



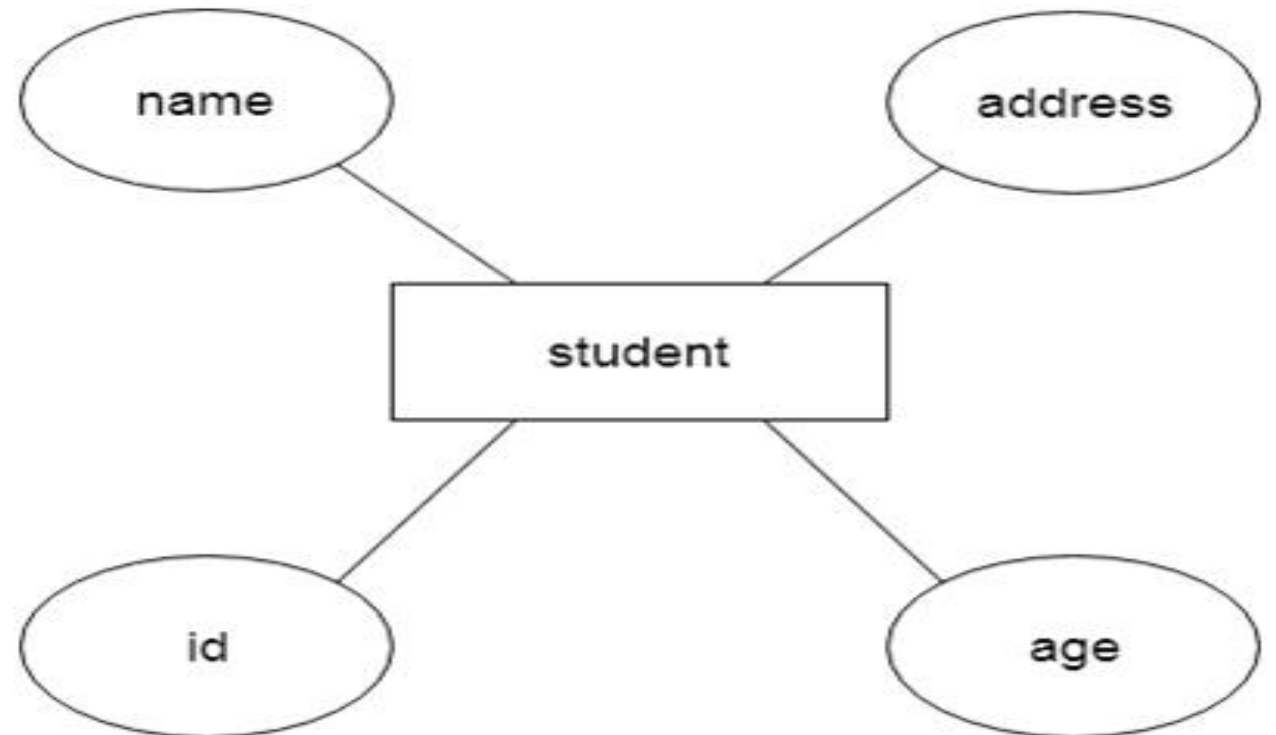
# What is Entity Relationship Diagram?

# Entity Relationship Diagram (ER Diagram)

Use E-R model to get a high-level graphical view to describe the **"ENTITIES"** and their **"RELATIONSHIP"**

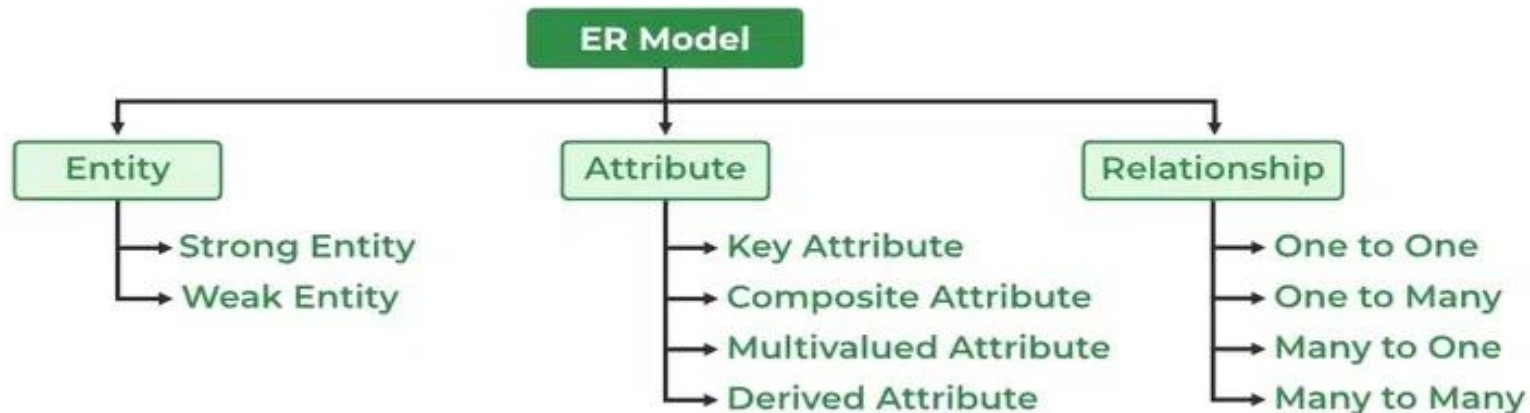
It is a **high-level data model**.

This model is used to define the data elements and relationship for a specified system



# Component of ER Diagram

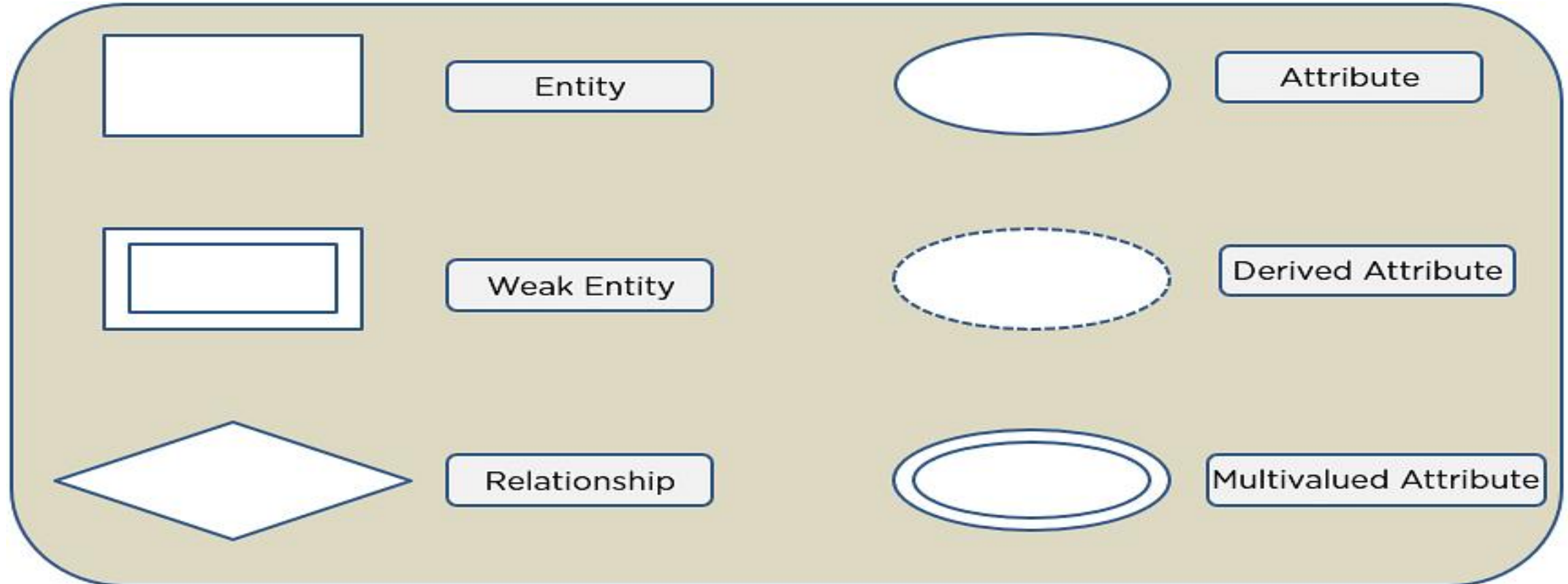
The basic constructs/components of ER Model are **Entity**, **Attributes** and **Relationships**.



# Why Use ER Diagrams

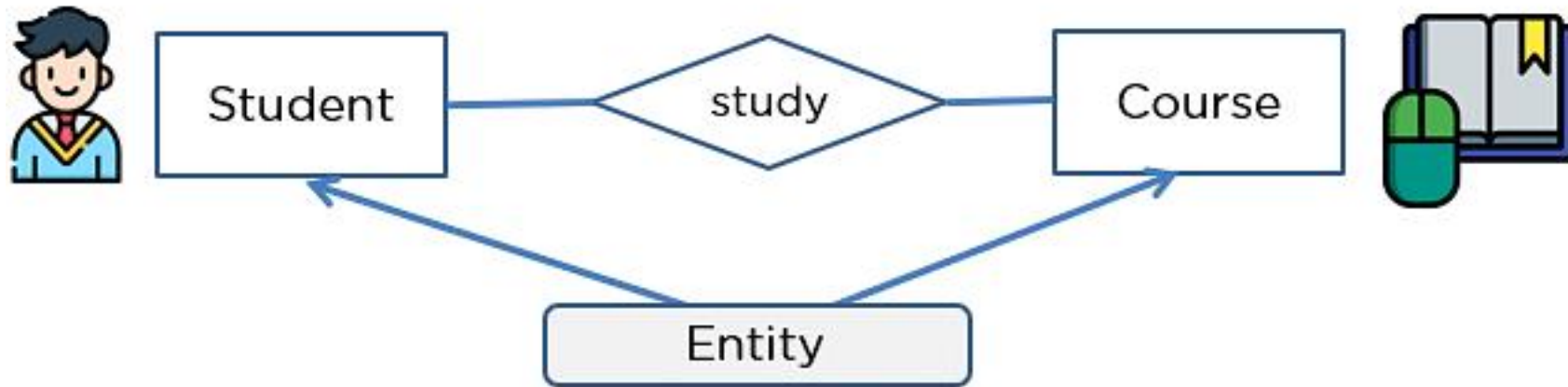
- ER Diagram helps you conceptualize the database and lets you know which fields need to be embedded for a particular entity
- ER Diagram gives a better understanding of the information to be stored in a database
- It reduces complexity and allows database designers to build databases quickly
- It helps to describe elements using Entity-Relationship models
- It allows users to get a preview of the logical structure of the database

# Entity Relationship Diagram Symbols



An entity can be a real-world object or can be a living or non-living component.

## What is Entity?

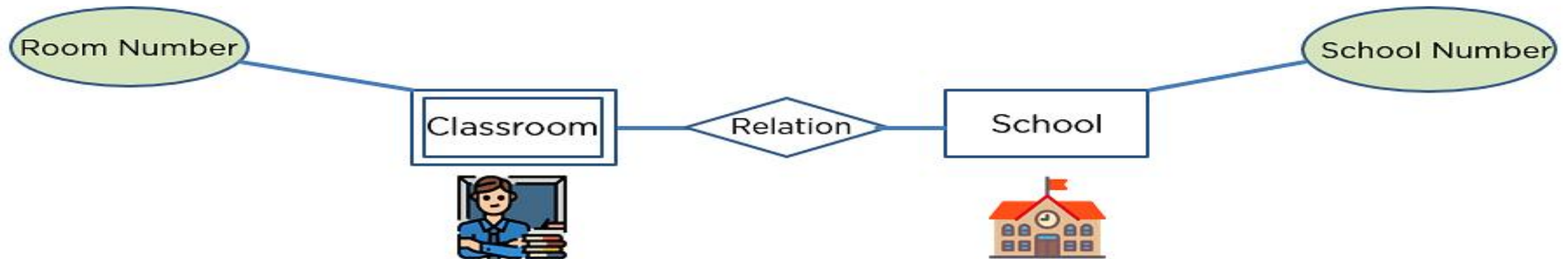


# *strong and weak entity*

An entity may participate in a relation either totally or partially.

**Strong Entity:** A strong entity is not dependent on any other entity in the schema. A strong entity will always have a primary key. Strong entities are represented by a single rectangle.

**Weak Entity:** A weak entity is dependent on a strong entity to ensure its existence. Unlike a strong entity, a weak entity does not have any primary key. A weak entity is represented by a double rectangle. The relation between one strong and one weak entity is represented by a double diamond. This relationship is also known as identifying relationship.





In relation to a database , an entity is a

- Person(student, teacher, employee, department, ...)
- Place(classroom, building, ...) --a particular position or area
- Thing(computer, lab equipment, ...) --an object that is not named
- Concept(course, batch, student's attendance, ...) -- an idea,

about which data can be stored. All these entities have some **attributes** or **properties** that give them their **identity**.

***Every entity has its own characteristics.***

When you are designing attributes for your entities, **you will sometimes find that an attribute does not have a value**. **For example**, you might want an attribute for a person's middle name, but you can't require a value because some people have no middle name. **For these, you can define the attribute so that it can contain null values.**

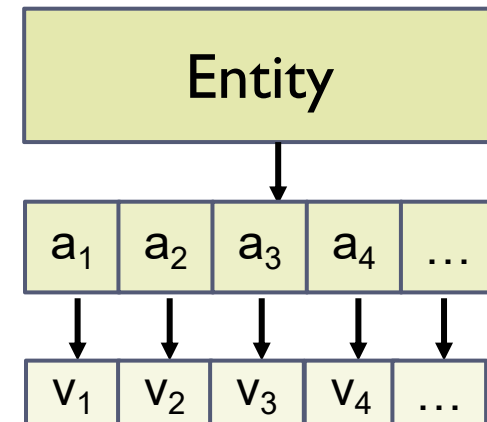
In database management systems, **null** is used to represent missing or unknown data in a table column.

## What is an Attribute?

Attributes are the properties that define a relation.

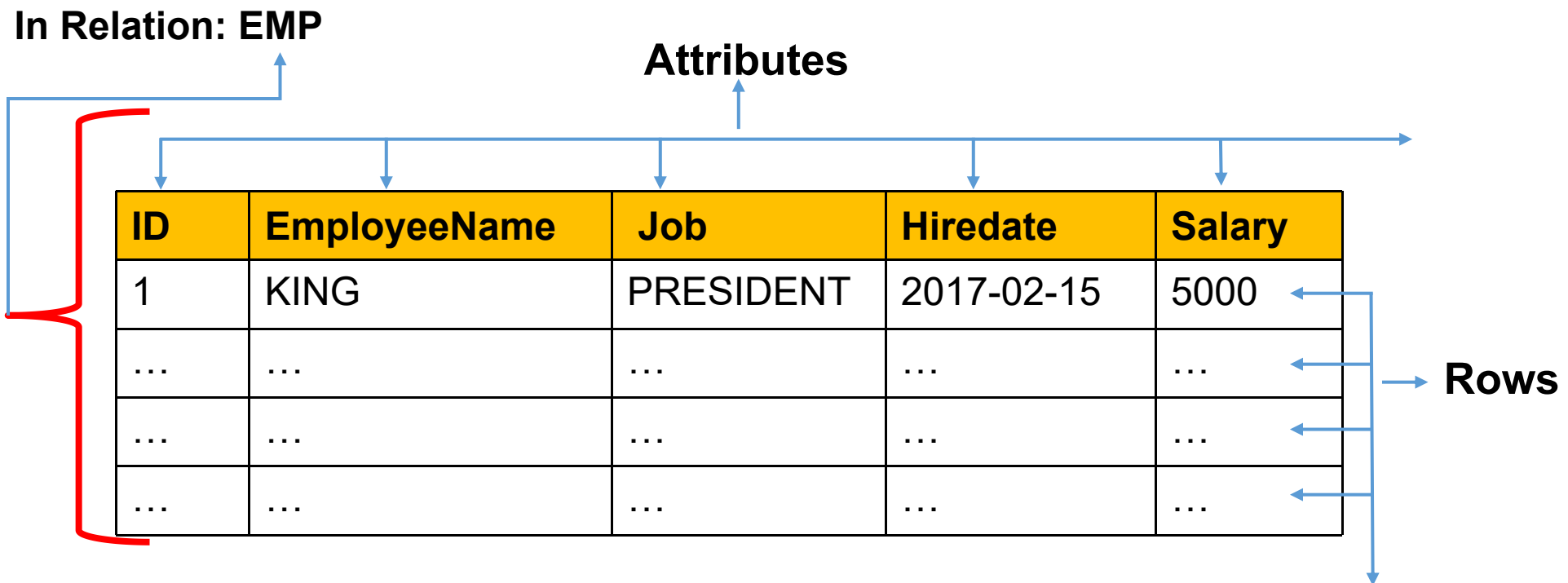
**e.g.** student(ID, firstName, middleName, lastName, city)

**In some cases, you might not want a specific attribute to contain a null value**, but you don't want to require that the user or program always provide a value. In this case, a default value might be appropriate. **A default value is a value that applies to an attribute if no other valid value is available.**



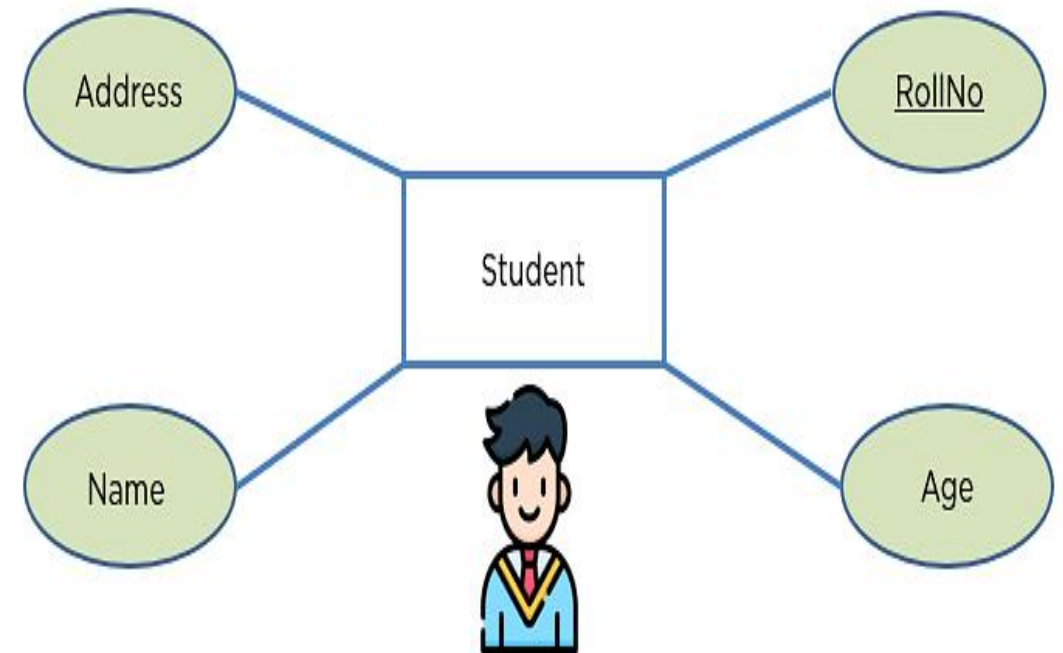
# A table has rows and columns

In RDBMS, a table organizes data in rows and columns. The **COLUMNS** are known as **ATTRIBUTES / FIELDS** whereas the **ROWS** are known as **RECORDS / TUPLE**.



In Entity Relationship(ER) Model attributes can be classified into the following types.

- Simple/Atomic and Composite Attribute
- Single Valued and Multi Valued attribute
- Stored and Derived Attributes
- Complex Attribute
- Key Attribute and Non-Key Attribute



## Remember:

In SQL, the same name can be used for two (or more) attributes as long as the attributes are in different relations.

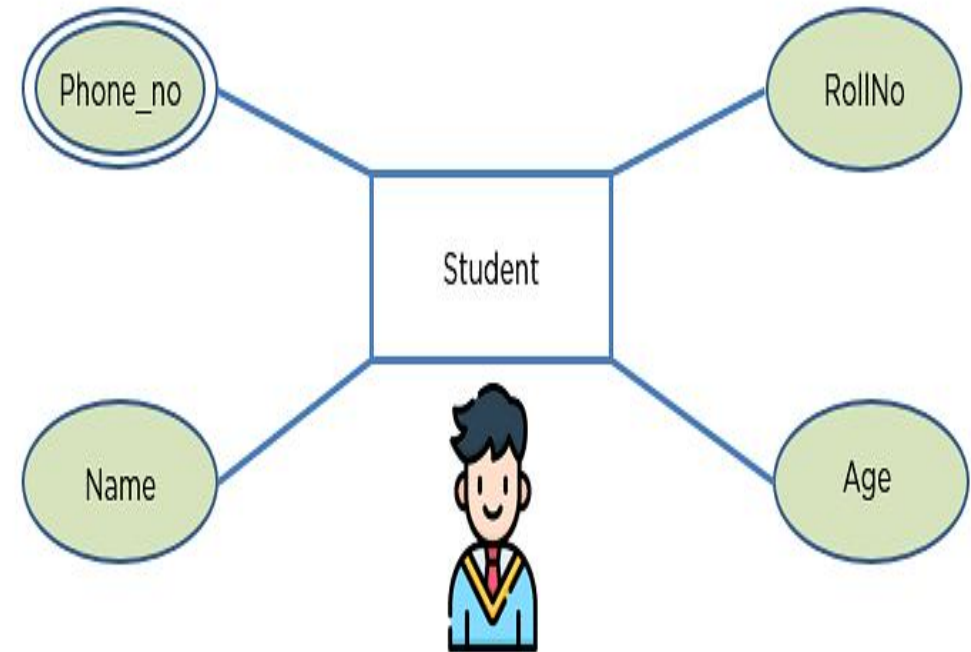
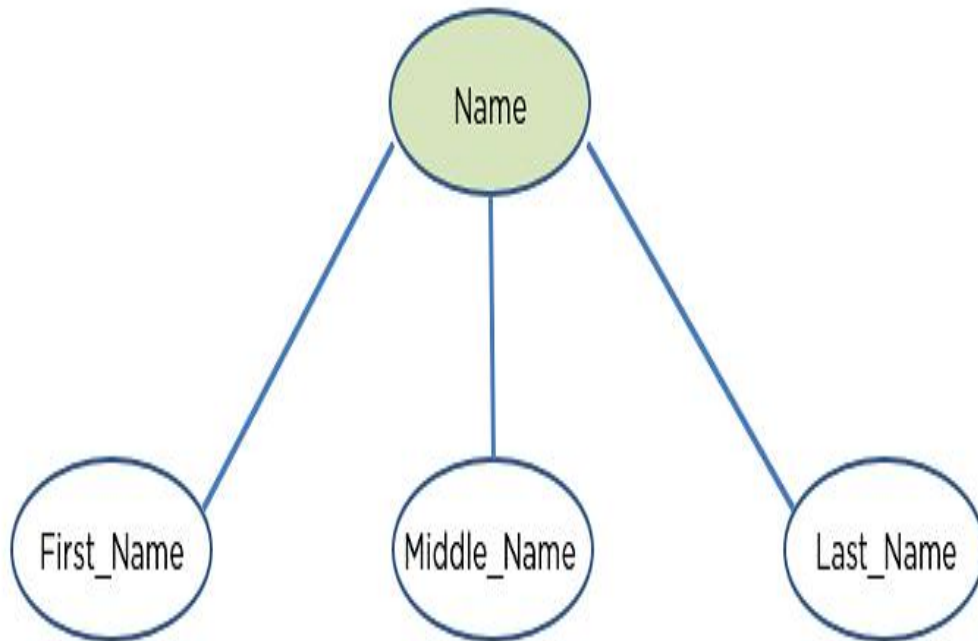
# attributes

• <b>Simple / Atomic Attribute</b> (Can't be divided further)	--VS--	<b>Composite Attribute</b> (Can be divided further)
• <b>Single Value Attribute</b> (Only One value)	--VS--	<b>Multi Valued Attribute</b> (Multiple values)
• <b>Stored Attribute</b> (Only One value)	--VS--	<b>Derived Attribute</b> (Virtual)
• <b>Complex Attribute</b> (Composite & Multivalued)		

Employee ID: An employee ID can be a composite attribute, which is composed of sub-attributes such as department code, job code, and employee number.

- **Atomic Attribute:** An attribute that cannot be divided into smaller independent attribute is known as atomic attribute.  
*e.g.* ID's, PRN, age, gender, zip, marital status cannot further divide.
- **Single Value Attribute:** An attribute that has only single value is known as single valued attribute.  
*e.g.* manufactured part can have only one serial number, voter card, blood group, price, quantity, branch can have only one value.
- **Stored Attribute:** The stored attribute are such attributes which are already stored in the database and from which the value of another attribute is derived.  
*e.g.* (HRA, DA...) can be derive from salary, age can be derived from DoB, total marks or average marks of a student can be derived from marks.

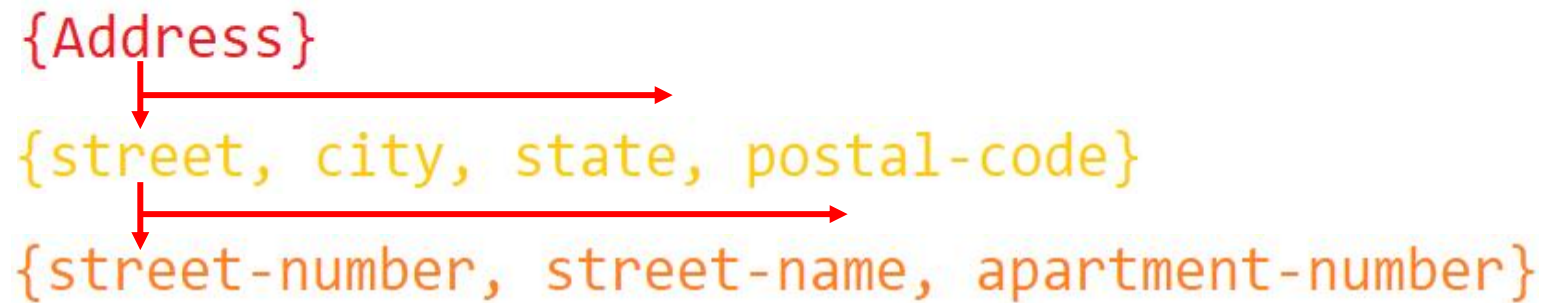
# Composite VS Multi Valued Attribute



## Composite Attribute

### Person Entity

- *Name* attribute: ( firstName, middleName, and lastName )
- *PhoneNumber* attribute: ( countryCode, cityCode, and phoneNumber )

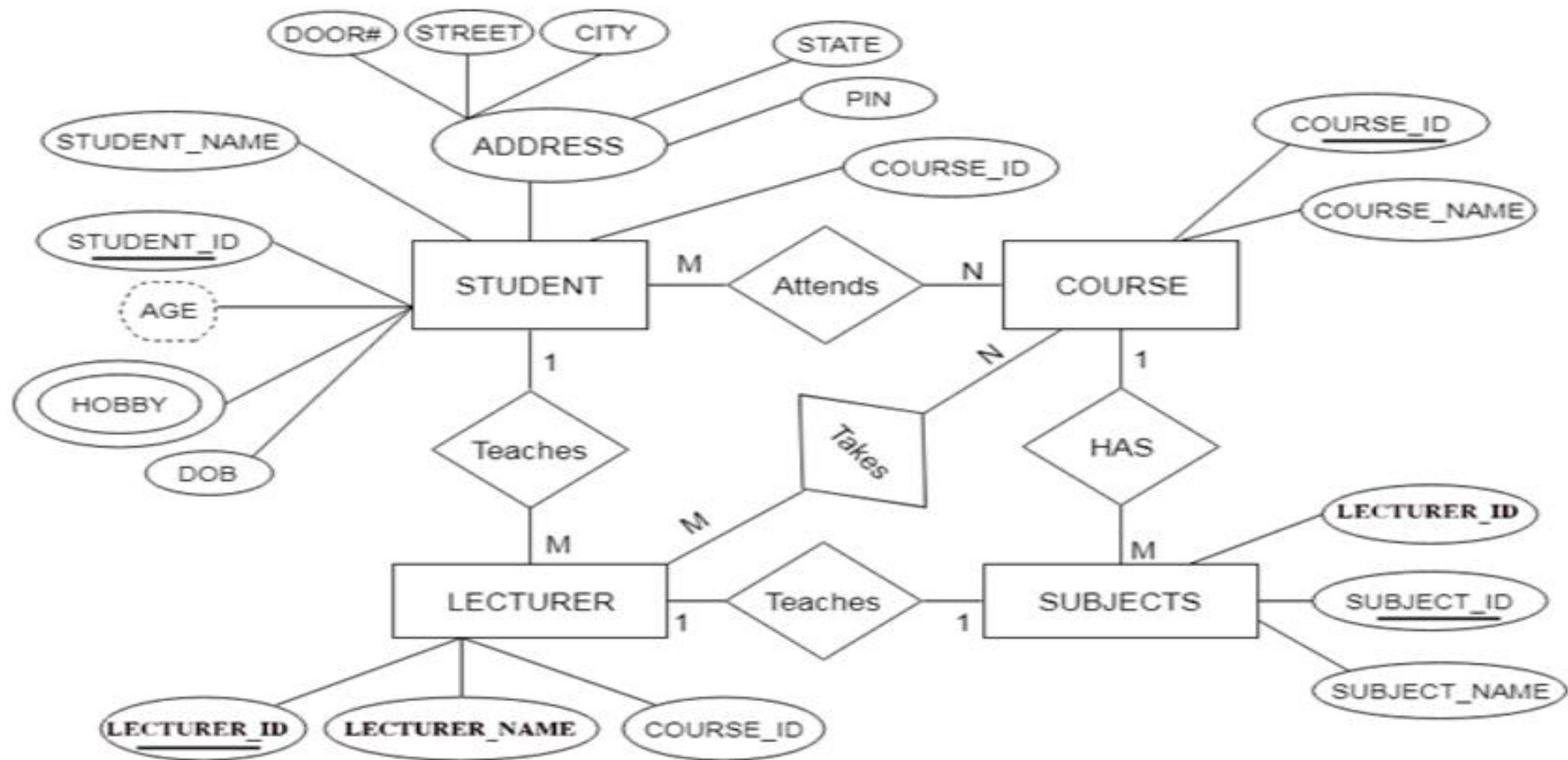


## Multi Valued Attribute

### Person Entity

- *Hobbies* attribute: [ reading, hiking, hockey, skiing, photography, ... ]
- *SpokenLanguages* attribute: [ Hindi, Marathi, Gujarati, English, ... ]
- *Degrees* attribute: [ 10<sup>th</sup>, 12<sup>th</sup>, BE, ME, PhD, ... ]
- *emailID* attribute: [ saleel@gmail.com, salil@yahoo.com, ... ]

# entity relationship diagram





# Keys

It is used to uniquely identify any record or row of data from the table. It is also used to establish and identify relationships between tables.

For example,

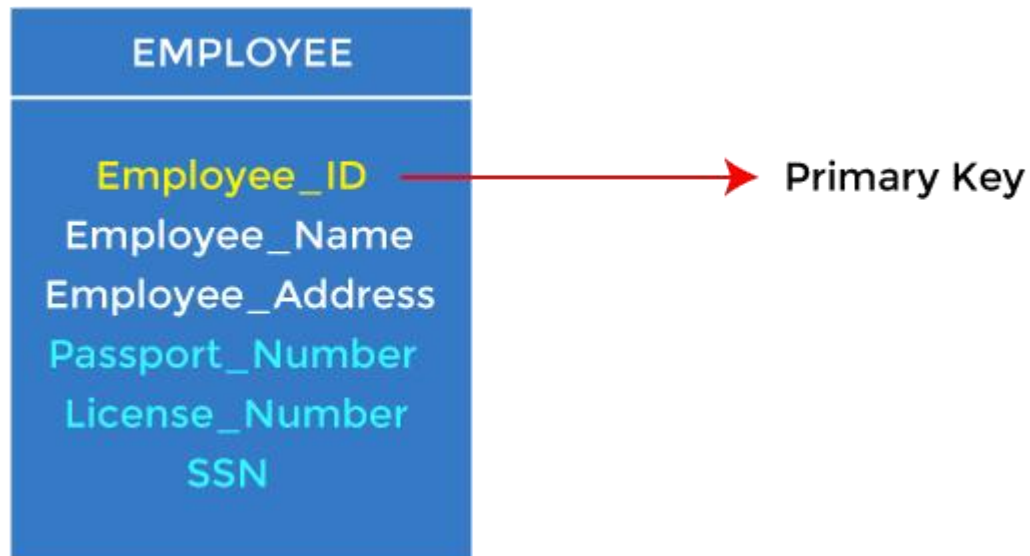
ID is used as a key in the Student table because it is unique for each student. In the PERSON table, passport\_number, license\_number, SSN are keys since they are unique for each person.

STUDENT
ID
Name
Address
Course

PERSON
Name
DOB
Passport, Number
License_Number
SSN

## 1. Primary key

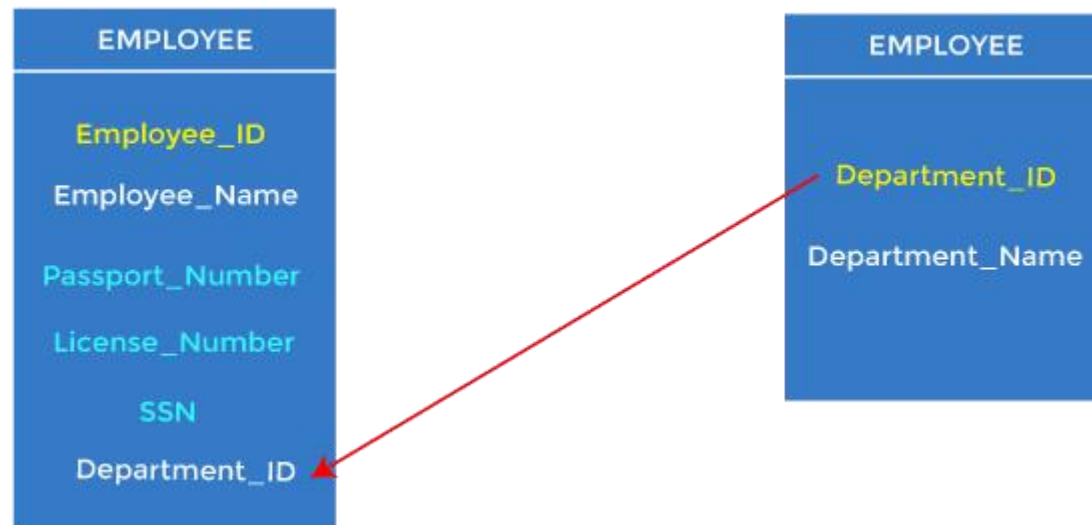
- It is the first key used to identify one and only one instance of an entity uniquely. An entity can contain multiple keys, as we saw in the PERSON table. The key which is most suitable from those lists becomes a primary key.
- In the EMPLOYEE table, ID can be the primary key since it is unique for each employee. In the EMPLOYEE table, we can even select License\_Number and Passport\_Number as primary keys since they are also unique.
- For each entity, the primary key selection is based on requirements and developers.



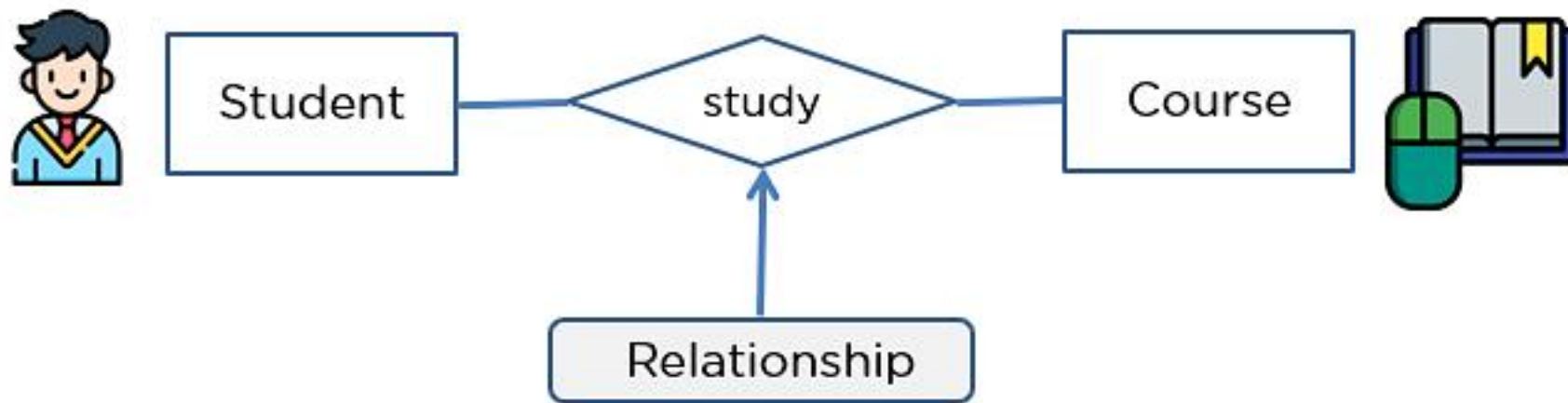


## Foreign key

- Foreign keys are the column of the table used to point to the primary key of another table.
- Every employee works in a specific department in a company, and employee and department are two different entities. So we can't store the department's information in the employee table. That's why we link these two tables through the primary key of one table.
- We add the primary key of the DEPARTMENT table, Department\_Id, as a new attribute in the EMPLOYEE table.
- In the EMPLOYEE table, Department\_Id is the foreign key, and both the tables are related.



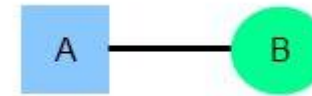
# Common relationships



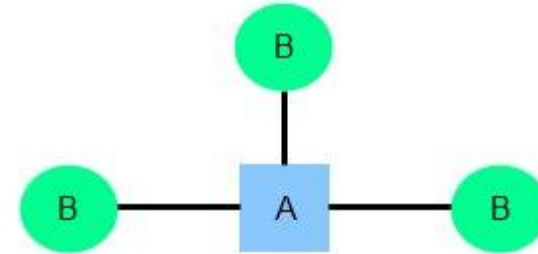
# *relationships*

Common relationship

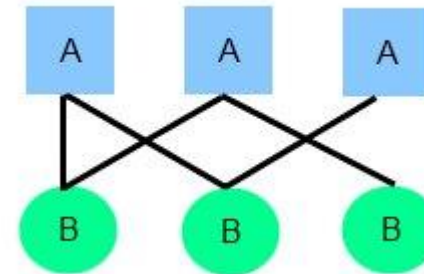
one-to-one (1:1)



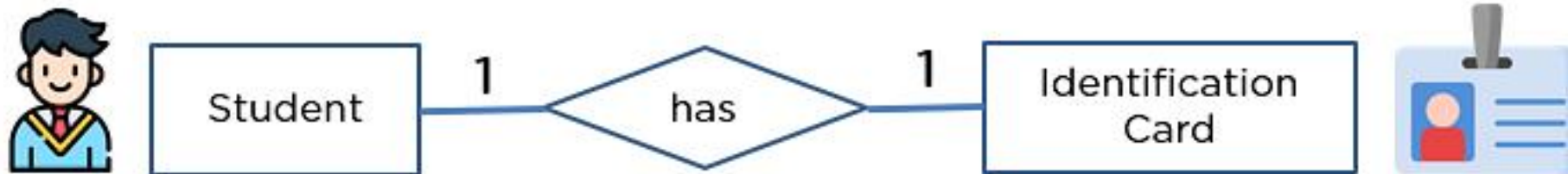
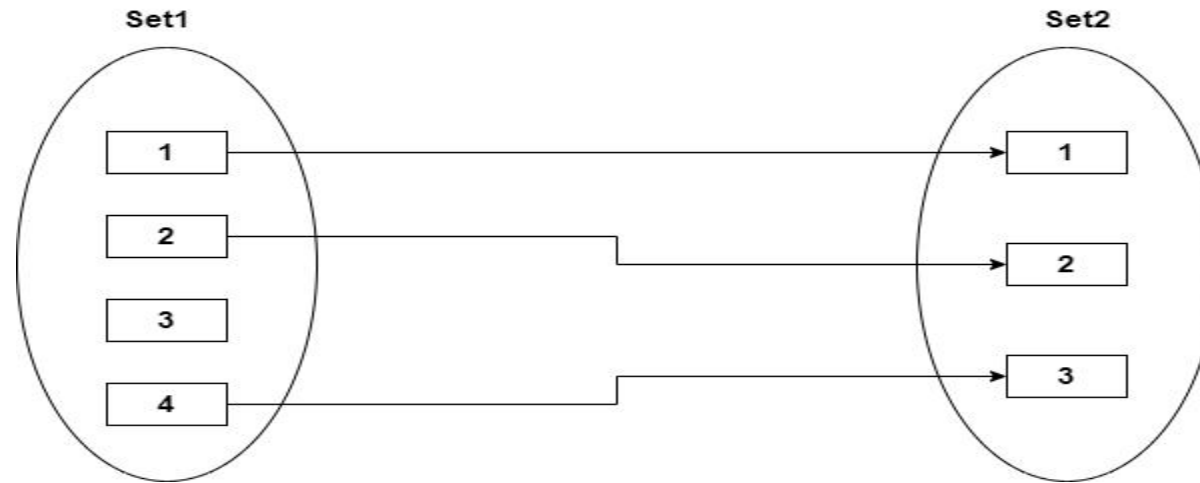
one-to-many (1:M)



many-to-many (M:N)



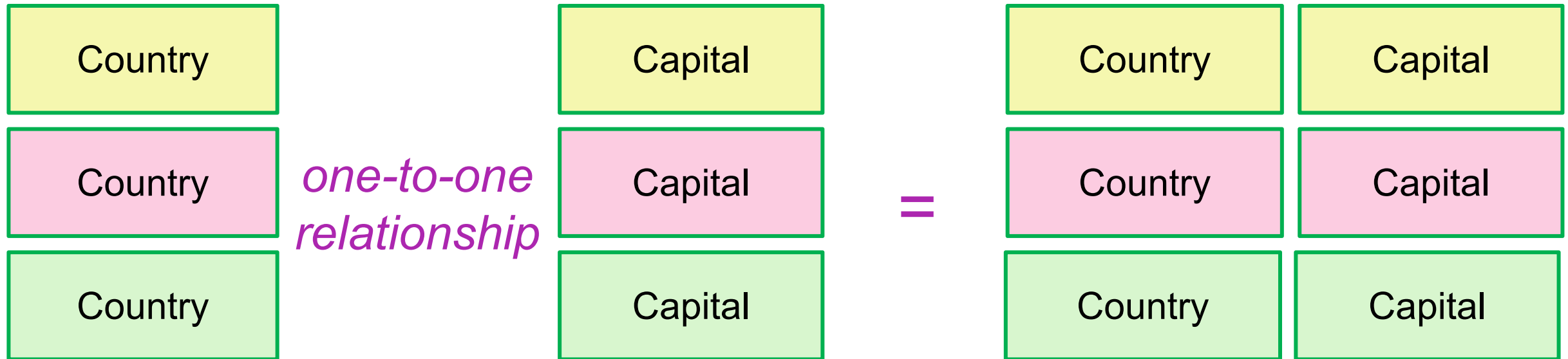
# one-to-one relationship



## one-to-one relationship

A *one-to-one* relationship between two tables means that a row in one table can only relate to zero/one row in the table on the other side of their relationship. This is the least common database relationship.

A *one-to-one* relationship is a type of cardinality that refers to the relationship between two entities  $R$  and  $S$  in which one element of entity  $R$  may only be linked to zero/one element of entity  $S$ , and vice versa.

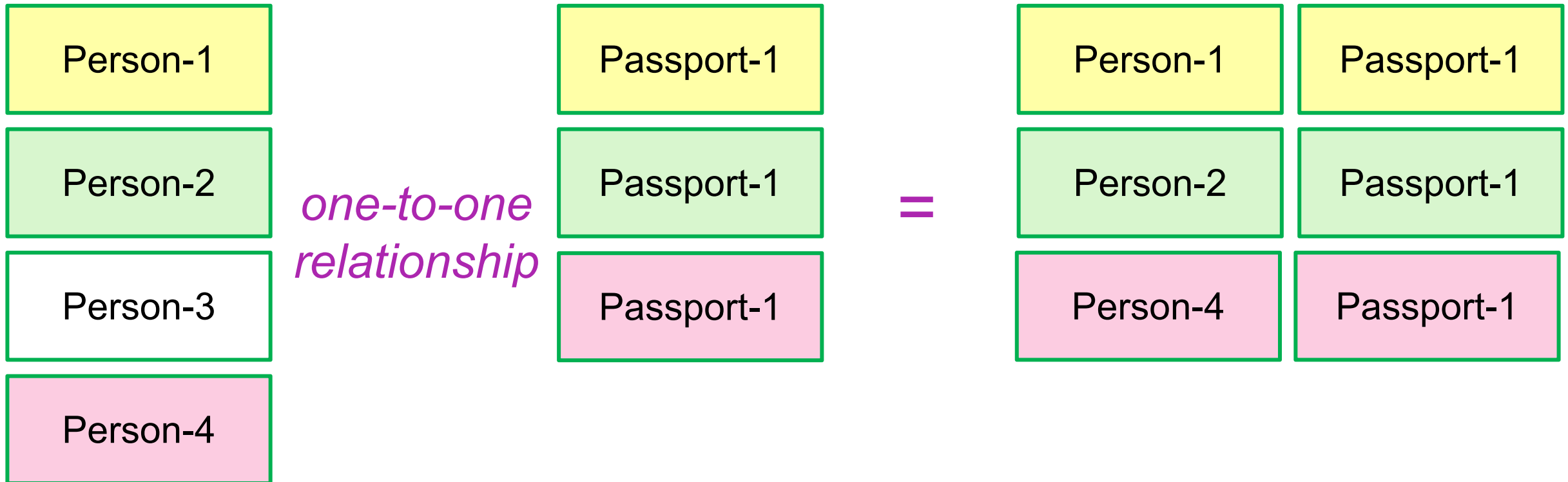




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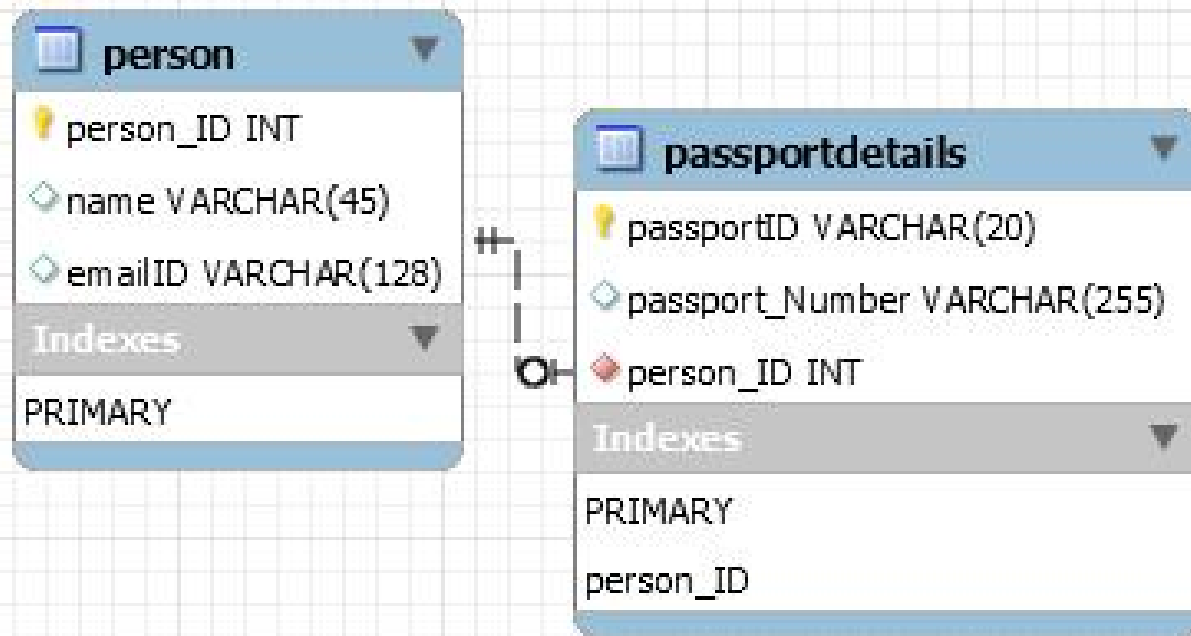
# how to create one-to-one relationship

```
CREATE TABLE person (  
  person_ID INT PRIMARY KEY ,  
  name VARCHAR(45),  
  emailID VARCHAR(128)  
);
```

	person_ID	name	emailID
▶	1	Ramesh	ramesh@gmail.com
	2	Rajan	rajan.hotmail.com
	3	Kumar	kumer112@yahoo.com
	4	Suraj	suran@gmail.com
•	NULL	NULL	NULL

```
CREATE TABLE passportDetails (  
  passportID VARCHAR(20) PRIMARY KEY ,  
  passport_Number VARCHAR(255),  
  person_ID INT UNIQUE,  
  FOREIGN KEY(person_ID) REFERENCES  
  person(person_ID)  
);
```

	passportID	passport_Number	person_ID
▶	IN-zx001	IN-XAJS1028S	1
	IN-zx002	IN-XBDH1738S	2
	IN-zx003	IN-XCKE1933S	3
•	NULL	NULL	NULL



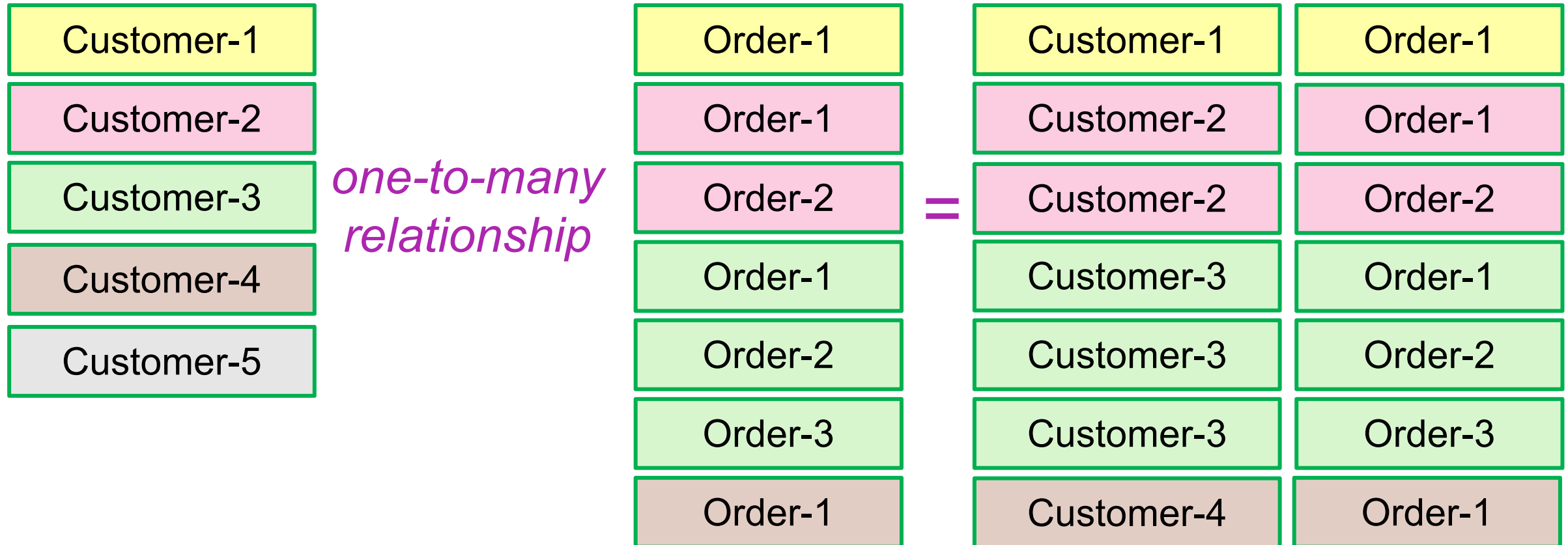
# one-to-many relationship



## one-to-many relationship

A *one-to-many* relationship between two tables means that a row in one table can have zero or more row in the table on the other side of their relationship.

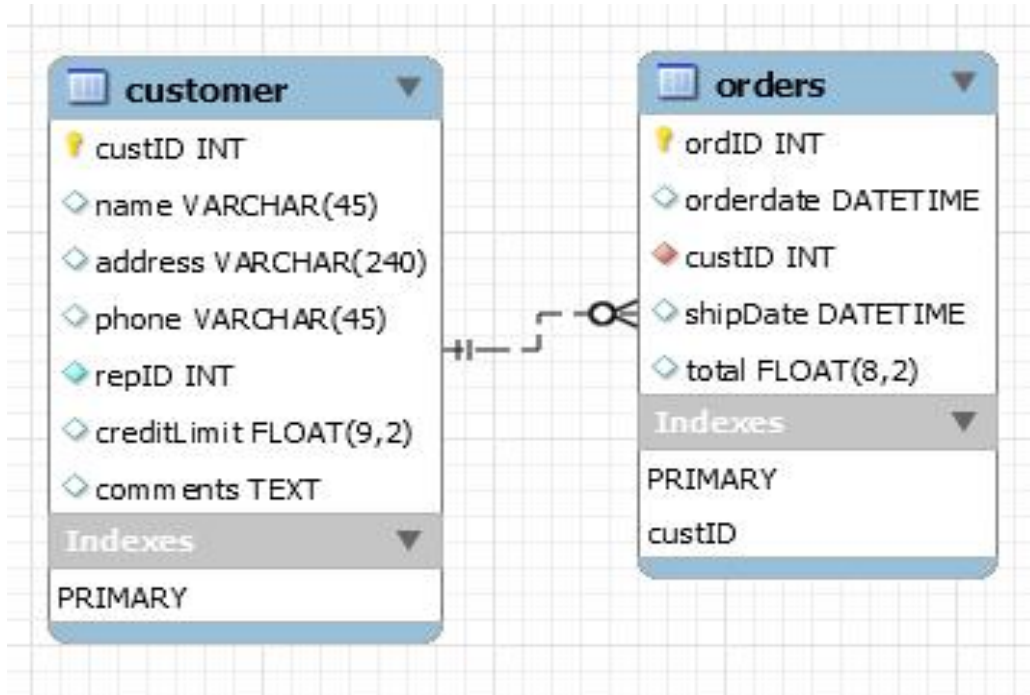
a *one-to-many* relationship is a type of cardinality that refers to the relationship between two entities  $R$  and  $S$  in which an element of  $R$  may be linked to many elements of  $S$ , but a member of  $S$  is linked to only one element of  $R$ .



# how to create one-to-many relationship

```
CREATE TABLE customer (  
  custID INT PRIMARY KEY,  
  name VARCHAR(45),  
  address VARCHAR(240),  
  phone VARCHAR(45),  
  repID INT NOT NULL,  
  creditLimit FLOAT(9,2),  
  comments TEXT,  
  constraint custid_zero CHECK(custID > 0)  
);
```

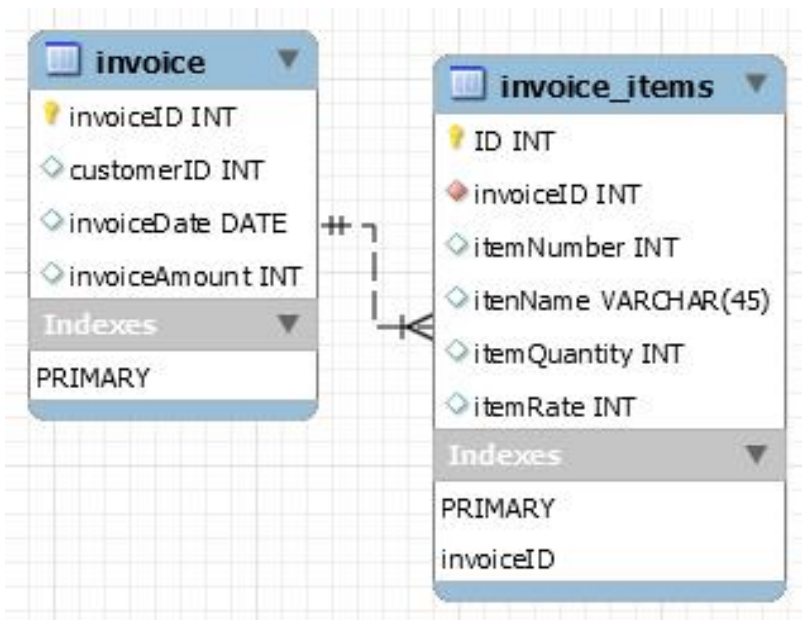
```
CREATE TABLE orders (  
  ordID INT PRIMARY KEY,  
  orderdate DATETIME,  
  custID INT,  
  shipDate DATETIME,  
  total FLOAT(8,2),  
  FOREIGN KEY(custID) REFERENCES customer(custID),  
  constraint total_greater_zero CHECK(total >= 0)  
);
```



## how to create one-to-many relationship

```
CREATE TABLE invoice (  
  invoiceID INT PRIMARY KEY,  
  customerID INT,  
  invoiceDate DATE,  
  invoiceAmount INT  
);
```

	invoiceID	customerID	invoiceDate	invoiceAmount
▶	1	235	2020-01-13	1750
	2	235	2020-02-28	5000
	3	778	2020-03-10	2000
	4	778	2020-03-16	2300
•	NULL	NULL	NULL	NULL



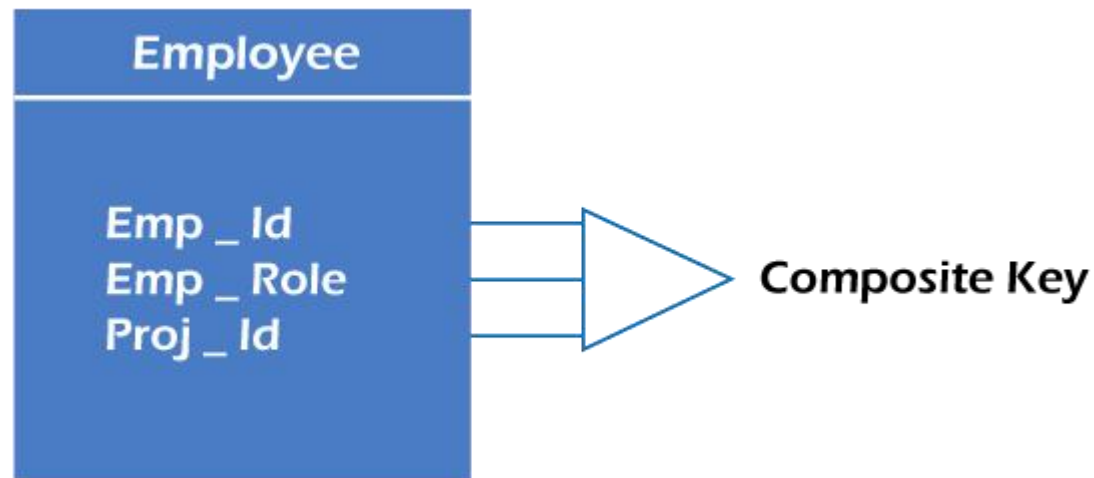
```
CREATE TABLE invoice_items (  
  invoiceID INT,  
  itemID INT,  
  itemName VARCHAR(45),  
  itemQuantity INT,  
  itemRate INT,  
  PRIMARY KEY(itemID),  
  FOREIGN KEY(invoiceID) REFERENCES  
  invoice(invoiceID)  
);  
CREATE TABLE invoice_items (  
  invoiceID INT NOT NULL,  
  itemID INT NOT NULL,  
  itemName VARCHAR(45),  
  itemQuantity INT,  
  itemRate INT,  
  UNIQUE(invoiceID, itemID),  
  FOREIGN KEY(invoiceID) REFERENCES  
  invoice(invoiceID)  
);
```

## Composite key

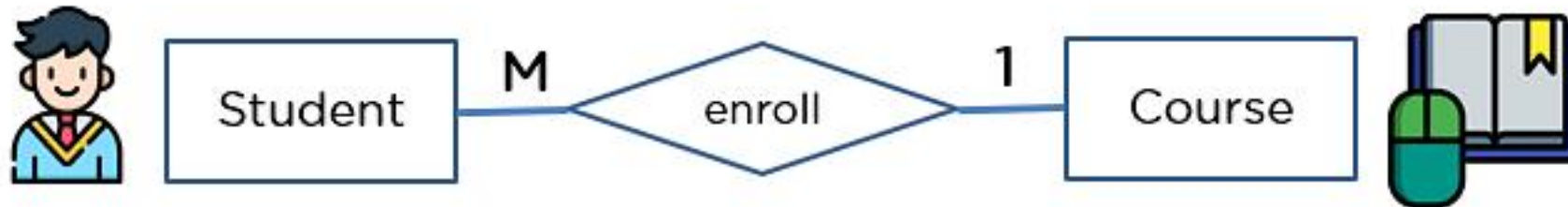
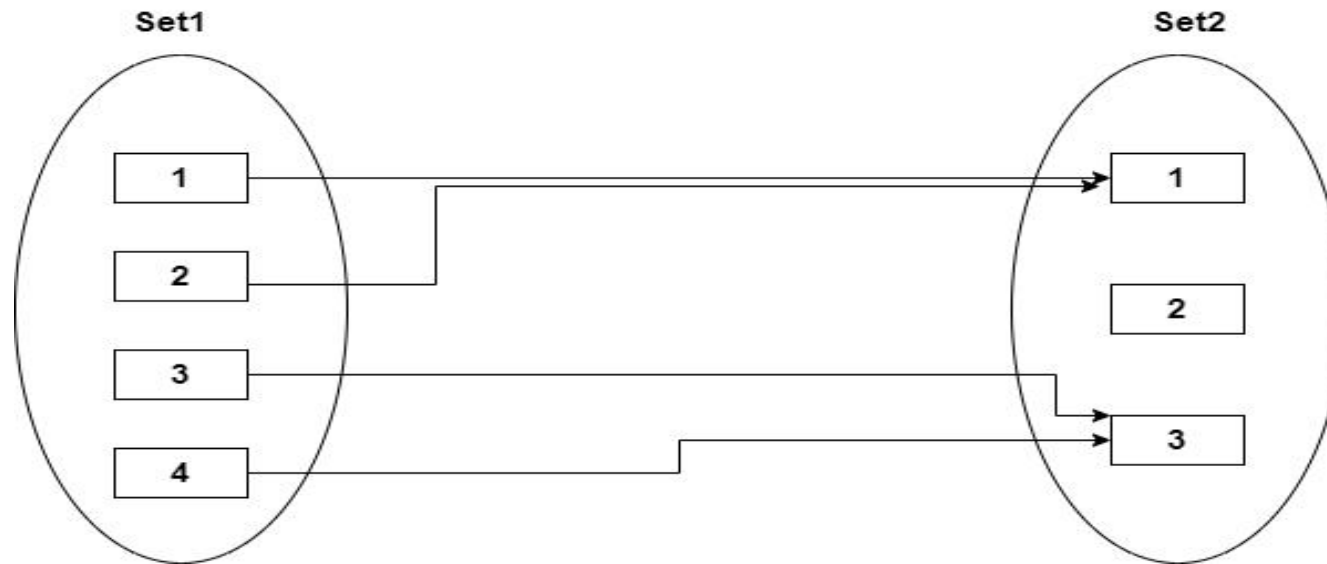
Whenever a primary key consists of more than one attribute, it is known as a composite key. This key is also known as Concatenated Key.

**For example,**

in employee relations, we assume that an employee may be assigned multiple roles, and an employee may work on multiple projects simultaneously. So the primary key will be composed of all three attributes, namely Emp\_ID, Emp\_role, and Proj\_ID in combination. So these attributes act as a composite key since the primary key comprises more than one attribute.



# many-to-one relationship

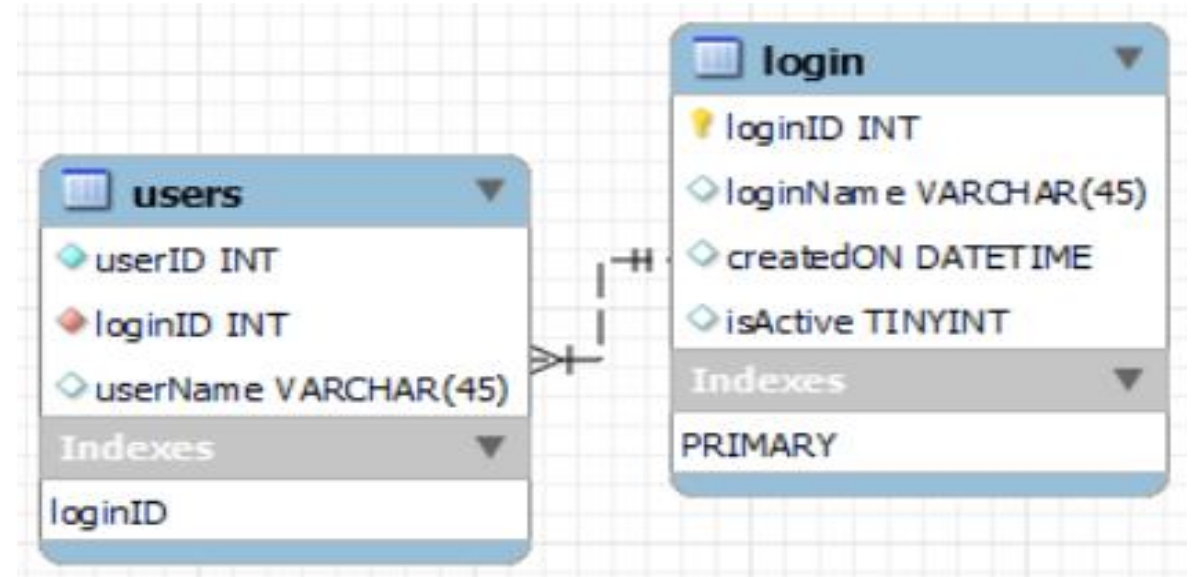




## many-to-one relationship

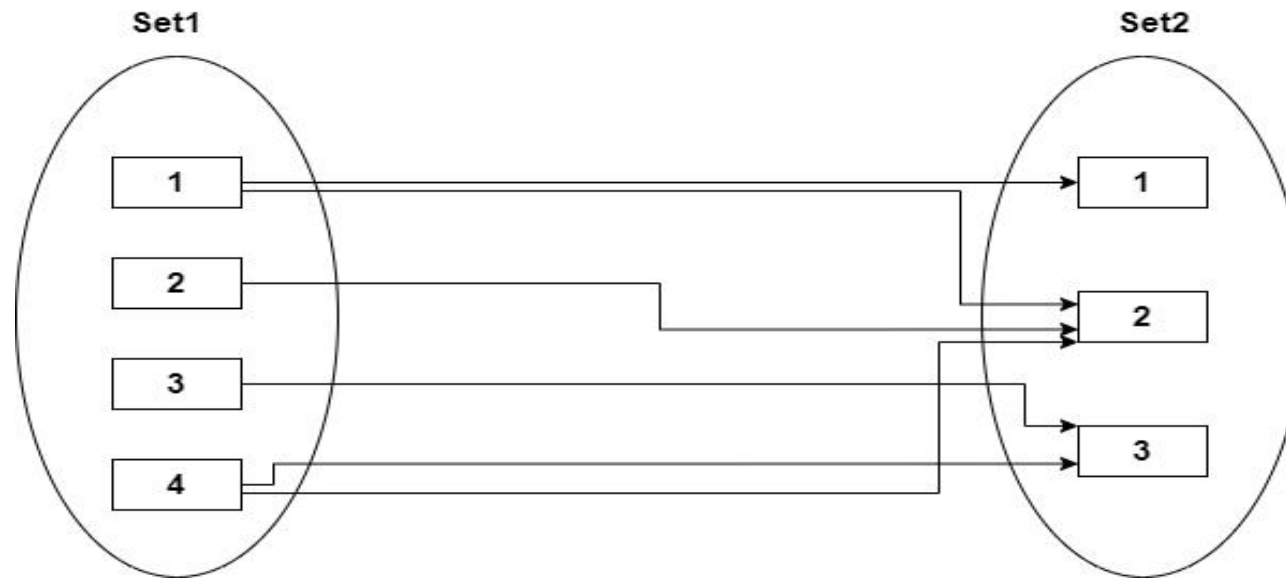
```
CREATE TABLE users (  
  userID INT,  
  loginID INT,  
  userName VARCHAR(45),  
  PRIMARY KEY(loginID, userID),  
  constraint fk_users_login_loginID1 FOREIGN  
  KEY(loginID)  
  REFERENCES login(loginID)  
);
```

```
CREATE TABLE users (  
  userID INT NOT NULL,  
  loginID INT NOT NULL,  
  userName VARCHAR(45),  
  UNIQUE(loginID, userID),  
  constraint fk_users_login_loginID2 FOREIGN  
  KEY(loginID)  
  REFERENCES login(loginID)  
);
```



```
CREATE TABLE login (  
  loginID INT,  
  loginName VARCHAR(45),  
  createdON DATETIME,  
  isActive TINYINT,  
  PRIMARY KEY(loginID)  
);
```

# many-to-many relationship



Employee

M

is assigned

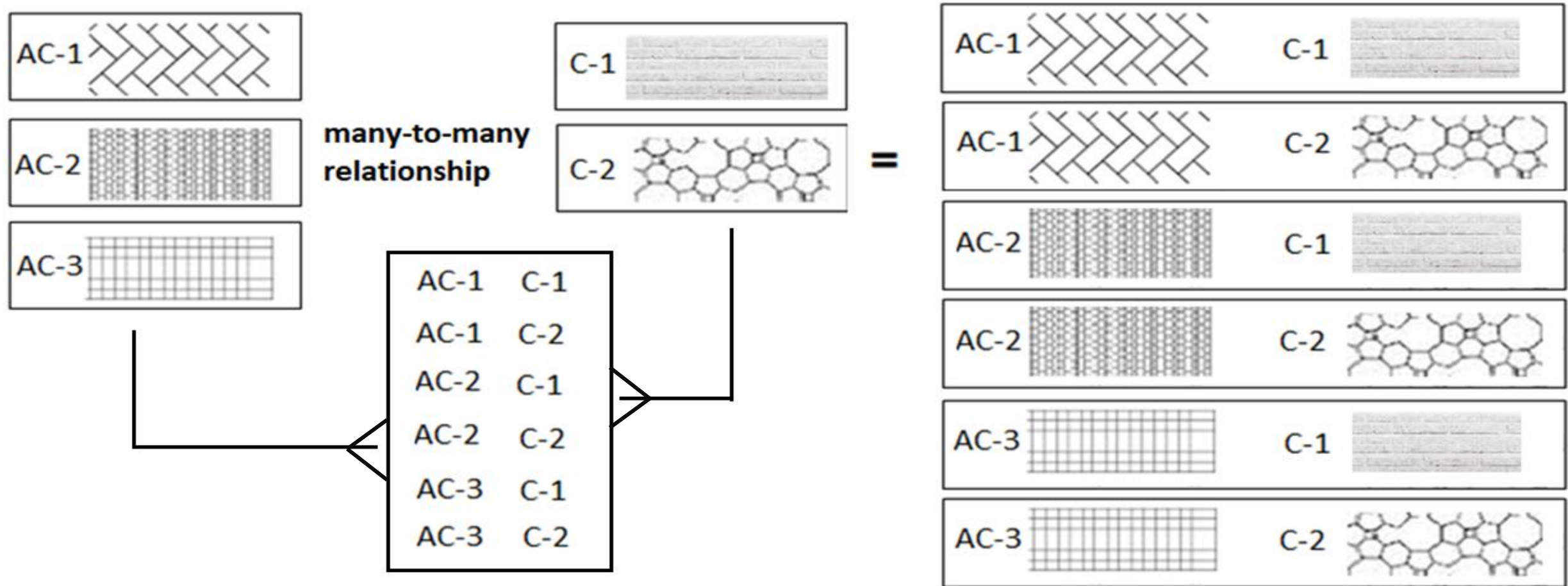
M

Project



# many-to-many relationship

A *many-to-many* relationship is a type of cardinality that refers to the relationship between two entities  $R$  and  $S$  in which  $R$  may contain a parent instance for which there are many children in  $S$  and vice versa.

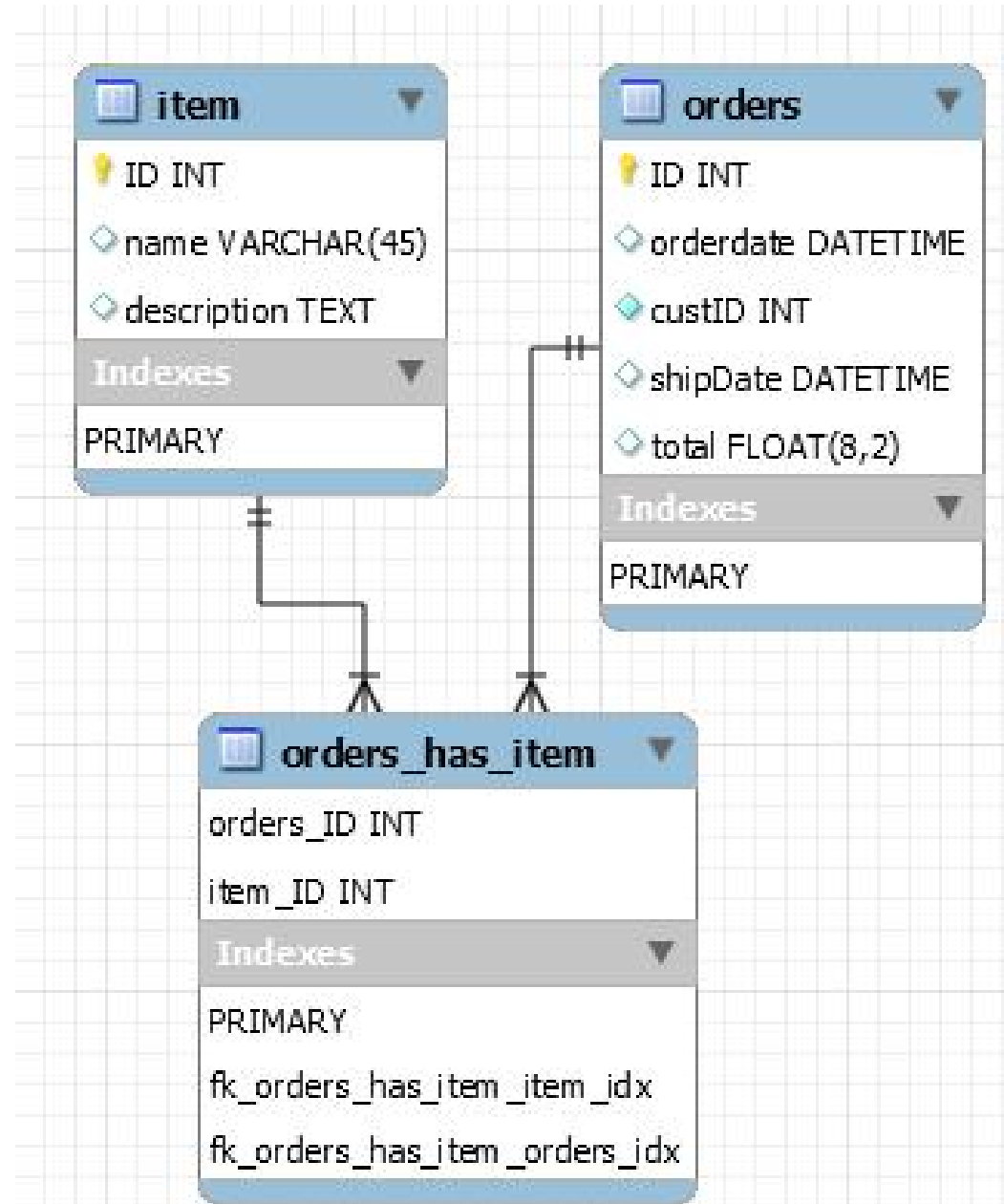


## how to create many-to-many relationship

```
CREATE TABLE item (  
  ID INT PRIMARY KEY,  
  name VARCHAR(45),  
  description TEXT  
);
```

```
CREATE TABLE orders (  
  ID INT PRIMARY KEY,  
  orderdate DATETIME,  
  custID INT NOT NULL,  
  shipDate DATETIME,  
  total FLOAT(8,2),  
  constraint total_greater_zero CHECK(total >= 0)  
);
```

```
CREATE TABLE orders_has_item (  
  orders_ID INT NOT NULL,  
  item_ID INT NOT NULL,  
  PRIMARY KEY(orders_ID, item_ID),  
  constraint fk_orders_has_item_orders FOREIGN  
  KEY(orders_ID)  
  REFERENCES orders(ID),  
  constraint fk_orders_has_item_item1 FOREIGN KEY(item_ID)  
  REFERENCES item(ID)  
);
```

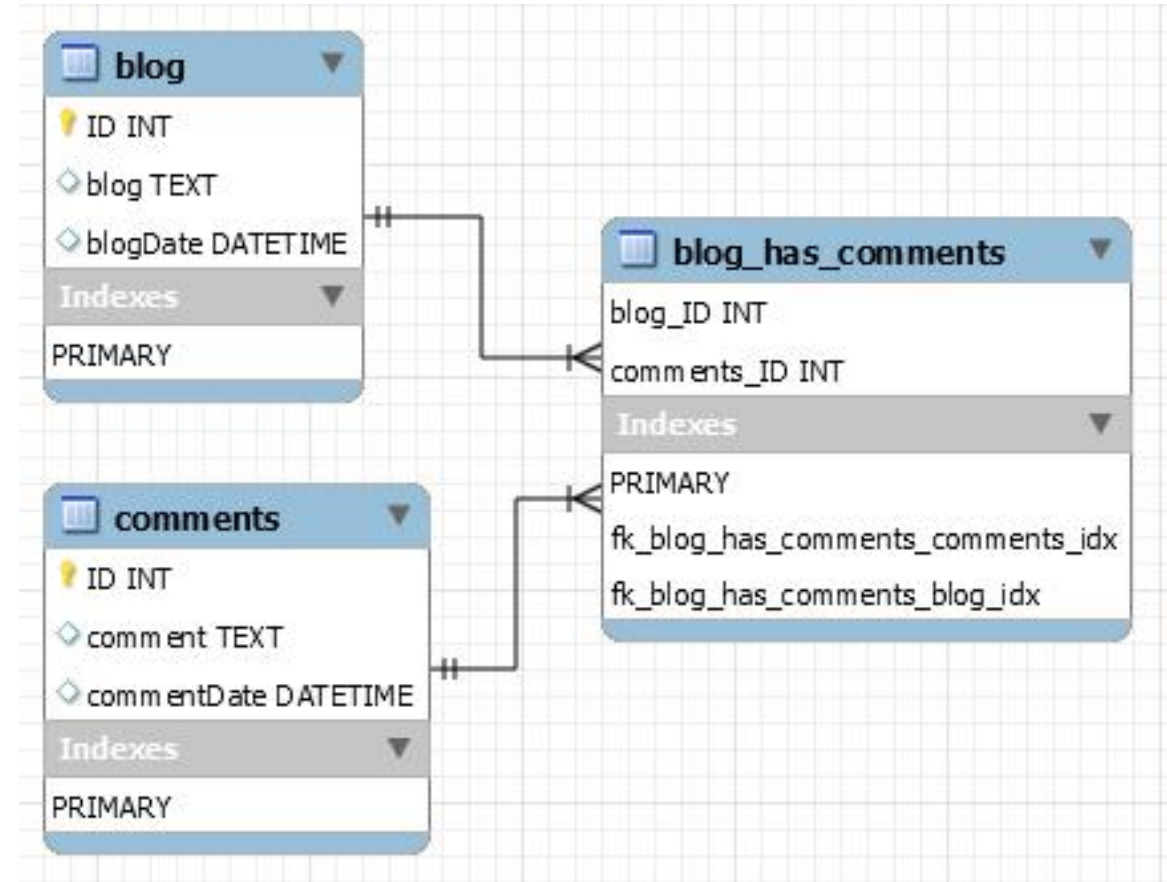


# how to create many-to-many relationship

```
CREATE TABLE blog (  
  ID INT PRIMARY KEY,  
  blog TEXT,  
  blogDate DATETIME  
);
```

```
CREATE TABLE comments (  
  ID INT PRIMARY KEY,  
  comment TEXT,  
  commentDate DATETIME  
);
```

```
CREATE TABLE blog_has_comments (  
  blog_ID INT,  
  comments_ID INT,  
  PRIMARY KEY(blog_ID, comments_ID),  
  constraint fk_blog_has_comments_blog FOREIGN KEY(blog_ID) REFERENCES blog(ID),  
  constraint fk_blog_has_comments_comments FOREIGN KEY(comments_ID) REFERENCES  
comments(ID)  
);
```



Add Example of many to many relation

## *Notation of ER diagram*



One



Many



One (and only one)



Zero or one

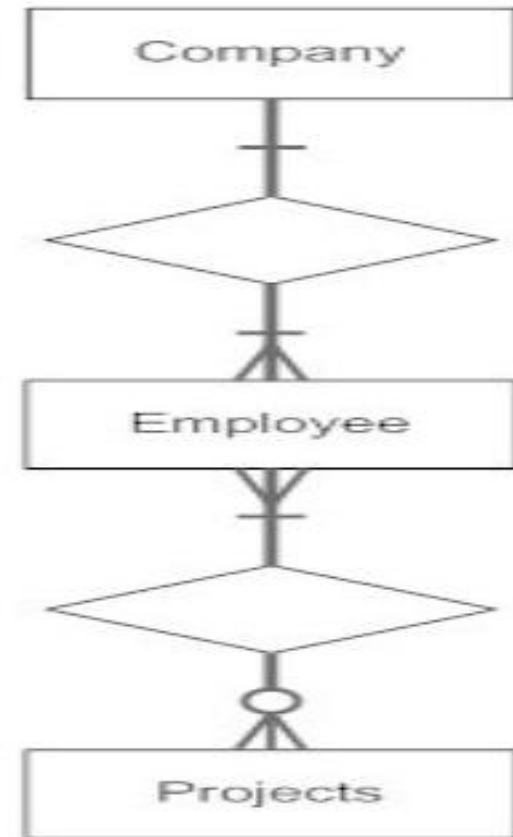
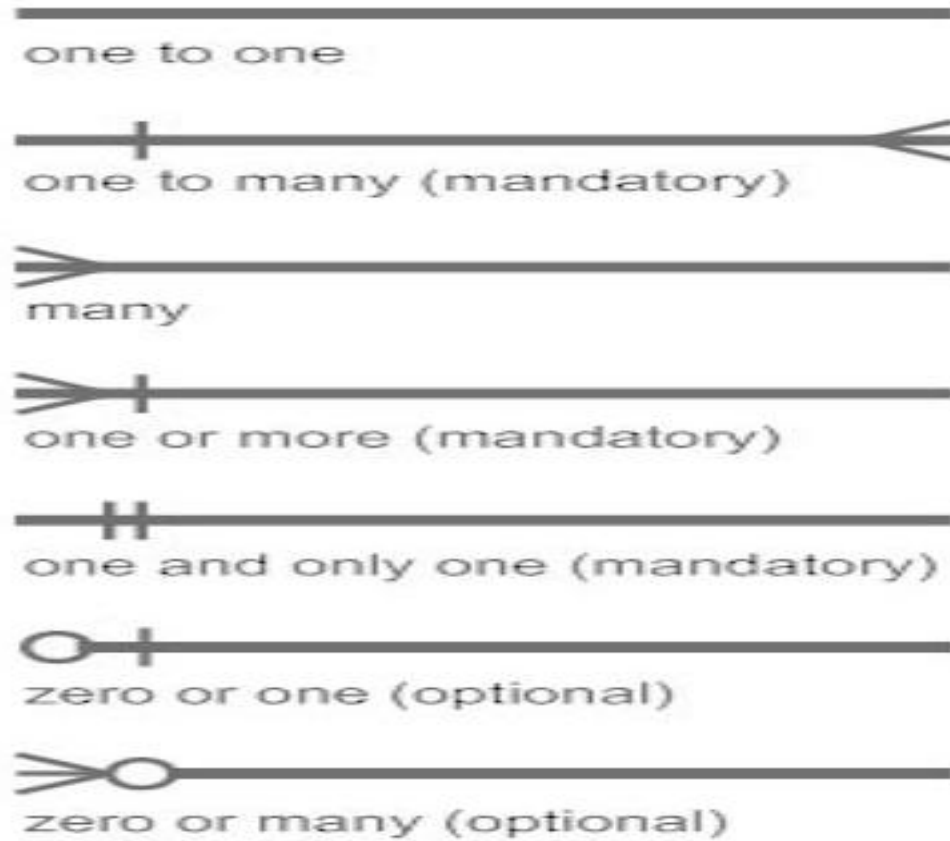


One or many

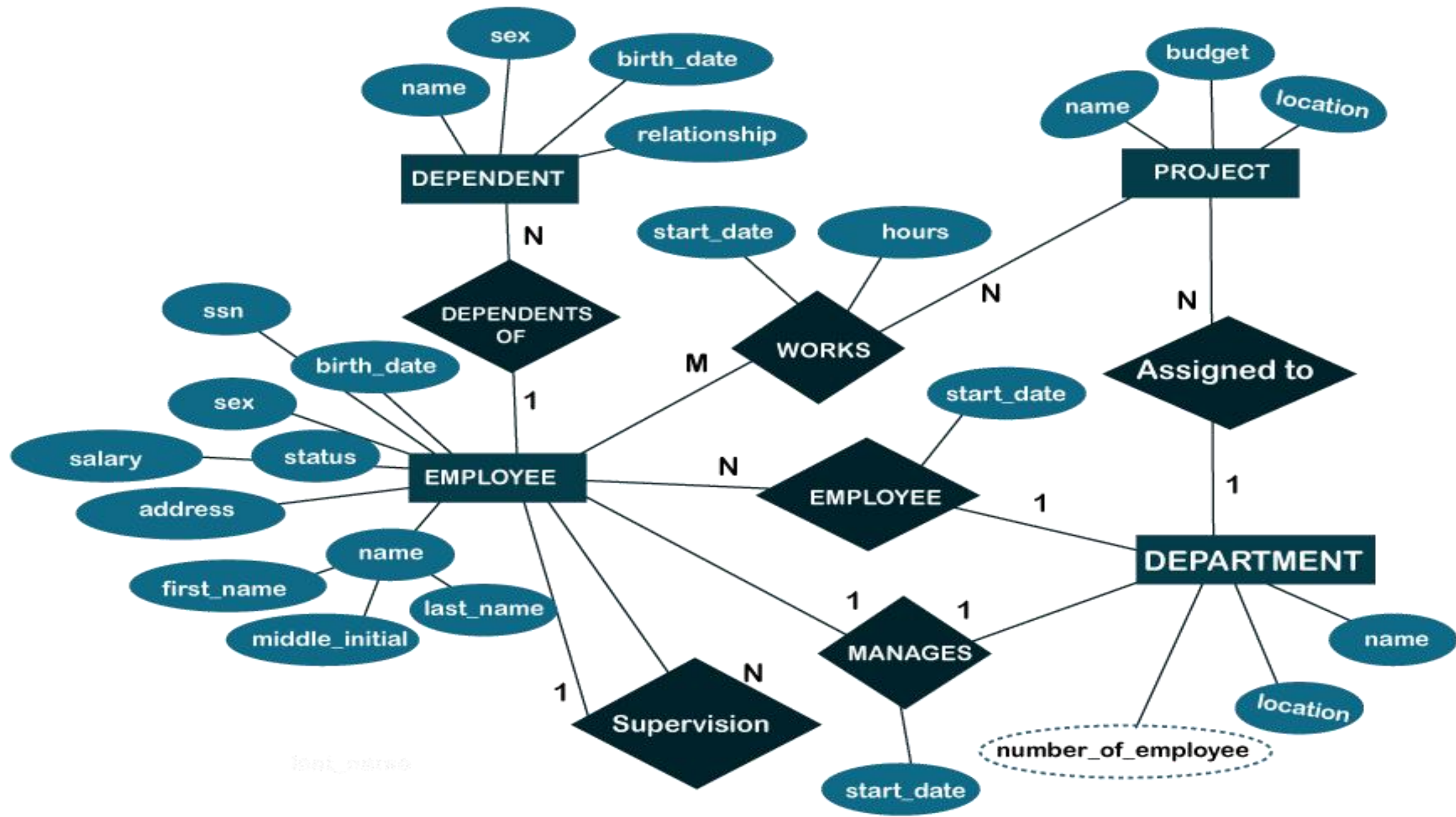


Zero or many

## Notation of ER diagram







IS  
NULL  
NULL

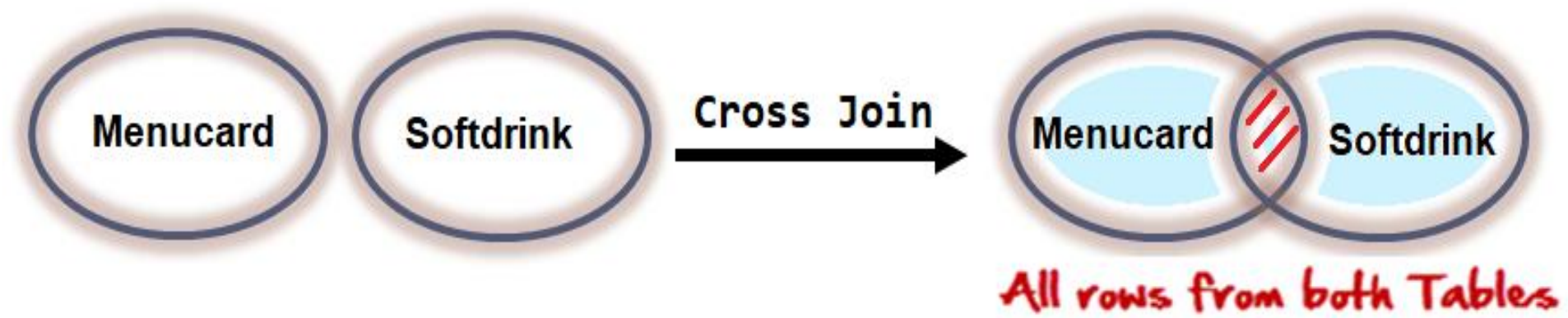
joins

**JOINS** are used to **retrieve data from multiple tables.**

**JOIN** is performed whenever **two or more tables** are joined in a SQL statement.

## *Type of JOINS*

- Cartesian or Product Join – Cross Join
- Equijoin – Inner Join
- Natural Join
- Simple Join
- Outer Join – Right Outer Join, Left Outer Join
- Self Join



## cartesian or product join

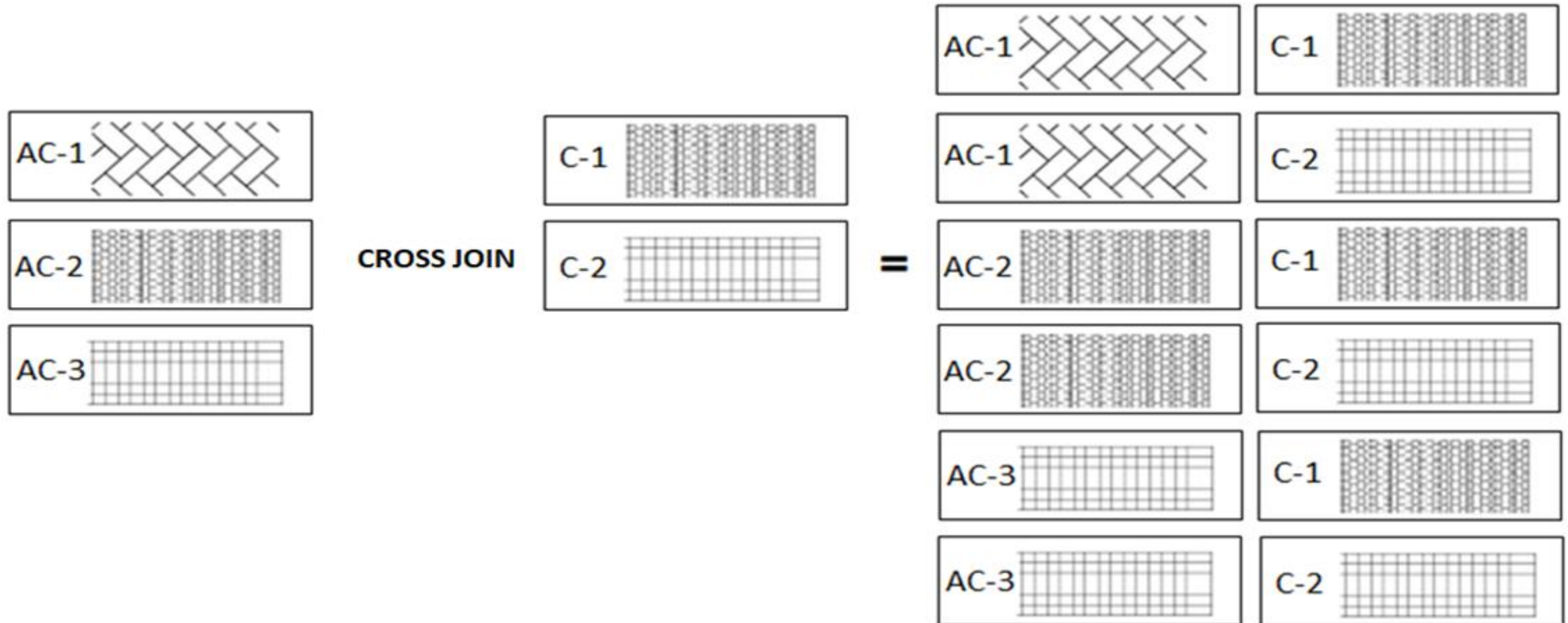
- **Cartesian/Product means** Number of Rows present in Table 1 Multiplied by Number of Rows present in Table 2.
- **Cross Join in MySQL** does not require any common column to **join** two table.

The result of  $R(A_1, A_2, \dots, A_n) \times S(B_1, B_2, \dots, B_m)$  is a relation  $Q$  with degree  $n + m$  attributes  $Q(A_1, A_2, \dots, A_n, B_1, B_2, \dots, B_m)$ , in that order.

$$\text{Degree } d(R \times S) = d(R) + d(S).$$
$$\text{Cardinality } |R \times S| = |R| * |S|$$

# joins - cartesian or product

The CROSS JOIN gets a row from the first table ( $r_1$ ) and then creates a new row for every row in the second table ( $r_2$ ). It then does the same for the next row for in the first table ( $r_1$ ) and so on.



## joins – cross join

The CROSS JOIN produced a result set which is the product of rows of two associated tables when no WHERE clause is used with CROSS JOIN. In this join, the result set appeared by multiplying each row of the first table with all rows in the second table if no condition introduced with CROSS JOIN.

**SELECT**  $A_1, A_2, A_3, \dots$  **FROM**  $r_1$  **CROSS JOIN**  $r_2, \dots$

**envelope**

**Table**

	id	user_id
▶	1	1
	2	2
	3	3

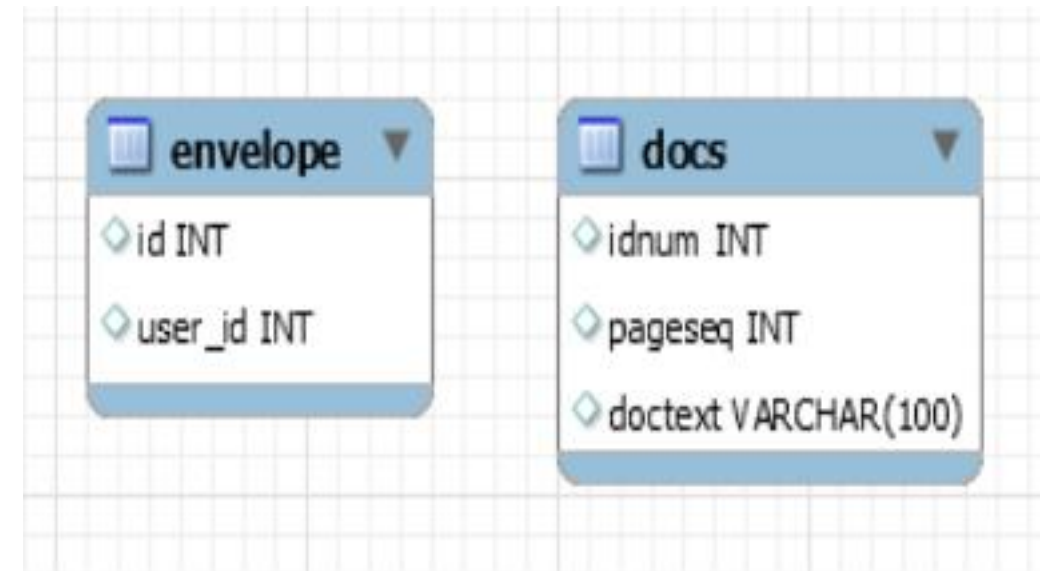
**docs**

**Table**

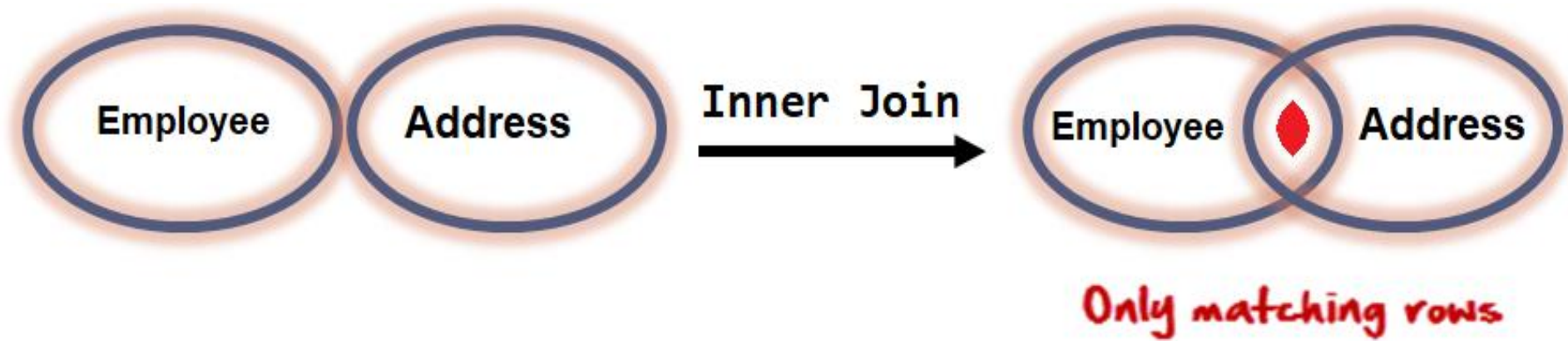
	idnum	pageseq	doctext
▶	1	5	NULL
	2	6	NULL
	NULL	0	NULL

- **SELECT** \* **FROM** envelope **CROSS JOIN** docs;

	id	user_id	idnum	pageseq	doctext
▶	1	1	1	5	NULL
	2	2	1	5	NULL
	3	3	1	5	NULL
	1	1	2	6	NULL
	2	2	2	6	NULL
	3	3	2	6	NULL
	1	1	NULL	0	NULL
	2	2	NULL	0	NULL
	3	3	NULL	0	NULL







## equi join

An **equi join** / **Inner Join** is a join with a join condition containing an equality operator.

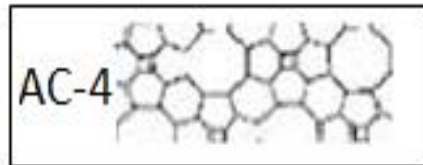
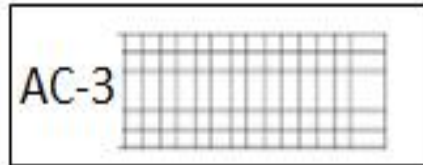
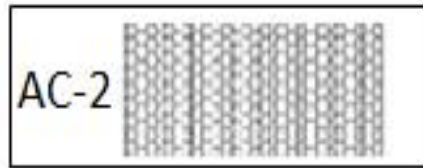
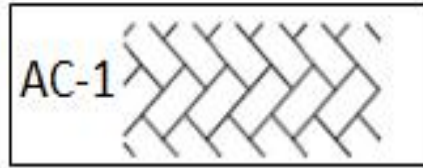
An equijoin returns only those rows that have equivalent values for the specified columns. Rows that match remain in the result, those that don't are rejected. The match condition is commonly called the **join condition**. **equi join** / **Inner Join** returns rows when there is at least one match in both tables.

The result of  $R(A_1, A_2, \dots, A_n) \bowtie_{\langle \text{join condition} \rangle} S(B_1, B_2, \dots, B_m)$  is a relation  $Q$  with degree  $n + m$  attributes  $Q(A_1, A_2, \dots, A_n, B_1, B_2, \dots, B_m)$ , in that order.  $Q$  has one tuple for each combination of tuples—one from  $R$  and one from  $S$ —whenever the combination satisfies the join condition.

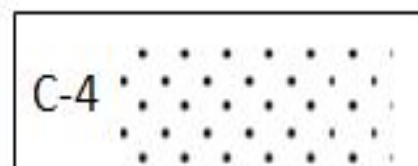
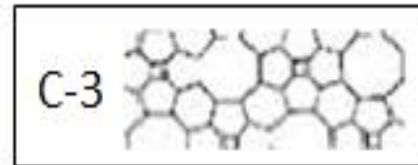
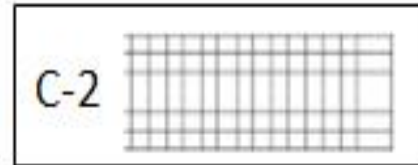
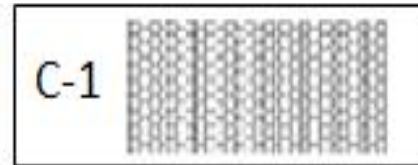


## equi join example

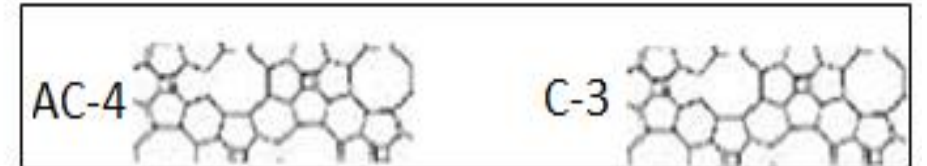
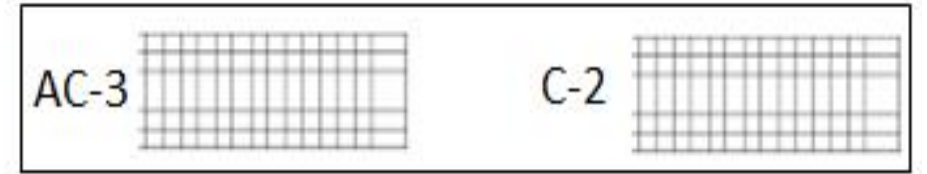
The following table illustrates the inner join of two tables  $r_1(AC-1, AC-2, AC-3, AC-4, AC-5)$  and  $r_2(C-1, C-2, C-3, C-4)$ . The result includes rows: (2,A), (3,B), and (4,C) as they have the same patterns.



**INNER JOIN**



**=**



# inner join

The inner join is one of the most commonly used joins in SQL. The inner join clause allows you to query data from two or more related tables.

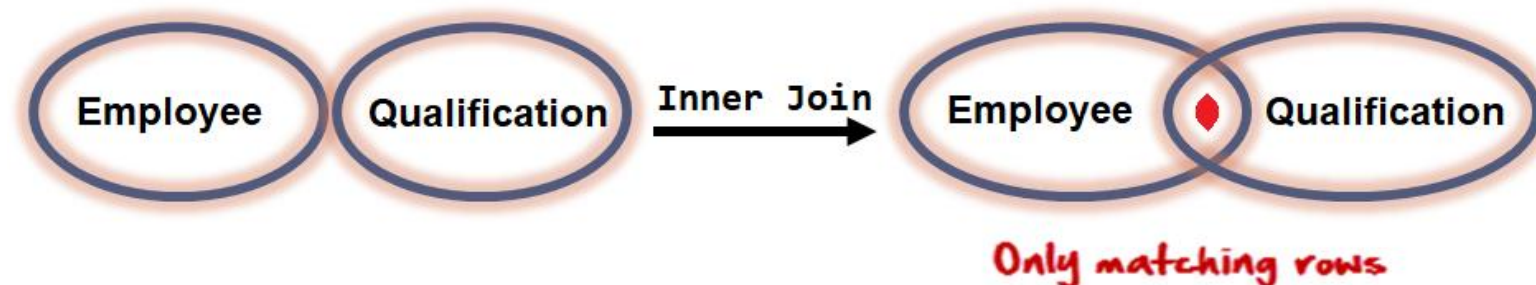
INNER JOIN returns rows when there is at least one match in both tables.

## *joins – inner join*

The INNER JOIN selects all rows from both participating tables as long as there is a match between the columns. An SQL INNER JOIN is same as JOIN clause, combining rows from two or more tables.

**SELECT**  $A_1, A_2, A_3, \dots$  **FROM**  $r_1$  **[INNER] JOIN**  $r_2$  **ON**  $r_1.A_1 = r_2.A_1$

- **SELECT** \* **FROM** employee emp **INNER JOIN** qualification quali **ON** emp.id = quali.employeeid;



natural join

## joins – natural join

Joins two tables based on common column names. Hence one must confirm the common columns before using a NATURAL JOIN

The **NATURAL JOIN** is such a join that performs the same task as an **INNER JOIN**.

**SELECT**  $A_1, A_2, A_3, \dots$  **FROM**  $r_1$  **NATURAL** [**INNER**] **JOIN**  $r_2$  **NATURAL** [**INNER**] **JOIN**  $r_3 \dots$

- **SELECT** \* **FROM** emp **NATURAL JOIN** dept;
- The associated tables have one or more pairs of identically column-names.
- The columns must be of the same name.
- The columns datatype may differ.
- Don't use ON / USING clause in a NATURAL JOIN.
- When this join condition gets applied always the duplicates of the common columns get eliminated from the result.

A **NATURAL JOIN** can be used with a **LEFT OUTER** join, or a **RIGHT OUTER** join.

If the column-names are not same, then NATURAL JOIN will work as **CROSS JOIN**.

**SELECT** \* **FROM** EMP  
**NATURAL JOIN** DEPT

# simple join

TODO

## *joins – simple join*

The **SIMPLE JOIN** is such a join that performs the same task as an **INNER JOIN**.

**SELECT**  $A_1, A_2, A_3, \dots$  **FROM**  $r_1$  **SIMPLE JOIN**  $r_2$  **USING** ( $A_1, \dots$ )

- **SELECT** \* **FROM** emp **SIMPLE JOIN** dept **USING**(deptno)

# outer joins

In an outer join, along with rows that satisfy the matching criteria, we also include some or all rows that do not match the criteria.



## joins – left outer join

The **LEFT JOIN** keyword returns all rows from the left table ( $r_1$ ), with the matching rows in the right table ( $r_2$ ). The result is **NULL** in the right side when there is no match.

**SELECT**  $A_1, A_2, A_3, \dots$  **FROM**  $r_1$  **LEFT [OUTER] JOIN**  $r_2$  **ON**  $r_1.A_1 = r_2.A_1$

**SELECT** \* **FROM** orders ord **LEFT OUTER JOIN** employee emp **ON** emp.id = ord.employeeid;

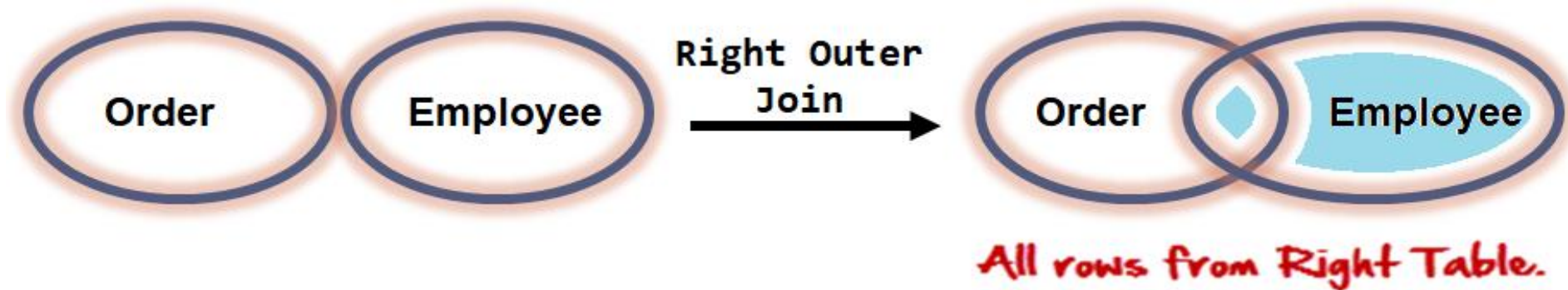


## joins – right outer join

The **RIGHT JOIN** keyword returns all rows from the right table ( $r_2$ ), with the matching rows in the left table ( $r_1$ ). The result is **NULL** in the left side table when there is no match.

```
SELECT  $A_1$ ,  $A_2$ ,  $A_3$ , . . . FROM  $r_1$  RIGHT [OUTER ] JOIN  $r_2$  ON  $r_1.A_1 = r_2.A_1$ 
```

```
SELECT * FROM orders ord RIGHT OUTER JOIN employee emp ON emp.id = ord.employeeid;
```



TODO

self joins

TODO

## *joins – self join*

A **SELF JOIN** is a join in which a table is joined with itself (which is also called Unary relationships), especially when the table has a FOREIGN KEY which references its own PRIMARY KEY.

```
SELECT  $r_x.A_1$ ,  $r_x.A_2$ ,  $r_y.A_1$ ,  $r_y.A_2$ , . . . FROM  $r_1$   $r_x$ ,  $r_1$   $r_y$  WHERE  $r_x.A_1 = r_y.A_1$ 
```

# set operation in sql

**Set operators** are used to join the results of two (or more) SELECT statements.

## Remember:

- The result set column names are taken from the column names of the first SELECT statement.
- SELECT statement should have the same data type. (Not in MySQL)

## *syntax*

SELECT ... UNION [ALL]  
SELECT ...

- SELECT \* FROM books UNION SELECT \* FROM newbooks;
- SELECT \* FROM books UNION ALL SELECT \* FROM newbooks;

## *syntax*

SELECT ... INTERSECT  
SELECT ...

- SELECT \* FROM books INTERSECT SELECT \* FROM newbooks;

## *syntax*

SELECT ... EXCEPT  
SELECT ...

*EXCEPT returns rows from first dataset, which are not available in the second dataset.*

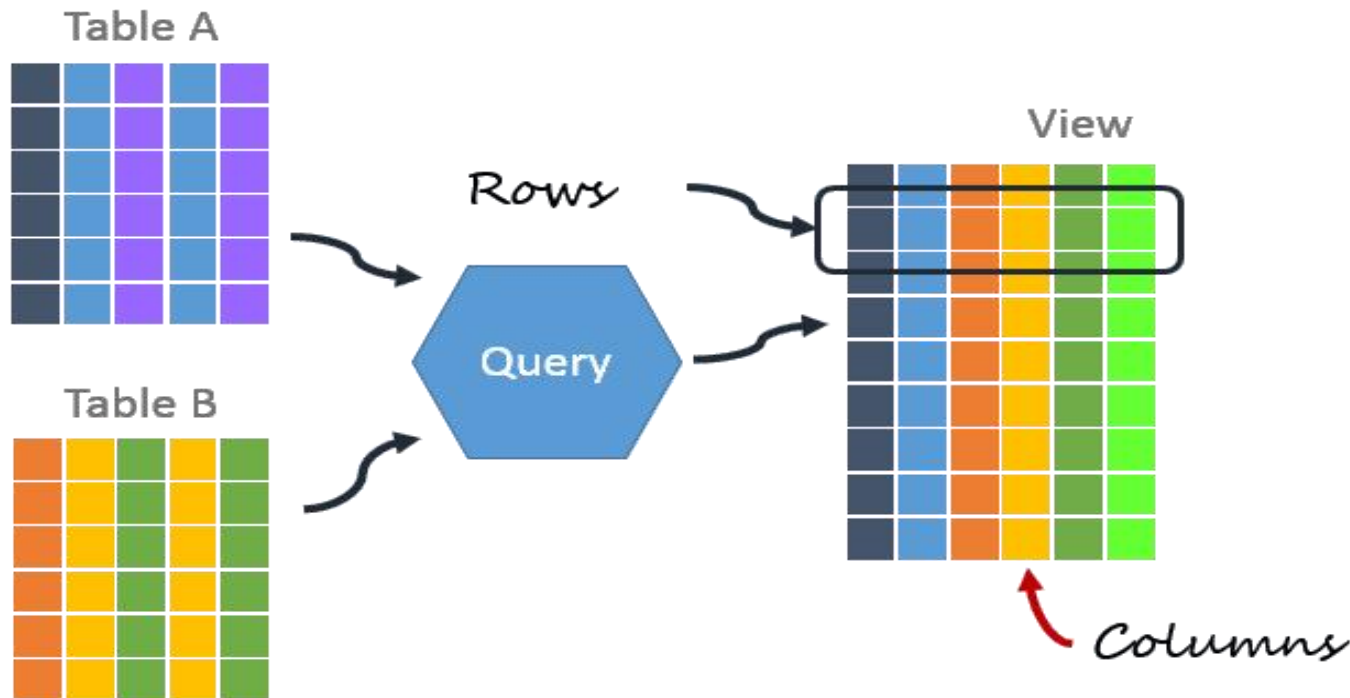
- SELECT \* FROM books EXCEPT SELECT \* FROM newbooks;

A **VIEW** in SQL as a logical subset of data from one or more tables. Views are used to restrict data access. A **VIEW** contains no data of its own but its like window through which data from tables can be viewed or changed. The table on which a View is based are called BASE Tables.

There are 2 types of Views in SQL:

- **Simple View** : Simple views can only contain a single base table.
- **Complex View** : Complex views can be constructed on more than one base table. In particular, complex views can contain: join conditions, a group by clause, a order by clause.

## views



Views are not updatable in the following cases:

- A table in the FROM clause is reference by a subquery in the WHERE statement.
- There is a subquery in the SELECT clause.
- The SQL statement defining the view joins tables.
- One of the tables in the FROM clause is a non-updatable view.
- The SELECT statement of the view contains an aggregate function such as SUM(), COUNT(), MAX(), MIN(), and so on.
- The keywords DISTINCT, GROUP BY, HAVING clause, LIMIT clause, UNION, or UNION ALL appear in the defining SQL statement.



## *create view/ show create view*

The select\_statement is a SELECT statement that provides the definition of the view. The select\_statement can select from base tables or other views.

```
CREATE [OR REPLACE] VIEW view_name [(column_list)]  
    AS select_statement [WITH CHECK OPTION]
```

```
SHOW CREATE VIEW view_name
```

```
show create VIEW v1;
```

## *alter / drop view*

This statement changes the definition of a view, which must exist.

```
ALTER VIEW view_name [(column_list)]  
    AS select_statement  
    [WITH CHECK OPTION]
```

e.g.

- `ALTER VIEW studentview AS SELECT namefirst, namelast, emailid FROM student;`

DROP VIEW removes one or more views.

```
DROP VIEW [IF EXISTS]  
    view_name [, view_name] ...
```

e.g.

- `DROP VIEW studentview;`
- `DROP VIEW studentid10view, studentviewwithcheck;`
- `DROP VIEW studentTotalMarksView, studentAddressView;`