | utf8_general_ci    | 4 |
| utf16   | UTF-16 Unicode | utf16_general_ci   | 4 |
| utf32   | UTF-32 Unicode | utf32_general_ci   | 4 |
+-----+-----+-----+-----+
3 rows in set (0.00 sec)
```

These WHERE clauses can support multiple conditions:

```
mysql> SHOW CHARACTER SET WHERE Maxlen=4 AND Charset LIKE '%8';
+-----+-----+-----+-----+
| Charset | Description | Default collation | Maxlen |
+-----+-----+-----+-----+
| utf8    | UTF-8 Unicode | utf8_general_ci    | 4 |
+-----+-----+-----+-----+
1 row in set (0.00 sec)
```

The SHOW commands are:

- SHOW AUTHORS — Takes no input. Displays Name, Location and a Comment about the various authors of the MySQL codebase.
- SHOW BINLOG EVENTS — See “Replication and Logging,” Chapter 16.
- SHOW BINARY LOGS — See “Replication and Logging,” Chapter 16.
- SHOW CHARACTER SET — Displays the name (Charset), Description, Default collation and maximum number of bytes required to store one character (Maxlen) for the character sets supported by the mysqld server. This does not require input, although both LIKE and WHERE clauses are supported. LIKE matches against the Charset field.

- The `CHARACTER_SETS` system view in the `INFORMATION_SCHEMA` database contains the same information as the `SHOW CHARACTER SET` statement. The corresponding fields are `CHARACTER_SET_NAME`, `DEFAULT_COLLATE_NAME`, `DESCRIPTION`, and `MAXLEN`.
- `SHOW COLLATION` — Displays the name (`Collation`), character set (`Charset`), `Id`, whether or not it is the default collation for its character set (`Default`), whether it is compiled into the server (`Compiled`), and the amount of memory in bytes that is required to sort using this collation (`Sortlen`). This does not require input, although both `LIKE` and `WHERE` clauses are supported. `LIKE` matches against the `Collation` field.
- The `COLLATIONS` system view in the `INFORMATION_SCHEMA` database contains the same information as the `SHOW COLLATION` statement. The corresponding fields are `COLLATION_NAME`, `CHARACTER_SET_NAME`, `ID`, `IS_COMPILED`, and `IS_DEFAULT` and `SORTLEN`.
- `SHOW COLUMNS` — See the information for the `COLUMNS` system view in Chapter 21, “MySQL Data Dictionary.”
- `SHOW CONTRIBUTORS` — Takes no input. Displays `Name`, `Location`, and a `Comment` about a few contributors to causes supported by the former company MySQL AB.
- `SHOW COUNT(*) ERRORS` — Displays the value of the `error_count` session variable:

```
mysql> SHOW COUNT(*) ERRORS;
+-----+
| @@session.error_count |
+-----+
|                        0 |
+-----+
1 row in set (0.00 sec)
```

`SHOW ERRORS` provides more information about the error(s) from the previous command that generated errors. Supports the `LIMIT` clause (see the section “The `LIMIT` extension” earlier in this chapter).

- `SHOW COUNT(*) WARNINGS` — Displays the value of the `warning_count` session variable. `SHOW WARNINGS` provides more information about the error(s) from the previous command that generated errors, warnings or notes.
- `SHOW CREATE DATABASE` — Requires a database name as an input. Displays the name of the database (`Database`) and a `CREATE` statement that can be used to create the database (`Create Database`). For example:

```
mysql> SHOW CREATE DATABASE sakila;
+-----+-----+-----+
| Database | Create Database |
+-----+-----+-----+
| sakila   | CREATE DATABASE `sakila` /*!40100 DEFAULT CHARACTER SET latin1 */ |
+-----+-----+-----+
1 row in set (0.41 sec)
```

A synonym for `SHOW CREATE DATABASE` is `SHOW CREATE SCHEMA`. See Chapter 21 for information on the `SCHEMATA` system view in the `INFORMATION_SCHEMA` database.

- `SHOW CREATE EVENT` — Requires an event name as an input. Displays the name of the event (`Event`), a `CREATE` statement that can be used to create the event (`Create Event`), the character set of the session in which the event was created (`character_set_client`), the collation of the session in which the event was created (`collation_connection`), and the collation of the database that the event is associated with (`Database Collation`). See Chapter 7 for more information on events, and Chapter 21 for information on the `EVENTS` system view in the `INFORMATION_SCHEMA` database.
- `SHOW CREATE FUNCTION` — Requires a function name as an input. Displays the name of the function (`Function`), a `CREATE` statement that can be used to create the function (`Create Function`), the character set of the session in which the function was created (`character_set_client`), the collation of the session in which the function was created (`collation_connection`), and the collation of the database that the function is associated with (`Database Collation`). See Chapter 7 for more information on stored functions, and Chapter 21 for information on the `ROUTINES` system view in the `INFORMATION_SCHEMA` database.
- `SHOW CREATE PROCEDURE` — Requires a procedure name as an input. Displays the name of the procedure (`Procedure`), a `CREATE` statement that can be used to create the procedure (`Create Procedure`), the character set of the session in which the procedure was created (`character_set_client`), the collation of the session in which the procedure was created (`collation_connection`), and the collation of the database that the procedure is associated with (`Database Collation`). See Chapter 7 for more information on stored procedures, and Chapter 21 for information on the `ROUTINES` system view in the `INFORMATION_SCHEMA` database.
- `SHOW CREATE SCHEMA` — See `SHOW CREATE DATABASE`.
- `SHOW CREATE TABLE` — Requires a table name as an input. Displays the name of the table (`Table`) and a `CREATE` statement that can be used to create the table (`Create Table`). See Chapter 21 for information on the `TABLES` system view in the `INFORMATION_SCHEMA` database.
- `SHOW CREATE TRIGGER` — Requires a trigger name as an input. Displays the name of the trigger (`Trigger`), the `sql_mode` of the session in which the trigger was created (`sql_mode`), a `CREATE` statement that can be used to create the trigger (`SQL Original Statement`), the character set of the session in which the trigger was created (`character_set_client`), the collation of the session in which the trigger was created (`collation_connection`), and the collation of the database that the trigger is associated with (`Database Collation`). See Chapter 7 for more information on triggers, and Chapter 21 for information on the `TRIGGERS` system view in the `INFORMATION_SCHEMA` database.

- **SHOW CREATE VIEW** — Requires a view name as an input. Displays the name of the view (`View`), a `CREATE` statement that can be used to create the view (`Create View`), the character set of the session in which the view was created (`character_set_client`), and the collation of the session in which the view was created (`collation_connection`). See Chapter 8 for more information on views, and Chapter 21 for information on the `VIEWS` system view in the `INFORMATION_SCHEMA` database.
- **SHOW DATABASES** — Displays the database name (`Database`). Does not require input, although both `LIKE` and `WHERE` clauses are supported. `LIKE` matches against the `Database` field.

The `SCHEMATA` system view in the `INFORMATION_SCHEMA` database contains the same information as the `SHOW DATABASES` statement. The corresponding field is `SCHEMA_NAME`. The `SCHEMATA` system view also contains the `DEFAULT_CHARACTER_SET_NAME` and `DEFAULT_COLLATION` for the database, which the `SHOW` command does not contain.

- **SHOW ENGINE** — Requires an engine name and what type of information to see. Supported statements are:
 - **SHOW ENGINE INNODB STATUS** — Displays information about semaphores, foreign key errors, transactions, file I/O, the insert buffer, the adaptive hash index, logs, buffers and buffer pool, and row operations.
 - **SHOW ENGINE INNODB MUTEX** — Displays information about mutexes: `Type` (always `InnoDB`), the source file where the mutex was created (`Name`) and `Status`, which contains a comma-separated set or subset of the following values:
 - `count` — How many times the mutex was requested.
 - `spin_waits` — How many times the spinlock ran.
 - `spin_rounds` — How many spinlock rounds.
 - `os_waits` — How many times the operating system had to wait due to a spinlock failing to acquire a mutex lock.
 - `os_wait_times` — If the `timed_mutexes` variable is set to 1, how much time, in ms, was spent on waiting for the operating system. This value is 0 if the `timed_mutexes` system variable is set to 0 or `OFF`, which it is by default.
 - `os_yields` — How many times the thread acquiring a mutex lock yielded to the operating system, giving up its time slice, in the hope that yielding will remove the barriers to acquiring the mutex lock.

For example:

```
mysql> SHOW ENGINE INNODB MUTEX;
+-----+-----+-----+
| Type | Name | Status |
+-----+-----+-----+
| InnoDB | trx/trx0trx.c:143 | os_waits=0 |
| InnoDB | dict/dict0dict.c:1365 | os_waits=0 |
```

```
| InnoDB | dict/dict0mem.c:90 | os_waits=0 |
| InnoDB | dict/dict0dict.c:1365 | os_waits=0 |
| InnoDB | dict/dict0dict.c:1365 | os_waits=0 |
| InnoDB | dict/dict0dict.c:1365 | os_waits=0 |
| InnoDB | dict/dict0mem.c:90 | os_waits=0 |
...

```

Debugging InnoDB mutexes is beyond the scope of this book.

If `mysqld` supports the NDB cluster storage engine, `SHOW ENGINE NDB STATUS` and `SHOW ENGINE NDBCLUSTER STATUS` are supported. Either command will show information about the NDB storage engine.

- `SHOW ENGINES` — Takes no input. Displays information about storage engines, including name (Engine), how `mysqld` supports it (Support), Comment, and whether the storage engine supports transactions, XA, and savepoints. See Chapter 11 for more information on storage engines, and Chapter 21 for information on the `ENGINES` system view in the `INFORMATION_SCHEMA` database.

Values for Support include `DEFAULT` (for the default storage engine), `YES` (for usable supported storage engines), and `DISABLED` (for supported storage engines that cannot be used). The `NO` value is not applicable, because storage engines can be runtime plugins.

- `SHOW ERRORS` — Displays the error number(s) and description(s) from the last command that generated an error. Supports the `LIMIT` clause (see the section “The `LIMIT` extension” earlier in this chapter).
- `SHOW EVENTS` — Displays the database the event is associated with (Db), Name, Definer, Time zone, Type (`ONE TIME` or `RECURRING`), Execute at (non-NULL for a `ONE TIME` event), `Interval_value` (non-NULL for a `RECURRING` event), `Interval_Field` (non-NULL for a `RECURRING` event), Starts (non-NULL for a `RECURRING` event), Ends (non-NULL for a `RECURRING` event), Status (`ENABLED`, `DISABLED` or `SLAVESIDE_DISABLED`), the `server-id` of the `mysqld` instance that created the event (Originator), the character set of the session in which the event was created (`character_set_client`), the collation of the session in which the event was created (`collation_connection`), and the collation of the database that the event is associated with (`Database Collation`).

`SHOW EVENTS` does not require input. Without input, `SHOW EVENTS` will show all events associated with the current database. If there is no current database, error 1046 occurs:

```
mysql> SHOW EVENTS;
ERROR 1046 (3D000): No database selected
```

To show events from a particular database, specify `SHOW EVENTS FROM db_name`. Both the `LIKE` and `WHERE` clauses are supported, and either can occur alone or with a `FROM` clause. `LIKE` matches against the Name field.

The `EVENTS` system view in the `INFORMATION_SCHEMA` database contains the same information as the `SHOW EVENTS` statement. The corresponding fields are `EVENT_SCHEMA`, `EVENT_NAME`, `DEFINER`, `TIME_ZONE`, `EVENT_TYPE`, `EXECUTE_AT`. The `EVENTS` system view also contains the `EVENT_BODY` (always SQL), `EVENT_DEFINITION`, `SQL_MODE`,

ON_COMPLETION, CREATED, LAST_ALTERED, LAST_EXECUTED, and EVENT_COMMENT for the event, which the SHOW command does not contain. See Chapter 7 for more information on events, and Chapter 21 for more information about the EVENTS system view in the INFORMATION_SCHEMA database.

- SHOW FULL TABLES — See SHOW TABLES.
- SHOW FUNCTION CODE — Displays the ordinal position (Pos) and Instruction for each step in a stored function. This is only valid if mysqld was compiled with --with-debug:

```
mysql> SHOW FUNCTION CODE sakila.inventory_in_stock;
ERROR 1289 (HY000): The 'SHOW PROCEDURE|FUNCTION CODE'
feature is disabled; you need MySQL built with '--with-
debug' to have it working
```

This is useful for debugging stored functions.

- SHOW FUNCTION STATUS — Displays the database the function is associated with (Db), Name, Type (FUNCTION), Definer, Modified, Created, Security_type (DEFINER or INVOKER), Comment, the character set of the session in which the event was created (character_set_client), the collation of the session in which the event was created (collation_connection), and the collation of the database that the event is associated with (Database Collation). See Chapter 7 for more information on stored functions, and Chapter 21 for information on the ROUTINES system view in the INFORMATION_SCHEMA database.

Without input, SHOW FUNCTION STATUS will show all functions associated with all databases. Both the LIKE and WHERE clauses are supported, and either can occur alone or with a FROM clause. LIKE matches against the Name field.

- SHOW GRANTS — Displays the GRANT statement(s) that can be used to re-create the privileges for a particular user@host. With no input, SHOW GRANTS displays grant statements for the current user@host, which can be seen in the output of SELECT CURRENT_USER(). A different user@host, is specified with a FOR clause, for example:

```
SHOW GRANTS FOR guest@localhost;
```

- SHOW INDEX — Displays the index information for a table. For the meaning of the fields, see the information about the STATISTICS system view in the INFORMATION_SCHEMA database, in Chapter 21.

A table name is required as part of a FROM clause. A database may be specified by using a second FROM clause. The following are all equivalent and will produce the output shown here:

```
SHOW INDEX FROM sakila.country\G
SHOW INDEX FROM country FROM sakila\G
USE sakila; SHOW INDEX FROM COUNTRY\G
***** 1. row *****
      Table: country
      Non_unique: 0
```

```

        Key_name: PRIMARY
Seq_in_index: 1
Column_name: country_id
Collation: A
Cardinality: 109
Sub_part: NULL
Packed: NULL
Null:
Index_type: BTREE
Comment:
Index_comment:
1 row in set (0.00 sec)

```

SHOW INDEXES and SHOW KEYS are aliases for SHOW INDEX.

- SHOW INDEXES — See SHOW INDEX.
- SHOW KEYS — See SHOW INDEX.
- SHOW MASTER STATUS — “See Replication and Logging” in Chapter 16.
- SHOW OPEN TABLES — Displays information about currently open tables. A table is open if a thread is using it, and the number of open tables depends on how many threads have opened a table. If two different threads use the same table, there are two open tables — because each thread opens the table. The `table_open_cache` server variable can be used to cache open tables to reduce the overhead of opening and closing the same table.
- SHOW OPEN TABLES — For each currently open non-temporary table, SHOW OPEN TABLES displays the Database, Table, whether or not the open table is being used (`In_use`), and whether the table name is locked (`Name_locked`, value is 1 when renaming and dropping tables). Without input, SHOW OPEN TABLES will show all open tables from all databases. To show open tables from a particular database, specify SHOW OPEN TABLES FROM `db_name`. Both the LIKE and WHERE clauses are supported, and either can occur alone or with a FROM clause. LIKE matches against the Table field:

```
mysql> SHOW OPEN TABLES from mysql LIKE 't%';
```

Database	Table	In_use	Name_locked
mysql	time_zone	0	0
mysql	time_zone_name	0	0
mysql	time_zone_transition_type	0	0
mysql	time_zone_leap_second	0	0
mysql	time_zone_transition	0	0
mysql	tables_priv	0	0

```
6 rows in set (0.00 sec)
```

- **SHOW PLUGINS** — Displays the Name, Status, Type, filename of the plugin (Library, NULL for built-in plugins such as storage engines) and License. For the meaning of the fields, see the information about the PLUGINS system view in the INFORMATION_SCHEMA database, in Chapter 21. The PLUGINS system view also contains additional information, including the PLUGIN_VERSION, PLUGIN_TYPE_VERSION (specifies which version of mysqld the plugin supports), IN_LIBRARY_VERSION, PLUGIN_AUTHOR, and PLUGIN_DESCRIPTION.
- **SHOW PRIVILEGES** — Display the name (Privilege), Context and Comment about each type of privilege that can be used in a GRANT statement. See the “Permissions” section of Chapter 21, “The MySQL Data Dictionary”, for more information.
- **SHOW PROCEDURE CODE** — Displays the ordinal position (Pos) and Instruction for each step in a stored procedure. This is only valid if mysqld was compiled with --with-debug:

```
mysql> SHOW PROCEDURE CODE sakila.rewards_report;  
ERROR 1289 (HY000): The 'SHOW PROCEDURE|FUNCTION CODE'  
feature is disabled; you need MySQL built with '--with-  
debug' to have it working
```

This is useful for debugging stored procedures.

- **SHOW PROCEDURE STATUS** — Displays the database that the procedure is associated with (Db), Name, Type (PROCEDURE), Definer, Modified, Created, Security_type (DEFINER or INVOKER), Comment, the character set of the session in which the event was created (character_set_client), the collation of the session in which the event was created (collation_connection), and the collation of the database that the event is associated with (Database Collation). See Chapter 7 for more information on stored procedures, and Chapter 21 for information on the ROUTINES system view in the INFORMATION_SCHEMA database.
- Without input, SHOW PROCEDURE STATUS will show all procedures associated with all databases. Both the LIKE and WHERE clauses are supported, and either can occur alone or with a FROM clause. LIKE matches against the Name field.
- **SHOW PROCESSLIST** — See the information in Chapter 21, The MySQL Data Dictionary, for the PROCESSLIST system view in the INFORMATION_SCHEMA database.
- **SHOW PROFILE** — As of MySQL version 6.0.5, query profiling can be done on a session-level basis. By default, the profiling session variable is set to 0 and the PROFILING system view has no rows. If it is set to 1, queries can be profiled. The output of SHOW PROFILE is the Status and Duration of each step:

```
mysql> SHOW PROFILE;  
Empty set (0.00 sec)
```

```
mysql> SET profiling=1;  
Query OK, 0 rows affected (0.00 sec)
```

```
mysql> SELECT COUNT(*) FROM sakila.film;
+-----+
| COUNT(*) |
+-----+
|      1000 |
+-----+
1 row in set (0.00 sec)
```

```
mysql> SHOW PROFILE;
+-----+-----+
| Status          | Duration |
+-----+-----+
| starting        | 0.000126 |
| Opening tables  | 0.000057 |
| System lock     | 0.000016 |
| Table lock      | 0.000013 |
| init           | 0.000018 |
| optimizing      | 0.000009 |
| statistics      | 0.000018 |
| preparing       | 0.000014 |
| executing       | 0.000008 |
| Sending data    | 0.000634 |
| end             | 0.000010 |
| query end       | 0.000007 |
| freeing items   | 0.000054 |
| logging slow query | 0.000006 |
| cleaning up     | 0.000020 |
+-----+-----+
15 rows in set (0.00 sec)
```

This is very useful for debugging exactly why a query takes a long time.

Without input, `SHOW PROFILE` displays profiling information for the most recent query. With a `FOR QUERY n` clause, profiling information will be shown for the query with a `Query_ID` of `n`. The `Query_ID` value is obtained from the `SHOW PROFILES` statement. `SHOW PROFILE` accepts the `LIMIT` clause (see *The LIMIT Extension* earlier in this chapter).

The `SHOW PROFILE` statement also accepts an optional comma-separated list of extra information to show in addition to `Status` and `Duration`. Table 4-4 shows the values and the information returned (for the description of the fields, please refer to the information in Chapter 21 about the `PROFILING` system view).

To show partial output with the CPU and Source information for our sample query (`SELECT COUNT(*) FROM sakila.film`):

```
mysql> SHOW PROFILE CPU, SOURCE FOR QUERY 1 LIMIT 2 OFFSET 0\G
***** 1. row *****
      Status: starting
      Duration: 0.000126
```

```

        CPU_user: 0.000109
        CPU_system: 0.000016
Source_function: NULL
        Source_file: NULL
        Source_line: NULL
***** 2. row *****
        Status: Opening tables
        Duration: 0.000057
        CPU_user: 0.000033
        CPU_system: 0.000023
Source_function: open_tables
        Source_file: sql_base.cc
        Source_line: 3588
2 rows in set (0.00 sec)

```

TABLE 4-4

SHOW PROFILE Extra Field Information

Extra Name in SHOW PROFILE Statement	Fields Shown
ALL	Status, Duration, CPU_user, CPU_system, Context_voluntary, Context_involuntary, Block_ops_in, Block_ops_out, Messages_sent, Messages_received, Page_faults_major, Page_faults_minor, Swaps, Source_function, Source_file, Source_line
BLOCK IO	Status, Duration, Block_ops_in, Block_ops_out
CONTEXT SWITCHES	Status, Duration, Context_voluntary, Context_involuntary
CPU	Status, Duration, CPU_user, CPU_system
IPC	Status, Duration, Messages_sent, Messages_received
MEMORY	Status, Duration
PAGE FAULTS	Status, Duration, Page_faults_major, Page_faults_minor
SOURCE	Status, Duration, Source_function, Source_file, Source_line
SWAPS	Status, Duration, Swaps

- SHOW PROFILES — As of MySQL version 6.0.5, query profiling can be done on a session-level basis. By default, the profiling session variable is set to 0 and the

PROFILING system view has no rows. If it is set to 1, queries can be profiled. The SHOW PROFILES statement is related to, but very different from, the SHOW PROFILE statement. SHOW PROFILES outputs profiling information for the most recent queries. There is one query per row, and the maximum number of queries shown is determined by the profiling_history_size session variable. This session variable also restricts the number of queries that are saved in the PROFILING system view.

```
mysql> SHOW PROFILES;
+-----+-----+-----+
| Query_ID | Duration | Query |
+-----+-----+-----+
|          1 | 0.00101000 | SELECT COUNT(*) FROM sakila.film |
+-----+-----+-----+
1 row in set (0.00 sec)
```

- SHOW SCHEMAS — See SHOW DATABASES.
- SHOW SLAVE HOSTS — See “Replication and Logging,” Chapter 16.
- SHOW SLAVE STATUS — See “Replication and Logging,” Chapter 16.
- SHOW STATUS — See the information in Chapter 21 on the GLOBAL_STATUS and SESSION_STATUS system views in the INFORMATION_SCHEMA database.

WARNING

SHOW STATUS shows session variables by default. To avoid confusion, always specify either SHOW GLOBAL STATUS or SHOW SESSION STATUS.

- SHOW TABLE STATUS — See the information in Chapter 21 on the TABLES system view in the INFORMATION_SCHEMA database.
- SHOW STORAGE ENGINES — See SHOW ENGINES.
- SHOW TABLES — Displays table names in an output field beginning with Tables_in_. Without input, SHOW TABLES will show all tables and views associated with the current database. If there is no current database, error 1046 occurs:

```
mysql> SHOW TABLES;
ERROR 1046 (3D000): No database selected
```

To show tables and views from a particular database, specify SHOW TABLES FROM db_name. Both the LIKE and WHERE clauses are supported, and either can occur alone or with a FROM clause. LIKE matches against the Tables_in_ field:

```
mysql> SHOW TABLES LIKE 'f%';
+-----+-----+
| Tables_in_sakila (f%) |
+-----+-----+
| film |
| film_actor |
| film_category |
| film_list |
| film_text |
+-----+-----+
5 rows in set (0.00 sec)
```

SHOW FULL TABLES adds one field to the information in SHOW TABLES. `Table_type`, specifies whether the table is a base table, view or system view:

```
mysql> SHOW FULL TABLES LIKE 'f%';
+-----+-----+
| Tables_in_sakila (f%) | Table_type |
+-----+-----+
| film                  | BASE TABLE |
| film_actor            | BASE TABLE |
| film_category         | BASE TABLE |
| film_list             | VIEW        |
| film_text             | BASE TABLE |
+-----+-----+
5 rows in set (0.01 sec)
```

Only the INFORMATION_SCHEMA views are system views. See Chapter 8 for more information on views, and Chapter 21 for detailed information about the INFORMATION_SCHEMA database.

- SHOW TRIGGERS — See the information in Chapter 21 on the TRIGGERS system view in the INFORMATION_SCHEMA database.
- SHOW VARIABLES—See the information in Chapter 21 on the GLOBAL_VARIABLES and SESSION_VARIABLES system views in the INFORMATION_SCHEMA database.

WARNING

SHOW VARIABLES shows session variables by default. To avoid confusion, always specify either SHOW GLOBAL VARIABLES or SHOW SESSION VARIABLES.

- SHOW WARNINGS — Displays the error, warning and note number(s) and description(s) from the last command that generated an error, warning, or note. Supports the LIMIT clause (see “The LIMIT extension” earlier in this chapter).

Table definition extensions

MySQL has added features to tables, which require extended SQL syntax in order to specify. The following SQL extensions are related to nonstandard table features in MySQL:

- AUTO_INCREMENT=num — Set the AUTO_INCREMENT value for the table. See Chapter 5 for more details on AUTO_INCREMENT.
- AVG_ROW_LENGTH=num — Set the average row length. This helps `mysqld` allocate proper space for records and is only applicable for very large MyISAM tables (over 256 Tb). See the MySQL manual at <http://dev.mysql.com/doc/refman/6.0/en/create-table.html> for more details on when and how to set this parameter, and how other variables interact.
- CHARACTER SET `charset_name` — Specify the default character set for fields created in this table. See the “Character sets and collations” section earlier in this chapter for more information.
- CHECKSUM=1 — This will enable a *live* checksum of a table. Every time a record is changed, the checksum is updated. Tables with CHECKSUM=1 keep the current value of CHECKSUM TABLE `tblname` stored in their metadata, using very little overhead. Setting

CHECKSUM=0 will disable this feature. This feature only works on MyISAM tables and is set to 0 by default.

- `COLLATE collation_name` — Specify the default collation for fields created in this table. See the “Character sets and collations” section earlier in this chapter for more information.
- `COMMENT='comment string'` — Give the table a descriptive comment, that can be seen in the `TABLES` system view of the `INFORMATION_SCHEMA` database and in the output of `SHOW TABLE STATUS` and `SHOW CREATE TABLE`.

Fields and indexes can also be given a comment within a definition in a `CREATE TABLE` or `ALTER TABLE` statement. The `COMMENT 'comment string'` syntax gives the field or index a descriptive comment that can be seen in the `COLUMNS` (for fields) or `STATISTICS` (for indexes) system views of the `INFORMATION_SCHEMA` database and in the output of `SHOW CREATE TABLE`. Note that unlike the `COMMENT` option for a table, for fields and indexes the `COMMENT` keyword is separated from the comment string by a space, not an equals sign (=).

- `CONNECTION='connection string'` — For tables using the `FEDERATED` storage engine, this specifies the connection information. See Chapter 11 for more information on the `FEDERATED` storage engine and how to specify a connection string.
- `DATA DIRECTORY='path_to_dir'` — MyISAM tables will store their `.MYD` files in the `path_to_dir` directory. This option is ignored for `ALTER TABLE` statements but is honored in most `CREATE TABLE` statements — the exception is when a table is created with partitioning, the table-level `DATA DIRECTORY` option is ignored.
- `DELAY_KEY_WRITE=1` — This will delay index buffer updates until a table is closed and then update an index buffer all at once. This makes writes faster, as index updates are batched, but can lead to corruption. `DELAY_KEY_WRITE=0` will flush the index buffer every time the index is updated. This option is only for MyISAM tables. In addition, this option depends on the value of the system variable `delay_key_write`. By default, `delay_key_write` is set to `ON`, which means that MyISAM tables default to a `DELAY_KEY_WRITE` value of 0. If the `delay_key_write` server variable is set to `OFF`, no MyISAM tables delay key writes even if `DELAY_KEY_WRITE` is set to 1. If the `delay_key_write` server variable is set to `ALL`, the default setting for `DELAY_KEY_WRITE` is 1.
- `ENGINE=storage_engine_name` — This sets the storage engine of the table. For more information about storage engines, see Chapter 11.
- `INDEX DIRECTORY='path_to_dir'` — MyISAM tables will store their `.MYI` files in the `path_to_dir` directory. This option is ignored for `ALTER TABLE` statements but is honored in most `CREATE TABLE` statements — the exception is when a table is created with partitioning, the table-level `INDEX DIRECTORY` option is ignored.
- `INSERT_METHOD=method_name` — Sets how an `INSERT` to a `MERGE` table should behave. If `method_name` is set to `FIRST`, records will be inserted into the first table in the `UNION` definition. If `method_name` is set to `LAST`, records will be inserted into the last

table in the UNION definition. If `method_name` is set to `NO`, the table will be marked as read-only and an insert into the merge table will result in an error:

```
ERROR 1036 (HY000): Table 'merge_test' is read only
```

- `KEY_BLOCK_SIZE=num` — The value of `num` is given to the storage engine as a suggested index block size. The storage engine may or may not use the value of `num`. The default is 0, which indicates that the storage engine should use its default index block size.
- `MAX_ROWS=num` — This helps `mysqld` allocate proper space for records and is only applicable for very large MyISAM tables (over 256 Tb). See the MySQL manual at <http://dev.mysql.com/doc/refman/6.0/en/create-table.html> for more details on when and how to set this parameter, and how other variables interact.
- `MIN_ROWS=num` — The minimum number of rows expected to be stored in this table.
- `PACK_KEYS=value` — The default value is `DEFAULT`, which specifies that for MyISAM tables, long indexes for `CHAR`, `VARCHAR`, `BINARY`, and `VARBINARY` fields are compressed. If `value` is set to 1, number fields are also compressed. If `value` is set to 0, no indexes are compressed.

Partitioning-related extensions include defining partitions and subpartitions with `PARTITION BY`, and changing partitioning with `ADD PARTITION`, `DROP PARTITION`, `COALESCE PARTITION`, `REORGANIZE PARTITION`, `ANALYZE PARTITION`, `CHECK PARTITION`, `OPTIMIZE PARTITION`, `REBUILD PARTITION`, `REPAIR PARTITION`, and `REMOVE PARTITIONING`. These are discussed in Chapter 15.

- `PASSWORD='password_string'` — This option provides no functionality.
- `ROW_FORMAT='row_format_name'` — Currently there are six different row format types. Each storage engine uses one or more of the following row format types:
 - `Default` — Uses the default row format for the storage engine.
 - `Compact` — The default InnoDB row format. Uses more processing power, storing less data.
 - `Redundant` — An older InnoDB row format. Requires less processing power but stores redundant data.
 - `Fixed` — Rows are a fixed-width, minimizing fragmentation. `Fixed` is the default for MyISAM, Falcon, `BLACKHOLE`, `CSV`, and `MEMORY` storage engines, and is used unless the table contains a variable-width field.
 - `Dynamic` — Rows are variable-width, containing one or more variable-width fields, such as `VARCHAR`, `TEXT` or `BLOB`. Used by the MyISAM, Falcon, `BLACKHOLE`, and `CSV` storage engines.
 - `Page` — The Maria storage engine uses the `Page` row format by default. No other storage engine uses this row format.
 - `Compressed` — Rows are compressed and read-only. `Compressed` is the default and only row format for the `ARCHIVE` storage engine and MyISAM tables when compressed with `mysampack`.

- `UNION=(tbl_list)` — In a MERGE table, the UNION clause specifies a comma-separated list of tables that the MERGE table is a wrapper for. The first and last table names in this list are the tables used when `INSERT_METHOD` is set to `FIRST` and `LAST`, respectively. See Chapter 11 for more information on MERGE tables.

Table maintenance extensions

Indexes stay up to date with regard to the data within the index data structure. However, indexes require periodic maintenance for stability, speed and metadata updates. Table maintenance solves the following problems:

- Out-of-date table structure
- Index and data corruption
- Index and data fragmentation
- Out-of-date index and data statistics

MySQL has several commands to maintain index and table data:

- `CHECK TABLE`
- `REPAIR TABLE`
- `CHECKSUM TABLE`
- `ANALYZE TABLE`
- `OPTIMIZE TABLE`

Index and data corruption

Corruption can occur to both the data and the indexes belonging to a table, and may occur for several reasons. The most common cause of corruption is when data and index files are changed at the file system level, or when `mysqld` crashes, such as when there is not enough RAM or the host machine is turned off abruptly without shutting down `mysqld` properly. Other, more infrequent causes of table corruption are hardware problems, such as a malfunctioning RAID controller or corrupted RAM, and bugs in the client code, `mysqld` code, or storage engine code.

To determine if a table has corruption, use the `CHECK TABLE` command:

```
mysql> USE sakila;
Database changed
mysql> CHECK TABLE film\G
***** 1. row *****
      Table: sakila.film
      Op: check
      Msg_type: status
      Msg_text: OK
      1 row in set (0.02 sec)
```

CHECK TABLE is only supported by tables using the MyISAM, InnoDB, ARCHIVE, and CSV storage engines. If you try to use CHECK TABLE on a table that does not support it, the `Msg_text` field of the output contains:

The storage engine for the table doesn't support check

Other storage engines such as Falcon, PBXT, and Maria implement their own methods of checking for table corruption and performing repairs; See Chapter 11 for more details. When table corruption does occur, the output from CHECK TABLE will include a `Msg_type` of error and the `Msg_text` field will describe the problem:

```
mysql> CHECK TABLE film_text\G
***** 1. row *****
  Table: sakila.film_text
    Op: check
Msg_type: error
Msg_text: Unexpected byte: 5 at link: 1065187756
***** 2. row *****
  Table: sakila.film_text
    Op: check
Msg_type: error
Msg_text: Corrupt
2 rows in set (54.18 sec)
```

CHECK TABLE takes a comma-separated list of one or more tables and supports the following options:

- **EXTENDED** — As the name implies, this takes a longer time to run than any other option. However, this option will perform a full lookup on all keys and indexes, checking for 100% data consistency.
- **MEDIUM** — This is the default option used if no option is specified. For every table, calculate a checksum for the indexes on each data row, comparing the final result to the checksum of the index rows. Also verify that deleted links are valid.
- **CHANGED** — Only check a table if it was changed since the last time it was checked, or if the table was not closed properly. If a table is checked, the checks that are done are the same as the MEDIUM option.
- **FAST** — Only check a table if it was not closed properly. If a table is checked, the checks that are done are the same as the MEDIUM option.
- **QUICK** — Calculate a checksum for the indexes on each data row, comparing the final result to the checksum of the index rows. Same as MEDIUM, without the verification for deleted links.
- **FOR UPGRADE** — Checks to see if the table is out of date due to a server upgrade. Although this is a quick check, if the table is found to be out of date, a MEDIUM check will be run automatically, which can take some time.

Options are specified after the list of tables:

```
mysql> CHECK TABLE film_text, film FAST;
+-----+-----+-----+-----+
| Table          | Op    | Msg_type | Msg_text          |
+-----+-----+-----+-----+
| sakila.film_text | check | status   | Table is already up to date |
| sakila.film      | check | status   | OK                |
+-----+-----+-----+-----+
2 rows in set (0.01 sec)
```

Other common warnings and errors are described in the following list. Note that these are actual errors we have encountered, but the table names have been changed to `sakila.film_text` to protect privacy:

- Table './sakila/film_text' is marked as crashed and should be repaired
- 1 client is using or hasn't closed the table properly
- Incorrect information in file: './sakila/film_text.frm'
- Table './sakila/film_text' is marked as crashed and last (automatic?) repair failed
- Invalid key block position: 284290829344833891 key block size: 1024 file_length: 4453643264
- key delete-link-chain corrupted
- Table 'sakila.film_text' doesn't exist
- Record-count is not ok; is 330426316 Should be: 330426389
- Size of datafile is: 0 Should be: 172
- Found 1533 deleted space. Should be 0
- Found 73 deleted blocks Should be: 0

If `CHECK TABLE` returns a `Msg_type` of error, you will need to attempt to fix the problem. The first step to try when fixing a corrupt table is `REPAIR TABLE`. Only the MyISAM, ARCHIVE, and CSV storage engines support `REPAIR TABLE`, and you must have the `INSERT` and `SELECT` privileges on the tables you want to repair. The following example shows a successful `REPAIR TABLE` command, followed by a `CHECK TABLE` command as a sanity check to ensure that the table is actually not corrupt anymore:

```
mysql> REPAIR TABLE film_text\G
***** 1. row *****
  Table: sakila.film_text
    Op: repair
Msg_type: warning
Msg_text: Number of rows changed from 4733691 to 4733690
***** 2. row *****
  Table: sakila.film_text
    Op: repair
```

```

Msg_type: status
Msg_text: OK
2 rows in set (5min 24.40 sec)

mysql> CHECK TABLE film_text\G
***** 1. row *****
      Table: sakila.film_text
      Op: check
Msg_type: status
Msg_text: OK
1 row in set (36.08 sec)

```

Note that the REPAIR TABLE in this case took almost five and a half minutes. REPAIR TABLE makes all the data and indexes for that table unavailable for the duration of the repair. Canceling the repair before it is complete is a bad idea as it will only add to the current corruption.

REPAIR TABLE optionally takes one of three options after the table name is specified:

- QUICK — Only a repair of the index tree is attempted.
- EXTENDED — Instead of attempting to fix indexes by doing a REPAIR BY SORT on one entire index at a time, the index is rebuilt one row at a time.
- USE_FRM — Uses the .frm file to rebuild the index, disregarding the existing .MYI index file. This option should be used only as a last resort, as the .MYI file has important information that will be lost, such as the AUTO_INCREMENT value. Also, using USE_FRM can cause fragmentation in the table records.

NOTE

If a table needs to be repaired because of a `mysqld` upgrade, do not use the `USE_FRM` option. Before `mysqld` version 6.0.6, the table may be truncated, removing of all data, if the `USE_FRM` option was used when the table needed to be repaired because of an upgrade. In versions 6.0.6 and higher, attempting to specify `USE_FRM` when a table needed to be repaired because of an upgrade returns a `Msg_type` of error and a `Msg_text` of Failed repairing incompatible .FRM file. In this situation, try a simple `REPAIR TABLE tblname` with no options first.

Should you need to use `USE_FRM`, a successful `REPAIR TABLE` will likely return at least two rows, one of which issues a warning that the Number of rows changed from 0 to a greater number. This is because at the start of the `REPAIR TABLE`, the existing .MYI file was disregarded, so the number of rows in the index at the start of the repair process was 0. Sample output is shown here:

```

mysql> REPAIR TABLE film_text USE_FRM\G
***** 1. row *****
      Table: sakila.film_text
      Op: repair
Msg_type: warning
Msg_text: Number of rows changed from 0 to 1000
***** 2. row *****

```

```
Table: sakila.film_text
Op: repair
Msg_type: status
Msg_text: OK
2 rows in set (0.08 sec)
```

There are some command-line tools available that can be used for table repair. For example the Maria storage engine has command-line tool called `maria_chk` that can be used to check, repair, and optimize Maria tables. MyISAM can be managed with the `myisamchk` utility. Both of these tools must be used while `mysqld` is shut down, or you risk causing further corruption by changing the files on the file system when `mysqld` is still using them.

For tables created using storage engines that do not support the `REPAIR TABLE` command, you can try rebuilding the table using an `ALTER TABLE table_name ENGINE = storage_engine` command, which will force a rebuild of the data and indexes. Like `REPAIR TABLE`, rebuilding the data and indexes with this type of `ALTER TABLE` command will make all the data and indexes for the table unusable for the duration of the rebuild. Again, canceling the `ALTER TABLE` before it is complete may add to the current corruption.

TIP

It is best to fix table corruption when the table does not need to be used immediately. Chapter 22 has scaling and high availability architectures that you may want to implement. If table corruption happens on one of a few slave servers, the slave server can be taken out of production while the corruption is fixed. In the meantime, the other slave servers can split the extra load. If the table corruption happens on a master server, but the slave servers have no corruption, promote a slave to be the new master (as discussed in Chapter 22), and take the old master out of production service while the corruption is being fixed. In this way, taking a database offline for maintenance does not require noticeable downtime for your application. This tip is extremely useful for proactive maintenance such as upgrading `mysqld`.

Using the methods previously outlined should resolve any problems if the table corruption is in the index data. If the indexes are still corrupt, or if the corruption is in the row data itself, your only choice may be to restore a previous version from backup. Backups and restoration of data are covered in Chapter 13.

Fragmentation

Fragmentation of the data and indexes can occur when the ordering of the index pages on the disk are not similar to the index ordering of the records on the pages. Fragmentation also occurs when there are a large number of unused pages in the blocks allocated for the index. Fragmentation is most often caused when data is deleted, leaving gaps in the index and data files that may not be filled even when a new row is inserted.

Resolving fragmentation can be difficult. With some storage engines such as MyISAM you can use the `OPTIMIZE TABLE` command. This will resolve data and index fragmentation issues. As with a `REPAIR TABLE` command, the data and indexes will be unavailable for the duration of the `OPTIMIZE TABLE`.

Here is an example of a successful OPTIMIZE TABLE command:

```
mysql> OPTIMIZE TABLE film_text;
+-----+-----+-----+-----+
| Table          | Op      | Msg_type | Msg_text |
+-----+-----+-----+-----+
| sakila.film_text | optimize | status   | OK       |
+-----+-----+-----+-----+
1 row in set (0.11 sec)
```

Tables using the InnoDB storage engine map the OPTIMIZE TABLE command to an ALTER TABLE command. While this will defragment the row data, it will not always defragment the index data. If the index data is not defragmented by an OPTIMIZE TABLE, only a logical data export and reimport will resolve index fragmentation. See Chapter 13 for how to export and reimport data.

Reclaiming disk space

When a table that stores its data and indexes directly on the file system is defragmented, the size of the files decrease. For example, a fragmented MyISAM table will have smaller .MYD and .MYI files after defragmentation. The disk space is automatically reclaimed.

When InnoDB is used and mysqld is set to use innodb_file_per_table, table data and indexes are stored in a .ibd file in the data directory. All table metadata is stored together in a centralized ibdata file. When an InnoDB table is defragmented, its .ibd file will shrink and disk space will automatically be reclaimed.

However, by default, mysqld is *not* set to use innodb_file_per_table, and InnoDB puts all of the metadata, data and indexes for all tables into a centralized ibdata file. When an InnoDB table is defragmented on this configuration, the ibdata file will not shrink, even though the data is successfully defragmented. The good news is that the space is not lost — InnoDB will add that space to its pool of free space and put new rows in it. The amount of InnoDB free space reported in the TABLE_COMMENT field of the INFORMATION_SCHEMA.TABLES system view and the Comment field of SHOW TABLE STATUS for an InnoDB table will increase. The bad news is that the operating system cannot reclaim that disk space.

TIP

If the size of your data is more than a few hundred gigabytes, consider utilizing innodb_file_per_table so that defragmentation can reclaim disk space.

Many organizations actually see a performance improvement when switching to innodb_file_per_table because writes and reads are happening from several different .ibd files instead of one or two centralized ibdata files!

Maintaining table statistics

The maintenance of data and indexes should include maintaining the metadata that the server stores about table statistics. This is important because the query optimizer uses this information

in choosing which indexes, if any, to use when executing a query. To recalculate statistics, use the `ANALYZE TABLE` command as shown here:

```
mysql> ANALYZE TABLE film;
+-----+-----+-----+-----+
| Table          | Op      | Msg_type | Msg_text |
+-----+-----+-----+-----+
| sakila.film    | analyze | status   | OK       |
+-----+-----+-----+-----+
1 row in set (0.15 sec)
```

`ANALYZE`, `REPAIR`, and `OPTIMIZE TABLE` statements are written to the binary log by default, and will be replicated to any slaves. To change this default behavior, specify `NO_WRITE_TO_BINLOG TABLE` between the first word and the word `TABLE` — for example:

```
REPAIR NO_WRITE_TO_BINLOG TABLE film;
```

`LOCAL` is a shorter alias for `NO_WRITE_TO_BINLOG` and can be used with any of the three statements.

Getting a table checksum

To get a checksum of the entire table, use the `CHECKSUM TABLE tblname` command. By default, `mysql` will return a live checksum if this is supported by the table (see the “Table definition extensions” section earlier in this chapter for more information). If the table does not support a live checksum, `mysql` will calculate a checksum of the table. This requires a full table scan and can be very slow.

`CHECKSUM TABLE tblname` optionally takes one of two options at the end of the statement:

- `QUICK` — Returns the live checksum if supported by the table, otherwise returns `NULL`.
- `EXTENDED` — Calculates a checksum of the table, even if live checksum is supported.

Transactional statement extensions

In MySQL, several statements cause an *implicit transaction* — that is, they will perform an *implicit commit* before and after executing the actual statement. The commits, and thus the transaction caused by a `COMMIT` before and a `COMMIT` after the statement, are done without your approval and without informing you. These commands include commands that start transactions, change the `mysql` system database, DDL (Data Definition Language) commands that change the schema and some server maintenance commands:

- `ANALYZE TABLE`
- `ALTER -- DATABASE, EVENT, FUNCTION, PROCEDURE, TABLE, VIEW`
- `BACKUP DATABASE`
- `BEGIN, BEGIN WORK`

- CACHE INDEX
- CHECK TABLE
- CREATE -- DATABASE, EVENT, FUNCTION, INDEX, PROCEDURE, TABLE, TRIGGER, USER, VIEW
- DROP -- DATABASE, EVENT, FUNCTION, INDEX, PROCEDURE, TABLE, TRIGGER, USER, VIEW
- FLUSH
- GRANT
- LOAD INDEX INTO CACHE
- LOCK TABLES
- RENAME -- TABLE, USER
- OPTIMIZE TABLE
- REPAIR TABLE
- RESTORE
- REVOKE
- SET -- PASSWORD, `autocommit=1`
- START TRANSACTION
- TRUNCATE TABLE
- UNLOCK TABLES

Implicit commits are not performed if there is no change. For example, `SET autocommit=1` only performs an implicit commit if the value was previously 0. Implicit commits are also not performed before or after the `ALTER TEMPORARY TABLE`, `CREATE TEMPORARY TABLE`, and `DROP TEMPORARY TABLE` statements.

MySQL extends the SQL standard transactional statements with the following:

- By default, `mysqld` runs in *autocommit* mode. This means that every SQL statement is its own transaction, and an atomic transaction with more than one SQL statement does not occur. The system variable `autocommit` controls autocommit mode, and is set to 1 (ON) by default. To use transactions, `SET autocommit=0` in the client or start `mysqld` with the `autocommit` system variable set to 0 (OFF).
- Alternatively, explicitly starting a transaction with `START TRANSACTION` will turn off autocommit mode for the duration of the transaction.
- `START TRANSACTION` can be specified with an optional `WITH CONSISTENT SNAPSHOT` statement. This will attempt, but not guarantee, to make transactions have consistent reads. If the transactional tables used in the transaction are InnoDB, a consistent snapshot will occur if the isolation level is `REPEATABLE READ` or `SERIALIZABLE`. The default isolation level for `mysqld` is `REPEATABLE READ`; for more information about transactions and isolation levels, see Chapter 9.

- When a transaction completes with either COMMIT or ROLLBACK, the default `mysqld` behavior (specified by a `completion_type` system variable with a value of 0) is to finish working with the transaction but not begin a new transaction. This default behavior can be changed in a few ways:
 - To immediately start a new transaction, specify COMMIT CHAIN or ROLLBACK CHAIN. This will *chain* transactions, so they occur back to back without needing to explicitly start a new transaction when the previous transaction is finished. To change the default `mysqld` behavior to always chain transactions, set the `completion_type` server variable to 1.
 - To have `mysqld` disconnect the client immediately after a transaction completes, specify COMMIT RELEASE or ROLLBACK RELEASE. This will *release* the client connection after the transaction is finished. To change the default `mysqld` behavior to always release connections after a transaction completes, set the `completion_type` server variable to 2.
 - To override the behavior of the `completion_type` server variable when it is set to 1 or 2, specify NO RELEASE or NO CHAIN after COMMIT or ROLLBACK. For example, if the `completion_type` server variable was set to 1 (always chain transactions), specifying ROLLBACK NO CHAIN would override the chain behavior specified by `completion_type`.

Summary

This chapter has shown the nonstandard SQL that MySQL supports, and the ways in which MySQL deviates from the SQL standard. You should have learned the following topics from this chapter:

- MySQL language structure
- MySQL deviations
- DML and SELECT command extensions
- The SET extension
- Table maintenance extensions

Contents

Introduction	xxvii
------------------------	-------

Part I First Steps with MySQL

Chapter 1: Introduction to MySQL	3
MySQL Mission — Speed, Reliability, and Ease of Use	3
Company background	4
Community and Enterprise server versions	5
The MySQL Community	6
How to contribute	6
Reasons to contribute	7
Summary	7
Chapter 2: Installing and Upgrading MySQL Server	9
Before Installation	9
Choosing the MySQL version	11
MySQL support	12
Downloads	12
Installation	12
MySQL Server installations on Unix	13
MySQL Server Installation on Windows	20
Installing MySQL from a Noinstall Zip Archive	24
Starting and stopping MySQL from the Windows command line	25
Starting and stopping MySQL as a Windows service	26
Initial Configuration	29
Unix configuration file	31
Windows configuration file	31
MySQL Configuration Wizard on Windows	31
Detailed Configuration	32
The Server Type screen	33
Database Usage screen	33
InnoDB Tablespace screen	34
Concurrent Connections screen	34
Networking Options and Strict Mode Options screen	34
Character Set screen	35
Service Options screen	35
Security Options screen	35
Confirmation screen	36

Contents

MySQL Post-Install Configuration on Unix	36
Initializing the system tables	36
Setting initial passwords	37
Root user password assignment	37
Anonymous users	39
Securing Your System	40
Windows PATH Variable Configuration	42
Automated startup	42
Starting and stopping mysqld on System V-based Unix	42
System V run levels	43
Upgrading mysqld	45
The MySQL changelog	45
Upgrading MySQL on Windows	46
Troubleshooting	47
Summary	48
Chapter 3: Accessing MySQL	49
Accessing mysqld with Command-Line Tools	49
Frequently used options	50
Using the command-line mysql client	52
mysqladmin — Client for administering a server	62
GUI Tools	66
SQLyog	66
phpMyAdmin	69
MySQL Query Browser	71
MySQL Administrator	74
MySQL Workbench	80
Summary	83
 Part II Developing with MySQL	
<hr/>	
Chapter 4: How MySQL Extends and Deviates from SQL	87
Learning MySQL Language Structure	88
Comments and portability	88
Case-sensitivity	90
Escape characters	91
Naming limitations and quoting	93
Dot notation	95
Time zones	97
Character sets and collations	98
Understanding MySQL Deviations	105
Privileges and permissions	110
Transaction management	110
Check constraints	111
Upsert statements	112

Using MySQL Extensions	114
Aliases	115
ALTER TABLE extensions	115
CREATE extensions	118
DML extensions	119
DROP extensions	124
The LIMIT extension	125
SELECT extensions	126
SELECT . . . INTO OUTFILE/SELECT . . . INTO DUMPFILE	126
SQL_SMALL_RESULT/SQL_BIG_RESULT	127
UNION . . . ORDER BY	127
SELECT . . . FOR UPDATE	127
SELECT . . . LOCK IN SHARE MODE	128
DISTINCTROW	128
SQL_BUFFER_RESULT	129
HIGH_PRIORITY/LOW_PRIORITY	129
Server maintenance extensions	129
The SET extension and user-defined variables	131
The SHOW extension	135
Table definition extensions	147
Table maintenance extensions	150
Transactional statement extensions	156
Summary	158
Chapter 5: MySQL Data Types	159
Looking at MySQL Data Types	159
Character String Types	160
Length	162
Character string type attributes	164
National Character String Types	166
Binary Large Object String Types	168
BLOB values	169
BINARY values	169
BINARY length	169
VARBINARY length	170
Numeric Types	170
Numeric data sizes and ranges	172
Numeric data type attributes	177
Boolean Types	180
Datetime Types	183
Allowed input values	185
Microsecond input	186
Automatic updates	187
Conversion issues	188
Numeric functions and DATETIME types	188

Contents

Other conversion issues	190
Datetime data type attributes	191
The effect of time zones	192
Interval Types	193
ENUM and SET Types	195
Enumerations	195
ENUM and SET data type attributes	198
Choosing SQL Modes	201
Invalid data	201
SQL modes	203
Using NULL Values	211
Finding an Optimal Data Type for Existing Data	212
Small data samples and PROCEDURE ANALYSE()	215
Summary	217
Chapter 6: MySQL Index Types	219
Looking at Keys and Indexes	219
Using Indexes to Speed Up Lookups	221
Creating and dropping indexes	223
Index order	225
Index length	226
Index types	228
Redundant indexes	230
Creating and Dropping Key Constraints	231
Creating and dropping unique key constraints	231
Creating and dropping foreign key constraints	232
Foreign key constraints and data changes	234
Requirements for foreign key constraints	235
Using FULLTEXT Indexes	237
Summary	239
Chapter 7: Stored Routines, Triggers, and Events	241
Comparing Stored Routines, Triggers, and Events	241
Using Triggers	242
Creating a trigger	243
Dropping a trigger	244
Multiple SQL statements in triggers	245
Changing a trigger	246
Triggers on views and temporary tables	247
Trigger runtime behavior	248
Finding all triggers	252
Trigger storage and backup	252
Triggers and replication	254
Trigger limitations	254

Using Stored Routines	255
Performance implications of stored routines	256
Stored procedures vs. stored functions	256
Creating a stored routine	256
Invoking a stored procedure	259
Dropping a stored routine	261
Multiple SQL statements in stored routines	261
INOUT arguments to a stored procedure	261
Local variables	262
Stored routine runtime behavior	264
Options when creating routines	265
Creating a basic stored function	268
Full CREATE FUNCTION syntax	269
Invoking a stored function	269
Changing a stored routine	270
Naming: stored routines	271
Stored procedure result sets	273
Stored routine errors and warnings	274
Conditions and handlers	275
Stored routine flow control	282
Recursion	284
Stored routines and replication	285
Stored function limitations	285
Stored routine backup and storage	286
Using Cursors	287
Using Events	289
Turning on the event scheduler	289
Creating an event	291
Dropping an event	292
Multiple SQL statements in events	293
Start and end times for periodic events	293
Event status	294
Finding all events	295
Changing an event	295
After the last execution of an event	296
Event logging	297
Event runtime behavior	298
Event limitations	299
Event backup and storage	300
Summary	300
Chapter 8: MySQL Views	301
Defining Views	302
View definition limitations and unexpected behavior	304
Security and privacy	305

Contents

Specify a view's definer	306
Abstraction and simplification	307
Performance	308
Updatable views	313
Changing a View Definition	317
Replication and Views	317
Summary	318
Chapter 9: Transactions in MySQL	319
Understanding ACID Compliance	320
Atomicity	321
Consistency	321
Isolation	321
Durability	321
Using Transactional Statements	322
BEGIN, BEGIN WORK, and START TRANSACTION	322
COMMIT	322
ROLLBACK	322
Savepoints	323
AUTOCOMMIT	324
Using Isolation Levels	325
READ UNCOMMITTED	329
READ COMMITTED	331
REPEATABLE READ	332
SERIALIZABLE	334
Multi-version concurrency control	335
Explaining Locking and Deadlocks	336
Table-level locks	338
Page-level locks	341
Row-level locks	341
Recovering MySQL Transactions	343
Summary	344

Part III Core MySQL Administration

Chapter 10: MySQL Server Tuning	349
Choosing Optimal Hardware	349
Tuning the Operating System	352
Operating system architecture	352
File systems and partitions	353
Buffers	356
Kernel parameters	357
Linux	357
Other daemons	360

Tuning MySQL Server	360
Status variables	360
System variables	361
Option file	361
Dynamic variables	371
Summary	373
Chapter 11: Storage Engines	375
Understanding Storage Engines	375
Storage engines as plugins	376
Storage engine comparison	376
Using Different Storage Engines	378
MyISAM storage engine	378
InnoDB storage engine	384
MEMORY storage engine	394
Maria storage engine	396
Falcon storage engine	401
PBXT storage engine	410
FEDERATED storage engine	415
NDB storage engine	417
Archive storage engine	417
Blackhole storage engine	419
CSV storage engine	420
Working with Storage Engines	421
CREATE TABLE	421
ALTER TABLE	421
DROP TABLE	422
Summary	422
Chapter 12: Caching with MySQL	423
Implementing Cache Tables	424
Working with the Query Cache	427
What gets stored in the query cache?	427
Query cache memory usage and tuning	429
Query cache fragmentation	433
Utilizing memcached	434
Summary	438
Chapter 13: Backups and Recovery	439
Backing Up MySQL	439
Uses for backups	441
Backup frequency	443
What to back up	445
Backup locations	445
Backup methods	445

Contents

Online backup	460
mysqlhotcopy	462
Commercial options	464
Copying Databases to Another Machine	467
Recovering from Crashes	468
Planning for Disasters	471
Summary	472
Chapter 14: User Management	473
Learning about MySQL Users	473
Access Control Lists	474
Wildcards	475
System tables	476
Managing User Accounts	478
GRANT and REVOKE commands	481
SHOW GRANTS and mk-show-grants	485
Resetting the Root Password	487
Windows server	488
Unix-based server	489
Debugging User Account Problems	490
Bad password	490
Access issues	491
Client does not support authentication protocol	491
Can't connect to local mysqld through socket '/path/to/mysqld.sock'	492
I do not have the right permissions!	493
Summary	494
Chapter 15: Partitioning	495
Learning about Partitioning	495
Partitioning Tables	496
RANGE partitioning	497
LIST partitioning	502
HASH partitioning	503
KEY partitioning	504
Composite partitioning	504
Partition management commands	507
Restrictions of partitioning	510
MERGE Tables	510
Creating a MERGE table	511
Changing a MERGE table	512
Advantages of MERGE tables	513
Partitioning with MySQL Cluster	513
Programmatic Partitioning	514
Summary	514

Chapter 16: Logging and Replication	517
Log Files	517
Error log	517
Binary logs	518
Relay logs	520
General and slow query logs	520
Rotating logs	522
Other methods of rotating	523
Replication	524
Setting up semisynchronous replication	525
Statement-based, row-based, and mixed-based replication	527
Replication Configurations	529
Simple replication	529
CHANGE MASTER statement	534
More complex setups	534
Additional replication configuration options	539
Correcting Data Drift	540
mk-table-checksum overview	540
mk-table-sync overview	542
Putting this together	542
Summary	543
Chapter 17: Measuring Performance	545
Benchmarking	546
mysqlslap	547
SysBench	552
Benchmarking recommendations	565
Profiling	566
SHOW GLOBAL STATUS	566
mysq tuner	568
mysqlreport	572
mk-query-profiler	580
mysqldumpslow	583
Capacity Planning	585
Summary	585
Part IV Extending Your Skills	
<hr/>	
Chapter 18: Query Analysis and Index Tuning	589
Using EXPLAIN	590
EXPLAIN plan basics	590
Data access strategy	596
EXPLAIN plan indexes	606
Rows	607

Contents

Extra	608
Subqueries and EXPLAIN	611
EXPLAIN EXTENDED	612
EXPLAIN on Non-SELECT Statements	614
Other Query Analysis Tools	614
Optimizing Queries	615
Factors affecting key usage	615
Optimizer hints	616
Adding an Index	616
Optimizing away Using temporary	620
Using an index by eliminating functions	623
Non-index schema changes	626
Batching expensive operations	628
Optimizing frequent operations	629
Summary	631
Chapter 19: Monitoring Your Systems	633
Deciding What to Monitor	634
Examining Open Source Monitoring	636
Nagios	636
Cacti	637
Hyperic HQ	638
OpenNMS	640
Zenoss Core	641
Munin	642
Monit	643
Examining Commercial Monitoring	644
MySQL enterprise monitor	644
MONyog	645
Summary	646
Chapter 20: Securing MySQL	649
Access Control Lists	649
Wildcards and blank values	650
Privilege and privilege levels	651
Accessing the Operating System	654
Database access	654
Changing MySQL connectivity defaults	654
Operating system login	654
Securing Backups and Logs	656
Data Security	656
Data flow	657
Encrypted connectivity	659
Data security using MySQL objects	664

Creating Security Policies	665
Summary	666
Chapter 21: The MySQL Data Dictionary	667
Object Catalog	668
SCHEMATA	668
TABLES	670
VIEWS	674
COLUMNS	676
STATISTICS	679
TABLE_CONSTRAINTS	681
KEY_COLUMN_USAGE	682
REFERENTIAL_CONSTRAINTS	684
TRIGGERS	685
ROUTINES	686
PARAMETERS	690
EVENTS	691
PARTITIONS	693
System Information	695
CHARACTER_SETS	695
COLLATIONS	696
COLLATION_CHARACTER_SET_APPLICABILITY	696
ENGINES	697
PLUGINS	697
PROCESSLIST	698
PROFILING	709
GLOBAL_VARIABLES	710
SESSION_VARIABLES	710
GLOBAL_STATUS	711
SESSION_STATUS	711
Displaying Permissions	711
COLUMN_PRIVILEGES	712
TABLE_PRIVILEGES	713
SCHEMA_PRIVILEGES	714
USER_PRIVILEGES	715
Storage Engine-Specific Metadata	716
Custom Metadata	716
Defining the plugin	716
Compiling the plugin	722
Installing the plugin	724
Summary	725
Chapter 22: Scaling and High Availability Architectures	727
Replication	728
One read slave	729
Promoting a new master	729

Contents

Many read slaves	734
Master/master replication	735
Circular replication	736
SAN	737
DRBD	738
MySQL and DRBD setup	738
MySQL Proxy	739
Scaling read queries	740
Automated failover	740
Read/write splitting	742
Sharding	742
Linux-HA Heartbeat	742
MySQL Cluster	744
Connection Pooling	746
memcached	747
Summary	748
Appendix A: MySQL Proxy	749
Appendix B: Functions and Operators	783
Appendix C: Resources	813
Index	821