

## More SQL

Defining a Database Schema  
Views

1

## Defining a Database Schema

- ◆ A database schema comprises declarations for the relations ("tables") of the database.
- ◆ Many other kinds of elements may also appear in the database schema, including views, indexes, and triggers, which we'll introduce later.

2

## Declaring a Relation

- ◆ Simplest form is:  

```
CREATE TABLE <name> (  
    <list of elements>  
);
```
- ◆ And you may remove a relation from the database schema by:  

```
DROP TABLE <name>;
```

3

## Elements of Table Declarations

- ◆ The principal element is a pair consisting of an attribute and a type.
- ◆ The most common types are:
  - ◆ INT or INTEGER (synonyms).
  - ◆ REAL or FLOAT (synonyms).
  - ◆ CHAR( $n$ ) = fixed-length string of  $n$  characters.
  - ◆ VARCHAR( $n$ ) = variable-length string of up to  $n$  characters.

4

## Example: Create Table

```
CREATE TABLE Sells (  
    bar      CHAR(20),  
    beer     VARCHAR(20),  
    price    REAL  
);
```

5

## Dates and Times

- ◆ DATE and TIME are types in SQL.
- ◆ The form of a date value is:  
DATE 'yyyy-mm-dd'
  - ◆ Example: DATE '2002-09-30' for Sept. 30, 2002.

6

## Times as Values

- ◆ The form of a time value is:  
TIME 'hh:mm:ss'  
with an optional decimal point and fractions of a second following.
  - ◆ Example: TIME '15:30:02.5' = two and a half seconds after 3:30PM.

7

## Declaring Keys

- ◆ An attribute or list of attributes may be declared PRIMARY KEY or UNIQUE.
- ◆ These each say the attribute(s) so declared functionally determine all the attributes of the relation schema.
- ◆ There are a few distinctions to be mentioned later.

8

## Declaring Single-Attribute Keys

- ◆ Place PRIMARY KEY or UNIQUE after the type in the declaration of the attribute.
- ◆ Example:

```
CREATE TABLE Beers (  
    name    CHAR(20) UNIQUE,  
    manf    CHAR(20)  
);
```

9

## Declaring Multiattribute Keys

- ◆ A key declaration can also be another element in the list of elements of a CREATE TABLE statement.
- ◆ This form is essential if the key consists of more than one attribute.
  - ◆ May be used even for one-attribute keys.

10

## Example: Multiattribute Key

- ◆ The bar and beer together are the key for Sells:

```
CREATE TABLE Sells (  
    bar    CHAR(20),  
    beer   VARCHAR(20),  
    price  REAL,  
    PRIMARY KEY (bar, beer)  
);
```

11

## PRIMARY KEY Versus UNIQUE

- ◆ The SQL standard allows DBMS implementers to make their own distinctions between PRIMARY KEY and UNIQUE.
  - ◆ Example: some DBMS might automatically create an *index* (data structure to speed search) in response to PRIMARY KEY, but not UNIQUE.

12

## Required Distinctions

- ◆ However, standard SQL requires these distinctions:
  1. There can be only one PRIMARY KEY for a relation, but several UNIQUE attributes.
  2. No attribute of a PRIMARY KEY can ever be NULL in any tuple. But attributes declared UNIQUE may have NULL's, and there may be several tuples with NULL.

13

## Other Declarations for Attributes

- ◆ Two other declarations we can make for an attribute are:
  1. NOT NULL means that the value for this attribute may never be NULL.
  2. DEFAULT <value> says that if there is no specific value known for this attribute's component in some tuple, use the stated <value>.

14

## Example: Default Values

```
CREATE TABLE Drinkers (  
  name CHAR(30) PRIMARY KEY,  
  addr CHAR(50)  
    DEFAULT '123 Sesame St.',  
  phone CHAR(16)  
);
```

15

## Effect of Defaults -- 1

- ◆ Suppose we insert the fact that Sally is a drinker, but we know neither her address nor her phone.
- ◆ An INSERT with a partial list of attributes makes the insertion possible:

```
INSERT INTO Drinkers(name)  
VALUES('Sally');
```

16

## Effect of Defaults -- 2

- ◆ But what tuple appears in Drinkers?

name	addr	phone
Sally	123 Sesame St	NULL

- ◆ If we had declared phone NOT NULL, this insertion would have been rejected.

17

## Adding Attributes

- ◆ We may change a relation schema by adding a new attribute ("column") by:

```
ALTER TABLE <name> ADD  
<attribute declaration>;
```

- ◆ Example:

```
ALTER TABLE Bars ADD  
phone CHAR(16)DEFAULT 'unlisted';
```

18

## Deleting Attributes

- ◆ Remove an attribute from a relation schema by:

```
ALTER TABLE <name>
  DROP <attribute>;
```

- ◆ Example: we don't really need the license attribute for bars:

```
ALTER TABLE Bars DROP license;
```

19

## Views

- ◆ A view is a "virtual table," a relation that is defined in terms of the contents of other tables and views.

- ◆ Declare by:

```
CREATE VIEW <name> AS <query>;
```

- ◆ In contrast, a relation whose value is really stored in the database is called a *base table*.

20

## Example: View Definition

- ◆ CanDrink(drinker, beer) is a view "containing" the drinker-beer pairs such that the drinker frequents at least one bar that serves the beer:

```
CREATE VIEW CanDrink AS
  SELECT drinker, beer
  FROM Frequents, Sells
  WHERE Frequents.bar = Sells.bar;
```

21

## Example: Accessing a View

- ◆ You may query a view as if it were a base table.
  - ◆ There is a limited ability to modify views if the modification makes sense as a modification of the underlying base table.
- ◆ Example:

```
SELECT beer FROM CanDrink
WHERE drinker = 'Sally';
```

22

## What Happens When a View Is Used?

- ◆ The DBMS starts by interpreting the query as if the view were a base table.
  - ◆ Typical DBMS turns the query into something like relational algebra.
- ◆ The queries defining any views used by the query are also replaced by their algebraic equivalents, and "spliced into" the expression tree for the query.

23

## Example: View Expansion



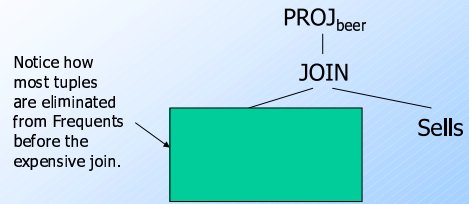
24

## DMBS Optimization

- ◆ It is interesting to observe that the typical DBMS will then “optimize” the query by transforming the algebraic expression to one that can be executed faster.
- ◆ Key optimizations:
  1. Push selections down the tree.
  2. Eliminate unnecessary projections.

25

## Example: Optimization



26