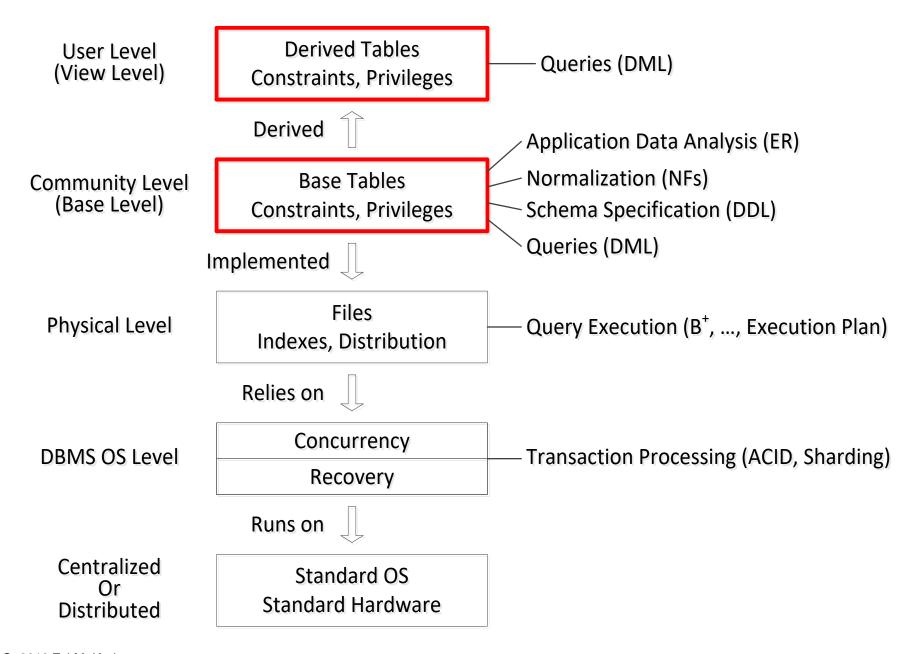
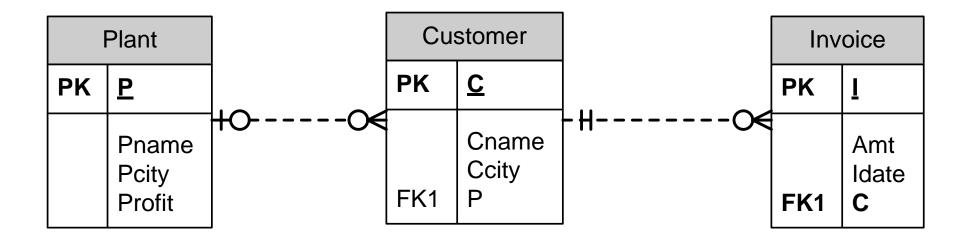
# Unit 6 SQL: Data Definition Language And Data Control Language For Relational Databases

#### DDL and DCL in Context



# Introduction

# The Tables To Be Defined And Some More



- This is the database we will define
- We do not pay attention to domains of attributes as there is not much interesting in that
- |-0 means zero or one (customer has zero or one plant). | | means exactly one (invoice goes to one customer).

# Defining A Relational Database

- We will focus only on some of the basic capabilities for defining a relational database
- The standard is very extensive and provides for a rich repertoire of useful capabilities
- We touch on the basics.
- But enough for defining reasonable-complexity databases

# CREATE TABLE (Specifying A Relation Schema)

CREATE TABLE Plant (
 P CHAR(10),
 Pname CHAR VARYING(10),
 Pcity CHAR VARYING(10),
 Profit NUMBER
 ):

- This is a minimal definition
  - Name of the table
  - Names of the columns
  - Domains of the columns

 CREATE TABLE Customer ( C CHAR(10), Cname CHAR VARYING(10), Ccity CHAR VARYING(10), P CHAR(10)
 );

- This is a minimal definition
  - Name of the table
  - Names of the columns
  - Domains of the columns

CREATE TABLE Invoice (
 I CHAR(10),
 Amt NUMBER,
 Idate DATE,
 C CHAR(10)
 ):

- This is a minimal definition
  - Name of the table
  - Names of the columns
  - Domains of the columns

# Permitted Data Types (Data Domains)

- SQL standard specifies permitted data types, which can be roughly grouped into several families
  - Integers (small or long)
  - Real numbers (standard or double length and with various precisions)
  - Character strings (fixed or variable length)
  - Bit strings (fixed or variable length)
  - Dates and times (various specifications with various time "granularity")
- Systems have different implementations and modifications of the standard

#### Notation

- In some of the slides, new concepts will be introduced
- The SQL specifications will be in red color and bold to draw attention to them

# Minimum Specification For Plant

```
CREATE TABLE Plant (
P CHAR(10) NOT NULL,
Pname CHAR VARYING(10),
Pcity CHAR VARYING(10),
Profit NUMBER,
CONSTRAINT C_20 PRIMARY KEY (P),
CONSTRAINT C_30 UNIQUE (Pcity, Profit),
CONSTRAINT C_40 CHECK (Pcity <> Pname),
CONSTRAINT C_50 CHECK ((Pcity <> 'Chicago') OR (Profit > 1000))
```

- This is a minimal definition
  - Name of the table
  - Names of the columns
  - Domains of the columns

#### **Not Null**

```
    CREATE TABLE Plant (
        P CHAR(10) NOT NULL,
        Pname CHAR VARYING(10),
        Pcity CHAR VARYING(10),
        Profit NUMBER,
        CONSTRAINT C_20 PRIMARY KEY (P),
        CONSTRAINT C_30 UNIQUE (Pcity, Profit),
        CONSTRAINT C_40 CHECK ( Pcity <> Pname ),
        CONSTRAINT C_50 CHECK ( (Pcity <> 'Chicago') OR (Profit > 1000) )
        );
```

 Specifies that the values in these columns (could be more than one such column) must not be NULL

#### **Constraints**

```
    CREATE TABLE Plant (
        P CHAR(10) NOT NULL,
        Pname CHAR VARYING(10),
        Pcity CHAR VARYING(10),
        Profit NUMBER,
        CONSTRAINT C_20 PRIMARY KEY (P),
        CONSTRAINT C_30 UNIQUE (Pcity, Profit),
        CONSTRAINT C_40 CHECK ( Pcity <> Pname ),
        CONSTRAINT C_50 CHECK ( (Pcity <> 'Chicago') OR (Profit > 1000) )
        );
```

- Some constraint on the tables
  - Constraint name, here C\_20, is not required, but it is a very good idea to give unique names to a constraint, so it can be later DROPPed or ALTERed by referring to it by its name
  - Constraint name should reflect something about the constraint, but to save space I used short names

# Primary Key

```
CREATE TABLE Plant (
P CHAR(10) NOT NULL,
Pname CHAR VARYING(10),
Pcity CHAR VARYING(10),
Profit NUMBER,
CONSTRAINT C_20 PRIMARY KEY (P),
CONSTRAINT C_30 UNIQUE (Pcity, Profit),
CONSTRAINT C_40 CHECK (Pcity <> Pname),
CONSTRAINT C_50 CHECK ((Pcity <> 'Chicago') OR (Profit > 1000))
```

- The column P is the primary key (only one possible)
  - This requires that it must not be NULL (this is not necessary to state in some systems, as the primary key condition automatically forces it by SQL standard)
- Primary key could be several columns, e.g., PRIMARY KEY(Pcity, Profit); but not in our example

### **Unique**

```
CREATE TABLE Plant (
P CHAR(10) NOT NULL,
Pname CHAR VARYING(10),
Pcity CHAR VARYING(10),
Profit NUMBER,
CONSTRAINT C_20 PRIMARY KEY (P),
CONSTRAINT C_30 UNIQUE (Pcity, Profit),
CONSTRAINT C_40 CHECK (Pcity <> Pname),
CONSTRAINT C_50 CHECK ((Pcity <> 'Chicago') OR (Profit > 1000))
```

- The "subtuple" Pcity, Pname is a candidate key
  - There is no requirement, in general, about any of its column being not NULL
  - But for every value of the pair there is at most one tuple in Plant
  - To reiterate: all the columns of the primary key must not be NULL

# Check (And Unknown)

```
CREATE TABLE Plant (
P CHAR(10) NOT NULL,
Pname CHAR VARYING(10),
Pcity CHAR VARYING(10),
Profit NUMBER,
CONSTRAINT C_20 PRIMARY KEY (P),
CONSTRAINT C_30 UNIQUE (Pcity, Profit),
CONSTRAINT C_40 CHECK (Pcity <> Pname),
CONSTRAINT C_50 CHECK (Pcity <> 'Chicago') OR (Profit > 1000))
```

- Every tuple must satisfy this condition
- The condition is satisfied, when it is either
  - TRUE, or
  - **UNKNOWN** (so if Pcity is Null, this condition is satisfied)
- Recall in SQL SELECT queries: UNKNOWN implies not satisfied, effectively FALSE; here effectively TRUE

#### Check

```
CREATE TABLE Plant (
P CHAR(10) NOT NULL,
Pname CHAR VARYING(10),
Pcity CHAR VARYING(10),
Profit NUMBER,
CONSTRAINT C_20 PRIMARY KEY (P),
CONSTRAINT C_30 UNIQUE (Pcity, Profit),
CONSTRAINT C_40 CHECK (Pcity <> Pname),
CONSTRAINT C_50 CHECK (Pcity <> 'Chicago') OR
(Profit > 1000))
```

This is: (Pcity = 'Chicago') → (Profit > 1000)
 By standard rules of Boolean operators (propositional calculus)

# Check (And Unknown)

- CREATE TABLE Plant ( P CHAR(10) NOT NULL, Pname CHAR VARYING(10), Pcity CHAR VARYING(10), Profit NUMBER, CONSTRAINT C\_20 PRIMARY KEY (P), CONSTRAINT C\_30 UNIQUE (Pcity, Profit), CONSTRAINT C\_40 CHECK (Pcity <> Pname), CONSTRAINT C\_50 CHECK (Pcity <> 'Chicago') OR (Profit > 1000))
- Returning to semantics of UNKNOWN and OR, this constraint has to evaluate to TRUE or UNKNOWN to be satisfied, so we need
   ( Pcity is not Chicago or IS NULL) or ( Profit is greater than 1000 or IS NULL)
- So for Chicago the profit is greater than 1000 or IS NULL

#### **Defaults**

```
    CREATE TABLE Customer (
        C CHAR(10) NOT NULL,
        Cname CHAR VARYING(10) DEFAULT NULL,
        Ccity CHAR VARYING(10),
        P CHAR(10) DEFAULT 'Main',
        CONSTRAINT C_60 PRIMARY KEY (C),
        CONSTRAINT C_70 FOREIGN KEY (P) REFERENCES Plant(P) ON DELETE SET NULL
        );
```

- It is possible to specify defaults
  - E.g., when a tuple is inserted and only C and Ccity are specified, the system knows to specify NULL for Cname and Main for P

# Foreign Key

- CREATE TABLE Customer (
   C CHAR(10) NOT NULL,
   Cname CHAR VARYING(10) DEFAULT NULL,
   Ccity CHAR VARYING(10),
   P CHAR(10) DEFAULT 'Main',
   CONSTRAINT C\_60 PRIMARY KEY (C),
   CONSTRAINT C\_70 FOREIGN KEY (P) REFERENCES
   Plant(P) ON DELETE SET NULL
   );
- P in Customer has to reference the primary key of Plant (in this example) or a UNIQUE (not in this example)
- This means that one of two conditions is satisfied
  - P has a non NULL value and this value of P appears in Plant
  - P is NULL
     Of course, if P were specified as NOT NULL, this could not be the case

#### On Delete Set Null

- CREATE TABLE Customer (
   C CHAR(10) NOT NULL,
   Cname CHAR VARYING(10) DEFAULT NULL,
   Ccity CHAR VARYING(10),
   P CHAR(10) DEFAULT 'Main',
   CONSTRAINT C\_60 PRIMARY KEY (C),
   CONSTRAINT C\_70 FOREIGN KEY (P) REFERENCES Plant(P) ON DELETE SET NULL
   );
- P in Customer has to reference the primary key of Plant or a UNIQUE
- But note, that P in Customer is not required to be NOT NULL
- We have a specification that if P is listed in some tuple of Customer and that tuple with that P is deleted from Plant then that value of P in Customer is replaced by NULL

#### **Not Null**

CREATE TABLE Invoice (
 I CHAR(10) NOT NULL,
 Amt NUMBER,
 Idate DATE,
 C CHAR(10) NOT NULL,
 CONSTRAINT C\_80 PRIMARY KEY (I),
 CONSTRAINT C\_90 FOREIGN KEY (C) REFERENCES
 Customer(C) ON DELETE CASCADE
 );

 NOT NULL can be specified also for columns not in the primary key

#### On Delete Cascade

CREATE TABLE Invoice (
 I CHAR(10) NOT NULL,
 Amt NUMBER,
 Idate DATE,
 C CHAR(10) NOT NULL,
 CONSTRAINT C\_80 PRIMARY KEY (I),
 CONSTRAINT C\_90 FOREIGN KEY (C) REFERENCES
 Customer(C) ON DELETE CASCADE
 );

• We have a specification that if C listed in some tuple of Invoice is deleted from Customer (that is the tuple with this value of primary key is deleted), all the tuples with this value of C in Invoice must be deleted

# Maintenance of Referential Integrity

- In order to maintain referential integrity constraints, the system will reject any operation that will violate it.
  - There are subtle interactions if NULLs are present; we will not discuss them here

```
    CREATE TABLE Invoice (
        I CHAR(10) NOT NULL,
        Amt NUMBER,
        Idate DATE,
        C CHAR(10) NOT NULL,
        CONSTRAINT C_80 PRIMARY KEY (I),
        CONSTRAINT C_90 FOREIGN KEY (C) REFERENCES
        Customer(C) ON...
);
```

# Maintenance of Referential Integrity On Update

- This constraint "will act" when:
  - An INSERT or an UPDATE on Invoice is attempted that would produce there a value of C that does not exist in Customer.
  - A DELETE or an UPDATE on Customer is attempted that will leave tuples in Invoice in which the value of C does not appear in any tuple of Customer.
- The default is NO ACTION, that is the above will not be permitted
- We will briefly discuss other options in case of UPDATEs of Customer and skip what happens in other cases
  - CASCADE: the new value of the primary key (or UNIQUE if the foreign key refers to UNIQUE attribute or attributes) is copied to the foreign key
  - SET NULL: the new value of the foreign key (or UNIQUE) is NULL (if NULL is allowed)
  - SET DEFAULT: the new value of the foreign key (or UNIQUE) is a specified default value (which of course has to appear in Customer)

# Starting With A Basic Definition

- It is generally a good idea to start with a basic definition and augment it with constraints later
- We see how this is done

CREATE TABLE Plant (
 P CHAR(10) NOT NULL,
 Pname CHAR VARYING(10),
 Pcity CHAR VARYING(10),
 Profit NUMBER
 );

CREATE TABLE Customer (
 C CHAR(10) NOT NULL,
 Cname CHAR VARYING(10) DEFAULT (NULL),
 Ccity CHAR VARYING(10),
 P CHAR(10) DEFAULT ('Main')
 );

CREATE TABLE Invoice (
 I CHAR(10) NOT NULL,
 Amt NUMBER,
 Idate DATE,
 C CHAR(10) NOT NULL
 );

# More On Specifying A Relation Schema

# Altering The Definition To Add Constraints

- ALTER TABLE Plant ADD CONSTRAINT C\_20 PRIMARY KEY (P);
- ALTER TABLE Customer ADD CONSTRAINT C\_60 PRIMARY KEY (C);
- ALTER TABLE Invoice ADD CONSTRAINT C\_80 PRIMARY KEY (I);
- ALTER TABLE Customer ADD CONSTRAINT C\_70
   FOREIGN KEY (P) REFERENCES Plant(P) ON DELETE
   SET NULL;
- ALTER TABLE Invoice ADD CONSTRAINT C\_90
   FOREIGN KEY (C) REFERENCES Customer(C) ON
   DELETE CASCADE;

# Altering The Definition To Add Constraints

- ALTER TABLE Plant ADD CONSTRAINT C\_30 UNIQUE (Pcity, Profit);
- ALTER TABLE Plant ADD CONSTRAINT C\_40 CHECK ( Pcity <> Pname );
- ALTER TABLE Plant ADD CONSTRAINT C\_50 CHECK ( (Pcity <> 'Chicago') OR (Profit > 1000) );

# Adding Constraint Not Currently Satisfied

What happens if a table is ALTERed with a CONSTRAINT that is currently not satisfied by the table?

```
drop table TEST_UNKNOWN;
create table TEST UNKNOWN (
X CHAR VARYING (10),
 Y CHAR VARYING (10)
 );
Insert into TEST UNKNOWN values('a','b');
select *
from TEST UNKNOWN;
alter table TEST UNKNOWN add constraint
TEST UNKNOWN check (X=Y);
Insert into TEST UNKNOWN values('c','d');
select *
from TEST UNKNOWN;
```

# Adding Constraint Not Currently Satisfied

The constraint is rejected and the system proceeds

```
Table dropped.
Table created.
1 row created.
X
           b
a
alter table TEST UNKNOWN add constraint
TEST UNKNOWN check (X=Y)
ERROR at line 1:
ORA-02293: cannot validate (KEDEM.TEST UNKNOWN) -
check constraint violated
1 row created.
X
           Y
           b
a
           d
```

# FOREIGN KEY Can Reference The Table Itself (We Have Seen This Before)

- We store information about women
- With each woman, we store her mother, if the mother is known
- The mother is a woman
- create table WOMAN (
   SSN CHAR(9) not null,
   NAME CHAR VARYING(10) default (null),
   MOTHER CHAR(9) default (null)
   );

 alter table WOMAN add constraint C\_01 primary key (SSN);
 alter table WOMAN add constraint C\_02 foreign key (MOTHER) references WOMAN(SSN);

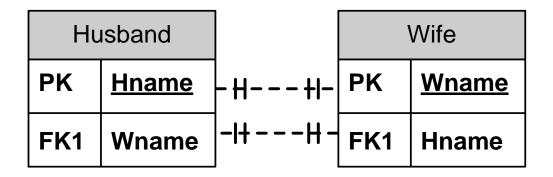
## Referencing Unique

- Foreign key can also refer to UNIQUE and not only to PRIMARY KEY
- So we could also add to our database such a constraint, for which we look at an example
- CREATE TABLE Test (
   TestID CHAR(10) NOT NULL,
   TestPname CHAR VARYING(10),
   TestPcity CHAR VARYING(10),
   TestProfit NUMBER
   );

 ALTER TABLE Test ADD CONSTRAINT C\_99 FOREIGN KEY (TestPcity, TestProfit) REFERENCES Plant(Pcity, Profit);

# Sometimes It Is Necessary To Define Tables First And Then Add Constraints

- If you define a foreign key constraint, it cannot refer to a table that has not yet been designed
- Consider the following Visio diagram for some types of marriages



- You have "circular" dependencies
  - You cannot fully define Husband before Wife
  - You cannot fully define Wife before Husband
- Therefore
  - Produce basic definitions for Husband and Wife
  - 2. Alter them by adding constraints later

#### When Are Constraints Checked?

- Essentially, each row of the TABLE has to satisfy the constraint
- Constraints are checked as tables are modified (immediately or deferred until later, generally until the end of a transaction)
- The actual checking is done either before/after each statement or at the end of a transaction
  - It is done at the end of a transaction to allow changes that cannot be done in a single statement
  - For example if Total = Checking + Savings and money is moved from Checking to Savings this constraint could be violated in the middle of the move, but must be satisfied before and after the move
- So as part of specification of a constraint one can specify
  - NOT DEFERRABLE (this is the default), or
  - DEFERRABLE

## **Assertions**

#### **Assertions**

- Assertion is like a CHECK constraint, but it is not attached to a TABLE definition; it is "free floating"
- Assertions are more natural than previously described constraints, especially when referring to several tables
- However, they are frequently not implemented
- It is very difficult to implement them both correctly and efficiently

- Back to our old example
- CREATE TABLE City
   Country NOT NULL,
   State,
   Name NOT NULL,
   Longitude NOT NULL,
   Latitude NOT NULL
   );
- A city can be identified in one of two ways
  - By its geographic location: Longitude and Latitude
  - By its official "hierarchy of names": Country, State, Name
- It may be the case that some countries are not partitioned into states (or equivalent units)
  - For them it is natural to allow State to be NULL, as opposed to faking something

- The following is OK
- CREATE TABLE City
   Country NOT NULL,
   State,
   Name NOT NULL,
   Longitude NOT NULL,
   Latitude NOT NULL,
   UNIQUE (Country, State, Name),
   PRIMARY KEY (Longitude, Latitude) );

- The following is not OK
- CREATE TABLE City
   Country NOT NULL,
   State,
   Name NOT NULL,
   Longitude NOT NULL,
   Latitude NOT NULL,
   PRIMARY KEY (Country, State, Name),
   UNIQUE (Longitude, Latitude) );
- Because State could be NULL, not permitted in primary key
- We will see why primary keys should not contain NULLs (there are other reasons for this too)

#### Small database

- CREATE TABLE City\_Population
   Country NOT NULL,
   State,
   Name NOT NULL,
   Longitude NOT NULL,
   Latitude NOT NULL,
   Population,
   PRIMARY KEY (Country, State, Name),
   UNIQUE (Longitude, Latitude) );
- CREATE TABLE City\_Size
   Country NOT NULL,
   State,
   Name NOT NULL,
   Longitude NOT NULL,
   Latitude NOT NULL,
   Size,
   PRIMARY KEY (Country, State, Name),
   UNIQUE (Longitude, Latitude) );

We want to combine information about cities from both tables

- SELECT \*
   FROM City\_Population, City\_Size
   WHERE (City\_Population.Country = City\_Size.Country
   AND City\_Population.State = City\_Size.State
   AND City\_Population.Name = City\_Size.Name);
- We will not get anything for cities in countries that are not partitioned into states!
- Because the result of comparison of say (Monaco, NULL, Monaco-Ville) = (Monaco, NULL, Monaco-Ville) is UNKNOWN
- Therefore, we cannot have (Country, State, Name) as PRIMARY KEY

#### Workaround

- The following can be done if we want to use UNIQUE set of attributes for joining in our example
- SELECT \*
  FROM City\_Population, City\_Size
  WHERE City\_Population.Country = City\_Size.Country
  AND City\_Population.Name = City\_Size.Name
  AND ( City\_Population.State = City\_Size.State
  OR (City\_Population.State IS NULL
  AND City\_Size.State IS NULL ) );
- But this is very burdensome and potentially easily forgotten

## **AUTOINCREMENT** for the Primary Key

## Auto-incrementing Primary Keys

- Primary keys are critical to the maintenance of the database
  - The primary key, in effect, identifies a specific row in a table (assume no duplicate rows, for simplicity)
  - It is used typically for binary many-to-one mappings
- Frequently, it is desirable that primary keys do not reflect anything in the real world
  - Do not use, Social Security Numbers, Passport Numbers, or similar
- Frequently, it is desirable that primary keys occupy little space (this is important) and that they be "meaningless"
  - To have less space devoted to foreign keys (which are typically copies of primary keys)
  - To have less space devoted to indexes as we will see in a future unit; this is important for performance

Skip to page 65.

- The simplest case is to start with 1 and increment by 1
- Replace

```
    CREATE TABLE Plant (
        P CHAR(10) NOT NULL,
        Pname CHAR VARYING(10),
        Pcity CHAR VARYING(10),
        Profit NUMBER,
        PRIMARY KEY (P)
        );
        by
```

CREATE TABLE Plant (
 Plant\_Id NUMBER GENERATED ALWAYS AS IDENTITY,
 P CHAR(10) NOT NULL,
 Pname CHAR VARYING(10),
 Pcity CHAR VARYING(10),
 Profit NUMBER,
 PRIMARY KEY (Plant\_Id),
 UNIQUE (P),
 ).

- Plant\_Id will be auto-generated
- The system needs to be told that it will serve as a primary key, otherwise it will not know that
- Auto-generated primary key must be a number and a single column
- When we insert the first tuple into Plant, specifying some values of P, Pname, Pcity, Profit, then 1 will be automatically inserted into Plant\_Id
- So if we insert (276, Main, Chicago, 0.5), the system will insert (1, 276, Main, Chicago, 0.5)
- When we insert the second tuple into Plant, specifying some values of P, Pname, Pcity, Profit, then 2 will be automatically inserted into Plant\_Id
- So if we insert (93, Small, Boston, 0.6), the system will insert (2, 93, Small, Boston, 0.6)

- Standard users cannot modify such auto-generated primary keys
- There are various option for the autoincrement keys
  - User can specify, e.g., start with 7 and increment by 12
  - User can specify the value of the autoincrement key for a new tuple (not ALWAYS by the systems as in the example)
- Other attributes, and not only the primary key, can also be auto-generated

```
CREATE TABLE R(
A ID NUMBER GENERATED ALWAYS AS IDENTITY,
PRIMARY KEY (A ID),
A CHAR (30) NOT NULL,
UNIQUE (A)
);
INSERT INTO R (A) VALUES('ALICE');
INSERT INTO R (A) VALUES('BOB');
SELECT *
FROM R;
      A ID A
         1 ALICE
         2 BOB
```

The old primary key was A

```
UPDATE R
SET (A ID) = 5
WHERE \overline{A} = 'ALICE';
SET (A_ID) = 5
ERROR at line 2:
ORA-32796: cannot update a generated always identity column
SELECT *
FROM R ;
      A ID A
         1 ALICE
         2 BOB
```

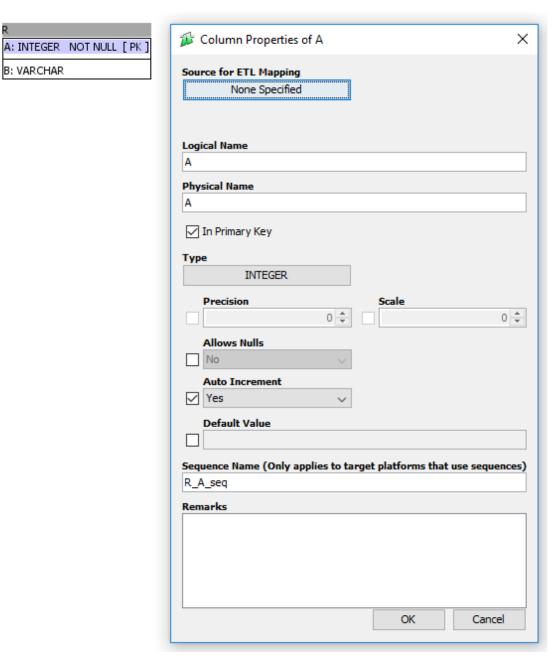
Cannot change the values of the primary key in the table

```
CREATE TABLE S (
B ID NUMBER GENERATED ALWAYS AS IDENTITY,
B CHAR (30) NOT NULL,
UNIQUE (B),
C NUMBER,
FOREIGN KEY (C) REFERENCES R (A ID)
);
INSERT INTO S (B) VALUES('CAROL');
INSERT INTO S (B) VALUES('DON');
SELECT *
FROM S;
      B ID B
         1 CAROL
         2 DON
```

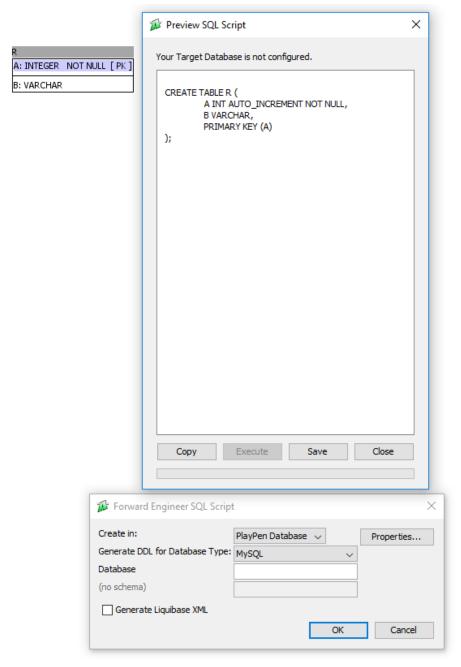
Note foreign key attribute "to connect to" table R

"Connecting" Don to Alice

#### SQL Power Architect Definition



## SQL Power Architect Generated SQL For MySQL



## More On UNKNOWN

- We define a table and insert tuples into it
- Our second tuple is interesting
  - For DDL and DML INSERT this satisfies the constraint (actually UNKNOWN)
  - For DML SELECT this does not satisfy the constraint (actually UNKNOWN)

```
create table TEST_UNKNOWN (
   X CHAR VARYING(10),
   Y CHAR VARYING(10),
   check (X=Y)
   );

Insert into TEST_UNKNOWN values('a','a');
Insert into TEST_UNKNOWN values('b',null);
Insert into TEST_UNKNOWN values('c','d');
```

```
Table created.
1 row created.
1 row created.
Insert into TEST UNKNOWN values('c','d')
*
ERROR at line 1:
ORA-02290: check constraint (KEDEM.SYS C00111308)
violated
```

 Note that the third tuple does not satisfy the constraint for DDL

```
select *
from TEST_UNKNOWN;

X     Y

a     a
b
```

 The table containing tuples that satisfy the condition X = Y has two tuples

```
select *
from TEST_UNKNOWN
where x=y;

X    Y
-----
a   a
```

One tuple is output when condition X = Y is specified

## **VIEWs**

#### **Views**

- We now proceed to the definition of the user level, that is to the definition of views
- Generally speaking, a view consists of "continuously current" table that is derived by means of a SELECT statement from other tables
- For example, we could write

```
CREATE VIEW GoodPlant
AS SELECT *
FROM Plant
WHERE Profit > 0.0;
```

We could now execute a query against the view

```
SELECT P
FROM GoodPlant
WHERE City = 'Chicago';
```

This will give all P for Chicago where Profit is positive

## Views Versus Snapshots

- View is not a snapshot, which is static
- View can be thought of as a macro.
- Therefore we should think of the following procedure for computing the answer to the last query:
- The system computes the value of the table GoodPlant
- The system executes the query against the table GoodPlant
- In practice, the system may compute the answer differently (e.g. as two selects), however, the result will be equivalent to the canonical procedure described above

## Views Defined by Queries

In general, almost any query definition could be used to define a view, so we could have:

```
CREATE VIEW Customer_In_The_City
AS SELECT Cname
FROM Plant, Customer
WHERE Pcity = Ccity
AND Plant.C = Customer.C;
```

 Views can also be defined WITH CHECK OPTION, which we will discuss later.

## **Updating Views**

- Views, in principle, can be updated just like the base tables
- However, all updates to views must be reflected in a correct update to the base table.
- Let us start with the view

```
CREATE VIEW GoodPlant
AS SELECT *
FROM Plant
WHERE Profit > 0.0;
```

Then it is clear what should be inserted into the table Plant if the following is issued:

```
INSERT INTO GoodPlant VALUES (675, 'Major', 'Philadelphia', .25);
```

## Updating Views While Forcing Defaults

Consider now the view

CREATE VIEW SomePlant AS SELECT P, Pname, City FROM Plant;

Then, if the value of Profit can be NULL or has a defined default value, it is clear what should be inserted into the table Plant if the following is issued:

INSERT INTO SomePlant VALUES (675, 'Major', 'Philadelphia');

## Update To View Not Reflected In It

Consider the view

```
CREATE VIEW Plant_In_Chicago
AS SELECT *
FROM Plant
WHERE City = 'Chicago';
```

According to SQL the following update is valid

```
INSERT INTO Plant_In_Chicago VALUES (897,'Minor','Philadelphia',.1);
```

It is reflected properly in the base table Plant, however, it does not show in the view, of course

## Checking for Updates Not Reflected in View

Instead, if we define the view

```
CREATE VIEW Plant_In_Chicago
AS SELECT *
FROM Plant
WHERE City = 'Chicago'
WITH CHECK OPTION;
```

Then the update

```
INSERT INTO Plant_In_Chicago VALUES (897,'Minor','Philadelphia',.1);
```

will be rejected

# Some Views Cannot Be Updated

Consider the view

CREATE VIEW Profit\_On\_Date
AS SELECT Profit, Date
FROM Plant, Invoice, Customer
WHERE Plant.P = Customer.P
AND Invoice.C = Customer.C;

There is no meaning to the update

INSERT INTO Profit\_On\_Date VALUES (0.9,2009-02-01);

- Why?
  - Because there is no well-defined way for reflecting this update in the base tables
  - Several tables would need to be modified in a non-deterministic fashion

# Some Views That Cannot Be Updated

Consider the view

```
CREATE VIEW Avg_Amt
AS SELECT AVG(Amt)
FROM Invoice
WHERE Idate = '2009-02-01';
```

It is not permitted to issue:

```
INSERT INTO Avg_Amt VALUES (75);
```

There is no way of changing the base tables in a well-defined way.

# Some Views That Cannot Be Updated

Consider the view

CREATE VIEW Cities\_With\_Plant AS SELECT Pcity FROM Plant;

It is not permitted to issue

INSERT INTO Cities\_With\_Plant VALUES ('Palm Beach');

P cannot have a NULL value, as it was the primary key

# Views That Are Updatable In Standard SQL

- The following are the major conditions (there are others) that must be true for an updatable view
  - Is drawn from one TABLE
     No joins, unions, differences, intersections
  - If the underlying TABLE is a view, it must be updatable
  - The SELECTed columns are column references (each column at most once and without DISTINCT) and not values or aggregates
  - No GROUP BY
  - Skip to page 88.

#### **TRIGGERs**

```
CREATE TABLE r (
a CHAR (10) NOT NULL,
b CHAR (10) NOT NULL,
PRIMARY KEY (a)
);
```

CREATE TABLE s ( a CHAR (10) NOT NULL, c CHAR (10) NOT NULL, PRIMARY KEY (a) );

CREATE VIEW t AS SELECT r.a AS a, r.b AS b, s.c AS c FROM r, s WHERE r.a = s.a;

CREATE TRIGGER trigger02
 INSTEAD OF UPDATE ON t
 REFERENCING NEW AS new
 BEGIN UPDATE s
 SET c = :new.c
 WHERE a = :old.a;
 END trigger02;
 .
 RUN

UPDATE t
 SET c = 'q'
 WHERE a = '2';

Tables R, S, and view T before update on the view

| A     | В      |   |
|-------|--------|---|
| 1 2   | e<br>f |   |
| A<br> | C      |   |
| 1     | m      |   |
| 2     | n      |   |
| 3     | 0      |   |
|       |        |   |
| A     | В      | C |
| 1     | e      | m |
| 2     | f      | n |

 Tables R, S, and view T after update on the view using trigger02

| A           | В |   |
|-------------|---|---|
|             |   |   |
| 1           | е |   |
| 2           | f |   |
|             |   |   |
| A           | C |   |
| A           |   |   |
| 1           | • |   |
| _           | m |   |
| 2           | q |   |
| 1<br>2<br>3 | 0 |   |
|             |   |   |
| _           | _ |   |
| A           | В | C |
|             |   |   |
| 1           | е | m |
| 2           | f | q |

Triggers will allow you to do very strange things

CREATE TRIGGER trigger03
 INSTEAD OF UPDATE ON t
 REFERENCING NEW AS new
 BEGIN UPDATE r
 SET b = :new.c
 WHERE a = :old.a;
 END trigger03;
 .
 RUN

UPDATE t
 SET c = 'q'
 WHERE a = '2';

Tables R, S, and view T before update on the view

| A           | В |   |
|-------------|---|---|
| 1           | е |   |
| 2           | f |   |
| A           | С |   |
| 1           | m |   |
| 1<br>2<br>3 | n |   |
| 3           | 0 |   |
| A<br>       | В | C |
| 1           | е | m |
| 2           | f | n |

 Tables R, S, and view T after update on the view using trigger03

| A | В |   |
|---|---|---|
|   |   |   |
| 1 | е |   |
| 2 | q |   |
|   |   |   |
| A | C |   |
|   |   |   |
| 1 | m |   |
| 2 | n |   |
| 3 | 0 |   |
|   |   |   |
| A | В | C |
|   |   |   |
| 1 | e | m |
| 2 | q | n |

# **Modifying Objects**

#### ALTER, DROP, REPLACE

- In general, if an object is CREATEd, in can subsequently be
  - ALTERed (some features are changed)
  - DROPped (removed)
- Allowing such modifications is why it is generally a good idea to name constraints, assertions, triggers, etc, while creating them

# **Privileges**

# **Privileges**

- Privileges can be granted to user or PUBLIC for
  - Operations
  - References

on

- Base tables
- Views
- These are technically part of Data Control Language or DCL

# Types of Privileges

- Data-Specific
  - Select
  - Insert
  - Update
  - Delete
  - References
- Object-Specific
  - Create
  - Drop
  - Alter
- Execution
  - Execute (a PL/SQL procedure)

# Examples of Privileges

- A typical instruction is:
  - GRANT SELECT, INSERT ON Customer TO Li, Brown;
- Privileges can be restricted to columns:
  - GRANT SELECT ON Customer.City TO Li, Brown;
- It is possible to grant all privileges by:
  - GRANT ALL
     ON Customer
     TO Li, Brown;

#### Passing Privileges

- It is possible to allow the users to pass the privileges to other users by issuing:
  - GRANT SELECT, INSERT ON Customer TO Li, Brown WITH GRANT OPTION;
- Then Li can issue
  - GRANT SELECT ON Customer.City TO JONES;

#### Privilege To Reference

- It is possible to allow a user to use columns in a table as foreign keys referring to primary keys or UNIQUE in a table to which the user has no privileges:
  - GRANT ALL ON Invoice TO Li;
  - GRANT REFERENCES (C)
     ON Customer
     TO Li;
- This privilege must be explicitly granted because Li may be able to check if a particular C appears in Customer
  - To check if C = 123456789 appears in Customer, Li attempts to INSERT an Invoice from C = 123456789
  - If C = 123456789 does not appear in Customer, the database will complain about violation of FOREIGN KEY constraint
  - If C = 123456789 appears in Customer, the database will not complain about violation of FOREIGN KEY constraint
  - This is how Li can check this and that's why this needs to be explicitly permitted if Li can insert tuples into Invoice

# Privilege To Reference

- We assumed that C is a semantically meaningful number, such as SSN
  - That's why we wanted to keep it confidential whether the person with that SSN was in Customer
- If we use an autoincrement primary key the knowledge of the primary key does not provide too much useful semantic information (still: chronology + number of rows)
  - For example, the primary key could be just a row number, as we have done previously
  - Then, by adding tuples to Invoice Li can only learn (useless information) whether there is information about a customer in a particular row of Customer, without learning anything about the customer in that row
- So little information will leak even if we somebody has
  - All the privileges on Invoice
  - The privilege to reference on Customer

#### Privileges On Views

- It is possible to grant privileges on views.
  - Of course, the privilege must be meaningful. That is a privilege to update can be given only on a view that can be updated, etc.

# Revoking Privileges

- Privileges can be revoked
- There are various way to specify what happens with privileges granted by somebody from whom a privilege is taken away

# Key Ideas

# Key Ideas

- CREATE for defining tables
  - Specifying domains
  - PRIMARY KEY
  - UNIQUE
  - FOREIGN KEY
  - NOT NULL
  - CHECK
  - DEFAULT
- UNKNOWNs
- Maintenance of referential integrity
- Constraint checking
  - NOT DEFERRABLE
  - DEFERRABLE
- ASSERTIONs

# Key Ideas

- Auto-generated primary keys
- Triggers on INSERT, UPDATE, DELETE, firing BEFORE, AFTER, INSTEAD
- Views
- Updating a view with an SQL UPDATE
- Updating a view with an INSTEAD TRIGGER
- ALTER, DROP, REPLACE
- Privileges