Defining a Database Schema

CREATE TABLE name (list of elements).

- Principal elements are attributes and their types, but key declarations and constraints also appear.
- Similar CREATE X commands for other schema elements X: views, indexes, assertions, triggers.
- “DROP X name” deletes the created element of kind X with that name.

Example

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

```
DROP TABLE Sells;
```
Types

1. INT or INTEGER.

2. REAL or FLOAT.

3. CHAR\((n)\) = fixed length character string, padded with “pad characters.”

4. VARCHAR\((n)\) = variable-length strings up to \(n\) characters.

✦ Oracle uses VARCHAR2\((n)\) as well. Difference: storage for VARCHAR2 is truly varying length; VARCHAR uses fixed array with endmarker.

✦ VARCHAR in Oracle is “deprecated” (they may discontinue it in the future), so they suggest you always use VARCHAR2.
5. Dates. SQL form is DATE ‘yyyy-mm-dd’
   * Oracle uses a different format — to be explained.

6. Times. Form is TIME ‘hh:mm:ss[.ss...]’ in SQL.

7. In Oracle: NUMBER is either integer or floating point as appropriate.
Oracle Default Dates (Used at Stanford)

Format ’dd-mon-yy’

- Behind the scenes (as stored in the relation), the value of a date field has as much precision as the computer allows.

Example

```
CREATE TABLE Days (  
    d DATE  
);  

INSERT INTO Days  
VALUES(’06-nov-97’);  

Oracle function `to_date` converts a specified format into default format.  

INSERT INTO Days  
VALUES(to_date(’2000-01-01’,  
    ’yyyy-mm-dd’));
```
Declaring Keys

Use **PRIMARY KEY** or **UNIQUE**.

- Oracle treats these as synonyms.
- But only one primary key, many “uniques” allowed.
- SQL permits implementations to create an index (data structure to speed access given a key value) in response to **PRIMARY KEY** only.
  - But Oracle creates indexes for both.
- SQL does not allow nulls in primary key, but allows them in “unique” columns (which may have two or more nulls, but not repeated nonnull values).
Declaring Keys

Two places to declare:

1. After an attribute’s type, if the attribute is a key by itself.

2. As a separate element.
   ✦ Essential if key is > 1 attribute.
Example

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

- On the Stanford Oracle system for this class, there is a separate data area on a separate disk for indexes.
  ✦ Speeds access — two heads are better than one.
  ✦ Thus, you should follow any implicit index-creating statement like “primary key,” by:

```
USING INDEX TABLESPACE indx
```
Example

CREATE TABLE Beers (  
  name CHAR(20) UNIQUE  
  USING INDEX TABLESPACE indx,  
  manf CHAR(20)  
);
Other Properties You Can Give to Attributes

1. **NOT NULL** = every tuple must have a real value for this attribute.

2. **DEFAULT value** = a value to use whenever no other value of this attribute is known.

Example

CREATE TABLE Drinkers (  
  name CHAR(30) PRIMARY KEY  
    USING INDEX TABLESPACE indx,  
  addr CHAR(50)  
    DEFAULT '123 Sesame St',  
  phone CHAR(16)  
);
INSERT INTO Drinkers(name) VALUES('Sally')

results in the following tuple:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>name</th>
<th>addr</th>
<th>phone</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Sally</td>
<td>123 Sesame St.</td>
<td>NULL</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

- Primary key is by default not NULL.
- This insert is legal.
  - OK to list a subset of the attributes and values for only this subset.
- But if we had declared
  
  phone CHAR(16) NOT NULL

then the insertion could not be made.
Changing Columns

Add an attribute of relation $R$ with

\[
\text{ALTER TABLE } R \text{ ADD } <\text{column declaration}>;\]

Example

\[
\text{ALTER TABLE Bars ADD phone CHAR(16) DEFAULT 'unlisted'};\]

- Columns may also be dropped.

\[
\text{ALTER TABLE Bars DROP license};\]
Views

An expression that describes a table without creating it.

- View definition form is:

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

The view CanDrink is the set of drinker-beer pairs such that the drinker frequents at least one bar that serves the beer.

\[
\text{CREATE VIEW CanDrink AS} \\
\quad \text{SELECT drinker, beer} \\
\quad \text{FROM Frequents, Sells} \\
\quad \text{WHERE Frequents.bar = Sells.bar;}
\]

Querying Views

Treat the view as if it were a materialized relation.

Example

\[
\text{SELECT beer} \\
\text{FROM CanDrink} \\
\text{WHERE drinker = 'Sally';}
\]
Semantics of View Use

SQL query $\rightarrow$ rel. algebra

SQL view def. $\rightarrow$ rel. algebra

Example

$\pi_{drinker, beer}$ $\bowtie$ Freqents $\rightarrow$ Sells $\rightarrow$ $\sigma_{drinker='Sally'}$ CanDrink

$\pi_{beer}$ $\rightarrow$ Query

CanDrink

Example
Compose

\[ \pi_{\text{beer}} \]
\[ \sigma_{\text{drinker}=\text{\textquoteright}Sally\text{'}} \]
\[ \pi_{\text{drinker,beer}} \]
\[ \bowtie \]
Frequents \quad Sells
Optimize Query

1. Push selections down tree.
2. Eliminate unnecessary projections.