Database Systems 2

Lecture 5

Advanced SQL 1

Data Definition

Lecture - Objectives

- Data types
- The Dataset Hierarchy
- Create Table Statement
- Constraints
- Alter Table Statement
- Named Constraints
- Drop Table Statement

ISO SQL Data Types (SQL 92)

Table 6.1 ISO SQL data types.

Data type	Declarations			
boolean character bit exact numeric approximate numeric datetime interval large objects	BOOLEAN CHAR BIT NUMERIC FLOAT DATE INTERVAL CHARACTER I	VARCHAR BIT VARYING DECIMAL REAL TIME LARGE OBJECT	INTEGER DOUBLE PRECISION TIMESTAMP BINARY LARGE OBJECT	SMALLINT

Connolly T and Begg C., 2004. Database Systems. 4th ed. Addison Wesley

Table 2-8. SQL2003 categories and datatypes

Category	Example datatypes and abbreviations	Description	
BINARY	BINARY LARGE OBJECT (BLOB)	This datatype stores binary string values in hexadecimal format. Binary string values are stored without reference to any char- acter set and without any length limit.	
BOOLEAN	BOOLEAN	This datatype stores truth values (either TRUE or FALSE).	
CHARACTER string types	CHAR CHARACTER VARYING (VARCHAR)	These datatypes can store any combination of characters from the applicable character set. The varying datatypes allow variable lengths, while the other datatypes allow only fixed lengths. Also, the variable-length datatypes automatically trim trailing spaces, while the other datatypes pad all open space.	
	NATIONAL CHARACTER (NCHAR) NATIONAL CHARACTER VARYING (NCHAR VARYING)	The national character datatypes are designed to support a particular implemen- tation-defined character set.	
	CHARACTER LARGE OBJECT (CLOB)	CHARACTER LARGE OBJECT and BINARY LARGE OBJECT are collectively referred to as large object string types.	
	NATIONAL CHARACTER LARGE OBJECT (NCLOB)	Same as CHARACTER LARGE OBJECT, but supports a particular implementation- defined character set.	
DATALINK	DATALINK	Defines a reference to a file or other external data source that is not part of the SQL environment.	
INTERVAL	INTERVAL	Specifies a set of time values or span of time.	
COLLECTION ARRAY MULTISET		ARRAY was offered in SQL99, and MULTISET was added in SQL2003. Whereas an ARRAY is a set-length, ordered collection of elements, MULTISET is a variable-length, unordered collection of elements. The elements in an ARRAY and a MULTISET must be of a predefined datatype.	

SQL 2003 Datatypes

Kline K, 2004, **SQL in a Nutshell,** 2nd ed. O'Reilly

Table 2-8. SQL2003 categories and datatypes (continued)

Category	Example datatypes and abbreviations	Description
NUMERIC	INTEGER (INT) SMALLINT BIGINT NUMERIC(p,s) DEC[IMAL](p,s) FLOAT(p,s) REAL DOUBLE PRECISION	These datatypes store exact numeric values (integers or decimals) or approximate (floating-point) values. INT, BIGINT, and SMALLINT store exact numeric values with a predefined precision and a scale of zero. NUMERIC and DEC store exact numeric values with a definable precision and a definable scale. FLOAT stores approximate numeric values with a definable precision, while REAL and DOUBLE PRECISION have predefined precisions. You may define a precision (p) and scale (s) for a DECIMAL, FLOAT, or NUMERIC datatype to indicate the total number of allowed digits and the number of decimal places, respectively. INT, SMALLINT, and DEC are sometimes referred to as exact numeric types, while FLOAT, REAL, and DOUBLE PRECISION are sometimes called approximate numeric types.
TEMPORAL	DATE TIME TIME WITH TIME ZONE TIMESTAMP TIMESTAMP WITH TIME ZONE	These datatypes handle values related to time. DATE and TIME are self-explanatory. Datatypes with the WITH TIME ZONE suffix also include a time zone offset. The TIMES-TAMP datatypes are used to store a value that represents a precise moment in time. Temporal types are also known as datetime types.
XML	XML	Stores XML data and can be used wherever a SQL datatype is allowed (e.g., for a column of a table, a field in a row, etc.). Operations on the values of an XML type assume a tree-based internal data structure. The internal data structure is based on the XML Information Set Recommendation (Infoset), using a new document information item called the XML root information item.

Not everyone adheres to the standards...

Table 2-9. Comparison of platform-specific datatypes

Vendor datatype	MySQL	Oracle	PostgreSQL	SQL Server	SQL2003 datatype
BFILE		Υ			None
BIGINT	γ		Υ	Υ	BIGINT
BINARY	Υ			Υ	BLOB
BINARY_FLOAT		Υ			FLOAT
BINARY_DOUBLE		Υ			DOUBLE PRECISION
BIT	Υ		Υ	Υ	None
BIT VARYING, VARBIT			Υ		None
BLOB	Υ	Υ			BLOB
BOOL, BOOLEAN	Υ		Υ		BOOLEAN
BOX			Υ		None
BYTEA			Υ		BLOB
CHAR, CHARACTER	Υ	Υ	Υ	Υ	CHARACTER
CHAR FOR BIT DATA					None
CIDR			Υ		None
CIRCLE			Υ		None
CLOB		Υ			CLOB
CURSOR				Υ	None
DATALINK					DATALINK
DATE	Υ	Υ	Υ	Υ	DATE
DATETIME	Υ			Υ	TIMESTAMP

This is just an extract....

Data Definition

 SQL DDL allows database objects such as schemas, domains, tables, views, and indexes to be created and destroyed.

Main SQL DDL statements are:

CREATE SCHEMA DROP SCHEMA

CREATE/ALTER DOMAIN DROP DOMAIN

CREATE/ALTER TABLE DROP TABLE

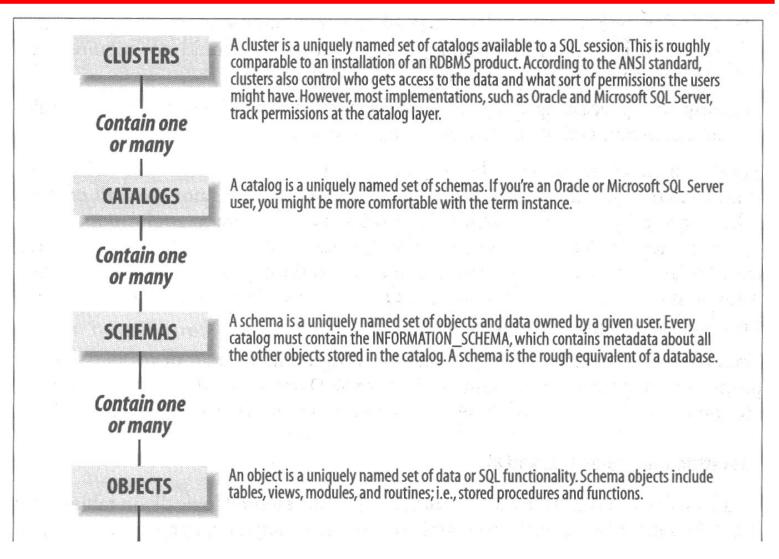
CREATE VIEW DROP VIEW

Many DBMSs also provide:

CREATE INDEX

DROP INDEX

SQL 2003 Dataset Hierarchy



CREATE SCHEMA

```
CREATE SCHEMA [Name | AUTHORIZATION CreatorId ]

DROP SCHEMA Name [RESTRICT | CASCADE ]
```

- With RESTRICT (default), schema must be empty or operation fails.
- With CASCADE, operation cascades to drop all objects associated with schema in order defined above. If any of these operations fail, DROP SCHEMA fails.

Oracle doesn't follow the standard here

CREATE SCHEMA

CREATE SCHEMA

Purpose

Use the CREATE SCHEMA statement to create multiple tables and views and perform multiple grants in your own schema in a single transaction.

To execute a CREATE SCHEMA statement, Oracle Database executes each included statement. If all statements execute successfully, then the database commits the transaction. If any statement results in an error, then the database rolls back all the statements.

Note: This statement does not actually create a schema. Oracle Database automatically creates a schema when you create a user (see CREATE USER on page 17-7). This statement lets you populate your schema with tables and views and grant privileges on those objects without having to issue multiple SQL statements in multiple transactions.

Prerequisites

The CREATE SCHEMA statement can include CREATE TABLE, CREATE VIEW, and GRANT statements. To issue a CREATE SCHEMA statement, you must have the privileges necessary to issue the included statements.

Syntax

create schema::=



CREATE TABLE

Note:

Language syntax definitions tend to use a variant of EBNF notation. (Extended Backus-Naur Form).

A term in italics is defined elsewhere

```
{ } means "repeated 1 or more times "
```

[] means "is optional"

means "either - or"

First, the short, abbreviated version.

CREATE TABLE

CREATE TABLE TableName { colName dataType [NOT NULL] [UNIQUE] [DEFAULT defaultOption] [CHECK searchCondition] [,...] [PRIMARY KEY (listOfColumns),] **FOREIGN KEY (listOfFKColumns)** [ON UPDATE referentialAction] [ON DELETE referentialAction]

A repeating list of column definitions, each one optionally followed by inline constraints, and followed by a comma (if there is another line).

An optional out-line definition of a Primary Key constraint (not repeating, because there can only be one)

REFERENCES ParentTableName [(listOfCKColumns)]

Red indicated a keyword or symbol which actually appears in the SQL command.

An optional repeating list of Foreign Key constraints, possibly including referential action clauses. Separated by commas

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[,...]

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CREATE TABLE

- Creates a table with one or more columns of the specified dataType.
- With NOT NULL, system rejects any attempt to insert a row with a null in that column.
- Can specify a DEFAULT value for the column.
- Primary keys should always be specified as NOT NULL.
- FOREIGN KEY clause specifies FK along with the referential action

```
CREATE [GLOBAL] [TEMPORARY] TABLE table name
[ ( {column | attribute} [SORT] [DEFAULT expression] [{column constraint |
      inline ref constraint} ] |
   {table constraint clause | table ref constraint} |
   {GROUP Log group (column [NO LOG] [,...]) [ALWAYS] | DATA
      (constraints [,...]) COLUMNS} ) ]
[ON COMMIT {DELETE | PRESERVE} ROWS]
[table constraint clause]
{ [physical attributes clause] [TABLESPACE tablespace name]
      [storage clause] [[NO]LOGGING] |
   [CLUSTER (column [,...])] |
   { [ORGANIZATION
     {HEAP [physical attributes clause][TABLESPACE
        tablespace_name][storage_clause]
         [COMPRESS | NOCOMPRESS] [[NO]LOGGING]
      INDEX [physical_attributes_clause][TABLESPACE
         tablespace name][storage clause]
         [PCTTHRESHOLD int] [COMPRESS [int] | NOCOMPRESS]
         [MAPPING TABLE | NOMAPPING][...] [[NO]LOGGING]
         [[INCLUDING column] OVERFLOW
            [physical_attributes_clause][TABLESPACE tablespace_name]
            [storage clause] [[NO]LOGGING] } ] |
      EXTERNAL ( [TYPE driver_type] ) DEFAULT DIRECTORY directory name
         [ACCESS PARAMETERS {USING CLOB subquery | ( opaque_format ) } ]
         LOCATION ( [directory name:]'location spec' [,...] )
         [REJECT LIMIT {int | UNLIMITED} ] } }
[{ENABLE | DISABLE} ROW MOVEMENT]
[[NO]CACHE] [[NO]MONITORING] [[NO]ROWDEPENDENCIES]
[PARALLEL int | NOPARALLEL] [NOSORT] [[NO]LOGGING]]
[COMPRESS [int] | NOCOMPRESS]
[{ENABLE | DISABLE} [[NO]VALIDATE]
   {UNIQUE (column [,...] | PRIMARY KEY | CONSTRAINT constraint_name} ]
   [USING INDEX {index name | CREATE INDEX statement} ] [EXCEPTIONS INTO]
   [CASCADE] [{KEEP | DROP} INDEX] ] |
[partition clause]
[AS subquery]
```

This is the FULL syntax for the

Oracle CREATE
 TABLE command

Other reference sources

See the online Oracle documentation:

http://docs.oracle.com/cd/E17952_01/refman-5.1-en/create-table.html

Or for the syntax diagram approach:

http://docs.oracle.com/cd/E11882_01/server.112/e41084/statements_7002.htm#i2095331

Example 1 - CREATE TABLE

```
CREATE TABLE PropertyForRent
                      VARCHAR (5),
  propertyNo
                      SMALLINT,
   rooms
                      DECIMAL(6,2),
  rent
                      VARCHAR (5),
  ownerNo
                                             These are called out-
  staffNo
                      VARCHAR (5),
                                             of-line constraints.
  branchNo
                      CHAR(4),
  PRIMARY KEY (propertyNo),
  FOREIGN KEY (staffNo) REFERENCES staff(staffNo)
);
```

Example 2 - CREATE TABLE

```
CREATE TABLE PropertyForRent
                      VARCHAR (5) PRIMARY KEY,
  propertyNo
                      SMALLINT,
   rooms
                      DECIMAL(6,2),
  rent
                      VARCHAR (5),
  ownerNo
  staffNo
                      VARCHAR(5) REFERENCES staff(staffNo),
  branchNo
                      CHAR (4)
  );
                                         These are called
                                         inline constraints.
```

CONSTRAINTS

Constraints in Tables

Why do we need constraints?

Do the constraints create the join, or does the SELECT query create the join?

You don't need to create the constraints at the same time as you create the table.

You can use ALTER TABLE to add them later.

What Types of Constraint Are There?

- There are five types of integrity constraints:
 - a. Required data.
 - Domain constraints.
 - c. Entity integrity.
 - d. Referential integrity.
 - e. Enterprise constraints.

Integrity Enhancement Feature

a. Required Data

position VARCHAR(10) NOT NULL

b. Domain Constraints

(aka Check Constraints)

sex VARCHAR(1) CHECK (sex IN ('M', 'F'))

c. Entity Integrity

- Primary key of a table must contain a unique, non-null value for each row.
- ISO standard supports PRIMARY KEY clause in CREATE and ALTER TABLE statements:

```
PRIMARY KEY(staffNo)
PRIMARY KEY(clientNo, propertyNo)
```

 Can only have one PRIMARY KEY clause per table. Can still ensure uniqueness for other fields using UNIQUE:

telno CHAR(5) UNIQUE,

d. Referential Integrity

- FK is column or set of columns that links each row in child table containing foreign FK to row of parent table containing matching PK.
- Referential integrity means that, if FK contains a value, that value must refer to existing row in parent table.
- ISO SQL standard supports definition of FKs with FOREIGN KEY clause in CREATE and ALTER TABLE:

FOREIGN KEY (branchNo) REFERENCES Branch (branchNo)

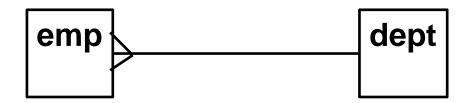
d. Referential Integrity

- Any INSERT/UPDATE that attempts to create FK value in child table without matching candidate key value in parent is rejected.
- Action taken that attempts to update/delete a candidate key value in parent table with matching rows in child is dependent on <u>referential action</u> specified using ON UPDATE and ON DELETE subclauses:

CASCADE SET NULL

SET DEFAULT NO ACTION

Delete Cascade function



Assuming all your **primary and foreign key** constraints are in place and **enabled**:

What happens if you try to delete deptno = 10 from your dept table?

Delete Cascade function

DELETE FROM mydept WHERE deptno = 10;

You should get something like the following error message.

ERROR at line 1:

ORA-02292: integrity constraint (user.SYS_Cnnnnnn) violated - child record Found

This means that if you delete deptno 10 from the dept table, all the records in the emp table with the value 10 in the deptno foreign key will invalidate referential integrity, thus Oracle will not let you delete the record.

Oracle provides referential integrity during deletion, BUT we can use DELETE CASCADE – so when a master row is deleted, all detail rows are deleted as well.

FOREIGN KEY (deptno) REFERENCES mydept(deptno) ON DELETE CASCADE;

Now if you delete deptno 10, Oracle will delete all records in emp which are related to that record.

You could also have said ON DELETE SET NULL or ON DELETE SET DEFAULT

FOREIGN KEY (staff_no) REFERENCES staff(staff_no)
ON DELETE CASCADE

OR

FOREIGN KEY (staff_no) REFERENCES staff(staff_no)
ON DELETE SET DEFAULT

OR

FOREIGN KEY (staff_no) REFERENCES staff(staff_no)
ON DELETE SET NULL

OR

FOREIGN KEY (staff_no) REFERENCES staff(staff_no)
ON DELETE NO ACTION

e. Enterprise Constraints

Rules of the business or enterprise being modelled.

eg. dist_id should be two letters, followed by two letters or numbers.

You can usually use a CHECK constraint to implement these.

Example of Constraints

```
CREATE TABLE PropertyForRent
  propertyNo
               VARCHAR (5)
                             PRIMARY KEY,
                             CHECK (VALUE BETWEEN 1 AND 15) NOT NULL DEFAULT 4,
  rooms
               SMALLINT
               DECIMAL(6,2) CHECK(VALUE BETWEEN 0 AND 9999.99) NOT NULL DEFAULT 600,
  rent
               VARCHAR (5)
                             CHECK (VALUE IN (SELECT ownerNo FROM Owner)) NOT NULL,
  ownerNo
  staffNo
               VARCHAR (5)
                             CHECK (VALUE IN (SELECT staffNo FROM Staff)),
               CHAR(4)
                             CHECK (VALUE IN (SELECT BranchNo FROM Branch)) NOT NULL
  branchNo
);
```

Do I also need to add this constraint?

```
FOREIGN KEY (staffNo) REFERENCES Staff(StaffNo)
```

What am I actually saying about ownerNo and branchNo above?

ALTER TABLE

ALTER TABLE

- Add a new column to a table.
- Drop a column from a table.
- Set a default for a column.
- Drop a default for a column.

You can also:

- Add a new table constraint.
- Drop a table constraint.

Example - ALTER TABLE

```
ALTER TABLE Staff
      ADD middle name VARCHAR(30);
ALTER TABLE Staff
      DROP middle name VARCHAR(30);
ALTER TABLE Staff
      ALTER position DROP DEFAULT;
ALTER TABLE Staff
      ALTER sex SET DEFAULT 'F';
```

Adding Primary and Foreign keys to existing Tables

ALTER TABLE myemp ADD PRIMARY KEY (empno);

ALTER TABLE myemp ADD FOREIGN KEY(deptno) REFERENCES mydept(deptno);

NOTE:

The primary key must be created first on mydept, before the foreign key can be created.

MORE ON CONSTRAINTS

Checking the Constraints

You can see a list of all the constraints set by querying the data dictionary table user_constraints:

SELECT constraint_name, constraint_type, table_name FROM user_constraints;

You should see that the constraint has a name allocated to it in the format SYS_Cnnnn.

This name is automatically assigned if you do not name your constraints.

The constraint also has a type:

P = primary key

U = unique key

R = foreign key

C = check Not Null.

Information about Constraints

You may also have noticed that just using the data dictionary table USER_CONSTRAINTS does not show you which column the constraint applies to.

You need to use another table as well, USER_CONS_COLUMNS.

```
SELECT SUBSTR(a.constraint_name,1,15) AS name,
    SUBSTR(constraint_type,1,1) AS type,
    SUBSTR(a.table_name,1,15) AS table_name,
    SUBSTR(column_name,1,15) AS column_name,
    SUBSTR(r_constraint_name,1,15) AS references
FROM user_constraints a, user_cons_columns b
WHERE a.constraint_name = b.constraint_name
ORDER BY a.table_name;
```

Naming the Integrity Constraints

To simplify the handling of constraints you can name them.

Add the word CONSTRAINT and then the name you require and then follow it with the specific constraint you wish to implement:

A meaningful name for a constraint would be something like:

staff_pk or branch_fk1 or employee_chk2

Adding Constraints to existing Tables

```
ALTER TABLE myemp
ADD CONSTRAINT myemp_pk PRIMARY KEY (empno);

ALTER TABLE myemp
ADD CONSTRAINT myemp_fk

FOREIGN KEY(deptno) REFERENCES mydept(deptno);

ALTER TABLE myemp
ADD CONSTRAINT myemp_sal_check CHECK (sal < 200000);
```

NOTE:

The primary key must be created first on mydept, before the foreign key can be created.

Naming the Constraints

Alternatively, you can name out-of-line constraints when the table is created:

Naming the Constraints

or you can also name inline constraints, but this makes the script very difficult to read – not recommended:

```
CREATE TABLE testemp2
  empno NUMBER(2)
                      CONSTRAINT testemp2 pk
                                                PRIMARY KEY,
 name CHAR(10),
  deptno NUMBER(2)
                      CONSTRAINT testemp2 fk
                                                FOREIGN KEY (deptno) REFERENCES
                                                                 mydept(deptno),
  salary NUMBER(7,2)
                      CONSTRAINT sal check
                                                CHECK (salary < 100000),
 ni no CHAR(9)
                      CONSTRAINT ni unique
                                                UNIQUE
);
```

You can disable and then enable constraints should you need to, this is useful if performing large table inserts:

ALTER TABLE testemp2 DISABLE PRIMARY KEY;

ALTER TABLE testemp1

DISABLE CONSTRAINT testemp2 fk;

ALTER TABLE testemp2 ENABLE PRIMARY KEY;

You can also delete constraints:

ALTER TABLE testemp2 DROP PRIMARY KEY;

ALTER TABLE testemp2 DROP CONSTRAINT testemp2_fk1;

DROP TABLE

DROP TABLE

```
DROP TABLE TableName [RESTRICT | CASCADE]
```

e.g. DROP TABLE PropertyForRent;

- Removes named table and all rows within it.
- With RESTRICT, if any other objects depend for their existence on continued existence of this table, SQL does not allow request.
- With CASCADE, SQL drops all dependent objects (and objects dependent on these objects).

Exercise



Use named constraints.

Creating a composite key

```
CREATE TABLE orderline
(
    order_no NUMBER(2),
    product_no NUMBER(4),
    qty NUMBER (6),
    CONSTRAINT ord_line_pk PRIMARY KEY (order_no, product_no)
);
```