

# Oracle® Database

## Object-Relational Developer's Guide



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Oracle Database Object-Relational Developer's Guide, 20c

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# Preface

*Oracle Database Object-Relational Developer's Guide* explains how to use the object-relational features of the Oracle Database, 12c release 2 (12.2.0.1). Information in this guide applies to versions of the Oracle Database that run on all platforms, and does not include system-specific information.

- [Audience](#)
- [Documentation Accessibility](#)
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## Audience

*Oracle Database Object-Relational Developer's Guide* is intended for programmers developing new applications or converting existing applications to run in the Oracle environment. The object-relational features are often used in content management, data warehousing, data/information integration, and similar applications that deal with complex structured data. The object views feature can be valuable when writing new C++, C#, Java, or XML applications on top of an existing relational schema.

This guide assumes that you have a working knowledge of application programming and that you are familiar with the use of Structured Query Language (SQL) to access information in relational databases. You should be familiar with the information in *Oracle Database SQL Language Quick Reference*, *Oracle Database PL/SQL Language Reference*, and *Oracle Database 2 Day Developer's Guide*, and with object-oriented programming techniques.

## Documentation Accessibility

For information about Oracle's commitment to accessibility, visit the Oracle Accessibility Program website at <http://www.oracle.com/pls/topic/lookup?ctx=acc&id=docacc>.

### Access to Oracle Support

Oracle customers that have purchased support have access to electronic support through My Oracle Support. For information, visit <http://www.oracle.com/pls/topic/lookup?ctx=acc&id=info> or visit <http://www.oracle.com/pls/topic/lookup?ctx=acc&id=trs> if you are hearing impaired.

## Related Documents

For more information, see these Oracle resources:

- *Oracle Database Concepts* for information about basic Oracle concepts
- *Oracle Database SQL Language Reference* and *Oracle Database Administrator's Guide* for information about SQL
- *Oracle Database PL/SQL Language Reference* for information about PL/SQL, the procedural language extension to Oracle SQL
- *Oracle Database Development Guide* for general information about developing applications
- *Oracle Database JDBC Developer's Guide* and *Oracle Database Java Developer's Guide* for information about Oracle object-relational features through Java
- *Oracle Call Interface Programmer's Guide* and *Oracle C++ Call Interface Programmer's Guide* for information about using the Oracle Call Interface (OCI) and Oracle C++ Call Interface (OCCI) to build third-generation language (3GL) applications that interact with one or more the Oracle databases
- *Pro\*C/C++ Programmer's Guide* for information about Oracle's Pro\* series of precompilers, which allow you to embed SQL and PL/SQL in 3GL application programs written in Ada, C, C++, COBOL, or FORTRAN
- *Oracle XML DB Developer's Guide* and *Oracle XML Developer's Kit Programmer's Guide* for information about developing applications with XML
- *Oracle Database SecureFiles and Large Objects Developer's Guide* for information about Large Objects (LOBs)
- *Oracle Data Provider for .NET Developer's Guide for Microsoft Windows*
- *Oracle Developer Tools for Visual Studio Help*

Many of the examples in this book use the sample schemas, which are installed by default when you select the Basic Installation option with an Oracle Database installation. Refer to *Oracle Database Sample Schemas* for information on how these schemas were created and how you can use them yourself.

To download free release notes, installation documentation, white papers, or other collateral, please visit the Oracle Technology Network (OTN)

<http://www.oracle.com/technetwork/index.html>

For the latest version of the Oracle documentation, including this guide, visit

<http://www.oracle.com/technetwork/documentation/index.html>

## Conventions

The following text conventions are used in this document:

Convention	Meaning
<b>boldface</b>	Boldface type indicates graphical user interface elements associated with an action, or terms defined in text or the glossary.
<i>italic</i>	Italic type indicates book titles, emphasis, or placeholder variables for which you supply particular values.
monospace	Monospace type indicates commands within a paragraph, URLs, code in examples, text that appears on the screen, or text that you enter.

# Changes in This Release for Oracle Database Object-Relational Developer's Guide

This preface contains:

- [Changes in Oracle Database Release 20c, Version 20.1](#)

## Changes in Oracle Database Release 20c, Version 20.1

There are no new features in *Oracle Database Object-Relational Developer's Guide* for Oracle Database release 20c, version 20.1.

# 1

## Introduction to Oracle Objects

There are advantages and key features to the Oracle object-relational model.

Topics:

- [About Oracle Objects](#)
- [Advantages of Objects](#)
- [Key Features of the Object-Relational Model](#)

### 1.1 About Oracle Objects

Oracle object types are user-defined types that make it possible to model real-world entities, such as customers and purchase orders, as objects in the database.

New object types can be created from any built-in database types and any previously created object types, object references, and collection types. Object types can work with complex data, such as images, audio, and video. Oracle Database stores metadata for user-defined types in a schema that is available to SQL, PL/SQL, Java, and other languages.

Object types and related object-oriented features, such as varrays and nested tables, provide higher-level ways to organize and access data in the database. Underneath the object layer, data is still stored in columns and tables, but you can work with the data in terms of the real-world entities that make the data meaningful. Instead of thinking in terms of columns and tables when you query the database, you can simply select entities that you have created, such as customers and purchase orders.

You can begin to use object-oriented features while continuing to work with most of your data relationally, or you use to an object-oriented approach entirely.

Object types are also known as user-defined types or ADTs. *Oracle Database PL/SQL Language Reference* generally refers to them as ADTs.

### 1.2 Advantages of Objects

The object-type model, in general, is similar to the class mechanism found in C++ and Java.

Like classes, the reusability of objects makes it possible to develop database applications faster and more efficiently. By natively supporting object types in the database, Oracle Database enables application developers to directly access the data structures used by their applications.

Objects offer other advantages over a purely relational approach, such as:

- [Objects Can Encapsulate Operations Along with Data](#)
- [Objects Are Efficient](#)
- [Objects Can Represent Part-Whole Relationships](#)

### **Objects Can Encapsulate Operations Along with Data**

Database tables contain only data. Objects can include the ability to perform operations that are likely to be performed on that data.

Thus, an object such as a purchase order might include a method to calculate the cost of all the items purchased. Or a customer object might have methods to return the customer's buying history and payment pattern. An application can simply call the methods to retrieve the information.

### **Objects Are Efficient**

Using object types allows for greater efficiency:

- Object types and their methods are stored with the data in the database, so they are available for any application to use. Developers do not need to re-create similar structures and methods in every application. This also ensures that developers are using consistent standards.
- You can fetch and manipulate a set of related objects as a single unit. A single request to fetch an object from the server can retrieve other objects that are connected to it. When you reference a column of a SQL object type, you retrieve the whole object.

### **Objects Can Represent Part-Whole Relationships**

Object types allow you to represent part-whole relationships.

In a relational table for stock items, for example, a piston and an engine may have the same status. Using objects can reduce the need to represent pistons as parts of engines with complicated schemas of multiple tables with primary key-foreign key relationships. An object can have other objects as attributes, and the attribute objects can have their own object attributes too. An entire parts-list hierarchy can be built up in this way from interlocking object types.

## **1.3 Key Features of the Object-Relational Model**

Oracle Database implements the object-type model as an extension of the relational model, while continuing to support standard relational database functionality, such as queries, fast commits, backup and recovery, scalable connectivity, row-level locking, read consistency, and more.

SQL and various programmatic interfaces and languages, including PL/SQL, Java, Oracle Call Interface, Pro\*C/C++, and C# have been enhanced with extensions to support Oracle objects. The result is an object-relational model that offers the intuitiveness and economy of an object interface while preserving the high concurrency and throughput of a relational database.

Topics:

- [Database Features of Oracle Objects](#)
- [Language Binding Features of Oracle Objects](#)

## 1.3.1 Database Features of Oracle Objects

There are certain features and concepts of the object-relational model that are related to the database.

 **Note:**

**Running Examples:** Many examples in this guide can be run using the `HR` sample schema. Comments at the beginning of most examples indicate if any previous example code is required.

Refer to *Oracle Database Sample Schemas* for information on how these schemas were created and how you can use them yourself.

Topics:

- [About Object Types](#)
- [About Object Instances](#)
- [About Object Methods](#)
- [How Objects are Stored in Tables](#)
- [Object Identifiers Used to Identify Row Objects](#)
- [References to Row Objects](#)
- [Oracle Collections Data Types](#)
- [Object Views Used to Access Relational Data](#)
- [Use of Type Inheritance](#)
- [Type Evolution Used to Change an Existing Object Type](#)

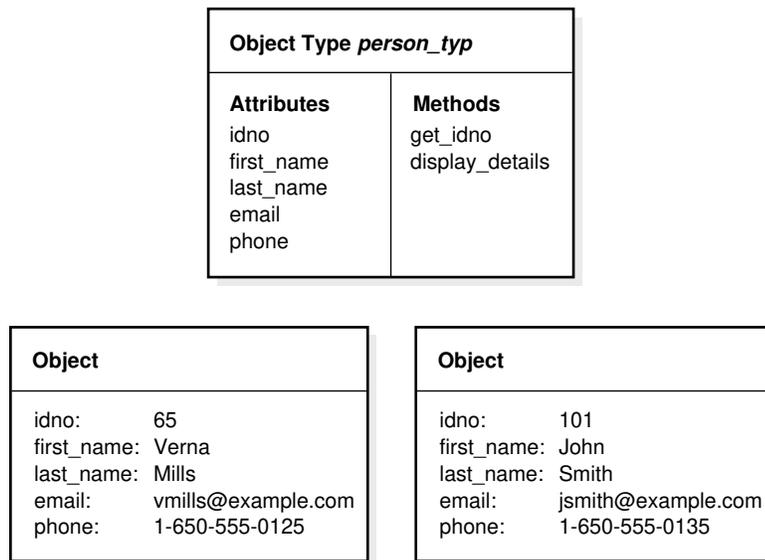
### 1.3.1.1 About Object Types

An object type is a kind of data type.

You can use an object in the same ways that you use standard data types such as `NUMBER` or `VARCHAR2`. For example, you can specify an object type as the data type of a column in a relational table, and you can declare variables of an object type. The value is a variable or an instance of that type. An object instance is also called an object.

[Figure 1-1](#) shows an object type, `person_typ`, and two instances of the object type.

**Figure 1-1 Object Type and Object Instances**



Object types serve as blueprints or templates that define both structure and behavior. Object types are database schema objects, subject to the same kinds of administrative control as other schema objects. Application code can retrieve and manipulate these objects. See [Managing Oracle Objects](#).

You use the `CREATE TYPE` SQL statement to define object types.

[Example 1-1](#) shows how to create an object type named `person_typ`. In the example, an object specification and object body are defined. For information on the `CREATE TYPE` SQL statement and on the `CREATE TYPE BODY` SQL statement, see *Oracle Database PL/SQL Language Reference*.



**Note:**

**Running Examples:** Many examples on this subject can be run using the `HR` sample schemas. Comments at the beginning of most examples indicate if any previous example code is required. Refer to *Oracle Database Sample Schemas* for information on how these schemas were created and how you can use them yourself.

**Example 1-1 Creating the `person_typ` Object Type**

```
CREATE TYPE person_typ AS OBJECT (
    idno          NUMBER,
    first_name    VARCHAR2(20),
    last_name     VARCHAR2(25),
    email         VARCHAR2(25),
    phone        VARCHAR2(20),
    MAP MEMBER FUNCTION get_idno RETURN NUMBER,
    MEMBER PROCEDURE display_details ( SELF IN OUT NOCOPY person_typ ));
/
```

```

CREATE TYPE BODY person_typ AS
MAP MEMBER FUNCTION get_idno RETURN NUMBER IS
BEGIN
    RETURN idno;
END;
MEMBER PROCEDURE display_details ( SELF IN OUT NOCOPY person_typ ) IS
BEGIN
    -- use the PUT_LINE procedure of the DBMS_OUTPUT package to display details
    DBMS_OUTPUT.PUT_LINE(TO_CHAR(idno) || ' ' || first_name || ' ' || last_name);
    DBMS_OUTPUT.PUT_LINE(email || ' ' || phone);
END;
END;
/

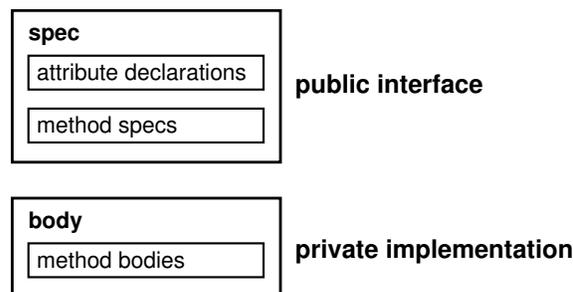
```

Object types differ from the standard data types that are native to a relational database:

- Oracle Database does not supply predefined object types. You define the object types you want by combining built-in types with user-defined ones as shown in [Example 1-1](#).
- Object types are composed of attributes and methods as illustrated in [Figure 1-2](#).
  - Attributes hold the data about an object. Attributes have declared data types which can, in turn, be other object types.
  - Methods are procedures or functions that applications can use to perform operations on the attributes of the object type. Methods are optional. They define the behavior of objects of that type.

**Figure 1-2 Object Attributes and Methods**

[Figure 1-2](#) shows the relationship of attributes and methods in the spec.



### 1.3.1.2 About Object Instances

A variable of an object type is an instance of the type, or an object.

An object has the attributes and methods defined for its type. Because an object instance is a concrete thing, you can assign values to its attributes and call its methods.

Defining an object type does not allocate any storage. After they are defined, object types can be used in SQL statements in most of the same places you use types such as `NUMBER` or `VARCHAR2`. Storage is allocated once you create an instance of the object type.

[Example 1-2](#) shows how to create object instances of the `person_typ` created in [Example 1-1](#), and define a relational table to keep track of these instances as contacts.

### Example 1-2 Creating the contacts Table with an Object Type Column

```
-- requires existing person_typ fr. Ex 1-1
CREATE TABLE contacts (
  contact      person_typ,
  contact_date DATE );

INSERT INTO contacts VALUES (
  person_typ (65, 'Verna', 'Mills', 'vmills@example.com', '1-650-555-0125'),
  to_date('24 Jun 2003', 'dd Mon YYYY'));
```

The `contacts` table is a relational table with an object type as the data type of its contact column. Objects that occupy columns of relational tables are called [column objects](#).



#### See Also:

[How Objects are Stored in Tables](#)

## 1.3.1.3 About Object Methods

Object methods are functions or procedures that you can declare in an object type definition to implement behavior that you want objects of that type to perform.

The general kinds of methods that can be declared in a type definition are:

- Member Methods

Using member methods, you can provide access to the data of an object, and otherwise define operations that an application performs on the data. To perform an operation, the application calls the appropriate method on the appropriate object.

- Static Methods

Static methods compare object instances and perform operations that do not use the data of any particular object, but, instead, are global to an object type.

- Constructor Methods

A default constructor method is implicitly defined for every object type, unless it is overwritten with a user-defined constructor. A constructor method is called on a type to construct or create an object instance of the type.

[Example 1-3](#) show the `get_idno()` method, created in [Example 1-1](#), to display the Id number of persons in the `contacts` table:

### Example 1-3 Using the get\_idno Object Method

```
-- requires Ex 1-1 and Ex 1-2
SELECT c.contact.get_idno() FROM contacts c;
```

 **See Also:**  
[Object Methods](#)

### 1.3.1.4 How Objects are Stored in Tables

Objects can be stored in two types of tables:

- Object tables: store only objects  
In an object table, each row represents an object, which is referred to as a [row object](#).
- Relational tables: store objects with other table data  
Objects that are stored as columns of a relational table, or are attributes of other objects, are called [column objects](#). [Example 1-2](#) shows the `contacts` table which stores an instance of the `person_typ` object.

Objects that have meaning outside of the relational database in which they are contained, or objects that are shared among more than one relational database object, should be made referenceable as row objects. That is, such objects should be stored as a row object in an object table instead of in a column of a relational table.

 **See Also:**

- ["About Storing Objects as Columns or Rows"](#)
- ["Creating and Using Object Tables"](#)

#### 1.3.1.4.1 Creating and Using Object Tables

You create object tables using a `CREATE TABLE` statement.

[Example 1-4](#) shows a `CREATE TABLE` statement that creates an object table for `person_typ` objects.

##### **Example 1-4 Creating the `person_obj_table` Object Table**

```
-- requires Ex. 1-1  
CREATE TABLE person_obj_table OF person_typ;
```

You can view this table in two ways:

- As a single-column table, in which each row is a `person_typ` object, allowing you to perform object-oriented operations.
- As a multi-column table, in which each attribute of the object type `person_typ` such as `idno`, `first_name`, `last_name`, and so on, occupies a column, allowing you to perform relational operations.

### 1.3.1.4.2 Performing Operations on Object Tables

You can perform various operations on object tables such as inserting objects into the table or selecting objects from the table.

[Example 1-5](#) illustrates several operations on an object table.

#### Example 1-5 Operations on the `person_obj_table` Object Table

```
-- requires Ex. 1-1 and 1-4
INSERT INTO person_obj_table VALUES (
    person_typ(101, 'John', 'Smith', 'jsmith@example.com', '1-650-555-0135') );

SELECT VALUE(p) FROM person_obj_table p
    WHERE p.last_name = 'Smith';

DECLARE
    person person_typ;
BEGIN -- PL/SQL block for selecting a person and displaying details
    SELECT VALUE(p) INTO person FROM person_obj_table p WHERE p.idno = 101;
    person.display_details();
END;
/
```

The `INSERT INTO` SQL statement in [Example 1-5](#) inserts a `person_typ` object into the `person_obj_table`, treating `person_obj_table` as a multi-column table.

The `SELECT` SQL statement selects from `person_obj_table` as a single-column table, using the `VALUE` function to return rows as object instances.

The PL/SQL block selects a specific person and executes a member function of `person_typ` to display details about the specified person.



#### See Also:

- For information on the `VALUE` function, see "[VALUE](#)".
- For more information about using PL/SQL with objects, see [Using PL/SQL With Object Types](#).

### 1.3.1.5 Object Identifiers Used to Identify Row Objects

Object identifiers (OIDs) uniquely identify row objects in object tables.

You cannot directly access object identifiers, but you can make references (`REFS`) to the object identifiers and directly access the `REFS`, as discussed in "[References to Row Objects](#)".

There are two types of [object identifiers](#).

- System-Generated Object Identifiers (default)  
Oracle automatically creates system-generated object identifiers for row objects in object tables unless you choose the primary-key based option.
- Primary-Key Based Object Identifiers

You have the option to create primary-key based OIDs when you create the table using the `CREATE TABLE` statement.

 **Note:**

Column objects are identified by the primary key of the row, and, therefore, do not need a specific object identifier.

 **See Also:**

- ["Object Identifiers for Object Views"](#)
- ["Storage Considerations for Object Identifiers \(OIDs\)"](#)

### 1.3.1.6 References to Row Objects

A `REF` is a logical pointer or reference to a row object that you can construct from an object identifier (OID).

You can use the `REF` to obtain, examine, or update the object. You can change a `REF` so that it points to a different object of the same object type hierarchy or assign it a null value.

`REFS` are Oracle Database built-in data types. `REFS` and collections of `REFS` model associations among objects, particularly many-to-one relationships, thus reducing the need for foreign keys. `REFS` provide an easy mechanism for navigating between objects.

[Example 1-6](#) illustrates a simple use of a `REF`.

#### Example 1-6 Using a `REF` to the `emp_person_typ` Object

```
CREATE TYPE emp_person_typ AS OBJECT (  
    name    VARCHAR2(30),  
    manager REF emp_person_typ );  
/  
CREATE TABLE emp_person_obj_table OF emp_person_typ;  
  
INSERT INTO emp_person_obj_table VALUES (  
    emp_person_typ ('John Smith', NULL));  
  
INSERT INTO emp_person_obj_table  
    SELECT emp_person_typ ('Bob Jones', REF(e))  
    FROM emp_person_obj_table e  
    WHERE e.name = 'John Smith';
```

This example first creates the `emp_person_typ` John Smith, with `NULL` value for a manager. Then it adds the `emp_person_typ` Bob Jones as John Smith's supervisee.

The following query and its output show the effect:

```
COLUMN name FORMAT A10  
COLUMN manager FORMAT A50  
select * from emp_person_obj_table e;
```

```

NAME          MANAGER
-----
John Smith
Bob Jones    0000220208424E801067C2EABBE040578CE70A0707424E8010
              67C1EABBE040578CE70A0707

```

**Example 1-10** shows how to dereference the object, so that `Manager` appears as a name rather than an object identifier.



#### Note:

- ["Rules for REF Columns and Attributes"](#)
- ["Design Considerations for REFS"](#)

### 1.3.1.6.1 Using Scoped REFs

Scoped REF types require less storage space and allow more efficient access than unscoped REF types.

You can constrain a column type, collection element, or object type attribute to reference a specified object table. Use the SQL constraint subclause `SCOPE IS` when you declare the REF.

**Example 1-7** shows REF column `contact_ref` scoped to `person_obj_table` which is an object table of type `person_typ`.

#### Example 1-7 Creating the `contacts_ref` Table Using a Scoped REF

```

-- requires Ex. 1-1, 1-4, and 1-5
CREATE TABLE contacts_ref (
  contact_ref  REF person_typ SCOPE IS person_obj_table,
  contact_date DATE );

```

To insert a row in the table, you could issue the following:

```

INSERT INTO contacts_ref
  SELECT REF(p), '26 Jun 2003'
  FROM person_obj_table p
  WHERE p.idno = 101;

```

A REF can be scoped to an object table of the declared type (`person_typ` in the example) or of any subtype of the declared type. If a REF is scoped to an object table of a subtype, the REF column is effectively constrained to hold only references to instances of the subtype (and its subtypes, if any) in the table..



#### See Also:

- ["Inheritance in SQL Object Types"](#)

### 1.3.1.6.2 Checking for Dangling REFS

Dangling REFS are REFS where the object identified by the REF becomes unavailable. Objects are unavailable if they have been deleted or some privilege necessary to them has been deleted.

Use the Oracle Database SQL predicate `IS DANGLING` to test REFS for dangling REFS.

You can avoid dangling REFS by defining referential integrity constraints.



#### See Also:

["Rules for REF Columns and Attributes"](#)

### 1.3.1.7 Dereferencing REFS

Accessing the object that the REF refers to is called dereferencing the REF.

There are various ways to dereference a REF, both with and without the `DEREF` command.

Topics:

- [Dereferencing a REF with the Deref Command](#)
- [Dereferencing a Dangling REF](#)
- [Dereferencing a REF Implicitly](#)

#### 1.3.1.7.1 Dereferencing a REF with the Deref Command

This example shows how to use the `DEREF` command to dereference a REF.

##### Example 1-8 Using Deref to Dereference a REF

```
SELECT DEREF(e.manager) FROM emp_person_obj_table e;  
DEREF(E.MANAGER)(NAME, MANAGER)
```

-----

---

```
EMP_PERSON_TYP('John Smith', NULL)
```

This example shows that dereferencing a dangling REF returns a null object.

#### 1.3.1.7.2 Dereferencing a Dangling REF

You can dereference a dangling REF with the `DELETE` command.

Dereferencing a dangling REF returns a null object.

##### Example 1-9 Dereferencing a Dangling Ref

```
DELETE from person_obj_table WHERE idno = 101;  
/  
SELECT DEREF(c.contact_ref), c.contact_date FROM contacts_ref c;
```

### 1.3.1.7.3 Dereferencing a REF Implicitly

Oracle Database provides implicit dereferencing of REFs.

For example, to access the manager's name for an employee, you can use a `SELECT` statement.

[Example 1-10](#) follows the pointer from the person's name and retrieves the manager's name `e.manager.name`.

#### Example 1-10 Implicitly Dereferencing a REF

```
-- requires Ex. 1-6
SELECT e.name, e.manager.name FROM emp_person_obj_table e
WHERE e.name = 'Bob Jones';
```

Dereferencing the REF in this manner is allowed in SQL, but PL/SQL requires the `DEREF` keyword as in [Example 1-8](#).

### 1.3.1.8 Obtaining a REF to a Row Object

You obtain a REF to a row object by selecting the object from its object table and applying the REF operator.

- Select the object from its object table and apply the REF operator.

[Example 1-11](#) shows how to obtain a REF to the person with an `idno` equal to 101.

The query returns exactly one row.

#### Example 1-11 Obtaining a REF to a Row Object

```
-- requires Ex. 1-1, 1-4, and 1-5
DECLARE
    person_ref REF person_typ;
    person person_typ;
BEGIN

    SELECT REF(p) INTO person_ref
    FROM person_obj_table p
    WHERE p.idno = 101;

    select deref(person_ref) into person from dual;
    person.display_details();

END;
/
```



#### See Also:

["Storage Size of REFs"](#)

### 1.3.1.9 REF Variables Compared

Two REF variables can be compared if, and only if, the targets that they reference are both of the same declared type, or one is a subtype of the other.

REF variables can only be compared for equality.

### 1.3.1.10 Oracle Collections Data Types

For modeling multi-valued attributes and many-to-many relationships, Oracle Database supports these two collection data types:

- Varrays
- Nested Tables

You can use collection types anywhere other data types are used. You can have object attributes of a collection type in addition to columns of a collection type. For example, a purchase order object type might contain a nested table attribute that holds the collection of line items for the purchase order.

To define a collection type, use the `CREATE TYPE . . . AS TABLE OF` statement.

[Example 1-12](#) shows `CREATE TYPE` statements that define a collection and an object type.

#### Example 1-12 Creating the `people_typ` Collection Data Type

```
-- requires Ex. 1-1
CREATE TYPE people_typ AS TABLE OF person_typ;
/

CREATE TYPE dept_persons_typ AS OBJECT (
  dept_no    CHAR(5),
  dept_name  CHAR(20),
  dept_mgr   person_typ,
  dept_emps  people_typ);
/
```

#### Note the following about this example:

- The collection type, `people_typ`, is specifically a nested table type.
- The `dept_persons_typ` object type has an attribute `dept_emps` of `people_typ`. Each row in the `dept_emps` nested table is an object of type `person_typ` which was defined in [Example 1-1](#).



#### See Also:

["Collection Data Types"](#)

### 1.3.1.11 Object Views Used to Access Relational Data

An object view is a way to access relational data using object-relational features.

An object view lets you develop object-oriented applications without changing the underlying relational schema.

You can access objects that belong to an object view in the same way that you access row objects in an object table. Oracle Database also supports [materialized view](#) objects of user-defined types from data stored in relational schemas and tables.

Object views let you exploit the [polymorphism](#) that a type hierarchy makes possible. A polymorphic expression takes a value of the expression's declared type or any of that type's subtypes. If you construct a hierarchy of object views that mirrors some or all of the structure of a type hierarchy, you can query any view in the hierarchy to access data at just the level of specialization you are interested in. If you query an object view that has subviews, you can get back polymorphic data—rows for both the type of the view and for its subtypes.



**See Also:**

[Applying an Object Model to Relational Data](#)

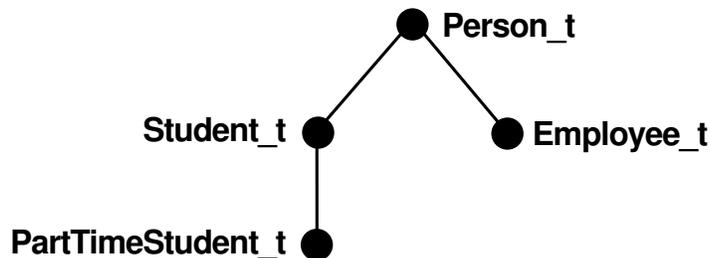
### 1.3.1.12 Use of Type Inheritance

Type inheritance enables you to create type hierarchies.

A type hierarchy is a set of successive levels of increasingly specialized subtypes that derive from a common ancestor object type, which is called a supertype. Derived subtypes inherit the features of the parent object type and can extend the parent type definition. The specialized types can add new attributes or methods, or redefine methods inherited from the parent. The resulting type hierarchy provides a higher level of abstraction for managing the complexity of an application model. For example, specialized types of persons, such as a student type or a part-time student type with additional attributes or methods, might be derived from a general person object type.

[Figure 1-3](#) illustrates two subtypes, `Student_t` and `Employee_t`, created under `Person_t`, and the `PartTimeStudent_t`, a subtype under `Student_t`.

**Figure 1-3 A Type Hierarchy**



**See Also:**

["Inheritance in SQL Object Types"](#)

### 1.3.1.13 Type Evolution Used to Change an Existing Object Type

Type evolution enables you to modify, or evolve, an existing object type, even those already used in tables.

Type evolution works through the `ALTER TYPE` statement, enabling you to propagate changes through all instances of the object type.

The `ALTER TYPE` statement checks for dependencies of the type to be altered, using essentially the same validations as a `CREATE TYPE` statement. If a type or any of its dependent types fails the type validations, the `ALTER TYPE` statement rolls back.

Metadata for all tables and columns that use an altered type are updated for the new type definition so that data can be stored in the new format. Existing data can be converted to the new format either all at once or piecemeal, as it is updated. In either case, data is always presented in the new type definition even if it is still stored in the format of the older one.

 **See Also:**

- ["Type Evolution"](#)
- ["Considerations Related to Type Evolution"](#)

## 1.3.2 Language Binding Features of Oracle Objects

Certain key features of the object-relational model are related to languages and application programming interfaces (APIs).

Related languages and application programming interfaces (APIs):

### SQL Object Extensions

To support object-related features, Oracle Database provides SQL extensions, including DDL, to create, alter, or drop object types; to store object types in tables; and to create, alter, or drop object views. There are DML and query extensions to support object types, references, and collections.

 **See Also:**

- ["SQL and Object Types"](#)

### PL/SQL Object Extensions

PL/SQL can operate on object types seamlessly. Thus, application developers can use PL/SQL to implement logic and operations on user-defined types that execute in the database server.

 **See Also:**

- [Using PL/SQL With Object Types](#)

## Java Support for Oracle Objects

Oracle Java VM is tightly integrated with Oracle Database and supports access to Oracle Objects through object extensions to Java Database Connectivity (JDBC). This provides dynamic SQL, and SQLJ, which provides static SQL. Thus, application developers can use Java to implement logic and operations on object types that execute in the database. You can map SQL types to existing Java classes to provide persistent storage for Java objects.



### See Also:

["Java Object Storage"](#)

## External Procedures

You can implement database functions, procedures, or member methods of an object type in PL/SQL, Java, C, or .NET as external procedures. External procedures are best suited for tasks that are more quickly or easily done in a low-level language such as C. External procedures are always run in a safe mode outside the address space of the database. Generic external procedures can be written that declare one or more parameters to be of a system-defined generic type. Thus, an external procedure can use the system-defined generic type to work with data of any built-in or user-defined type.

## Object Type Translator

Object Type Translator (OTT) provides client-side mappings to object type schemas by using schema information from the Oracle data dictionary to generate header files containing Java classes and C structures and indicators. You can use these generated header files in host-language applications for transparent access to database objects.

## Client-Side Cache

Oracle Database provides an object cache for efficient access to persistent objects stored in the database. Copies of objects can be brought into the object cache. Once the data has been cached in the client, the application can traverse through these at memory speed. Any changes made to objects in the cache can be committed to the database by using the object extensions to Oracle Call Interface programmatic interfaces.

## Oracle Call Interface and Oracle C++ Call Interface

Oracle Call Interface (OCI) and Oracle C++ Call Interface provide a comprehensive application programming interface for application and tool developers. Oracle Call Interface provides a run-time environment with functions to connect to an Oracle Database, and control transactions that access objects in the database. It allows application developers to access and manipulate objects and their attributes in the client-side object cache either navigationally, by traversing a graph of inter-connected objects, or associatively by specifying the nature of the data through declarative SQL DML. Oracle Call Interface provides a number of functions to access metadata about object types defined in the database at run-time.

 **See Also:**

- ["Oracle Call Interface \(OCI\)"](#)
- ["Oracle C++ Call Interface \(OCCI\)"](#)

### Pro\*C/C++ Object Extensions

The Oracle Pro\*C/C++ precompiler provides an embedded SQL application programming interface and offers a higher level of abstraction than Oracle Call Interface. Like Oracle Call Interface, the Pro\*C/C++ precompiler allows application developers to use the Oracle client-side object cache and the Object Type Translator Utility. Pro\*C/C++ supports the use of C bind variables for Oracle object types. Pro\*C/C++ also provides simplified syntax to allocate and free objects of SQL types and access them using SQL DML or the navigational interface.

 **See Also:**

- ["Oracle Call Interface \(OCI\)"](#)

### .NET Object Extensions

Oracle Developer Tools for Visual Studio (ODT) and Oracle Data Provider for .NET (ODP.NET) support .NET custom objects that map to Oracle object-relational data types, collections, and REFs. ODT is a set of tools incorporated into a Visual Studio integrated development environment, which allow managing these data types inside the Oracle database. Through the ODT Custom Class Wizard, Oracle objects can be automatically mapped to .NET custom types to ease data sharing between Oracle databases and .NET applications. Data access to these .NET custom types occur through ODP.NET.

 **See Also:**

- *Oracle Database Extensions for .NET Developer's Guide for Microsoft Windows*
- *Oracle Data Provider for .NET Developer's Guide for Microsoft Windows*
- *Oracle Developer Tools for Visual Studio Help*

# 2

## Basic Components of Oracle Objects

The basic components of Oracle Objects are object types, subprograms, and the hierarchy of object types.

Basic information about working with Oracle SQL objects includes what object types and subprograms are, and how to create and work with a hierarchy of object types that are derived from a shared root type and are connected by inheritance.

### Note:

**Running Examples:** In order to run examples in chapter 2, you may need to drop any objects you created for Chapter 1.

Topics:

- [SQL Object Types and References](#)
- [Object Methods](#)
- [Inheritance in SQL Object Types](#)
- [Functions and Operators Useful with Objects](#)

## 2.1 SQL Object Types and References

This section describes SQL object types and references.

Topics:

- [Null Objects and Attributes](#)
- [Character Length Semantics](#)
- [Defining Object Tables with Single Constraints](#)
- [Defining Indexes for Object Tables](#)
- [Defining Triggers for Object Tables](#)
- [Rules for REF Columns and Attributes](#)
- [Name Resolution](#)
- [Restriction on Using User-Defined Types with a Remote Database](#)

You create Oracle SQL object types with the `CREATE TYPE` statement. A typical example of object type creation is shown in [Example 2-1](#).

 **See Also:**

- *Oracle Database PL/SQL Language Reference* for information on the CREATE TYPE SQL statement
- *Oracle Database PL/SQL Language Reference* for information on the CREATE TYPE BODY SQL statement

## 2.1.1 Null Objects and Attributes

An object whose value is `NULL` is called atomically null.

An **atomically null object** is different from an object that has null values for all its attributes.

In an object with null values, a table column, object attribute, collection, or collection element might be `NULL` if it has been initialized to `NULL` or has not been initialized at all. Usually, a `NULL` value is replaced by an actual value later on. When all the attributes are null, you can still change these attributes and call the object's subprograms or methods. With an atomically null object, you can do neither of these things.

**Example 2-1** creates the `contacts` table and defines the `person_typ` object type and two instances of this type.

### Example 2-1 Inserting NULLs for Objects in a Table

```

CREATE OR REPLACE TYPE person_typ AS OBJECT (
  idno          NUMBER,
  name          VARCHAR2(30),
  phone        VARCHAR2(20),
  MAP MEMBER FUNCTION get_idno RETURN NUMBER,
  MEMBER PROCEDURE display_details ( SELF IN OUT NOCOPY person_typ ) );
/

CREATE OR REPLACE TYPE BODY person_typ AS
  MAP MEMBER FUNCTION get_idno RETURN NUMBER IS
  BEGIN
    RETURN idno;
  END;
  MEMBER PROCEDURE display_details ( SELF IN OUT NOCOPY person_typ ) IS
  BEGIN
    -- use the PUT_LINE procedure of the DBMS_OUTPUT package to display details
    DBMS_OUTPUT.PUT_LINE(TO_CHAR(idno) || ' - ' || name || ' - ' || phone);
  END;
END;
/

CREATE TABLE contacts (
  contact      person_typ,
  contact_date DATE );

INSERT INTO contacts VALUES (
  person_typ (NULL, NULL, NULL), '24 Jun 2003' );

INSERT INTO contacts VALUES (
  NULL, '24 Jun 2003' );

```

Two instances of `person_typ` are inserted into the table and give two different results. In both cases, Oracle Database allocates space in the `contacts` table for a new row and sets its `DATE` column to the value given. But in the first case, Oracle Database allocates space for an object in the `contact` column and sets each of the object's attributes to `NULL`. In the second case, Oracle Database sets the `person_typ` field itself to `NULL` and does not allocate space for an object.

In some cases, you can omit checks for null values. A table row or row object cannot be null. A nested table of objects cannot contain an element whose value is `NULL`.

A nested table or array can be null, so you do need to handle that condition. A null collection is different from an empty one, one that has no elements.

See "[How PL/SQL Treats Uninitialized Objects](#)"

## 2.1.2 Character Length Semantics

Lengths for character types `CHAR` and `VARCHAR2` may be specified as a number of characters, instead of bytes, in object attributes and collections even if some of the characters consist of multiple bytes.

To specify character-denominated lengths for `CHAR` and `VARCHAR2` attributes, you add the qualifier `char` to the length specification.

Like `CHAR` and `VARCHAR2`, `NCHAR` and `NVARCHAR2` may also be used as attribute types in objects and collections. `NCHAR` and `NVARCHAR2` are always implicitly measured in terms of characters, so no `char` qualifier is used.

For example, the following statement creates an object with both a character-length `VARCHAR2` attribute and an `NCHAR` attribute:

### Example 2-2 Creating the `employee_typ` Object Using a `char` Qualifier

```
CREATE OR REPLACE TYPE employee_typ AS OBJECT (  
    name          VARCHAR2(30 char),  
    language      NCHAR(10),  
    phone         VARCHAR2(20) );  
/
```

For `CHAR` and `VARCHAR2` attributes whose length is specified without a `char` qualifier, the `NLS_LENGTH_SEMANTICS` initialization parameter setting (`CHAR` or `BYTE`) indicates the default unit of measure.

*Oracle Database Globalization Support Guide* for information on character length semantics

## 2.1.3 Defining Object Tables with Single Constraints

You can define constraints on an object table just as you can on other tables.

You can define constraints on the [leaf-level scalar attributes](#) of a column object, with the exception of `REFs` that are not scoped.

[Example 2-3](#) places a single constraint, an implicit `PRIMARY KEY` constraint, on the `office_id` column of the object table `office_tab`.

**Example 2-3 Creating the office\_tab Object Table with a Constraint**

```
-- requires Ex. 2-1
CREATE OR REPLACE TYPE location_typ AS OBJECT (
  building_no  NUMBER,
  city         VARCHAR2(40) );
/

CREATE OR REPLACE TYPE office_typ AS OBJECT (
  office_id   VARCHAR(10),
  office_loc  location_typ,
  occupant    person_typ );/

CREATE TABLE office_tab OF office_typ (
  office_id   PRIMARY KEY );
```

The object type `location_typ` defined in [Example 2-3](#) is the type of the `dept_loc` column in the `department_mgrs` table in [Example 2-4](#).

## 2.1.4 Defining Object Tables with Multiple Constraints

You can define object tables with multiple constraints.

You can define object tables with multiple constraints.

**Example 2-4 Creating the department\_mgrs Table with Multiple Constraints**

[Example 2-4](#) defines constraints on scalar attributes of the `location_typ` objects in the table.

```
-- requires Ex. 2-1 and 2-3
CREATE TABLE department_mgrs (
  dept_no     NUMBER PRIMARY KEY,
  dept_name   CHAR(20),
  dept_mgr    person_typ,
  dept_loc    location_typ,
  CONSTRAINT  dept_loc_cons1
             UNIQUE (dept_loc.building_no, dept_loc.city),
  CONSTRAINT  dept_loc_cons2
             CHECK (dept_loc.city IS NOT NULL) );

INSERT INTO department_mgrs VALUES
  ( 101, 'Physical Sciences',
    person_typ(65, 'Vrinda Mills', '1-1-650-555-0125'),
    location_typ(300, 'Palo Alto'));
```

See "[Constraints on Objects](#)"

## 2.1.5 Defining Indexes for Object Tables

You can define indexes on an object table or on the storage table for a nested table column or attribute just as you can on other tables.

Define indexes on [leaf-level scalar attributes](#) of column objects. You can only define indexes on `REF` attributes or columns if the `REF` is scoped.

**Example 2-5 Creating an Index on an Object Type in a Table**

```
-- requires Ex. 2-1, 2-3,
CREATE TABLE department_loc (
```

```

dept_no    NUMBER PRIMARY KEY,
dept_name  CHAR(20),
dept_addr  location_typ );

CREATE INDEX i_dept_addr1
ON department_loc (dept_addr.city);

INSERT INTO department_loc VALUES
( 101, 'Physical Sciences',
  location_typ(300, 'Palo Alto'));
INSERT INTO department_loc VALUES
( 104, 'Life Sciences',
  location_typ(400, 'Menlo Park'));
INSERT INTO department_loc VALUES
( 103, 'Biological Sciences',
  location_typ(500, 'Redwood Shores'));

```

This example, [Example 2-5](#), indexes `city`, which is a leaf-level scalar attribute of the column object `dept_addr`.

Wherever Oracle Database expects a column name in an index definition, you can also specify a scalar attribute of a column object.

For an example of an index on a nested table, see [Storing Elements of Nested Tables](#).

## 2.1.6 Defining Triggers for Object Tables

You can define triggers on an object table just as you can on other tables.

You cannot define a trigger on the storage table for a nested table column or attribute. You cannot modify LOB values in a trigger body. Otherwise, there are no special restrictions on using object types with triggers.

[Example 2-6](#) defines a trigger on the `office_tab` table defined in "[Defining Object Tables with Single Constraints](#)".

### Example 2-6 Creating a Trigger on Objects in a Table

```

-- requires Ex. 2-1 and 2-3
CREATE TABLE movement (
  idno          NUMBER,
  old_office    location_typ,
  new_office    location_typ );

CREATE TRIGGER trigger1
BEFORE UPDATE
  OF office_loc
  ON office_tab
FOR EACH ROW
  WHEN (new.office_loc.city = 'Redwood Shores')
BEGIN
  IF :new.office_loc.building_no = 600 THEN
    INSERT INTO movement (idno, old_office, new_office)
      VALUES (:old.occupant.idno, :old.office_loc, :new.office_loc);
  END IF;
END;/

INSERT INTO office_tab VALUES
('BE32', location_typ(300, 'Palo Alto' ),person_typ(280, 'John Chan',
'415-555-0101'));

```

```
UPDATE office_tab set office_loc =location_typ(600, 'Redwood Shores')
  where office_id = 'BE32';

select * from office_tab;

select * from movement;
```

See "[INSTEAD OF Triggers to Control Mutating and Validation](#)"

## 2.1.7 Rules for REF Columns and Attributes

Rules for REF columns and attributes can be enforced by the use of constraints.

In Oracle Database, a REF column or attribute can be unconstrained or constrained using a SCOPE clause or a referential constraint clause. When a REF column is unconstrained, it may store object references to row objects contained in any object table of the corresponding object type.

Oracle Database does not ensure that the object references stored in such columns point to valid and existing row objects. Therefore, REF columns may contain object references that do not point to any existing row object. Such REF values are referred to as dangling references.

A SCOPE constraint can be applied to a specific object table. All the REF values stored in a column with a SCOPE constraint point at row objects of the table specified in the SCOPE clause. The REF values may, however, be dangling.

A REF column may be constrained with a REFERENTIAL constraint similar to the specification for foreign keys. The rules for referential constraints apply to such columns. That is, the object reference stored in these columns must point to a valid and existing row object in the specified object table.

PRIMARY KEY constraints cannot be specified for REF columns. However, you can specify NOT NULL constraints for such columns.

### See Also:

- "[References to Row Objects](#)"
- "[Substitution of REF Columns and Attributes](#)"

## 2.1.8 Name Resolution

There are several ways to resolve names in Oracle Database.

Oracle SQL lets you omit qualifying table names in some relational operations.

For example, if dept\_addr is a column in the department\_loc table and old\_office is a column in the movement table, you can use the following:

```
SELECT * FROM department_loc WHERE EXISTS
  (SELECT * FROM movement WHERE dept_addr = old_office);
```

Oracle Database determines which table each column belongs to.

Using dot notation, you can qualify the column names with table names or table aliases to make things more maintainable. For example:

### Example 2-7 Using the Dot Notation for Name Resolution

```
-- requires Ex. 2-1, 2-3, 2-5, and 2-6
SELECT * FROM department_loc WHERE EXISTS
  (SELECT * FROM movement WHERE department_loc.dept_addr = movement.old_office);

SELECT * FROM department_loc d WHERE EXISTS
  (SELECT * FROM movement m WHERE d.dept_addr = m.old_office);
```

In some cases, object-relational features require you to specify the table aliases.

## 2.1.8.1 When Table Aliases Are Required

Table aliases can be required to avoid problems resolving references.

Oracle Database requires you to use a table alias to qualify any dot-notational reference to subprograms or attributes of objects, to avoid inner capture and similar problems resolving references.

Inner capture is a situation caused by using unqualified names. For example, if you add an `assignment` column to `depts` and forget to change the query, Oracle Database automatically recompiles the query so that the inner `SELECT` uses the `assignment` column from the `depts` table.

Use of a table alias is optional when referencing top-level attributes of an object table directly, without using the dot notation. For example, the following statements define two tables that contain the `person_typ` object type. `person_obj_table` is an object table for objects of type `person_typ`, and `contacts` is a relational table that contains a column of the object `person_typ`.

The following queries show some correct and incorrect ways to reference attribute `idno`:

 **Note:**

These statements are not related to other examples in this chapter.

```
#1 SELECT idno FROM person_obj_table; --Correct
#2 SELECT contact.idno FROM contacts; --Illegal
#3 SELECT contacts.contact.idno FROM contacts; --Illegal
#4 SELECT p.contact.idno FROM contacts p; --Correct
```

- In #1, `idno` is the name of a column of `person_obj_table`. It references this top-level attribute directly, without using the dot notation, so no table alias is required.
- In #2, `idno` is the name of an attribute of the `person_typ` object in the column named `contact`. This reference uses the dot notation and so requires a table alias, as shown in #4.
- #3 uses the table name itself to qualify the reference. This is incorrect; a table alias is required.

You must qualify a reference to an object attribute or subprogram with a table alias rather than a table name even if the table name is itself qualified by a schema name.

For example, the following expression incorrectly refers to the `HR` schema, `department_loc` table, `dept_addr` column, and `city` attribute of that column. The expression is incorrect because `department_loc` is a table name, not an alias.

```
HR.department_loc.dept_addr.city
```

The same requirement applies to attribute references that use `REFS`.

Table aliases should uniquely pick out the same table throughout a query and should not be the same as schema names that could legally appear in the query.

**Note:**

Oracle recommends that you define table aliases in all `UPDATE`, `DELETE`, and `SELECT` statements and subqueries and use them to qualify column references whether or not the columns contain object types.

## 2.1.9 Restriction on Using User-Defined Types with a Remote Database

Objects or user-defined types (specifically, types declared with a SQL `CREATE TYPE` statement, as opposed to types declared within a PL/SQL package) are currently useful only within a single database.

Oracle Database restricts use of a database link as follows:

- You cannot connect to a remote database to select, insert, or update a user-defined type or an object `REF` on a remote table.  
  
You can use the `CREATE TYPE` statement with the optional keyword `OID` to create a user-specified object identifier (OID) that allows an object type to be used in multiple databases. See the discussion on assigning an OID to an object type in the *Oracle Database Data Cartridge Developer's Guide*.
- You cannot use database links within PL/SQL code to declare a local variable of a remote user-defined type.
- You cannot convey a user-defined type argument or return value in a PL/SQL remote procedure call.

## 2.2 Object Methods

Object methods implement behavior that objects of that type perform.

Topics:

- [About Object Methods](#)
- [Member Methods](#)
- [Declaring and Invoking Static Methods](#)
- [Constructor Methods](#)

- [External Implemented Methods](#)

## 2.2.1 About Object Methods

Object methods, also known as subprograms, are functions or procedures that you can declare in an object type definition to implement behavior that you want objects of that type to perform. An application calls the subprograms to invoke the behavior.

Subprograms can be written in PL/SQL or virtually any other programming language. Methods written in PL/SQL or Java are stored in the database. Methods written in other languages, such as C, are stored externally.

### Note:

SQL requires parentheses for all subprogram calls, even those that do not have arguments. This is not true for PL/SQL.

### See Also:

See "[Calling Object Constructors and Methods](#)" for more information on invoking methods in PL/SQL.

## 2.2.2 Member Methods

Member methods provide an application with access to the data of an object instance.

You define a member method in the object type for each operation that you want an object of that type to be able to perform. Non-comparison member methods are declared as either `MEMBER FUNCTION` or `MEMBER PROCEDURE`. Comparison methods use `MAP MEMBER FUNCTION` or `ORDER MEMBER FUNCTION` as described in "[Member Methods for Comparing Objects](#)".

As an example of a member method, you might declare a function `get_sum()` that sums the total cost of a purchase order's line items. The following line of code calls this function for purchase order `po` and returns the amount into `sum_line_items`.

```
sum_line_items:= po.get_sum();abo
```

Dot notation specifies the current object and the method it calls. Parentheses are required even if there are no parameters.

Topics:

- [Declaring SELF Parameters in Member Methods](#)
- [Member Methods for Comparing Objects](#)

## 2.2.2.1 Declaring SELF Parameters in Member Methods

Member methods have a built-in parameter named `SELF` that denotes the object instance currently invoking the method.

`SELF` can be explicitly declared, but that is not necessary. It is simpler to write member methods that reference the attributes and methods of `SELF` implicitly without the `SELF` qualifier. In [Example 2-8](#), the code and comments demonstrate method invocations that use an implicit `SELF` parameter rather than qualify the attributes `hgt`, `len`, and `wth`.

### Example 2-8 Creating a Member Method

```
-- Ex. 2-8 Creating a Member Method
CREATE OR REPLACE TYPE solid_typ AS OBJECT (
  len    INTEGER,
  wth    INTEGER,
  hgt    INTEGER,
  MEMBER FUNCTION surface RETURN INTEGER,
  MEMBER FUNCTION volume RETURN INTEGER,
  MEMBER PROCEDURE display (SELF IN OUT NOCOPY solid_typ) );
/

CREATE OR REPLACE TYPE BODY solid_typ AS
  MEMBER FUNCTION volume RETURN INTEGER IS
  BEGIN
    RETURN len * wth * hgt;
  -- RETURN SELF.len * SELF.wth * SELF.hgt; -- equivalent to previous line
  END;
  MEMBER FUNCTION surface RETURN INTEGER IS
  BEGIN -- not necessary to include SELF in following line
    RETURN 2 * (len * wth + len * hgt + wth * hgt);
  END;
  MEMBER PROCEDURE display (SELF IN OUT NOCOPY solid_typ) IS
  BEGIN
    DBMS_OUTPUT.PUT_LINE('Length: ' || len || ' - ' || 'Width: ' || wth
      || ' - ' || 'Height: ' || hgt);
    DBMS_OUTPUT.PUT_LINE('Volume: ' || volume || ' - ' || 'Surface area: '
      || surface);
  END;
END;
/

CREATE TABLE solids OF solid_typ;
INSERT INTO solids VALUES(10, 10, 10);
INSERT INTO solids VALUES(3, 4, 5);
SELECT * FROM solids;
SELECT s.volume(), s.surface() FROM solids s WHERE s.len = 10;
DECLARE
  solid solid_typ;
BEGIN -- PL/SQL block for selecting a solid and displaying details
  SELECT VALUE(s) INTO solid FROM solids s WHERE s.len = 10;
  solid.display();
END;
/
```

`SELF` is always the first parameter passed to the method.

- In member functions, if `SELF` is not declared, its parameter mode defaults to `IN`.

- In member procedures, if `SELF` is not declared, its parameter mode defaults to `IN OUT`. The default behavior does not include the `NOCOPY` compiler hint.

**See Also:**

["About Using SELF IN OUT NOCOPY with Member Procedures"](#).

## 2.2.2.2 Member Methods for Comparing Objects

To compare and order variables of an object type, you must specify a basis for comparing them.

The values of a scalar data type such as `CHAR` or `REAL` have a predefined order, which allows them to be compared. But an object type, such as a `person_typ`, which can have multiple attributes of various data types, has no predefined axis of comparison. You have the option to define a map method or an order method for comparing objects, but not both.

A map method maps object return values to scalar values and can order multiple values by their position on the scalar axis. An order method directly compares values for two particular objects.

### 2.2.2.2.1 About Map Methods

Map methods return values that can be used for comparing and sorting.

Return values can be any Oracle built-in data types (except LOBs and `BFILES`) and ANSI SQL types such as `CHARACTER` or `REAL`. See the specific sections in *Oracle Database SQL Language Quick Reference*.

Generally, map methods perform calculations on the attributes of the object to produce the return value.

Map methods are called automatically to evaluate such comparisons as `obj_1 > obj_2` and comparisons implied by the `DISTINCT`, `GROUP BY`, `UNION`, and `ORDER BY` clauses which require sorting by rows.

Where `obj_1` and `obj_2` are two object variables that can be compared using a map method `map()`, the comparison:

```
obj_1 > obj_2
```

is equivalent to:

```
obj_1.map() > obj_2.map()
```

Comparisons are similar for other relational operators.

[Creating a Map Method](#) defines a map method `area()` that provides a basis for comparing rectangle objects by their area:

### 2.2.2.2.2 Creating a Map Method

You create maps using the `CREATE TYPE` statement.

### Example 2-9 Creating a Map Method

```
CREATE OR REPLACE TYPE rectangle_typ AS OBJECT (  
    len NUMBER,  
    wid NUMBER,  
    MAP MEMBER FUNCTION area RETURN NUMBER);  
/  
  
CREATE OR REPLACE TYPE BODY rectangle_typ AS  
    MAP MEMBER FUNCTION area RETURN NUMBER IS  
    BEGIN  
        RETURN len * wid;  
    END area;  
END;  
/
```

#### 2.2.2.2.3 Invoking a Map Method

Map methods are invoked in the same manner as other member methods.

### Example 2-10 Invoking a Map Method

```
DECLARE  
    po rectangle_typ;  
  
BEGIN  
    po :=NEW rectangle_typ(10,5);  
  
    DBMS_OUTPUT.PUT_LINE('AREA: ' || po.area()); -- prints AREA:50  
END;  
/
```

A subtype can declare a map method only if its root supertype declares one.

See "[Comparing Equal and Not Equal Conditions](#)" for the use of map methods when comparing collections that contain object types.

#### 2.2.2.2.4 Order Methods

Order methods make direct one-to-one object comparisons.

Unlike map methods, order methods cannot determine the order of a number of objects. They simply tell you that the current object is less than, equal to, or greater than the object that it is being compared to, based on the criterion used.

An order method is a function for an object (*SELF*), with one declared parameter that is an object of the same type. The method must return either a negative number, zero, or a positive number. This value signifies that the object (the implicit undeclared *SELF* parameter) is less than, equal to, or greater than the declared parameter object.

As with map methods, an order method, if one is defined, is called automatically whenever two objects of that type need to be compared.

Order methods are useful where comparison semantics may be too complex to use a map method.

[Example 2-11](#) shows an order method that compares locations by building number:

**Example 2-11 Creating and Invoking an Order Method**

```

DROP TYPE location_typ FORCE;
-- above necessary if you have previously created object
CREATE OR REPLACE TYPE location_typ AS OBJECT (
    building_no NUMBER,
    city          VARCHAR2(40),
    ORDER MEMBER FUNCTION match (l location_typ) RETURN INTEGER );/
CREATE OR REPLACE TYPE BODY location_typ AS
    ORDER MEMBER FUNCTION match (l location_typ) RETURN INTEGER IS
    BEGIN
        IF building_no < l.building_no THEN
            RETURN -1;          -- any negative number will do
        ELSIF building_no > l.building_no THEN
            RETURN 1;          -- any positive number will do
        ELSE
            RETURN 0;
        END IF;
    END;
END;/

-- invoking match method
DECLARE
loc location_typ;
secloc location_typ;
a number;

BEGIN
    loc :=NEW location_typ(300, 'San Francisco');
    secloc :=NEW location_typ(200, 'Redwood Shores');
    a := loc.match(secloc);

    DBMS_OUTPUT.PUT_LINE('order (1 is greater, -1 is lesser):' ||a); -- prints order:1
END;
/

```

Only a type that is not derived from another type can declare an order method; a subtype cannot define one.

**2.2.2.2.5 Guidelines for Comparison Methods**

You can declare a map method or an order method but not both.

For map and order type methods, you can compare objects using SQL statements and PL/SQL procedural statements. However, if you do not declare one of these methods, you can only compare objects in SQL statements, and only for equality or inequality. Two objects of the same type are considered equal only if the values of their corresponding attributes are equal.

When sorting or merging a large number of objects, use a map method, which maps all the objects into scalars, then sorts the scalars. An order method is less efficient because it must be called repeatedly (it can compare only two objects at a time).

**See Also:**

["Performance of Object Comparisons"](#)

### 2.2.2.2.6 Comparison Methods in Type Hierarchies

In a type hierarchy, if the root type (supertype) does not specify a map or an order method, neither can the subtypes.

- **Map Method in a Type Hierarchy**  
If the root type specifies a map method, any of its subtypes can override it. If the root type does not specify a map method, no subtype can specify one either.
- **Order Method in a Type Hierarchy**  
Only the root type can define an order method. If the root type does not define one, its subtypes cannot add one.

## 2.2.3 Declaring and Invoking Static Methods

Static methods are invoked on the object type, not its instances. You use a static method for operations that are global to the type and do not need to reference the data of a particular object instance. A static method has no `SELF` parameter.

Static methods are declared using `STATIC FUNCTION` or `STATIC PROCEDURE`.

You invoke a static method by using dot notation to qualify the method call with the name of the object type, for example:

```
type_name.method( )
```



#### See Also:

For information on design considerations, see "[Static Methods](#)".

## 2.2.4 Constructor Methods

A constructor method is a function that returns a new instance of the user-defined type and sets up the values of its attributes.

Constructor methods are either system-defined or user-defined.

To invoke a constructor, the keyword `NEW` can be used, but is not required.



#### See Also:

See [Example 2-10](#) and "[Calling Object Constructors and Methods](#)".

### 2.2.4.1 System-Defined Constructors

By default, the system implicitly defines a constructor function for all object types that have attributes.

A system-defined constructor is sometimes known as the attribute value constructor. For the `person_typ` object type defined in [Example 2-1](#) the name of the constructor method is the name of the object type, as shown in the following invocation:

```
person_typ (1, 'John Smith', '1-650-555-0135'),
```

## 2.2.4.2 Defining User-Defined Constructors

You can define constructor functions of your own to create and initialize user-defined types.

Default system-defined constructors (or attribute value constructors) are convenient to use because they already exist, but user-defined constructors have some important advantages with respect to type evolution.

### See Also:

- ["Advantages of User-Defined Constructors"](#)
- For information on user-defined constructors for collections, see ["Using the Constructor Method to Insert Values into a Nested Table"](#).

## 2.2.4.3 Literal Invocation of a Constructor Method

A [literal invocation](#) of a constructor method is a call to the constructor method in which arguments are either literals (as opposed to bind variables), or further literal invocations of constructor methods. For example:

```
CREATE TABLE people_tab OF person_typ;  
  
INSERT INTO people_tab VALUES (  
    person_typ(101, 'John Smith', '1-650-555-0135') );
```

## 2.2.5 External Implemented Methods

You can use PL/SQL to invoke external subprograms that have been written in other languages.

Using external methods provides access to the strengths and capabilities of those languages.

### See Also:

[Object Support in Oracle Programming Environments](#)

## 2.3 Inheritance in SQL Object Types

SQL object inheritance is based on a family tree of object types that forms a type hierarchy. The type hierarchy consists of a parent object type, called a supertype, and

one or more levels of child object types, called subtypes, which are derived from the parent.

Topics:

- [About Inheritance in SQL Object Types](#)
- [Supertypes and Subtypes](#)
- [FINAL and NOT FINAL Types and Methods for Inheritance](#)
- [Subtype Creation](#)
- [NOT INSTANTIABLE Types and Methods](#)
- [Overloaded and Overridden Methods](#)
- [Dynamic Method Dispatch](#)
- [Type Substitution in a Type Hierarchy](#)
- [Column and Row Substitutability](#)
- [Newly Created Subtypes Stored in Substitutable Columns](#)
- [Dropping Subtypes After Creating Substitutable Columns](#)
- [Turning Off Substitutability in a New Table](#)
- [Constraining Substitutability](#)
- [Modifying Substitutability on a Table](#)
- [Restrictions on Modifying Substitutability](#)
- [Assignments Across Types](#)

## 2.3.1 About Inheritance in SQL Object Types

Inheritance is the mechanism that connects subtypes in a hierarchy to their supertypes.

Subtypes automatically inherit the attributes and methods of their parent type. Also, the inheritance link remains alive. Subtypes automatically acquire any changes made to these attributes or methods in the parent: any attributes or methods updated in a supertype are updated in subtypes as well.



### Note:

Oracle only supports single inheritance. Therefore, a subtype can derive directly from only one supertype, not more than one.

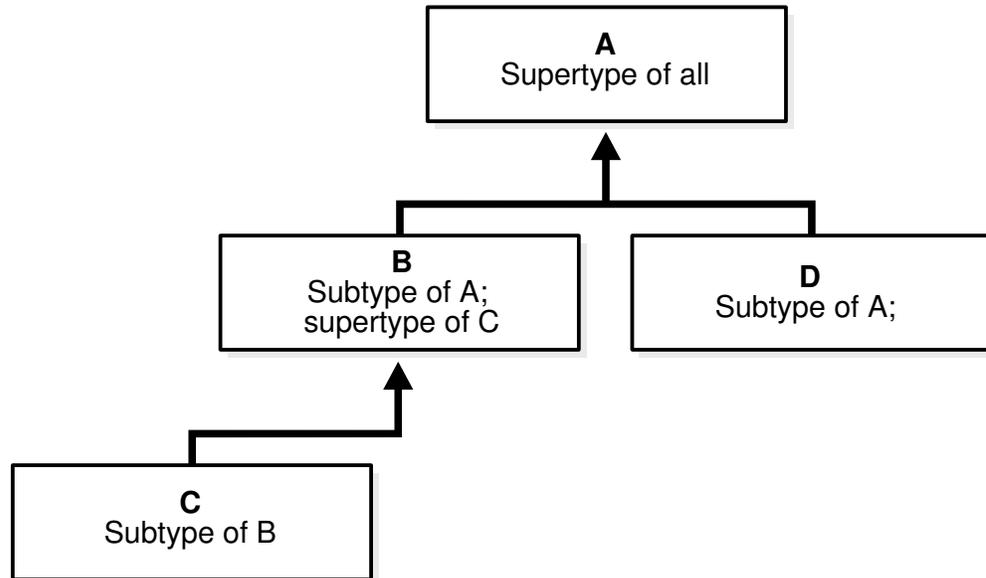
With object types in a type hierarchy, you can model an entity such as a customer, and also define different [specializing](#) subtypes of customers under the original type. You can then perform operations on a hierarchy and have each type implement and execute the operation in a special way.

## 2.3.2 Supertypes and Subtypes

A subtype can be derived from a supertype either directly or indirectly through intervening levels of other subtypes.

A supertype can have multiple sibling subtypes, but a subtype can have at most one direct parent supertype (single inheritance).

**Figure 2-1 Supertypes and Subtypes in Type Hierarchy**



To derive a subtype from a supertype, define a specialized variant of the supertype that adds new attributes and methods to the set inherited from the parent or redefine (override) the inherited methods. For example, from a `person_typ` object type you might derive the specialized types `student_typ` and `employee_typ`. Each of these subtypes is still a `person_typ`, but a special kind of person. What distinguishes a subtype from its parent supertype is some change made to the attributes or methods that the subtype received from its parent.

Unless a subtype redefines an inherited method, it always contains the same core set of attributes and methods that are in the parent type, plus any attributes and methods that it adds. If a `person_typ` object type has the three attributes `idno`, `name`, and `phone` and the method `get_idno()`, then any object type that is derived from `person_typ` will have these same three attributes and a method `get_idno()`. If the definition of `person_typ` changes, so do the definitions of any subtypes.

Subtypes are created using the keyword `UNDER` as follows:

```
CREATE TYPE student_typ UNDER person_typ
```

You can specialize the attributes or methods of a subtype in these ways:

- Add new attributes that its parent supertype does not have.

For example, you might specialize `student_ttyp` as a special kind of `person_ttyp` by adding an attribute for `major`. A subtype cannot drop or change the type of an attribute it inherited from its parent; it can only add new attributes.

- Add entirely new methods that the parent does not have.
- Change the implementation of some of the methods that a subtype inherits so that the subtype's version executes different code from the parent's.

For example, a `ellipse` object might define a method `calculate()`. Two subtypes of `ellipse_ttyp`, `circle_ttyp` and `sphere_ttyp`, might each implement this method in a different way.

The inheritance relationship between a supertype and its subtypes is the source of much of the power of objects and much of their complexity.

Being able to change a method in a supertype and have the change take effect in all the subtypes downstream just by recompiling is very powerful. But this same capability means that you have to consider whether or not you want to allow a type to be specialized or a method to be redefined. Similarly, for a table or column to be able to contain any type in a hierarchy is also powerful, but you must decide whether or not to allow this in a particular case. Also, you may need to constrain DML statements and queries so that they pick out just the range of types that you want from the type hierarchy.

#### See Also:

- See [Example 2-15](#) for a complete example
- "[Overloaded and Overridden Methods](#)"

### 2.3.3 FINAL and NOT FINAL Types and Methods for Inheritance

Object types can be inheritable and methods can be overridden if they are so defined.

For an object type or method to be inheritable, the definition must specify that it is inheritable. For both types and methods, the keywords `FINAL` or `NOT FINAL` are used are used to determine inheritability.

- **Object type:** For an object type to be inheritable, thus allowing subtypes to be derived from it, the object definition must specify this.

`NOT FINAL` means subtypes can be derived. `FINAL`, (default) means that no subtypes can be derived from it.

- **Method:** The definition must indicate whether or not it can be overridden.

`NOT FINAL` (default) means the method can be overridden. `FINAL` means that subtypes cannot override it by providing their own implementation.

 **See Also:**

- [Example 2-13](#)
- [Example 2-12](#)
- [Changing a FINAL TYPE to NOT FINAL](#)

### 2.3.3.1 Creating an Object Type as NOT FINAL with a FINAL Member Function

You can create a `NOT FINAL` object type with a `FINAL` member function as in [Example 2-12](#).

#### Example 2-12 Creating an Object Type as NOT FINAL with a FINAL Member Function

```
DROP TYPE person_typ FORCE;
-- above necessary if you have previously created object

CREATE OR REPLACE TYPE person_typ AS OBJECT (
  idno          NUMBER,
  name          VARCHAR2(30),
  phone        VARCHAR2(20),
  FINAL MAP MEMBER FUNCTION get_idno RETURN NUMBER)
NOT FINAL;
/
```

### 2.3.3.2 Creating a NOT FINAL Object Type

You can create an object type as `NOT FINAL`.

[Example 2-13](#) declares `person_typ` to be a `NOT FINAL` type and therefore subtypes of `person_typ` can be defined.

#### Example 2-13 Creating the person\_typ Object Type as NOT FINAL

```
DROP TYPE person_typ FORCE;
-- above necessary if you have previously created object

CREATE OR REPLACE TYPE person_typ AS OBJECT (
  idno          NUMBER,
  name          VARCHAR2(30),
  phone        VARCHAR2(20))
NOT FINAL;
/
```

### 2.3.4 Changing a FINAL TYPE to NOT FINAL

You can change inheritance by changing a final type to a not final type and vice versa with an `ALTER TYPE` statement.

For example, the following statement changes `person_typ` to a final type:

```
ALTER TYPE person_typ FINAL;
```

You can only alter a type from `NOT FINAL` to `FINAL` if the target type has no subtypes.

## 2.3.5 Subtype Creation

You create a subtype using a `CREATE TYPE` statement that specifies the immediate parent of the subtype with the `UNDER` keyword.

Topics:

- [Creating a Parent or Supertype Object](#)
- [Creating a Subtype Object](#)
- [Generalized Invocation](#)
- [Creating Multiple Subtypes](#)
- [Creating Tables that Contains Supertype and Subtype Objects](#)

### 2.3.5.1 Creating a Parent or Supertype Object

You can create a parent or supertype object using the `CREATE TYPE` statement.

[Example 2-14](#) provides a parent or supertype `person_typ` object to demonstrate subtype definitions in [Example 2-15](#), [Example 2-18](#), and [Example 2-19](#).

Note the `show()` in [Example 2-14](#). In the subtype examples that follow, the `show()` function of the parent type is overridden to specifications for each subtype using the `OVERRIDING` keyword.

#### Example 2-14 Creating the Parent or Supertype `person_typ` Object

```
DROP TYPE person_typ FORCE;
-- if created
CREATE OR REPLACE TYPE person_typ AS OBJECT (
  idno          NUMBER,
  name          VARCHAR2(30),
  phone         VARCHAR2(20),
  MAP MEMBER FUNCTION get_idno RETURN NUMBER,
  MEMBER FUNCTION show RETURN VARCHAR2)
NOT FINAL;
/

CREATE OR REPLACE TYPE BODY person_typ AS
  MAP MEMBER FUNCTION get_idno RETURN NUMBER IS
  BEGIN
    RETURN idno;
  END;
-- function that can be overridden by subtypes
  MEMBER FUNCTION show RETURN VARCHAR2 IS
  BEGIN
    RETURN 'Id: ' || TO_CHAR(idno) || ', Name: ' || name;
  END;

END;
/
```

### 2.3.5.2 Creating a Subtype Object

A subtype inherits the attributes and methods of the supertype.

These are inherited:

- All the attributes declared in or inherited by the supertype.
- Any methods declared in or inherited by supertype.

[Example 2-15](#) defines the `student_typ` object as a subtype of `person_typ`, which inherits all the attributes declared in or inherited by `person_typ` and any methods inherited by or declared in `person_typ`.

### Example 2-15 Creating a `student_typ` Subtype Using the `UNDER` Clause

```
-- requires Ex. 2-14
CREATE TYPE student_typ UNDER person_typ (
    dept_id NUMBER,
    major VARCHAR2(30),
    OVERRIDING MEMBER FUNCTION show RETURN VARCHAR2)
    NOT FINAL;
/

CREATE TYPE BODY student_typ AS
    OVERRIDING MEMBER FUNCTION show RETURN VARCHAR2 IS
    BEGIN
        RETURN (self AS person_typ).show || ' -- Major: ' || major ;
    END;

END;
/
```

The statement that defines `student_typ` specializes `person_typ` by adding two new attributes, `dept_id` and `major` and overrides the `show` method. New attributes declared in a subtype must have names that are different from the names of any attributes or methods declared in any of its supertypes, higher up in its type hierarchy.

## 2.3.5.3 Generalized Invocation

Generalized invocation provides a mechanism to invoke a method of a supertype or a parent type, rather than the specific subtype member method.

[Example 2-15](#) demonstrates this using the following syntax:

```
(SELF AS person_typ).show
```

The `student_typ` `show` method first calls the `person_typ` `show` method to do the common actions and then does its own specific action, which is to append `'--Major: '` to the value returned by the `person_typ` `show` method. This way, overriding subtype methods can call corresponding overriding parent type methods to do the common actions before doing their own specific actions.

Methods are invoked just like normal member methods, except that the type name after `AS` should be the type name of the parent type of the type that the expression evaluates to.

## 2.3.5.4 Using Generalized Invocation

In [Example 2-16](#), there is an implicit `SELF` argument just like the implicit `self` argument of a normal member method invocation. In this case, it invokes the `person_typ` `show` method rather than the specific `student_typ` `show` method.

**Example 2-16 Using Generalized Invocation**

```
-- Requires Ex. 2-14 and 2-15
DECLARE
  myvar student_typ := student_typ(100, 'Sam', '6505556666', 100, 'Math');
  name VARCHAR2(100);
BEGIN
  name := (myvar AS person_typ).show; --Generalized invocation
END;
/
```

### 2.3.5.5 Using Generalized Expression

Generalized expression, like member method invocation, is also supported when a method is invoked with an explicit self argument.

**Example 2-17 Using Generalized Expression**

```
-- Requires Ex. 2-14 and 2-15
DECLARE
  myvar2 student_typ := student_typ(101, 'Sam', '6505556666', 100, 'Math');
  name2 VARCHAR2(100);
BEGIN
  name2 := person_typ.show((myvar2 AS person_typ)); -- Generalized expression
END;
/
```

Double parentheses are used in this example because ((myvar2 AS person\_typ)) is both an expression that must be resolved and the parameter of the `show` function.

NOTE: Constructor methods cannot be invoked using this syntax. Also, the type name that appears after `AS` in this syntax should be one of the parent types of the type of the expression for which method is being invoked.

This syntax can only be used to invoke corresponding overriding member methods of the parent types.

### 2.3.5.6 Creating Multiple Subtypes

A type can have multiple child subtypes, and these subtypes can also have subtypes.

[Example 2-18](#) creates another subtype `employee_typ` under `person_typ` in addition to the already existing subtype, `student_typ`, created in [Example 2-15](#).

**Example 2-18 Creating an employee\_typ Subtype Using the UNDER Clause**

```
-- requires Ex. 2-14

DROP TYPE employee_typ FORCE;
-- if previously created
CREATE OR REPLACE TYPE employee_typ UNDER person_typ (
  emp_id NUMBER,
  mgr VARCHAR2(30),
  OVERRIDING MEMBER FUNCTION show RETURN VARCHAR2);
/

CREATE OR REPLACE TYPE BODY employee_typ AS
  OVERRIDING MEMBER FUNCTION show RETURN VARCHAR2 IS
  BEGIN
    RETURN (SELF AS person_typ).show|| ' -- Employee Id: '
```

```

        || TO_CHAR(emp_id) || ', Manager: ' || mgr ;
    END;

END;
/

```

### 2.3.5.7 Creating a Subtype Under Another Subtype

A subtype can be defined under another subtype.

The new subtype inherits all the attributes and methods that its parent type has, both declared and inherited. [Example 2-19](#) defines a new subtype `part_time_student_typ` under `student_typ` created in [Example 2-15](#). The new subtype inherits all the attributes and methods of `student_typ` and adds another attribute, `number_hours`.

#### Example 2-19 Creating a `part_time_student_typ` Subtype Using the `UNDER` Clause

```

CREATE TYPE part_time_student_typ UNDER student_typ (
    number_hours NUMBER,
    OVERRIDING MEMBER FUNCTION show RETURN VARCHAR2);
/

CREATE TYPE BODY part_time_student_typ AS
    OVERRIDING MEMBER FUNCTION show RETURN VARCHAR2 IS
    BEGIN
        RETURN (SELF AS person_typ).show|| ' -- Major: ' || major ||
            ', Hours: ' || TO_CHAR(number_hours);
    END;

END;
/

```

### 2.3.5.8 Creating Tables that Contain Supertype and Subtype Objects

You can create tables that contain supertype and subtype instances.

You can then populate the tables as shown with the `person_obj_table` in [Example 2-20](#).

#### Example 2-20 Inserting Values into Substitutable Rows of an Object Table

```

CREATE TABLE person_obj_table OF person_typ;

INSERT INTO person_obj_table
    VALUES (person_typ(12, 'Bob Jones', '650-555-0130'));

INSERT INTO person_obj_table
    VALUES (student_typ(51, 'Joe Lane', '1-650-555-0140', 12, 'HISTORY'));

INSERT INTO person_obj_table
    VALUES (employee_typ(55, 'Jane Smith', '1-650-555-0144',
        100, 'Jennifer Nelson'));

INSERT INTO person_obj_table
    VALUES (part_time_student_typ(52, 'Kim Patel', '1-650-555-0135', 14,
        'PHYSICS', 20));

```

You can call the `show()` function for the supertype and subtypes in the table with the following:

```
SELECT p.show() FROM person_obj_table p;
```

The output is similar to:

```
Id: 12, Name: Bob Jones
Id: 51, Name: Joe Lane -- Major: HISTORY
Id: 55, Name: Jane Smith -- Employee Id: 100, Manager: Jennifer Nelson
Id: 52, Name: Kim Patel -- Major: PHYSICS, Hours: 20
```

Note that data that the `show()` method displayed depends on whether the object is a supertype or subtype, and if the `show()` method of the subtype is overridden. For example, Bob Jones is a `person_typ`, that is, an supertype. Only his name and `Id` are displayed. For Joe Lane, a `student_typ`, his name and `Id` are provided by the `show()` function of the supertype, and his `major` is provided by the overridden `show()` function of the subtype.

## 2.3.6 NOT INSTANTIABLE Types and Methods

Types and methods can be declared `NOT INSTANTIABLE` when they are created.

`NOT INSTANTIABLE` types and methods:

- **NOT INSTANTIABLE Types**

If a type is not instantiable, you cannot instantiate instances of that type. There are no constructors (default or user-defined) for it. You might use this with types intended to serve solely as supertypes from which specialized subtypes are instantiated.

- **NOT INSTANTIABLE Methods**

A non-instantiable method serves as a placeholder. It is declared but not implemented in the type. You might define a non-instantiable method when you expect every subtype to override the method in a different way. In this case, there is no point in defining the method in the supertype.

You can alter an instantiable type to a non-instantiable type and vice versa with an `ALTER TYPE` statement.

A type that contains a non-instantiable method must itself be declared not instantiable, as shown in [Example 2-21](#).

## 2.3.7 Creating a Non-INSTANTIABLE Object Type

If a subtype does not provide an implementation for every inherited non-instantiable method, the subtype itself, like the supertype, must be declared not instantiable.

A non-instantiable subtype can be defined under an instantiable supertype.

### **Example 2-21 Creating an Object Type that is NOT INSTANTIABLE**

```
DROP TYPE person_typ FORCE;
-- if previously created
CREATE OR REPLACE TYPE person_typ AS OBJECT (
```

```
idno          NUMBER,  
name          VARCHAR2(30),  
phone        VARCHAR2(20),  
NOT INSTANTIABLE MEMBER FUNCTION get_idno RETURN NUMBER)  
NOT INSTANTIABLE NOT FINAL; /
```

## 2.3.8 Changing an Object Type to INSTANTIABLE

The ALTER TYPE statement can make a non-instantiable type instantiable.

In [Example 2-22](#) an ALTER TYPE statement makes `person_typ` instantiable.

### Example 2-22 Altering an Object Type to INSTANTIABLE

```
CREATE OR REPLACE TYPE person_typ AS OBJECT (  
    idno          NUMBER,  
    name          VARCHAR2(30),  
    phone        VARCHAR2(20))  
    NOT INSTANTIABLE NOT FINAL; /  
ALTER TYPE person_typ INSTANTIABLE;
```

#### Changing to a Not Instantiable Type

You can alter an instantiable type to a non-instantiable type only if the type has no columns, views, tables, or instances that reference that type, either directly, or indirectly, through another type or subtype.

You cannot declare a non-instantiable type to be `FINAL`. This would actually be pointless.

## 2.3.9 Overloaded and Overridden Methods

A subtype can redefine methods it inherits, and it can also add new methods, including methods with the same name.

Topics:

- [Overloading Methods](#)
- [Overriding and Hiding Methods](#)
- [Restrictions on Overriding Methods](#)

See the examples in "[Subtype Creation](#)" and [Example 8-7](#).

### 2.3.9.1 Overloading Methods

Adding new methods that have the same names as inherited methods to the subtype is called overloading.

Methods that have the same name but different signatures are called overloads when they exist in the same user-defined type.

A method signature consists of the method's name and the number, types, and the order of the method's formal parameters, including the implicit `self` parameter.

Overloading is useful when you want to provide a variety of ways of doing something. For example, an ellipse object might overload a `calculate()` method with another `calculate()` method to enable calculation of a different shape.

The compiler uses the method signatures to determine which method to call when a type has several overloaded methods.

In the following pseudocode, subtype `circle_typ` creates an overload of `calculate()`:

```
CREATE TYPE ellipse_typ AS OBJECT (...,  
MEMBER PROCEDURE calculate(x NUMBER, x NUMBER),  
) NOT FINAL;  
CREATE TYPE circle_typ UNDER ellipse_typ (...,  
MEMBER PROCEDURE calculate(x NUMBER),  
...);
```

The `circle_typ` contains two versions of `calculate()`. One is the inherited version with two `NUMBER` parameters and the other is the newly created method with one `NUMBER` parameter.

### 2.3.9.2 Overriding and Hiding Methods

Redefining an inherited method to customize its behavior in a subtype is called overriding, in the case of member methods, or hiding, in the case of static methods.

Unlike overloading, you do not create a new method, just redefine an existing one, using the keyword `OVERRIDING`.

Overriding and hiding redefine an inherited method to make it do something different in the subtype. For example, a subtype `circle_typ` derived from a `ellipse_typ` supertype might override a member method `calculate()` to customize it specifically for calculating the area of a circle. For examples of overriding methods, see "[Subtype Creation](#)".

Overriding and hiding are similar in that, in either case, the version of the method redefined in the subtype eclipses the original version of the same name and signature so that the new version is executed rather than the original one whenever a subtype instance invokes the method. If the subtype itself has subtypes, these inherit the redefined method instead of the original version.

With overriding, the system relies on type information contained in the member method's implicit self argument to dynamically choose the correct version of the method to execute. With hiding, the correct version is identified at compile time, and dynamic dispatch is not necessary. See "[Dynamic Method Dispatch](#)".

To override or hide a method, you must preserve its signature. Overloads of a method all have the same name, so the compiler uses the signature of the subtype's method to identify the particular version in the supertype that is superseded.

You signal the override with the `OVERRIDING` keyword in the `CREATE TYPE BODY` statement. This is not required when a subtype hides a static method.

In the following pseudocode, the subtype signals that it is overriding method `calculate()`:

```
CREATE TYPE ellipse_typ AS OBJECT (...,  
MEMBER PROCEDURE calculate(),  
FINAL MEMBER FUNCTION function_mytype(x NUMBER)...  
) NOT FINAL;  
CREATE TYPE circle_typ UNDER ellipse_typ (...,
```

```
OVERRIDING MEMBER PROCEDURE calculate(),  
...);
```

For a diagram of this hierarchy, see [Figure 2-2](#).

### 2.3.9.3 Restrictions on Overriding Methods

There are certain restrictions on overriding methods:

- Only methods that are not declared to be final in the supertype can be overridden.
- Order methods may appear only in the root type of a type hierarchy: they may not be redefined (overridden) in subtypes.
- A static method in a subtype may not redefine a member method in the supertype.
- A member method in a subtype may not redefine a static method in the supertype.
- If a method being overridden provides default values for any parameters, then the overriding method must provide the same default values for the same parameters.

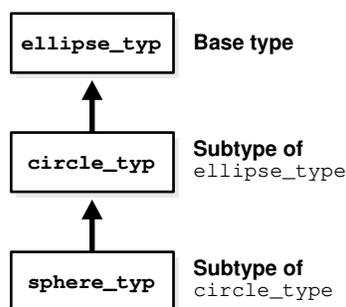
### 2.3.10 Dynamic Method Dispatch

Dynamic method dispatch refers to the way that method calls are dispatched to the nearest implementation at run time, working up the type hierarchy from the current or specified type.

Dynamic method dispatch is only available when overriding member methods and does not apply to static methods.

With method overriding, a type hierarchy can define multiple implementations of the same method. In the following hierarchy of types `ellipse_typ`, `circle_typ`, and `sphere_typ`, each type might define a `calculate()` method differently.

**Figure 2-2 Hierarchy of Types**



When one of these methods is invoked, the type of the object instance that invokes it determines which implementation of the method to use. The call is then dispatched to that implementation for execution. This process of selecting a method implementation is called virtual or dynamic method dispatch because it is done at run time, not at compile time.

The method call works up the type hierarchy: never down. If the call invokes a member method of an object instance, the type of that instance is the current type, and the implementation defined or inherited by that type is used. If the call invokes a static

method of a type, the implementation defined or inherited by that specified type is used.

 **See Also:**

For information on how subprograms calls are resolved, see *Oracle Database PL/SQL Language Reference*

## 2.3.11 Type Substitution in a Type Hierarchy

When you work with types in a type hierarchy, sometimes you need to work at the most general level, for example, to select or update all persons. But at other times, you need to select or update only a specific subtype such as a student, or only persons who are not students.

The (polymorphic) ability to select all persons and get back not only objects whose declared type is `person_typ` but also objects whose declared subtype is `student_typ` or `employee_typ` is called substitutability. A supertype is substitutable if one of its subtypes can substitute or stand in for it in a variable or column whose declared type is the supertype.

In general, types are substitutable. Object attributes, collection elements and `REFs` are substitutable. An attribute defined as a `REF`, type, or collection of type `person_typ` can hold a `REF` to an instance of, or instances of an instance of `person_typ`, or an instance of any subtype of `person_typ`.

This seems expected, given that a subtype is, after all, just a specialized kind of one of its supertypes. Formally, though, a subtype is a type in its own right: it is not the same type as its supertype. A column that holds all persons, including all persons who are students and all persons who are employees, actually holds data of multiple types.

In principle, object attributes, collection elements and `REFs` are always substitutable: there is no syntax at the level of the type definition to constrain their substitutability to some subtype. You can, however, turn off or constrain substitutability at the storage level, for specific tables and columns.

 **See Also:**

- ["Turning Off Substitutability in a New Table"](#)
- ["Constraining Substitutability"](#)

## 2.3.12 Column and Row Substitutability

Object type columns and object-type rows in object tables are substitutable, and so are views: a column or row of a specific type can contain instances of that type and any of its subtypes.

Topics:

- [About Column and Row Substitutability](#)

- [Using OBJECT\\_VALUE and OBJECT\\_ID with Substitutable Rows](#)
- [Subtypes with Attributes of a Supertype](#)
- [Substitution of REF Columns and Attributes](#)
- [Substitution of Collection Elements](#)

### 2.3.12.1 About Column and Row Substitutability

You can substitute object type columns and object type rows in object tables.

Consider the `person_typ` type hierarchy such as the one introduced in [Example 2-14](#). You can create an object table of `person_typ` that contains rows of all types. To do this, you insert an instance of a given type into an object table using the constructor for that type in the `VALUES` clause of the `INSERT` statement as shown in [Example 2-20](#).

Similarly, [Example 2-23](#) shows that a substitutable column of type `person_typ` can contain instances of all three types, in a relational table or view. The example recreates `person`, `student`, and `part-time student` objects from that type hierarchy and inserts them into the `person_typ` column `contact`.

#### Example 2-23 Inserting Values into Substitutable Columns of a Table

```
DROP TYPE person_typ FORCE;
-- if previously created

DROP TYPE student_typ FORCE; -- if previously created

DROP TYPE part_time_student_typ FORCE; -- if previously created
DROP TABLE contacts; if previously created
CREATE OR REPLACE TYPE person_typ AS OBJECT (
    idno          NUMBER,
    name          VARCHAR2(30),
    phone        VARCHAR2(20))
    NOT FINAL;
CREATE TYPE student_typ UNDER person_typ (
    dept_id NUMBER,
    major VARCHAR2(30))
    NOT FINAL;
/
CREATE TYPE part_time_student_typ UNDER student_typ (
    number_hours NUMBER);
/
CREATE TABLE contacts (
    contact      person_typ,
    contact_date DATE );

INSERT INTO contacts
VALUES (person_typ (12, 'Bob Jones', '650-555-0130'), '24 Jun 2003' );

INSERT INTO contacts
VALUES (student_typ(51, 'Joe Lane', '1-650-555-0178', 12, 'HISTORY'),
        '24 Jun 2003' );

INSERT INTO contacts
VALUES (part_time_student_typ(52, 'Kim Patel', '1-650-555-0190', 14,
        'PHYSICS', 20), '24 Jun 2003' );
```

A newly created subtype can be stored in any substitutable tables and columns of its supertype, including tables and columns that existed before the subtype was created.

In general, you can access attributes using dot notation. To access attributes of a subtype of a row or column's declared type, you can use the `TREAT` function. For example:

```
SELECT TREAT(contact AS student_typ).major FROM contacts;
```

See "[TREAT](#)".

### 2.3.12.2 Using `OBJECT_VALUE` and `OBJECT_ID` with Substitutable Rows

You can access and identify the object identifier (OID) and value of a substitutable row.

Use the `OBJECT_VALUE` and `OBJECT_ID` pseudocolumns to allow access and identify the value and object identifier of a substitutable row in an object table as shown in [Example 2-24](#).

#### See Also:

For further information on these pseudocolumns

- *Oracle Database SQL Language Reference*
- *Oracle Database SQL Language Reference*

#### Example 2-24 Using `OBJECT_VALUE` and `OBJECT_ID`

```
DROP TABLE person_obj_table; -- required if previously created
CREATE TABLE person_obj_table OF person_typ;

INSERT INTO person_obj_table
VALUES (person_typ(20, 'Bob Jones', '650-555-0130'));

SELECT p.object_id, p.object_value FROM person_obj_table p;
```

### 2.3.12.3 Subtypes with Attributes of a Supertype

A subtype can have an attribute whose type is the type of a supertype. For example:

#### Example 2-25 Creating a Subtype with a Supertype Attribute

```
-- requires Ex 2-22
CREATE TYPE student_typ UNDER person_typ (
  dept_id NUMBER,
  major VARCHAR2(30),
  advisor person_typ);
/
```

However, columns of such types are not substitutable. Similarly, a subtype can have a collection attribute whose element type is one of its supertypes, but, again, columns of such types are not substitutable. For example, if `student_typ` had a nested table or varray of `person_typ`, the `student_typ` column would not be substitutable.

You can, however, define substitutable columns of subtypes that have `REF` attributes that reference supertypes. For example, the `composite_category_typ` subtype shown

in [Example 2-26](#) contains the `subcategory_ref_list` nested table. This table contains `subcategory_ref_list_typ` which are REFS to `category_typ`. The subtype was created as follows:

#### Example 2-26 Defining Columns of Subtypes that have REF Attributes

```
-- not to be executed
CREATE TYPE subcategory_ref_list_typ
  AS TABLE OF REF category_typ;
/

CREATE TYPE composite_category_typ
  UNDER category_typ
  (
    subcategory_ref_list subcategory_ref_list_typ
  ...
```

See "[Turning Off Substitutability in a New Table](#)".

### 2.3.12.4 Substitution of REF Columns and Attributes

REF columns and attributes are substitutable in both views and tables. For example, in either a view or a table, a column declared to be REF `person_typ` can hold references to instances of `person_typ` or any of its subtypes.

### 2.3.12.5 Substitution of Collection Elements

Collection elements are substitutable in both views and tables. For example, a nested table of `person_typ` can contain object instances of `person_typ` or any of its subtypes.

## 2.3.13 Newly Created Subtypes Stored in Substitutable Columns

If you create a subtype, any table that already has substitutable columns of the supertype can store the new subtype as well.

This means that your options for creating subtypes are affected by the existence of such tables. If such a table exists, you can only create subtypes that are substitutable, that is, subtypes that do not violate table limits or constraints.

The following example creates a `person_typ` and then shows several attempts to create a subtype `student_typ` under `person_typ`.

#### Example 2-27 Creating a Subtype After Creating Substitutable Columns

```
DROP TYPE person_typ FORCE;
DROP TABLE person_obj_table;
DROP TYPE student_typ;
-- perform above drops if objects/tables created
CREATE OR REPLACE TYPE person_typ AS OBJECT (
  idno          NUMBER,
  name          VARCHAR2(30),
  phone        VARCHAR2(20))
  NOT FINAL;

CREATE TABLE person_obj_table (p person_typ);
```

The following statement fails because `student_typ` has a supertype attribute, and table `person_obj_table` has a substitutable column `p` of the supertype.

```
CREATE TYPE student_typ UNDER person_typ ( -- incorrect CREATE subtype
  advisor person_typ);
/
```

The next attempt succeeds. This version of the `student_typ` subtype is substitutable. Oracle Database automatically enables table `person_obj_table` to store instances of this new type.

```
CREATE TYPE student_typ UNDER person_typ (
  dept_id NUMBER,
  major VARCHAR2(30));/
INSERT INTO person_obj_table
VALUES (student_typ(51, 'Joe Lane', '1-650-555-0178', 12, 'HISTORY'));
```

## 2.3.14 Dropping Subtypes After Creating Substitutable Columns

When you drop a subtype with the `VALIDATE` option, it checks that no instances of the subtype are stored in any substitutable column of the supertype. If there are no such instances, the `DROP` operation completes.

The following statement fails because an instance of `student_typ` is stored in substitutable column `p` of table `person_obj_table`:

```
DROP TYPE student_typ VALIDATE -- incorrect: an instance still exists ;
```

To drop the type, first delete any of its instances in substitutable columns of the supertype:

```
-- Delete from table and drop student_typ subtype example, not sample schema
```

```
DELETE FROM person_obj_table WHERE p IS OF (student_typ);
```

```
DROP TYPE student_typ VALIDATE;
```



### See Also:

*Oracle Database PL/SQL Language Reference* for further information on `DROP` and `VALIDATE`

## 2.3.15 Turning Off Substitutability in a New Table

You can turn off all substitutability on a column or attribute, including embedded attributes and nested collections, while creating a table.

Use the clause `NOT SUBSTITUTABLE AT ALL LEVELS` when you create a table.

This turns off all column or attribute substitutability, including embedded attributes and collections nested to any level.

In the following example, the clause confines the column `office` of a relational table to storing only `office_typ` instances and disallows any subtype instances:

### Example 2-28 Turning off Substitutability When Creating a Table

```
DROP TYPE location_typ FORCE; -- required if previously created
DROP TYPE office_typ FORCE; -- required if previously created
```

```

CREATE OR REPLACE TYPE location_typ AS OBJECT (
    building_no NUMBER,
    city         VARCHAR2(40) );
/

CREATE TYPE people_typ AS TABLE OF person_typ;
/

CREATE TYPE office_typ AS OBJECT (
    office_id   VARCHAR(10),
    location    location_typ,
    occupant    person_typ )
    NOT FINAL;/

CREATE TABLE dept_office (
    dept_no     NUMBER,
    office      office_typ)
    COLUMN office NOT SUBSTITUTABLE AT ALL LEVELS;

```

With object tables, the clause can be applied to the table as a whole, such as:

```

DROP TABLE office_tab; -- if previously created
CREATE TABLE office_tab OF office_typ
    NOT SUBSTITUTABLE AT ALL LEVELS;

```

The clause can also turn off substitutability in a particular column, that is, for a particular attribute of the object type of the table:

```

DROP TABLE office_tab; -- if previously created
CREATE TABLE office_tab OF office_typ
    COLUMN occupant NOT SUBSTITUTABLE AT ALL LEVELS;

```

You can specify that the element type of a collection is not substitutable using syntax such as the following:

```

DROP TABLE people_tab;
-- required if previously created
CREATE TABLE people_tab (
    people_column people_typ )
    NESTED TABLE people_column
        NOT SUBSTITUTABLE AT ALL LEVELS STORE AS people_column_nt;

```

There is no mechanism to turn off substitutability for REF columns.

You can use either NOT SUBSTITUTABLE AT ALL LEVELS or IS OF type to constrain an [object column](#), but you cannot use both.

## 2.3.16 Constraining Substitutability

You can impose a constraint that limits the range of subtypes permitted in an object column or attribute to a particular subtype in the declared type's hierarchy.

Do this with the IS OF *type* constraint.

The following statement creates a table of `office_typ` in which occupants are constrained to just those persons who are employees:

### Example 2-29 Constraining Substitutability When Creating a Table

```

DROP TABLE office_tab;
-- if previously created

```

```
CREATE TABLE office_tab OF office_typ
  COLUMN occupant IS OF (ONLY employee_typ);
```

Although the type `office_typ` allows authors to be of type `person_typ`, the column declaration imposes a constraint to store only instances of `employee_typ`.

You can only use the `IS OF type` operator to constrain row and column objects to a single subtype (not several), and you must use the `ONLY` keyword, as in the preceding example.

You can use either `IS OF type` or `NOT SUBSTITUTABLE AT ALL LEVELS` to constrain an [object column](#), but you cannot use both.

## 2.3.17 Modifying Substitutability on a Table

In an existing table, you can change an object column from `SUBSTITUTABLE` to `NOT SUBSTITUTABLE` (or from `NOT SUBSTITUTABLE` to `SUBSTITUTABLE`) by using an `ALTER TABLE` statement.

Specify the clause `[NOT] SUBSTITUTABLE AT ALL LEVELS` for the particular column in the `ALTER TABLE` statement.

You can modify substitutability only for a specific column, not for an object table as a whole.

The following statement makes the column `office` substitutable:

### Example 2-30 Modifying Substitutability in a Table

```
-- Requires Ex. 2-28
ALTER TABLE dept_office
  MODIFY COLUMN office SUBSTITUTABLE AT ALL LEVELS;
```

The following statement makes the column not substitutable. Notice that it also uses the `FORCE` keyword. This keyword causes any hidden columns containing typeid information or data for subtype attributes to be dropped:

```
-- Alter table substitutability with FORCE

ALTER TABLE dept_office
  MODIFY COLUMN office NOT SUBSTITUTABLE AT ALL LEVELS FORCE;

--DROP TABLE dept_office;
```

If you do not use the `FORCE` keyword to make a column not substitutable, the column and all attributes of the type must be `FINAL` or the `ALTER TABLE` statement will fail.

A `VARRAY` column can be modified from `SUBSTITUTABLE` to `NOT SUBSTITUTABLE` only if the element type of the `varray` is `final` itself and has no embedded types (in its attributes or in their attributes, and so on) that are not `final`.

#### See Also:

See "[Hidden Columns for Substitutable Columns and Object Tables](#)" for more information about hidden columns for typeids and subtype attributes.

## 2.3.18 Restrictions on Modifying Substitutability

You can change the substitutability of only one column at a time with an `ALTER TABLE` statement.

To change substitutability for multiple columns, issue multiple statements.

In an object table, you can only modify substitutability for a column if substitutability was not explicitly set at the table level, when the table was created.

For example, the following attempt to modify substitutability for column `address` succeeds because substitutability has not been explicitly turned on or off at the table level in the `CREATE TABLE` statement:

```
DROP TABLE office_tab;
-- if previously created
CREATE TABLE office_tab OF office_typ;

ALTER TABLE office_tab
  MODIFY COLUMN occupant NOT SUBSTITUTABLE AT ALL LEVELS FORCE;
```

However, in the following example, substitutability is explicitly set at the table level, so the attempt to modify the setting for column `address` fails:

```
DROP TABLE office_tab;
-- if previously created
CREATE TABLE office_tab OF office_typ
  NOT SUBSTITUTABLE AT ALL LEVELS;

/* Following SQL statement generates an error: */
ALTER TABLE office_tab
  MODIFY COLUMN occupant SUBSTITUTABLE AT ALL LEVELS FORCE -- incorrect ALTER;
```

A column whose substitutability is already constrained by an `IS OF type` operator cannot have its substitutability modified with a `[NOT] SUBSTITUTABLE AT ALL LEVELS` clause.

### See Also:

For information about `IS OF type`, see "[Constraining Substitutability](#)".

## 2.3.19 Assignments Across Types

The assignment rules described in this section apply to `INSERT/UPDATE` statements, the `RETURNING` clause, function parameters, and PL/SQL variables.

Topics:

- [Typical Object to Object Assignment](#)
- [Widening Assignment](#)
- [Narrowing Assignment](#)
- [Collection Assignments](#)

### 2.3.19.1 Typical Object to Object Assignment

Substitutability is the ability of a subtype to stand in for one of its supertypes.

Substituting a supertype for a subtype, that is substitution in the other direction, raises an error at compile time.

Assigning a source of type `source_typ` to a target of type `target_typ` must be of one of the following two patterns:

- Case 1: `source_typ` and `target_typ` are the same type
- Case 2: `source_typ` is a subtype of `target_typ` (widening)

Case 2 illustrates widening.

### 2.3.19.2 Widening Assignment

Widening is an assignment in which the declared type of the source is more specific than the declared type of the target.

An example of widening is assigning an employee instance to a variable of a person type.

An employee is a more narrowly defined, specialized kind of person, so you can put an employee in a slot meant for a person if you do not mind ignoring whatever extra specialization makes that person an employee. All employees are persons, so a widening assignment always works.

To illustrate widening, suppose that you have the following table:

```
TABLE T(pers_col person_typ, emp_col employee_typ,  
stu_col student_typ)
```

The following assignments show widening. The assignments are valid unless `perscol` has been defined to be not substitutable.

```
UPDATE T set pers_col = emp_col;
```

The following is a PL/SQL example, which first requires you to create a `person_typ` and an `employee_typ`:

#### Example 2-31 PL/SQL Assignment

```
DROP TYPE person_typ FORCE;  
-- if previously created  
CREATE TYPE person_typ AS OBJECT (  
  idno          NUMBER,  
  name          VARCHAR2(30),  
  phone         VARCHAR2(20))  
  NOT FINAL;  
/  
DROP TYPE employee_typ FORCE; -- if previously created  
CREATE TYPE employee_typ UNDER person_typ (  
  emp_id NUMBER,  
  mgr VARCHAR2(30));  
/  
-- PL/SQL assignment example
```

```
DECLARE
  var1 person_typ;
  var2 employee_typ;
BEGIN
  var2 := employee_typ(55, 'Jane Smith', '1-650-555-0144', 100, 'Jennifer Nelson');
  var1 := var2;
END;
/
```

### 2.3.19.3 Narrowing Assignment

A narrowing assignment is the reverse of widening.

A narrowing assignment involves regarding a more general, less specialized type of thing, such as a person, as a more narrowly defined type of thing, such as an employee. Not all persons are employees, so a particular assignment like this works only if the person in question actually happens to be an employee. Thus, in the end, narrowing assignments only work in cases such as Case 1, described in "[Typical Object to Object Assignment](#)".

To do a narrowing assignment, you must use the `TREAT` function to test that the source instance of the more general declared type is in fact an instance of the more specialized target type and can therefore be operated on as such. The `TREAT` function does a runtime check to confirm this and returns `NULL` if the source value, the person in question, is not of the target type or one of its subtypes.

For example, the following `UPDATE` statement sets values of `person_typ` in column `perscol` into column `empcol` of `employee_typ`. For each value in `perscol`, the assignment succeeds if that person is also an employee. If the person is not an employee, `TREAT` returns `NULL`, and the assignment returns `NULL`.

```
UPDATE T set emp_col = TREAT(pers_col AS employee_typ);
```

The following statement attempts to do a narrowing assignment without explicitly changing the declared type of the source value. The statement will return an error:

```
UPDATE T set emp_col = pers_col;
```

#### See Also:

["Using TREAT for Narrowing Assignments"](#)

### 2.3.19.4 Collection Assignments

In assignments of expressions of a collection type, the source and target must be of the same declared type.

Neither widening nor narrowing is permitted in expression assignments of collection types. However, a subtype value can be assigned to a supertype collection. For example, after creating a new `student_typ`, suppose we have the following collection types:

#### **Example 2-32 Create Collection person\_set**

```
-- Requires 2-21
DROP student_typ;
```

```
-- if previously created
CREATE TYPE student_typ UNDER person_typ (
    dept_id NUMBER,
    major VARCHAR2(30))
    NOT FINAL;
/
CREATE TYPE person_set AS TABLE OF person_typ;
/

CREATE TYPE student_set AS TABLE OF student_typ;
/
```

Expressions of these different collection types cannot be assigned to each other, but a collection element of `student_typ` can be assigned to a collection of `person_set` type:

```
DECLARE
    var1 person_set;
    var2 student_set;
    elem1 person_typ;
    elem2 student_typ;
BEGIN
-- var1 := var2; /* ILLEGAL - collections not of same type */
    var1 := person_set (elem1, elem2); /* LEGAL : Element is of subtype */
END;
/
```

## 2.4 Functions and Operators Useful with Objects

Several functions and operators are particularly useful for working with objects and references to objects.

Examples are given throughout this book.



### Note:

In PL/SQL the `VALUE`, `REF` and `DEREF` functions can appear only in a SQL statement. For information about SQL functions, see *Oracle Database SQL Language Reference*.

Topics:

- [CAST](#)
- [CURSOR](#)
- [DEREF](#)
- [IS OF type](#)
- [REF](#)
- [SYS\\_TYPEID](#)
- [TABLE\(\)](#)
- [TREAT](#)
- [VALUE](#)

## 2.4.1 CAST

CAST converts one built-in data type or collection-typed value into another built-in data type or collection-typed value. For example:

### Example 2-33 Using the CAST Function

```
CREATE TYPE person_list_typ AS TABLE OF person_typ;

SELECT CAST(COLLECT(contact) AS person_list_typ)
FROM contacts;
```

#### See Also:

For more information about the SQL CAST function, *Oracle Database SQL Language Reference*.

## 2.4.2 CURSOR

A CURSOR expression returns a nested cursor.

The cursor form of expression is equivalent to the PL/SQL REF CURSOR and can be passed as a REF CURSOR argument to a function.

#### See Also:

For more information about the SQL CURSOR expression, see *Oracle Database SQL Language Reference*.

## 2.4.3 Deref

The Deref function in a SQL statement returns the object instance corresponding to a REF.

The object instance returned by Deref may be of the declared type of the REF or any of its subtypes.

For example, the following statement returns person\_typ objects from the table contact\_ref.

### Example 2-34 Using the Deref Function

```
-- Using the Deref Function example, not sample schema

SELECT Deref(c.contact_ref), c.contact_date
FROM contacts_ref c;
```

 **See Also:**

- "Dereferencing REFs"
- For more information about the SQL `DEREF` function, see *Oracle Database SQL Language Reference*.

## 2.4.4 IS OF type

The `IS OF type` predicate tests object instances for the level of specialization of their type.

For example, the following query retrieves all student instances (including any subtypes of students) stored in the `person_obj_table` table.

### Example 2-35 Using the IS OF type Operator to Query Value of a Subtype

```
-- Using the IS OF type Operator to query Value of a subtype
```

```
SELECT VALUE(p)
  FROM person_obj_table p
 WHERE VALUE(p) IS OF (student_typ);
```

For any object that is not of a specified subtype, or a subtype of a specified subtype, `IS OF` returns `FALSE`. Subtypes of a specified subtype are just more specialized versions of the specified subtype. If you want to exclude such subtypes, you can use the `ONLY` keyword. This keyword causes `IS OF` to return `FALSE` for all types except the specified types.

In the following example, the statement tests objects in object table `person_obj_table`, which contains persons, employees, and students, and returns `REFs` just to objects of the two specified person subtypes `employee_typ`, `student_typ`, and their subtypes, if any:

```
-- Using the IS OF type Operator to query for multiple subtypes
```

```
SELECT REF(p)
  FROM person_obj_table p
 WHERE VALUE(p) IS OF (employee_typ, student_typ);
```

Here is a similar example in PL/SQL. The code does something if the person is an employee or student:

```
-- Using the IS OF type Operator with PL/SQL
```

```
DECLARE
  var person_typ;
BEGIN
  var := employee_typ(55, 'Jane Smith', '1-650-555-0144', 100, 'Jennifer Nelson');
  IF var IS OF (employee_typ, student_typ) THEN
    DBMS_OUTPUT.PUT_LINE('Var is an employee_typ or student_typ object.');
```

```
ELSE
  DBMS_OUTPUT.PUT_LINE('Var is not an employee_typ or student_typ object.');
```

```
END IF;
END;
/
```

The following statement returns only students whose most specific or specialized type is `student_typ`. If the table or view contains any objects of a subtype of `student_typ`, such as `part_time_student_typ`, these are excluded. The example uses the `TREAT` function to convert objects that are students to `student_typ` from the declared type of the view, `person_typ`:

```
-- Using the IS OF type Operator to query for specific subtype only

SELECT TREAT(VALUE(p) AS student_typ)
       FROM person_obj_table p
WHERE VALUE(p) IS OF(ONLY student_typ);
```

To test the type of the object that a `REF` points to, you can use the `DEREF` function to dereference the `REF` before testing with the `IS OF type` predicate.

For example, if `contact_ref` is declared to be `REF person_typ`, you can get just the rows for students as follows:

```
-- Using the IS OF type Operator with Deref

SELECT *
       FROM contacts_ref
WHERE Deref(contact_ref) IS OF (student_typ);
```

#### See Also:

For more information about the SQL `IS OF type` condition, see *Oracle Database SQL Language Reference*.

## 2.4.5 REF

The `REF` function in a SQL statement takes as an argument a correlation name (or table alias) for an object table or view and returns a reference (a `REF`) to an object instance from that table or view.

The `REF` function may return references to objects of the declared type of the table, view, or any of its subtypes. For example, the following statement returns the references to all persons, including references to students and employees, whose `idno` attribute is 12:

### Example 2-36 Using the REF Function

```
-- Using the REF Function example, not sample schema

SELECT REF(p)
       FROM person_obj_table p
WHERE p.idno = 12;
```

#### See Also:

For more information about the SQL `REF` function, see *Oracle Database SQL Language Reference*.

## 2.4.6 SYS\_TYPEID

The `SYS_TYPEID` function can be used in a query to return the typeid (a hidden type) of the most specific type of the object instance passed as an argument.

The most specific type of an object instance is the type that the instance belongs to, that is, the farthest removed instance from the root type. For example, if Tim is a part-time student, he is also a student and a person, but his most specific type is part-time student.

The function returns the typeids from the hidden type-discriminant column that is associated with every substitutable column. The function returns a null typeid for a final, root type.

The syntax of the function is:

```
SYS_TYPEID(object_type_value)
```

Function `SYS_TYPEID` may be used only with arguments of an object type. Its primary purpose is to make it possible to build an index on a hidden type-discriminant column.

All types that belong to a type hierarchy are assigned a non-null typeid that is unique within the type hierarchy. Types that do not belong to a type hierarchy have a null typeid.

Every type except a final root type belongs to a type hierarchy. A final root type has no types related to it by inheritance:

- It cannot have subtypes derived from it because it is final.
- It is not itself derived from some other type because it is a root type, so it does not have any supertypes.

For an example of `SYS_TYPEID`, consider the substitutable object table `person_obj_table`, of `person_typ`. `person_typ` is the root type of a hierarchy that has `student_typ` as a subtype and `part_time_student_typ` as a subtype of `student_typ`. See [Example 2-20](#).

The following query uses `SYS_TYPEID`. It gets the name attribute and typeid of the object instances in the `person_obj_table` table. Each of the instances is of a different type:

### Example 2-37 Using the SYS\_TYPEID Function

```
-- Using the SYS_TYPEID Function example, not sample schema

SELECT name, SYS_TYPEID(VALUE(p)) typeid FROM person_obj_table p;
```

#### See Also:

- For information about the type-discriminant and other hidden columns, see "[Hidden Columns for Substitutable Columns and Object Tables](#)".
- For more information about the SQL `SYS_TYPEID` function, see *Oracle Database SQL Language Reference*.

## 2.4.7 TABLE()

Table functions are functions that produce a collection of rows, a nested table or a varray, that can be queried like a physical database table or assigned to a PL/SQL collection variable.

You can use a table function like the name of a database table, in the `FROM` clause of a query, or like a column name in the `SELECT` list of a query.

A table function can take a collection of rows as input. An input collection parameter can be either a collection type, such as a `VARRAY` or a PL/SQL table, or a `REF CURSOR`.

Use `PIPELINED` to instruct Oracle Database to return the results of a table function iteratively. A table function returns a nested table or varray type. You query table functions by using the `TABLE` keyword before the function name in the `FROM` clause of the query.

### See Also:

For information on `TABLE()` functions, see

- *Oracle Database Data Cartridge Developer's Guide*
- *Oracle Database PL/SQL Language Reference*

## 2.4.8 TREAT

The `TREAT` function does a runtime check to confirm that an expression can be operated on as if it were of a different specified type in the hierarchy, normally a subtype of the declared type of the expression.

In other words, the `TREAT` function attempts to treat a supertype instance as a subtype instance, for example, to treat a person as a student. If the person is a student, then the person is returned as a student, with the additional attributes and methods that a student may have. If the person is not a student, `TREAT` returns `NULL` in SQL.

The two main uses of `TREAT` are:

- In narrowing assignments, to modify the type of an expression so that the expression can be assigned to a variable of a more specialized type in the hierarchy: that is, to set a supertype value into a subtype.
- To access attributes or methods of a subtype of the declared type of a row or column.

A substitutable object table or column of type `T` has a hidden column for every attribute of every subtype of `T`. These hidden columns contain subtype attribute data, but you cannot list them with a `DESCRIBE` statement. `TREAT` enables you to access these columns.

### 2.4.8.1 Using TREAT for Narrowing Assignments

The `TREAT` function is used for narrowing assignments, that is, assignments that set a supertype value into a subtype. For a comparison to widening assignments, see "[Assignments Across Types](#)".

In [Example 2-38](#), `TREAT` returns all (and only) `student_typ` instances from `person_obj_table` of type `person_typ`, a supertype of `student_typ`. The statement uses `TREAT` to modify the type of `p` from `person_typ` to `student_typ`.

#### Example 2-38 Using the TREAT Function to Return a Specific Subtype in a Query

```
-- Using the TREAT Function to Return a Specific Subtype in a Query example,  
  
-- not sample schema  
  
SELECT TREAT(VALUE(p) AS student_typ)  
       FROM person_obj_table p;
```

For each `p`, the `TREAT` modification succeeds only if the most specific or specialized type of the value of `p` is `student_typ` or one of its subtypes. If `p` is a person who is not a student, or if `p` is `NULL`, `TREAT` returns `NULL` in SQL or, in PL/SQL, raises an exception.

You can also use `TREAT` to modify the declared type of a `REF` expression. For example:

```
-- Using the TREAT Function to modify declared type of a REF example,  
  
-- not sample schema  
  
SELECT TREAT(REF(p) AS REF student_typ)  
       FROM person_obj_table p;
```

The previous example returns `REFs` to all `student_typ` instances. In SQL it returns `NULL REFs` for all person instances that are not students, and in PL/SQL it raises an exception.

### 2.4.8.2 Using the TREAT Function to Access Subtype Attributes or Methods

Perhaps the most important use of `TREAT` is to access attributes or methods of a subtype of a row or column's declared type. The following query retrieves the `major` attribute of all persons, students and part-time students, who have this attribute. `NULL` is returned for persons who are not students:

#### Example 2-39 Using the TREAT Function to Access Attributes of a Specific Subtype

```
SELECT name, TREAT(VALUE(p) AS student_typ).major major  
       FROM person_obj_table p;
```

The following query will not work because `major` is an attribute of `student_typ` but not of `person_typ`, the declared type of table `persons`:

```
SELECT name, VALUE(p).major major FROM person_obj_table p -- incorrect;
```

The following is a PL/SQL example:

```

DECLARE
    var person_typ;
BEGIN
    var := employee_typ(55, 'Jane Smith', '1-650-555-0144', 100, 'Jennifer Nelson');
    DBMS_OUTPUT.PUT_LINE(TREAT(var AS employee_typ).mgr);
END;
/

```

### See Also:

For more information about the SQL `TREAT` function, see *Oracle Database SQL Language Reference*.

## 2.4.9 VALUE

In a SQL statement, the `VALUE` function takes as its argument a correlation variable (table alias) for an object table or object view and returns object instances corresponding to rows of the table or view.

The `VALUE` function may return instances of the declared type of the row or any of its subtypes.

**Example 2-40** first creates a `part_time_student_typ`, and then shows a `SELECT` query returning all persons, including students and employees, from table `person_obj_table` of `person_typ`.

### **Example 2-40 Using the VALUE Function**

```

-- Requires Ex. 2-31 and 2-32
CREATE TYPE part_time_student_typ UNDER student_typ (
    number_hours NUMBER);
/
SELECT VALUE(p) FROM person_obj_table p;

```

To retrieve only part time students, that is, instances whose most specific type is `part_time_student_typ`, use the `ONLY` keyword to confine the selection:

```

SELECT VALUE(p) FROM person_obj_table p
    WHERE VALUE(p) IS OF (ONLY part_time_student_typ);

```

In the following example, `VALUE` is used to update a object instance in an object table:

```

UPDATE person_obj_table p
    SET VALUE(p) = person_typ(12, 'Bob Jones', '1-650-555-0130')
    WHERE p.idno = 12;

```

### See Also:

- [Example 5-22](#)
- For more information about the SQL `VALUE` function, see *Oracle Database SQL Language Reference*.

# 3

## Using PL/SQL With Object Types

You can use object types with PL/SQL

Topics:

- [Declaring and Initializing Objects in PL/SQL](#)
- [Object Manipulation in PL/SQL](#)
- [Use of Overloading in PL/SQL with Inheritance](#)
- [Using Dynamic SQL With Objects](#)

### 3.1 Declaring and Initializing Objects in PL/SQL

Using object types in a PL/SQL block, subprogram, or package is a two-step process.

1. You must define object types using the SQL statement `CREATE TYPE`, in SQL\*Plus or other similar programs.

After an object type is defined and installed in the schema, you can use it in any PL/SQL block, subprogram, or package.

2. In PL/SQL, you then declare a variable whose data type is the user-defined type or ADT that you just defined.

Objects or ADTs follow the usual scope and instantiation rules.



**See Also:**

["About Object Types "](#)

#### 3.1.1 Defining Object Types

You can define object types using `CREATE TYPE`.

[Example 3-1](#) provides two object types, and a table of object types. Subsequent examples show how to declare variables of those object types in PL/SQL and perform other operations with these objects.

##### **Example 3-1 Working With Object Types**

```
CREATE TYPE address_typ AS OBJECT (  
    street      VARCHAR2(30),  
    city       VARCHAR2(20),  
    state      CHAR(2),  
    postal_code VARCHAR2(6) );  
/  
CREATE TYPE employee_typ AS OBJECT (  
    employee_id NUMBER(6),
```

```

first_name      VARCHAR2(20),
last_name       VARCHAR2(25),
email           VARCHAR2(25),
phone_number    VARCHAR2(20),
hire_date       DATE,
job_id          VARCHAR2(10),
salary          NUMBER(8,2),
commission_pct  NUMBER(2,2),
manager_id      NUMBER(6),
department_id   NUMBER(4),
address         address_typ,
MAP MEMBER FUNCTION get_idno RETURN NUMBER,
MEMBER PROCEDURE display_address ( SELF IN OUT NOCOPY employee_typ ) );
/
CREATE TYPE BODY employee_typ AS
MAP MEMBER FUNCTION get_idno RETURN NUMBER IS
BEGIN
RETURN employee_id;
END;
MEMBER PROCEDURE display_address ( SELF IN OUT NOCOPY employee_typ ) IS
BEGIN
DBMS_OUTPUT.PUT_LINE(first_name || ' ' || last_name);
DBMS_OUTPUT.PUT_LINE(address.street);
DBMS_OUTPUT.PUT_LINE(address.city || ', ' || address.state || ' ' ||
address.postal_code);
END;
END;
/
CREATE TABLE employee_tab OF employee_typ;

```

### 3.1.2 Declaring Objects in a PL/SQL Block

You can use objects or ADTs wherever built-in types such as CHAR or NUMBER can be used.

- Declare objects in the same way you declare built-in types.

**Example 3-2** declares object `emp` of type `employee_typ`. Then, the constructor for object type `employee_typ` initializes the object.

#### Example 3-2 Declaring Objects in a PL/SQL Block

```

-- Requires Ex. 3-1
DECLARE
emp employee_typ; -- emp is atomically null
BEGIN
-- call the constructor for employee_typ
emp := employee_typ(315, 'Francis', 'Logan', 'FLOGAN',
'415.555.0100', '01-MAY-04', 'SA_MAN', 11000, .15, 101, 110,
address_typ('376 Mission', 'San Francisco', 'CA', '94222'));
DBMS_OUTPUT.PUT_LINE(emp.first_name || ' ' || emp.last_name); -- display details
emp.display_address(); -- call object method to display details
END;
/

```

The formal parameter of a PL/SQL subprogram can have data types of user-defined types. Therefore, you can pass objects to stored subprograms and from one subprogram to another.

In the next code line, the object type `employee_typ` specifies the data type of a formal parameter:

```
PROCEDURE open_acct (new_acct IN OUT employee_typ) IS ...
```

In this code line, object type `employee_typ` specifies the return type of a function:

```
FUNCTION get_acct (acct_id IN NUMBER) RETURN employee_typ IS ...
```

### 3.1.3 How PL/SQL Treats Uninitialized Objects

User-defined types, just like collections, are atomically null, until you initialize the object by calling the constructor for its object type. That is, the object itself is null, not just its attributes.

Comparing a null object with any other object always yields `NULL`. Also, if you assign an atomically null object to another object, the other object becomes atomically null (and must be reinitialized). Likewise, if you assign the non-value `NULL` to an object, the object becomes atomically null.

In an expression, attributes of an uninitialized object evaluate to `NULL`. When applied to an uninitialized object or its attributes, the `IS NULL` comparison operator yields `TRUE`.

See [Example 2-1](#) for an illustration of null objects and objects with null attributes.

## 3.2 Object Manipulation in PL/SQL

This section describes how to manipulate object attributes and methods in PL/SQL.

This section includes the following topics:

- [Accessing Object Attributes With Dot Notation](#)
- [Calling Object Constructors and Methods](#)
- [Updating and Deleting Objects](#)
- [Manipulating Object Manipulation with Ref Modifiers](#)

### 3.2.1 Accessing Object Attributes With Dot Notation

You refer to an attribute by name. To access or change the value of an attribute, you use dot notation.

Attribute names can be chained, which lets you access the attributes of a nested object type. [Example 3-3](#) uses dot notation and generates the same output as [Example 3-2](#).

#### Example 3-3 Accessing Object Attributes

```
-- Requires Ex. 3-1
DECLARE
  emp employee_typ;
BEGIN
  emp := employee_typ(315, 'Francis', 'Logan', 'FLOGAN',
    '415.555.0100', '01-MAY-04', 'SA_MAN', 11000, .15, 101, 110,
    address_typ('376 Mission', 'San Francisco', 'CA', '94222'));
  DBMS_OUTPUT.PUT_LINE(emp.first_name || ' ' || emp.last_name);
  DBMS_OUTPUT.PUT_LINE(emp.address.street);
```

```

        DBMS_OUTPUT.PUT_LINE(emp.address.city || ', ' || emp.address.state || ' ' ||
                               emp.address.postal_code);
    END;
/

```

## 3.2.2 Calling Object Constructors and Methods

Calls to a constructor are allowed wherever function calls are allowed.

A constructor, like all functions, is called as part of an expression, as shown in [Example 3-3](#) and [Example 3-4](#).

When you pass parameters to a constructor, the call assigns initial values to the attributes of the object being instantiated. When you call the default constructor to fill in all attribute values, you must supply a parameter for every attribute; unlike constants and variables, attributes cannot have default values. You can call a constructor using named notation instead of positional notation.

### Example 3-4 Inserting Rows in an Object Table

```

-- Requires Ex. 3-1
DECLARE
    emp employee_typ;
BEGIN
    INSERT INTO employee_tab VALUES (employee_typ(310, 'Evers', 'Boston', 'EBOSTON',
        '617.555.0100', '01-AUG-04', 'SA_REP', 9000, .15, 101, 110,
        address_typ('123 Main', 'San Francisco', 'CA', '94111')) );
    INSERT INTO employee_tab VALUES (employee_typ(320, 'Martha', 'Dunn', 'MDUNN',
        '650.555.0150', '30-SEP-04', 'AC_MGR', 12500, 0, 101, 110,
        address_typ('123 Broadway', 'Redwood City', 'CA', '94065')) );
END;
/
SELECT VALUE(e) from employee_tab e;

```

## 3.2.3 Accessing Object Methods

Like packaged subprograms, methods are called using dot notation.

In [Example 3-5](#), the `display_address` method is called to display attributes of an object. Note the use of the `VALUE` function which returns the value of an object. `VALUE` takes as its argument a correlation variable. In this context, a correlation variable is a row variable or table alias associated with a row in an object table.

### Example 3-5 Accessing Object Methods

```

-- Requires Ex. 3-1 and Ex. 3-4
DECLARE
    emp employee_typ;
BEGIN
    SELECT VALUE(e) INTO emp FROM employee_tab e WHERE e.employee_id = 310;
    emp.display_address();
END;
/

```

In SQL statements, calls to a parameterless method require an empty parameter list. In procedural statements, an empty parameter list is optional unless you chain calls, in which case it is required for all but the last call. Also, if you chain two function calls, the first function must return an object that can be passed to the second function.

If a PL/SQL function is used in place of an ADT constructor during a DML operation, the function may execute multiple times as part of the DML execution. For the function to execute only once per occurrence, it must be a deterministic function.

For static methods, calls use the notation `type_name.method_name` rather than specifying an instance of the type.

When you call a method using an instance of a subtype, the actual method that is executed depends on declarations in the type hierarchy. If the subtype overrides the method that it inherits from its supertype, the call uses the subtype implementation. Otherwise, the call uses the supertype implementation. This capability is known as dynamic method dispatch.



#### See Also:

"Dynamic Method Dispatch"

## 3.2.4 Updating and Deleting Objects

From inside a PL/SQL block you can modify and delete rows in an object table.

### Example 3-6 Updating and Deleting Rows in an Object Table

```
-- Requires Ex. 3-1 and 3-4
DECLARE
    emp employee_typ;
BEGIN
    INSERT INTO employee_tab VALUES (employee_typ(370, 'Robert', 'Myers', 'RMYPERS',
        '415.555.0150', '07-NOV-04', 'SA_REP', 8800, .12, 101, 110,
        address_typ('540 Fillmore', 'San Francisco', 'CA', '94011')) );
    UPDATE employee_tab e SET e.address.street = '1040 California'
        WHERE e.employee_id = 370;
    DELETE FROM employee_tab e WHERE e.employee_id = 310;
END;
/
SELECT VALUE(e) from employee_tab e;
```

## 3.2.5 Manipulating Object Manipulation with Ref Modifiers

You can retrieve REFS using the function REF, which takes as its argument a correlation variable or alias.

You can declare REFS as variables, parameters, fields, or attributes. You can use REFS as input or output variables in SQL data manipulation statements.

### Example 3-7 Updating Rows in an Object Table With a REF Modifier

```
-- Requires Ex. 3-1, 3-4, and 3-6
DECLARE
    emp          employee_typ;
    emp_ref REF employee_typ;
BEGIN
    SELECT REF(e) INTO emp_ref FROM employee_tab e WHERE e.employee_id = 370;
    UPDATE employee_tab e
        SET e.address = address_typ('8701 College', 'Oakland', 'CA', '94321')
        WHERE REF(e) = emp_ref;
```

```
END;
/
```

You cannot navigate through `REFs` in PL/SQL. For example, the assignment in [Example 3-8](#) using a `REF` is not allowed. Instead, use the function `DEREF` or make calls to the package `UTL_REF` to access the object.

### Example 3-8 Trying to Use `DEREF` in a `SELECT INTO` Statement, Incorrect

```
-- Requires Ex. 3-1, 3-4, and 3-6
DECLARE
  emp          employee_typ;
  emp_ref     REF employee_typ;
  emp_name    VARCHAR2(50);
BEGIN
  SELECT REF(e) INTO emp_ref FROM employee_tab e WHERE e.employee_id = 370;
  -- the following assignment raises an error, not allowed in PL/SQL  emp :=
  Deref(emp_ref); -- cannot use Deref in procedural statements
  emp_name := emp.first_name || ' ' || emp.last_name;
  DBMS_OUTPUT.PUT_LINE(emp_name);
END;
/
```

This assignment raises an error as described below:

```
not allowed in PL/SQL
-- emp_name := emp_ref.first_name || ' ' || emp_ref.last_name;
-- emp := Deref(emp_ref); not allowed, cannot use Deref in procedural statements
```



#### See Also:

- For information on the `REF` function, see *Oracle Database SQL Language Reference*.
- For detailed information on the `DEREF` function, see *Oracle Database SQL Language Reference*.

## 3.3 Use of Overloading in PL/SQL with Inheritance

Overloading allows you to substitute a subtype value for a formal parameter that is a supertype. This capability is known as substitutability.

The following rules are about overloading and substitutability.

### Rules of Substitution

If more than one instance of an overloaded procedure matches the procedure call, the following substitution rules determine which procedure, if any, is called:

- If the signatures of the overloaded procedures only differ in that some parameters are object types from the same supertype-subtype hierarchy, the closest match is used. The closest match is one where all the parameters are at least as close as any other overloaded instance, as determined by the depth of inheritance between the subtype and supertype, and at least one parameter is closer.

- If instances of two overloaded methods match, and some argument types are closer in one overloaded procedure while others are closer in the second procedure, a semantic error occurs.
- If some parameters differ in their position within the object type hierarchy, and other parameters are of different data types so that an implicit conversion would be necessary, then a semantic error occurs.

### 3.3.1 Resolving PL/SQL Functions with Inheritance

Resolving PL/SQL functions with inheritance follows the rules of substitution.

**Example 3-9** creates a type hierarchy that has three levels starting with `super_t`. There is a package with two overloaded instances of a function that are the same except for the position of the argument type in the type hierarchy. The invocation declares a variable of type `final_t`, and then calls the overloaded function.

The instance of the function that executes is the one that accepts a `sub_t` parameter, because `sub_t` is closer to `final_t` than `super_t` in the hierarchy. This follows the rules of substitution.

Note that because determining which instance to call happens at compile time, the fact that the argument passed in was also a `final_t` is ignored. If the declaration was `v super_t := final_t(1,2,3)`, the overloaded function with the argument `super_t` would be called.

#### Example 3-9 Resolving PL/SQL Functions With Inheritance

```
CREATE OR REPLACE TYPE super_t AS OBJECT
  (n NUMBER) NOT final;
/
CREATE OR REPLACE TYPE sub_t UNDER super_t
  (n2 NUMBER) NOT final;
/
CREATE OR REPLACE TYPE final_t UNDER sub_t
  (n3 NUMBER);
/
CREATE OR REPLACE PACKAGE p IS
  FUNCTION func (arg super_t) RETURN NUMBER;
  FUNCTION func (arg sub_t) RETURN NUMBER;
END;
/
CREATE OR REPLACE PACKAGE BODY p IS
  FUNCTION func (arg super_t) RETURN NUMBER IS BEGIN RETURN 1; END;
  FUNCTION func (arg sub_t) RETURN NUMBER IS BEGIN RETURN 2; END;
END;
/

DECLARE
  v final_t := final_t(1,2,3);
BEGIN
  DBMS_OUTPUT.PUT_LINE(p.func(v)); -- prints 2
END;
/
```

**See Also:**See [Use of Overloading in PL/SQL with Inheritance](#)

## 3.3.2 Resolving PL/SQL Functions with Inheritance Dynamically

Dynamically resolving PL/SQL functions with inheritance follows the rules of substitution.

See [Use of Overloading in PL/SQL with Inheritance](#)

In [Example 3-10](#), determining which instance to call happens at run time because the functions are overriding member functions of the type hierarchy. This is dynamic method dispatch, described in "[Dynamic Method Dispatch](#)".

Though `v` is an instance of `super_t`, because the value of `final_t` is assigned to `v`, the `sub_t` instance of the function is called, following the rules of substitution.

### Example 3-10 Resolving PL/SQL Functions With Inheritance Dynamically

```

-- Perform the following drop commands if you created these objects in Ex. 3-9
-- DROP PACKAGE p;
-- DROP TYPE final_t;
-- DROP TYPE _sub_t;
-- DROP TYPE super_t FORCE;
CREATE OR REPLACE TYPE super_t AS OBJECT
  (n NUMBER, MEMBER FUNCTION func RETURN NUMBER) NOT FINAL;
/
CREATE OR REPLACE TYPE BODY super_t AS
  MEMBER FUNCTION func RETURN NUMBER IS BEGIN RETURN 1; END; END;
/
CREATE TYPE sub_t UNDER super_t
  (n2 NUMBER,
   OVERRIDING MEMBER FUNCTION func RETURN NUMBER) NOT FINAL;
/
CREATE OR REPLACE TYPE BODY sub_t AS
  OVERRIDING MEMBER FUNCTION func RETURN NUMBER IS BEGIN RETURN 2; END; END;
/
CREATE OR REPLACE TYPE final_t UNDER sub_t
  (n3 NUMBER);
/

DECLARE
  v super_t := final_t(1,2,3);
BEGIN
  DBMS_OUTPUT.PUT_LINE('answer: ' || v.func); -- prints 2
END;
/

```

## 3.4 Using Dynamic SQL With Objects

Dynamic SQL is a feature of PL/SQL that enables you to enter SQL information, such as a table name, the full text of a SQL statement, or variable information at run-time.

Topics:

- [Using Dynamic SQL with Object Types and Collections](#)
- [Calling Package Procedures with Object Types and Collections](#)

 **See Also:**

*Oracle Database PL/SQL Language Reference*

## 3.4.1 Using Dynamic SQL with Object Types and Collections

You can use dynamic SQL with object types and collections.

[Example 3-11](#) illustrates the use of objects and collections with dynamic SQL. First, the example defines the object type `person_typ` and the VARRAY type `hobbies_var`, then it defines the package, `teams`, that uses these types.

You need `AUTHID CURRENT_USER` to execute dynamic package methods; otherwise, these methods raise an insufficient privileges error when you run [Example 3-12](#), which is an anonymous block that calls the procedures in package `TEAMS`.

### Example 3-11 A Package that Uses Dynamic SQL for Object Types and Collections

```
CREATE OR REPLACE TYPE person_typ AS OBJECT (name VARCHAR2(25), age NUMBER);
/
CREATE TYPE hobbies_var AS VARRAY(10) OF VARCHAR2(25);
/
CREATE OR REPLACE PACKAGE teams

    AUTHID CURRENT_USER AS
    PROCEDURE create_table (tab_name VARCHAR2);
    PROCEDURE insert_row (tab_name VARCHAR2, p person_typ, h hobbies_var);
    PROCEDURE print_table (tab_name VARCHAR2);
END;
/
CREATE OR REPLACE PACKAGE BODY teams AS
    PROCEDURE create_table (tab_name VARCHAR2) IS
    BEGIN
        EXECUTE IMMEDIATE 'CREATE TABLE ' || tab_name ||
            ' (pers person_typ, hobbs hobbies_var)';
    END;
    PROCEDURE insert_row (
        tab_name VARCHAR2,
        p person_typ,
        h hobbies_var) IS
    BEGIN
        EXECUTE IMMEDIATE 'INSERT INTO ' || tab_name ||
            ' VALUES (:1, :2)' USING p, h;
    END;
    PROCEDURE print_table (tab_name VARCHAR2) IS
        TYPE refcurtyp IS REF CURSOR;
        v_cur refcurtyp;
        p person_typ;
        h hobbies_var;
    BEGIN
        OPEN v_cur FOR 'SELECT pers, hobbs FROM ' || tab_name;
        LOOP
```

```
        FETCH v_cur INTO p, h;
        EXIT WHEN v_cur%NOTFOUND;
        -- print attributes of 'p' and elements of 'h'
        DBMS_OUTPUT.PUT_LINE('Name: ' || p.name || ' - Age: ' || p.age);
        FOR i IN h.FIRST..h.LAST
        LOOP
            DBMS_OUTPUT.PUT_LINE('Hobby(' || i || '): ' || h(i));
        END LOOP;
    END LOOP;
    CLOSE v_cur;
END;
/
```

## 3.4.2 Calling Package Procedures with Object Types and Collections

You can call package procedures with object types and collections.

From an anonymous block, [Example 3-12](#), you might call the procedures in package `TEAMS` as shown in [Example 3-11](#)

### Example 3-12 Calling Procedures from the `TEAMS` Package

```
DECLARE
    team_name VARCHAR2(15);
BEGIN
    team_name := 'Notables';
    TEAMS.create_table(team_name);
    TEAMS.insert_row(team_name, person_typ('John', 31),
        hobbies_var('skiing', 'coin collecting', 'tennis'));
    TEAMS.insert_row(team_name, person_typ('Mary', 28),
        hobbies_var('golf', 'quilting', 'rock climbing', 'fencing'));
    TEAMS.print_table(team_name);
END;
/
```

# 4

## Object Support in Oracle Programming Environments

In an Oracle database, you can create object types with SQL data definition language (DDL) commands, and you can manipulate objects with SQL data manipulation language (DML) commands. From there, you can use many Oracle application programming environments and tools that have built-in support for Oracle Objects.

Topics:

- [SQL and Object Types](#)
- [SQL Developer](#)
- [PL/SQL](#)
- [Oracle Call Interface \(OCI\)](#)
- [Pro\\*C/C++](#)
- [Oracle C++ Call Interface \(OCCI\)](#)
- [Java Tools for Accessing Oracle Objects](#)
- [XML](#)
- [Utilities Providing Support for Objects](#)

### 4.1 SQL and Object Types

Oracle SQL data definition language (DDL) provides operations to support object types.

These operations include:

- Defining object types, nested tables, and arrays
- Specifying privileges
- Specifying table columns of object types
- Creating object tables

Oracle SQL DML provides the following support for object types:

- Querying and updating objects and collections
- Manipulating `REFS`

#### See Also:

For a complete description of Oracle SQL syntax, see *Oracle Database SQL Language Reference*

## 4.2 SQL Developer

SQL Developer provides a visual development environment for database developers and DBAs to create and manipulate database schema objects including Oracle Objects

SQL Developer enables you to run reports, monitor performance and perform many other database-related tasks using a rich graphical user interface.



### See Also:

*Oracle SQL Developer User's Guide*

## 4.3 PL/SQL

Object types and subtypes can be used in PL/SQL procedures and functions in most places where built-in types can appear.

The parameters and variables of PL/SQL functions and procedures can be of object types.

You can implement the methods associated with object types in PL/SQL. These methods (functions and procedures) reside on the server as part of a user's schema.



### See Also:

For a complete description of PL/SQL, see the *Oracle Database PL/SQL Language Reference*

## 4.4 Oracle Call Interface (OCI)

OCI is a set of C library functions that applications can use to manipulate data and schemas in an Oracle database.

- [About Oracle Call Interface \(OCI\)](#)
- [Associative Access in OCI Programs](#)
- [Navigational Access in OCI Programs](#)

### 4.4.1 About Oracle Call Interface (OCI)

OCI supports both traditional 3GL and object-oriented techniques for database access, as explained in the following sections.

An important component of OCI is a set of calls to manage a workspace called the object cache. The object cache is a memory block on the client side that allows programs to store entire objects and to navigate among them without additional round trips to the server.

The object cache is completely under the control and management of the application programs using it. The Oracle server has no access to it. The application programs using it must maintain data coherency with the server and protect the workspace against simultaneous conflicting access.

OCI provides functions to

- Access objects on the server using SQL.
- Access, manipulate and manage objects in the object cache by traversing pointers or `REFS`.
- Convert Oracle dates, strings and numbers to C data types.
- Manage the size of the object cache's memory.

OCI improves concurrency by allowing individual objects to be locked. It improves performance by supporting complex object retrieval.

OCI developers can use the object type translator to generate the C data types corresponding to a Oracle object types.



#### See Also:

*Oracle Call Interface Programmer's Guide* for more information about using objects with OCI

## 4.4.2 Associative Access in OCI Programs

OCI programs support associative access to objects with an API that can manipulate object data.

Traditionally, 3GL programs manipulate data stored in a relational database by executing SQL statements and PL/SQL procedures. Data is usually manipulated on the server without incurring the cost of transporting the data to the client(s). OCI supports this associative access to objects by providing an API for executing SQL statements that manipulate object data. Specifically, OCI enables you to:

- Execute SQL statements that manipulate object data and object type schema information
- Pass object instances, object references (`REFS`), and collections as input variables in SQL statements
- Return object instances, `REFS`, and collections as output of SQL statement fetches
- Describe the properties of SQL statements that return object instances, `REFS`, and collections
- Describe and execute PL/SQL procedures or functions with object parameters or results
- Synchronize object and relational functionality through enhanced commit and rollback functions

See "[Associative Access in Pro\\*C/C++](#)".

### 4.4.3 Navigational Access in OCI Programs

OCI programs provide navigational access by means of an API.

In the object-oriented programming paradigm, applications model their real-world entities as a set of inter-related objects that form graphs of objects. The relationships between objects are implemented as references. An application processes objects by starting at some initial set of objects, using the references in these initial objects to traverse the remaining objects, and performing computations on each object. OCI provides an API for this style of access to objects, known as navigational access. Specifically, OCI enables you to:

- Cache objects in memory on the client machine
- Dereference an object reference and pin the corresponding object in the object cache. The pinned object is transparently mapped in the host language representation.
- Notify the cache when the pinned object is no longer needed
- Fetch a graph of related objects from the database into the client cache in one call
- Lock objects
- Create, update, and delete objects in the cache
- Flush changes made to objects in the client cache to the database

See "[Navigational Access in Pro\\*C/C++](#)".

### 4.4.4 Object Cache

To support high-performance navigational access of objects, OCI runtime provides an object cache for caching objects in memory.

The object cache supports references (`REFS`) to database objects in the object cache, the database objects can be identified (that is, pinned) through their references. Applications do not need to allocate or free memory when database objects are loaded into the cache, because the object cache provides transparent and efficient memory management for database objects.

Also, when database objects are loaded into the cache, they are transparently mapped into the host language representation. For example, in the C programming language, the database object is mapped to its corresponding C structure. The object cache maintains the association between the object copy in the cache and the corresponding database object. Upon transaction commit, changes made to the object copy in the cache are propagated automatically to the database.

The object cache maintains a fast look-up table for mapping `REFS` to objects. When an application dereferences a `REF` and the corresponding object is not yet cached in the object cache, the object cache automatically sends a request to the server to fetch the object from the database and load it into the object cache. Subsequent dereferences of the same `REF` are faster because they become local cache access and do not incur network round-trips.

To notify the object cache that an application is accessing an object in the cache, the application pins the object; when it is finished with the object, it unpins it. The object cache maintains a pin count for each object in the cache. The count is incremented

upon a pin call and decremented upon an unpin call. When the pin count goes to zero, it means the object is no longer needed by the application.

The object cache uses a least-recently used (LRU) algorithm to manage the size of the cache. When the cache reaches the maximum size, the LRU algorithm frees candidate objects with a pin count of zero.

## 4.4.5 Building an OCI Program That Manipulates Objects

You can build an OCI program to manipulate objects by representing types in the C host language format.

When you build an OCI program that manipulates objects, you must complete the following general steps

1. Define the object types that correspond to the application objects.
2. Execute the SQL DDL statements to populate the database with the necessary object types.
3. Represent the object types in the host language format.

For example, to manipulate instances of the object types in a C program, you must represent these types in the C host language format. You can do this by representing the object types as C structs. You can use a tool provided by Oracle called the Object Type Translator (OTT) to generate the C mapping of the object types. The OTT puts the equivalent C structs in header (\*.h) files. You include these \*.h files in the \*.c files containing the C functions that implement the application.

4. Construct the application executable by compiling and linking the application's \*.c files with the OCI library.

### See Also:

*Oracle Call Interface Programmer's Guide* for tips and techniques for using OCI program effectively with objects

## 4.4.6 Defining User-Defined Constructors in C

When defining a user-defined constructor in C, you must specify `SELF` (and you may optionally specify `SELF TDO`) in the `PARAMETERS` clause.

On entering the C function, the attributes of the C structure that the object maps to are all initialized to `NULL`. The value returned by the function is mapped to an instance of the user-defined type.

[Example 4-1](#) shows how to define a user-defined constructor in C.

### **Example 4-1 Defining a User-Defined Constructor in C**

```
CREATE LIBRARY person_lib TRUSTED AS STATIC
/

CREATE TYPE person AS OBJECT
( name VARCHAR2(30),
  CONSTRUCTOR FUNCTION person(SELF IN OUT NOCOPY person, name VARCHAR2)
```

```
        RETURN SELF AS RESULT);  
/  
  
CREATE TYPE BODY person IS  
    CONSTRUCTOR FUNCTION person(SELF IN OUT NOCOPY person, name VARCHAR2)  
        RETURN SELF AS RESULT  
    IS EXTERNAL NAME "cons_person_typ" LIBRARY person_lib WITH CONTEXT  
    PARAMETERS(context, SELF, name OCIString, name INDICATOR sb4);  
END;/
```

The `SELF` parameter is mapped like an `IN` parameter, so in the case of a `NOT FINAL` type, it is mapped to `(dvoid *)`, not `(dvoid **)`. The return value's TDO must match the TDO of `SELF` and is therefore implicit. The return value can never be null, so the return indicator is implicit as well.

## 4.5 Pro\*C/C++

The Oracle Pro\*C/C++ precompiler allows programmers to use user-defined data types in C and C++ programs.

Topics:

- [About Pro\\*C/C++](#)
- [Associative Access in Pro\\*C/C++](#)
- [Navigational Access in Pro\\*C/C++](#)
- [Conversion Between Oracle Types and C Types](#)
- [Oracle Type Translator \(OTT\)](#)

### 4.5.1 About Pro\*C/C++

Pro\*C developers can use the Object Type Translator to map Oracle object types and collections into C data types to be used in the Pro\*C application.

Pro\*C provides compile time type checking of object types and collections and automatic type conversion from database types to C data types.

Pro\*C includes an EXEC SQL syntax to create and destroy objects and offers two ways to access objects in the server:

- SQL statements and PL/SQL functions or procedures embedded in Pro\*C programs.
- An interface to the object cache (described under "[Oracle Call Interface \(OCI\)](#)"), where objects can be accessed by traversing pointers, then modified and updated on the server.

#### See Also:

For a complete description of the Pro\*C/C++ precompiler, see *Pro\*C/C++ Programmer's Guide*

## 4.5.2 Associative Access in Pro\*C/C++

Pro\*C/C++ offers the following capabilities for associative access to objects:

- Support for transient copies of objects allocated in the object cache
- Support for transient copies of objects referenced as input host variables in embedded SQL `INSERT`, `UPDATE`, and `DELETE` statements, or in the `WHERE` clause of a `SELECT` statement
- Support for transient copies of objects referenced as output host variables in embedded SQL `SELECT` and `FETCH` statements
- Support for ANSI dynamic SQL statements that reference object types through the `DESCRIBE` statement, to get the object's type and schema information

### See Also:

For background information on associative access, see "[Associative Access in OCI Programs](#)".

## 4.5.3 Navigational Access in Pro\*C/C++

Pro\*C/C++ offers the following capabilities to support a more object-oriented interface to objects:

- Support for dereferencing, pinning, and optionally locking an object in the object cache using an embedded SQL `OBJECT Deref` statement
- Allowing a Pro\*C/C++ user to inform the object cache when an object has been updated or deleted, or when it is no longer needed, using embedded SQL `OBJECT UPDATE`, `OBJECT DELETE`, and `OBJECT RELEASE` statements
- Support for creating new referenceable objects in the object cache using an embedded SQL `OBJECT CREATE` statement
- Support for flushing changes made in the object cache to the server with an embedded SQL `OBJECT FLUSH` statement

### See Also:

For background information on navigational access, see "[Navigational Access in OCI Programs](#)".

## 4.5.4 Conversion Between Oracle Types and C Types

Pro\*C/C++ provides ease-of-use enhancements to simplify use of OCI types in C and C++ applications.

The C representation for objects that is generated by the Oracle Type Translator (OTT) uses OCI types which are opaque and insulate you from changes to their internal formats, but are cumbersome to use in a C or C++ application. These representations include `OCIString` and `OCINumber` for scalar attributes and `OCITable`, `OCIArray`, and `OCIRef` types for collection types and object references.

With Pro\*C/C++ enhancements:

- Object attributes can be retrieved and implicitly converted to C types with the embedded SQL `OBJECT GET` statement.
- Object attributes can be set and converted from C types with the embedded SQL `OBJECT SET` statement.
- Collections can be mapped to a host array with the embedded SQL `COLLECTION GET` statement. Furthermore, if the collection is comprised of scalar types, then the OCI types can be implicitly converted to a compatible C type.
- Host arrays can be used to update the elements of a collection with the embedded SQL `COLLECTION SET` statement. As with the `COLLECTION GET` statement, if the collection is comprised of scalar types, C types are implicitly converted to OCI types.

## 4.5.5 Oracle Type Translator (OTT)

The Oracle Type Translator (OTT) is a program that automatically generates C language structure declarations corresponding to object types.

OTT makes it easier to use the Pro\*C precompiler and the OCI server access package.



### See Also:

For complete information about OTT, see *Oracle Call Interface Programmer's Guide* and *Pro\*C/C++ Programmer's Guide*.

## 4.6 Oracle C++ Call Interface (OCCI)

The Oracle C++ Call Interface (OCCI) is a C++ API that enables you to use the object-oriented features, native classes, and methods of the C++ programming language to access the Oracle database.

Topics:

- [About Oracle C++ Call Interface \(OCCI\)](#)
- [OCCI Associative Relational and Object Interfaces](#)
- [The OCCI Navigational Interface](#)

### 4.6.1 About Oracle C++ Call Interface (OCCI)

The OCCI interface is modeled on the JDBC interface and, like the JDBC interface, is easy to use. OCCI itself is built on top of OCI and provides the power and performance of OCI using an object-oriented paradigm.

OCI is a C API to the Oracle database. It supports the entire Oracle feature set and provides efficient access to both relational and object data, but it can be challenging to use—particularly if you want to work with complex, object data types. Object types are not natively supported in C, and simulating them in C is not easy. OCCI addresses this by providing a simpler, object-oriented interface to the functionality of OCI. It does this by defining a set of wrappers for OCI. By working with these higher-level abstractions, developers can avail themselves of the underlying power of OCI to manipulate objects in the server through an object-oriented interface that is significantly easier to program.

The Oracle C++ Call Interface, OCCI, can be roughly divided into three sets of functionalities, namely:

- Associative relational access
- Associative object access
- Navigational access

## 4.6.2 OCCI Associative Relational and Object Interfaces

The associative relational API and object classes provide SQL access to the database.

Through these interfaces, SQL is executed on the server to create, manipulate, and fetch object or relational data. Applications can access any data type on the server, including the following:

- Large objects
- Objects/Structured types
- Arrays
- References

## 4.6.3 The OCCI Navigational Interface

The navigational interface is a C++ interface that lets you seamlessly access and modify object-relational data in the form of C++ objects without using SQL.

The C++ objects are transparently accessed and stored in the database as needed.

With the OCCI navigational interface, you can retrieve an object and navigate through references from that object to other objects. Server objects are materialized as C++ class instances in the application cache.

An application can use OCCI object navigational calls to perform the following functions on the server's objects:

- Create, access, lock, delete, and flush objects
- Get references to the objects and navigate through them

### See Also:

*Oracle C++ Call Interface Programmer's Guide* for a complete account of how to build applications with the Oracle C++ API

## 4.7 Java Tools for Accessing Oracle Objects

Oracle provides various ways to integrate Oracle object features with Java.

These interfaces enable you both to access SQL data from Java and to provide persistent database storage for Java objects.

Topics:

- [JDBC Access to Oracle Object Data](#)
- [Data Mapping Strategies](#)
- [Java Object Storage](#)
- [Defining User-Defined Constructors in Java](#)
- [JDeveloper](#)

### 4.7.1 JDBC Access to Oracle Object Data

JDBC (Java Database Connectivity) is a set of Java interfaces to the Oracle server.

Oracle provides tight integration between objects and JDBC. You can map SQL types to Java classes with considerable flexibility.

Oracle JDBC:

- Allows access to objects and collection types (defined in the database) in Java programs through dynamic SQL.
- Translates types defined in the database into Java classes through default or customizable mappings.

Version 2.0 of the JDBC specification supports object-relational constructs such as user-defined (object) types. JDBC materializes Oracle objects as instances of particular Java classes. Using JDBC to access Oracle objects involves creating the Java classes for the Oracle objects and populating these classes. You can either:

- Let JDBC materialize the object as a `STRUCT`. In this case, JDBC creates the classes for the attributes and populates them for you.
- Manually specify the mappings between Oracle objects and Java classes; that is, customize your Java classes for object data. The driver then populates the customized Java classes that you specify, which imposes a set of constraints on the Java classes. To satisfy these constraints, you can choose to define your classes according to either the `SQLData` interface or the `ORADData` interface.

#### See Also:

*Oracle Database JDBC Developer's Guide* for complete information about JDBC

## 4.7.2 Data Mapping Strategies

Oracle SQLJ supports either strongly typed or weakly typed Java representations of object types, reference types (REFs), and collection types (varrays and nested tables) to be used in iterators or host expressions.

Strongly typed representations use a *custom Java class* that corresponds to a particular object type, REF type, or collection type and must implement the interface `oracle.sql.ORAData`. The Oracle JVM Web services Call-Out Utility can automatically generate such custom Java classes.

Weakly typed representations use the class `oracle.sql.STRUCT` (for objects), `oracle.sql.REF` (for references), or `oracle.sql.ARRAY` (for collections).

## 4.7.3 Java Object Storage

Oracle JVM Web services Call-Out Utility enables you to construct Java classes that map to existing SQL types. You can then access the SQL types from a Java application using JDBC.

You can also go in the other direction. That is, you can create SQL types that map to existing Java classes. This capability enables you to provide persistent storage for Java objects. Such SQL types are called SQL types of Language Java, or SQLJ object types. They can be used as the type of an object, an attribute, a column, or a row in an object table. You can navigationaly access objects of such types—Java objects—through either object references or foreign keys, and you can query and manipulate such objects from SQL.

You create SQLJ types with a `CREATE TYPE` statement as you do other user-defined SQL types. For SQLJ types, two special elements are added to the `CREATE TYPE` statement:

- An `EXTERNAL NAME` phrase, used to identify the Java counterpart for each SQLJ attribute and method and the Java class corresponding to the SQLJ type itself
- A `USING` clause, to specify how the SQLJ type is to be represented to the server. The `USING` clause specifies the interface used to retrieve a SQLJ type and the kind of storage.

For example:

### Example 4-2 Mapping SQL Types to Java Classes

```
-- Mapping SQL Types to Java Classes example, not sample schema
CREATE TYPE full_address AS OBJECT (a NUMBER);
/

CREATE OR REPLACE TYPE person_t AS OBJECT
  EXTERNAL NAME 'Person' LANGUAGE JAVA
  USING SQLData (
    ss_no NUMBER (9) EXTERNAL NAME 'socialSecurityNo',
    name varchar(100) EXTERNAL NAME 'name',
    address full_address EXTERNAL NAME 'addrs',
    birth_date date EXTERNAL NAME 'birthDate',
    MEMBER FUNCTION age RETURN NUMBER EXTERNAL NAME 'age () return int',
    MEMBER FUNCTION addressf RETURN full_address
      EXTERNAL NAME 'get_address () return long_address',
    STATIC function createf RETURN person_t EXTERNAL NAME 'create ()
```

```
        return Person',
    STATIC function createf (name VARCHAR2, addrs full_address, bDate DATE)
        RETURN person_t EXTERNAL NAME 'create (java.lang.String, Long_address,
        oracle.sql.date) return Person',
    ORDER member FUNCTION compare (in_person person_t) RETURN NUMBER
        EXTERNAL NAME 'isSame (Person) return int')
/
```

SQLJ types use the corresponding Java class as the body of the type; you do not specify a type body in SQL to contain implementations of the type's methods as you do with ordinary object types.



#### See Also:

*Oracle Database Java Developer's Guide*

### 4.7.3.1 Creating SQLJ Object Types

You can create SQLJ object types using SQL statements

The SQL statements to create SQLJ types and specify their mappings to Java are placed in a file called a **deployment descriptor**. Related SQL constraints and privileges are also specified in this file. The types are created when the file is executed.

Below is an overview of the process of creating SQL versions of Java types/classes:

1. Design the Java types.
2. Generate the Java classes.
3. Create the SQLJ object type statements.
4. Construct the JAR file. This is a single file that contains all the classes needed.
5. Using the `loadjava` utility, install the Java classes defined in the JAR file.
6. Execute the statements to create the SQLJ object types.

### 4.7.3.2 Additional Notes About Mapping

The following are additional notes to consider when mapping of Java classes to SQL types:

- You can map a SQLJ static function to a user-defined constructor in the Java class. The return value of this function is of the user-defined type in which the function is locally defined.
- Java static variables are mapped to SQLJ static methods that return the value of the corresponding static variable identified by `EXTERNAL NAME`. The `EXTERNAL NAME` clause for an attribute is optional with a `SQLData` or `ORADData` representation.
- Every attribute in a SQLJ type of a SQL representation must map to a Java field, but not every Java field must be mapped to a corresponding SQLJ attribute: you can omit Java fields from the mapping.
- You can omit classes: you can map a SQLJ type to a non-root class in a Java class hierarchy without also mapping SQLJ types to the root class and intervening

superclasses. Doing this enables you to hide the superclasses while still including attributes and methods inherited from them.

However, you must preserve the structural correspondence between nodes in a class hierarchy and their counterparts in a SQLJ type hierarchy. In other words, for two Java classes `j_A` and `j_B` that are related through inheritance and are mapped to two SQL types `s_A` and `s_B`, respectively, there must be exactly one corresponding node on the inheritance path from `s_A` to `s_B` for each node on the inheritance path from `j_A` to `j_B`.

- You can map a Java class to multiple SQLJ types as long as you do not violate the restriction in the preceding paragraph. In other words, no two SQLJ types mapped to the same Java class can have a common supertype ancestor.
- If all Java classes are not mapped to SQLJ types, it is possible that an attribute of a SQLJ object type might be set to an object of an unmapped Java class. Specifically, to a class occurring above or below the class to which the attribute is mapped in an inheritance hierarchy. If the object's class is a superclass of the attribute's type/class, an error is raised. If it is a subclass of the attribute's type/class, the object is mapped to the most specific type in its hierarchy for which a SQL mapping exists

### 4.7.3.3 SQLJ Type Evolution

You can evolve SQLJ types using the `ALTER TYPE` statement.

The `ALTER TYPE` statement enables you to evolve a type by, for example, adding or dropping attributes or methods.

When a SQLJ type is evolved, an additional validation is performed to check the mapping between the class and the type. If the class and the evolved type match, the type is marked valid. Otherwise, the type is marked as pending validation.

Being marked as pending validation is not the same as being marked invalid. A type that is pending validation can still be manipulated with `ALTER TYPE` and `GRANT` statements, for example.

If a type that has a SQL representation is marked as pending evaluation, you can still access tables of that type using any DML or `SELECT` statement that does not require a method invocation.

You cannot, however, execute DML or `SELECT` statements on tables of a type that has a serializable representation and has been marked as pending validation. Data of a serializable type can be accessed only navigationaly, through method invocations. These are not possible with a type that is pending validation. However, you can still re-evolve the type until it passes validation.

See "[Type Evolution](#)".

### 4.7.3.4 Constraints

For SQLJ types having a SQL representation, the same constraints can be defined as for ordinary object types.

Constraints are defined on tables, not on types, and are defined at the column level. The following constraints are supported for SQLJ types having a SQL representation:

- Unique constraints

- Primary Key
- Check constraints
- NOT NULL constraints on attributes
- Referential constraints

The `IS OF TYPE` constraint on column substitutability is supported, too, for SQLJ types having a SQL representation. See "[Constraining Substitutability](#)".

### 4.7.3.5 Querying SQLJ Objects

SQLJ types can be queried just like ordinary SQL object types.

- Query SQLJ types just like ordinary object types.

Methods called in a `SELECT` statement must not attempt to change attribute values.

### 4.7.3.6 Inserting Java Objects

You can insert Java objects into tables.

Inserting a row in a table containing a column of a SQLJ type requires a call to the type's constructor function to create a Java object of that type.

- Use an implicit, system-generated constructor, or define a static function that maps to a user-defined constructor in the Java class.

### 4.7.3.7 Updating SQLJ Objects

You can update SQLJ objects several ways.

SQLJ objects can be updated by:

- Using an `UPDATE` statement to modify the value of one or more attributes
- Invoking a method that updates the attributes and returns `SELF`—that is, returns the object itself with the changes made.

For example, suppose that `raise()` is a member function that increments the `salary` field/attribute by a specified amount and returns `SELF`. The following statement gives every employee in the object table `employee_objtab` a raise of 1000:

```
UPDATE employee_objtab SET c=c.raise(1000);
```

A column of a SQLJ type can be set to `NULL` or to another column using the same syntax as for ordinary object types. For example, the following statement assigns column `d` to column `c`:

```
UPDATE employee_reltab SET c=d;
```

## 4.7.4 Defining User-Defined Constructors in Java

When you implement a user-defined constructor in Java, the supply the string supplied as the implementing routine must correspond to a static function. For the return type of the function, specify the Java type mapped to the SQL type.

When you implement a user-defined constructor in Java, the string supplied as the implementing routine must correspond to a static function. For the return type of the function, specify the Java type mapped to the SQL type.

[Example 4-3](#) is an example of a type declaration that involves a user-defined constructor implemented in Java.

#### Example 4-3 Defining a User-Defined Constructor in Java

```
-- Defining a User-Defined Constructor in Java example, not sample schema
CREATE TYPE person1_typ AS OBJECT
EXTERNAL NAME 'pkg1.J_Person' LANGUAGE JAVA
USING SQLData(
  name VARCHAR2(30),
  age NUMBER,
  CONSTRUCTOR FUNCTION person1_typ(SELF IN OUT NOCOPY person1_typ, name VARCHAR2,
                                   age NUMBER) RETURN SELF AS RESULT
AS LANGUAGE JAVA
  NAME 'pkg1.J_Person.J_Person(java.lang.String, int) return J_Person')
/
```

## 4.7.5 JDeveloper

Oracle JDeveloper is a full-featured, cross-platform, integrated development environment for creating multitier Java applications that is well integrated with Oracle Application Server and Database.

Oracle JDeveloper enables you to develop, debug, and deploy Java client applications, dynamic HTML applications, web and application server components, JavaBean components, and database stored procedures based on industry-standard models.

JDeveloper is also the integrated development environment for ADF and TopLink.

### 4.7.5.1 Application Development Framework (ADF)

ADF is a framework for building scalable enterprise Java EE applications. Developers can use ADF to build applications where the application data is persisted to Oracle Object tables as well as other schema objects.

### 4.7.5.2 TopLink

TopLink is a framework for mapping Java objects to a variety of persistence technologies, including databases, and provides facilities to build applications leveraging Oracle Objects.

## 4.8 XML

`XMLType` views wrap existing relational and object-relational data in XML formats. These views are similar to object views. Each row of an `XMLType` view corresponds to an `XMLType` instance. The object identifier for uniquely identifying each row in the view can be created using an expression such as `extract()` on the `XMLType` value.



**See Also:**

*Oracle XML DB Developer's Guide* for information and examples on using XML with Oracle objects

## 4.9 Utilities Providing Support for Objects

This section describes several Oracle utilities that provide support for Oracle objects.

This section contains these topics:

- [Import/Export of Object Types](#)
- [SQL\\*Loader](#)

### 4.9.1 Import/Export of Object Types

Export and Import utilities move data into and out of Oracle databases. They also back up or archive data and aid migration to different releases of the Oracle RDBMS.

Export and Import support object types. Export writes object type definitions and all of the associated data to the dump file. Import then re-creates these items from the dump file.

When you import object tables, by default, OIDs are preserved.



**See Also:**

*Oracle Database Utilities* for instructions on how to use the Import and Export utilities

#### 4.9.1.1 Types

The definition statements for derived types are exported. On an Import, a subtype may be created before the supertype definition has been imported. In this case, the subtype is created with compilation errors, which may be ignored. The type is revalidated after its supertype is created.

#### 4.9.1.2 Object View Hierarchies

View definitions for all views belonging to a view hierarchy are exported.

### 4.9.2 SQL\*Loader

The SQL\*Loader utility moves data from external files into tables in an Oracle database.

The files SQL\*Loader moves may contain data consisting of basic scalar data types, such as `INTEGER`, `CHAR`, or `DATE`, as well as complex user-defined data types such as row and column objects (including objects that have object, collection, or `REF`

attributes), collections, and LOBs. Currently, SQL\*Loader supports single-level collections only: you cannot yet use SQL\*Loader to load multilevel collections, that is, collections whose elements are, or contain, other collections. SQL\*Loader uses control files, which contain SQL\*Loader data definition language (DDL) statements, to describe the format, content, and location of the datafiles.

SQL\*Loader provides two approaches to loading data:

- **Conventional path loading**, which uses the `SQL INSERT` statement and a bind array buffer to load data into database tables
- **Direct path loading**, which uses the Direct Path Load API to write data blocks directly to the database on behalf of the SQL\*Loader client.

Direct path loading does not use a SQL interface and thus avoids the overhead of processing the associated SQL statements. Consequently, direct path loading generally provides much better performance than conventional path loading.

Either approach can be used to load data of supported object and collection data types.

 **See Also:**

*Oracle Database Utilities* for instructions on how to use SQL\*Loader

# 5

## Support for Collection Data Types

There are different ways create and manage these collection types: varrays and nested tables.



### See Also:

*Oracle Database PL/SQL Language Reference* for a complete introduction to collections

Topics:

- [Collection Data Types](#)
- [Multilevel Collection Types](#)
- [Operations on Collection Data Types](#)
- [Partitioning Tables That Contain Oracle Objects](#)

### 5.1 Collection Data Types

Oracle supports the varray and nested table collection data types.

- A varray is an ordered collection of elements.
- A nested table can have any number of elements and is unordered.

If you need to store only a fixed number of items, or loop through the elements in order, or often need to retrieve and manipulate the entire collection as a value, then use a varray.

If you need to run efficient queries on a collection, handle arbitrary numbers of elements, or perform mass insert, update, or delete operations, then use a nested table.

Topics:

- [Creating a Collection Type](#)
- [Creating a Collection Type](#)
- [Creating an Instance of a VARRAY or Nested Table](#)
- [Using the Constructor Method to Insert Values into a Nested Table](#)
- [About Varrays](#)
- [Nested Tables](#)
- [Increasing the Size and Precision of VARRAY and Nested Table Elements](#)
- [Increasing VARRAY Limit Size](#)

- [Creating a Varray Containing LOB References](#)



#### See Also:

For more information on using nested tables, see "[Design Considerations for Collections](#)".

## 5.1.1 Creating a Collection Type

You use `CREATE TYPE` and `CREATE TYPE BODY` to create a nested table type.

[Example 5-1](#) demonstrates creating a `person_typ` object and a `people_typ` as a nested table type of `person_typ` objects, which are both used in other examples.

### Example 5-1 CREATE TYPE `person_typ` for Subsequent Examples

```
CREATE TYPE person_typ AS OBJECT (
  idno          NUMBER,
  name         VARCHAR2(30),
  phone        VARCHAR2(20),
  MAP MEMBER FUNCTION get_idno RETURN NUMBER,
  MEMBER PROCEDURE display_details ( SELF IN OUT NOCOPY person_typ );
/

CREATE TYPE BODY person_typ AS
  MAP MEMBER FUNCTION get_idno RETURN NUMBER IS
  BEGIN
    RETURN idno;
  END;
  MEMBER PROCEDURE display_details ( SELF IN OUT NOCOPY person_typ ) IS
  BEGIN
    -- use the put_line procedure of the DBMS_OUTPUT package to display details
    DBMS_OUTPUT.put_line(TO_CHAR(idno) || ' - ' || name || ' - ' || phone);
  END;
END;
/

CREATE TYPE people_typ AS TABLE OF person_typ; -- nested table type
/
```

## 5.1.2 Creating an Instance of a VARRAY or Nested Table

You create an instance of a collection type by calling the constructor method of the type, in the same way that you create an instance of any other object type .

The name of a constructor method is simply the name of the type. You specify the elements of the collection as a comma-delimited list of arguments to the method, for example.

```
( person_typ(1, 'John Smith', '1-650-555-0135'),
```

Calling a constructor method with an empty list creates an empty collection of that type. Note that an empty collection is an actual collection that happens to be empty; it is not the same as a null collection. See "[Design Considerations for Nested Tables](#)" for more information on using nested tables.

## 5.1.3 Using the Constructor Method to Insert Values into a Nested Table

You can use a constructor method in a SQL statement to insert values into a nested table.

**Example 5-2** first creates a table that contains an instance of the nested table type `people_typ`, named `people_column`, and then shows how to use the constructor method in a SQL statement to insert values into `people_typ`. This example uses a literal invocation of the constructor method.

### Example 5-2 Using the Constructor Method to Insert Values into a Nested Table

```
-- Requires Ex. 5-1
CREATE TABLE people_tab (
    group_no NUMBER,
    people_column people_typ ) -- an instance of nested table
    NESTED TABLE people_column STORE AS people_column_nt; -- storage table for NT

INSERT INTO people_tab VALUES (
    100,
    people_typ( person_typ(1, 'John Smith', '1-650-555-0135'),
               person_typ(2, 'Diane Smith', NULL)));
```

## 5.1.4 Invoking Constructors Literally to Specify Defaults

When you declare a table column to be of an object type or collection type, you can include a `DEFAULT` clause.

This provides a value to use in cases where you do not explicitly specify a value for the column.

The `DEFAULT` clause must contain a literal invocation of the constructor method for that object or collection.

**Example 5-3** shows how to use literal invocations of constructor methods to specify defaults for the `person_typ` object and the `people_typ` nested table:

### Example 5-3 Using Literal Invocations of Constructor Methods to Specify Defaults

```
-- requires Ex. 5-1
CREATE TABLE department_persons (
    dept_no    NUMBER PRIMARY KEY,
    dept_name  CHAR(20),
    dept_mgr   person_typ DEFAULT person_typ(10,'John Doe',NULL),
    dept_emps  people_typ DEFAULT people_typ() ) -- instance of nested table type
    NESTED TABLE dept_emps STORE AS dept_emps_tab;

INSERT INTO department_persons VALUES
    ( 101, 'Physical Sciences', person_typ(65,'Vrinda Mills', '1-650-555-0125'),
      people_typ( person_typ(1, 'John Smith', '1-650-555-0135'),
                  person_typ(2, 'Diane Smith', NULL) ) );
INSERT INTO department_persons VALUES
```

```
( 104, 'Life Sciences', person_typ(70,'James Hall', '1-415-555-0101'),
  people_typ() ); -- an empty people_typ table
```

Note that `people_typ()` is a literal invocation of the constructor method for an empty `people_typ` nested table.

The `department_persons` table can be queried in two ways as shown in [Example 5-16](#) and [Example 5-17](#).

## 5.1.5 About Varrays

A varray is an ordered set of data elements. All elements of a given varray are of the same data type or a subtype of the declared one. Each element has an index, which is a number corresponding to the position of the element in the array. The index number is used to access a specific element.

When you define a varray, you specify the maximum number of elements it can contain, although you can change this number later. The number of elements in an array is the size of the array.

The following statement creates an array type `email_list_arr` that has no more than ten elements, each of data type `VARCHAR2(80)`.

```
CREATE TYPE email_list_arr AS VARRAY(10) OF VARCHAR2(80);
/
```

## 5.1.6 Creating and Populating a VARRAY

Creating an array type, as with a SQL object type, does not allocate space.

It defines a data type, which you can use as:

- The data type of a column of a relational table.
- An object type attribute.
- The type of a PL/SQL variable, parameter, or function return value.

[Example 5-4](#) creates a `VARRAY` type that is an array of an object type. The `phone_varray_typ` `VARRAY` type is used as a data type for a column in the `dept_phone_list` table. The `INSERT` statements show how to insert values into `phone_varray_typ` by invoking the constructors for the varray `phone_varray_typ` and the object `phone_typ`.

You can create a `VARRAY` type of `XMLType` or `LOB` type for procedural purposes, such as in PL/SQL or view queries. However, database storage for varrays of these types is not supported. Thus you cannot create an object table or an object type column of a varray type of `XMLType` or `LOB` type.

### Example 5-4 Creating and Populating a VARRAY Data Type

```
CREATE TYPE phone_typ AS OBJECT (
  country_code  VARCHAR2(2),
  area_code     VARCHAR2(3),
  ph_number     VARCHAR2(7));
/
CREATE TYPE phone_varray_typ AS VARRAY(5) OF phone_typ;
/
CREATE TABLE dept_phone_list (
  dept_no NUMBER(5),
```

```
phone_list phone_varray_typ);

INSERT INTO dept_phone_list VALUES (
  100,
  phone_varray_typ( phone_typ ('01', '650', '5550123'),
                   phone_typ ('01', '650', '5550148'),
                   phone_typ ('01', '650', '5550192')));
```

A varray is normally stored inline, that is, in the same tablespace as the other data in its row. If it is sufficiently large, Oracle stores it as a BLOB.

#### See Also:

- ["Storage Considerations for Varrays"](#)
- See *Oracle Database SQL Language Reference* for information and examples on the `STORE AS LOB` clause of the `CREATE TABLE` statement.

## 5.1.7 Nested Tables

A nested table is an unordered set of data elements, all of the same data type. No maximum is specified in the definition of the table, and the order of the elements is not preserved. You select, insert, delete, and update in a nested table just as you do with ordinary tables using the `TABLE` expression.

A nested table can be viewed as a single column. If the column in a nested table is an object type, the table can also be viewed as a multi-column table, with a column for each attribute of the object type.

Topics:

- [Creating Nested Tables](#)
- [Storing Elements of Nested Tables](#)
- [Specifying a Tablespace When Storing a Nested Table](#)

### 5.1.7.1 Creating Nested Tables

To create nested table types, use the `CREATE TYPE ... AS TABLE OF` statement. For example:

```
CREATE TYPE people_typ AS TABLE OF person_typ;
```

A table type definition does not allocate space. It defines a type, which you can use as:

- The data type of a column of a relational table.
- An object type attribute.
- A PL/SQL variable, parameter, or function return type.

### 5.1.7.2 Storing Elements of Nested Tables

Elements of a nested table are actually stored in a separate storage table.

Oracle stores nested table data in a single storage table associated with the object table for both nested table types that are columns in a relational table or attributes in an object table. The storage table contains a column that identifies the parent table row or object that each element of the nested table belongs to. See [Figure 9-2](#).

The `NESTED TABLE...STORE AS` clause specifies storage names for nested tables. Storage names are used to create an index on a nested table.

[Example 5-5](#) demonstrates creating and populating a nested table, and specifying the nested table storage using the `person_typ` object and the `people_typ` nested table as defined in [Example 5-1](#).

#### Example 5-5 Creating and Populating Simple Nested Tables

```
-- Requires 5-1
CREATE TABLE students (
  graduation DATE,
  math_majors people_typ, -- nested tables (empty)
  chem_majors people_typ,
  physics_majors people_typ)
  NESTED TABLE math_majors STORE AS math_majors_nt -- storage tables
  NESTED TABLE chem_majors STORE AS chem_majors_nt
  NESTED TABLE physics_majors STORE AS physics_majors_nt;

CREATE INDEX math_idno_idx ON math_majors_nt(idno);
CREATE INDEX chem_idno_idx ON chem_majors_nt(idno);
CREATE INDEX physics_idno_idx ON physics_majors_nt(idno);

INSERT INTO students (graduation) VALUES ('01-JUN-03');
UPDATE students
  SET math_majors =
    people_typ (person_typ(12, 'Bob Jones', '650-555-0130'),
              person_typ(31, 'Sarah Chen', '415-555-0120'),
              person_typ(45, 'Chris Woods', '415-555-0124')),
    chem_majors =
    people_typ (person_typ(51, 'Joe Lane', '650-555-0140'),
              person_typ(31, 'Sarah Chen', '415-555-0120'),
              person_typ(52, 'Kim Patel', '650-555-0135')),
    physics_majors =
    people_typ (person_typ(12, 'Bob Jones', '650-555-0130'),
              person_typ(45, 'Chris Woods', '415-555-0124'))
WHERE graduation = '01-JUN-03';

SELECT m.idno math_id, c.idno chem_id, p.idno physics_id FROM students s,
  TABLE(s.math_majors) m, TABLE(s.chem_majors) c, TABLE(s.physics_majors) p;
```

A convenient way to access the elements of a nested table individually is to use a nested cursor or the `TABLE` function. See "[Collection Querying](#)".

### 5.1.7.3 Specifying a Tablespace When Storing a Nested Table

A nested table can be stored in a different tablespace than its parent table.

In [Example 5-6](#), the nested table is stored in the `system` tablespace:

**Example 5-6 Specifying a Different Tablespace for Storing a Nested Table**

```
-- Requires Ex. 5-1, must remove code in Ex. 5-2 if created
CREATE TABLE people_tab (
  people_column people_typ )
  NESTED TABLE people_column STORE AS people_column_nt (TABLESPACE system);
```

If the `TABLESPACE` clause is not specified, then the storage table of the nested table is created in the tablespace where the parent table is created. For multilevel nested tables, Oracle creates the child table in the same tablespace as its immediately preceding parent table.

You can issue an `ALTER TABLE... MOVE` statement to move a table to a different tablespace. If you do this on a table with nested table columns, only the parent table moves; no action is taken on the storage tables of the nested table. To move a storage table for a nested table to a different tablespace, issue `ALTER TABLE... MOVE` on the storage table. For example:

```
ALTER TABLE people_tab MOVE TABLESPACE system; -- moving table
ALTER TABLE people_column_nt MOVE TABLESPACE example; -- moving storage table
```

Now the `people_tab` table is in the `system` tablespace and the nested table storage is stored in the `example` tablespace.

## 5.1.8 Increasing the Size and Precision of VARRAY and Nested Table Elements

You can increase the size of the variable character or `RAW` type, or increase the precision of the numeric type when the element type of a `VARRAY` type or nested table type is a variable character, or a `RAW` or numeric type.

A new type version is generated for the `VARRAY` type or nested table type.

You make these changes using an `ALTER TYPE... MODIFY` statement, which has this option:

`CASCADE`: Propagates the change to its type and table dependents

### See Also:

"[ALTER TYPE Statement for Type Evolution](#)" for further description of `CASCADE`

[Example 5-7](#) increases the sizes of a `VARRAY` and a nested table element type.

**Example 5-7 Increasing the Size of an Element Type in a VARRAY and Nested Table**

```
CREATE TYPE email_list_arr AS VARRAY(10) OF VARCHAR2(80);
/
ALTER TYPE email_list_arr MODIFY ELEMENT TYPE VARCHAR2(100) CASCADE;

CREATE TYPE email_list_tab AS TABLE OF VARCHAR2(30);
/
ALTER TYPE email_list_tab MODIFY ELEMENT TYPE VARCHAR2(40) CASCADE;
```

## 5.1.9 Increasing VARRAY Limit Size

The `ALTER TYPE ... MODIFY LIMIT` syntax allows you to increase the number of elements of a `VARRAY` type.

If you increase the number of elements of a `VARRAY` type, a new type version is generated for the `VARRAY` type, and becomes part of the type change history.

The `ALTER TYPE ... MODIFY LIMIT` statement has these options:

- `INVALIDATE`: Invalidates all dependent objects
- `CASCADE`: Propagates the change to its type and table dependents

### Example 5-8 Increasing the VARRAY Limit Size

```
-- if you have already creating following types, drop them.
DROP TYPE email_list_tab FORCE;
DROP TYPE email_list_arr FORCE;
CREATE TYPE email_list_arr AS VARRAY(10) OF VARCHAR2(80);
/
CREATE TYPE email_list_typ AS OBJECT (
    section_no    NUMBER,
    emails        email_list_arr);
/

CREATE TYPE email_varray_typ AS VARRAY(5) OF email_list_typ;
/

ALTER TYPE email_varray_typ MODIFY LIMIT 100 INVALIDATE;
```

When a `VARRAY` type is altered, changes are propagated to the dependent tables.



#### See Also:

["About Propagating VARRAY Size Change"](#).

## 5.1.10 Creating a Varray Containing LOB References

To create a varray of LOB references, first define a `VARRAY` type of type `REF`.

**Note:** The following example refers to `email_list_typ` which was defined in [Example 5-8](#). This example creates a table `dept_email_list` and defines a column `email_addrs` of the array type in it.

### Example 5-9 Creating a VARRAY Containing LOB References

```
-- Requires Ex. 5-8
CREATE TYPE ref_email_varray_typ AS VARRAY(5) OF REF email_list_typ;
/

CREATE TABLE dept_email_list (
    dept_no NUMBER,
    email_addrs ref_email_varray_typ)
VARRAY email_addrs STORE AS LOB dept_emails_lob3;
```

## 5.2 Multilevel Collection Types

Multilevel collection types are collection types whose elements are themselves directly or indirectly another collection type.

Possible multilevel collection types are:

- Nested table of nested table type
- Nested table of varray type
- Varray of nested table type
- Varray of varray type
- Nested table or varray of a user-defined type that has an attribute that is a nested table or varray type

Like single-level collection types, multilevel collection types:

- Can be used as columns in a relational table or with object attributes in an object table.
- Require that both the source and the target be of the same declared data type for assignment.

Topics:

- [Nested Table Storage Tables for Multilevel Collection Types](#)
- [Varray Storage for Multilevel Collections](#)
- [Constructors for Multilevel Collections](#)

### 5.2.1 Nested Table Storage Tables for Multilevel Collection Types

To use a multilevel nested table collection of nested tables, you must specify a nested-table storage clause.

A nested table type column or object table attribute requires a storage table to store rows for all its nested tables as described in "[Storing Elements of Nested Tables](#)".

With a multilevel nested table collection of nested tables, you must specify a nested-table storage clause (`STORE AS`) for both the inner set and the outer set of nested tables. You must have as many nested table storage clauses as you have levels of nested tables in a collection.

Every nested table storage table contains a column, referenceable by `NESTED_TABLE_ID`, that keys rows in the storage table to the associated row in the parent table. A parent table that is itself a nested table has two system-supplied ID columns:

- A system-supplied ID column that is referenceable by `NESTED_TABLE_ID`, which keys its rows back to rows in its parent table.
- A system-supplied ID column that is hidden and referenced by the `NESTED_TABLE_ID` column in its nested table children.

If you do not specify a primary key with a `NESTED_TABLE_ID` column, then the database automatically creates a b-tree index on the `NESTED_TABLE_ID` column for better performance.

 **See Also:**

- "Nested Table Storage"
- "Unnesting Queries with Multilevel Collections"
- See [Example 5-12](#) for an example where the nested table has a primary key in which the first column is `NESTED_TABLE_ID`.

## Topics:

- [Creating Multilevel Nested Table Storage](#)
- [Creating Multilevel Nested Table Storage Using the COLUMN\\_VALUE Keyword](#)
- [Specifying Physical Attributes for Nested Table Storage](#)

### 5.2.1.1 Creating Multilevel Nested Table Storage

You can create a nested table of nested tables.

[Example 5-10](#) creates the multilevel collection type `nt_country_typ`, a nested table of nested tables. The example models a system of corporate regions in which each region has a nested table collection of the countries, and each country has a nested table collection of its locations. This example requires the `regions`, `countries`, and `locations` tables of the Oracle `HR` sample schema.

In [Example 5-10](#), the SQL statements create the table `region_tab`, which contains the column `countries`, whose type is a multilevel collection, `nt_country_typ`. This multilevel collection is a nested table of an object type that has the nested table attribute `locations`. Separate nested table clauses are provided for the outer `countries` nested table and for the inner `locations` nested table.

In [Example 5-10](#) you can refer to the inner nested table `locations` by name because this nested table is a named attribute of an object. However, *if the inner nested table is not an attribute of an object, it has no name*. The keyword `COLUMN_VALUE` is provided for this case. See [Example 5-11](#)

#### Example 5-10 Multilevel Nested Table Storage

```
-- Requires the HR sample schema
CREATE TYPE location_typ AS OBJECT (
  location_id      NUMBER(4),
  street_address  VARCHAR2(40),
  postal_code     VARCHAR2(12),
  city            VARCHAR2(30),
  state_province  VARCHAR2(25));
/

CREATE TYPE nt_location_typ AS TABLE OF location_typ; -- nested table type
/

CREATE TYPE country_typ AS OBJECT (
  country_id      CHAR(2),
  country_name    VARCHAR2(40),
  locations      nt_location_typ); -- inner nested table
/
```

```

CREATE TYPE nt_country_typ AS TABLE OF country_typ; -- multilevel collection type
/

CREATE TABLE region_tab (
  region_id    NUMBER,
  region_name  VARCHAR2(25),
  countries    nt_country_typ) -- outer nested table
NESTED TABLE countries STORE AS nt_countries_tab
  (NESTED TABLE locations STORE AS nt_locations_tab);

```

### See Also:

*Oracle Database Sample Schemas* for information on using sample schemas

## 5.2.1.2 Creating Multilevel Nested Table Storage Using the COLUMN\_VALUE Keyword

You can use the keyword `COLUMN_VALUE` place of a name for an inner nested table.

In [Example 5-11](#) an inner nested table is unnamed and represented by the keyword `COLUMN_VALUE`.

### **Example 5-11 Multilevel Nested Table Storage Using the COLUMN\_VALUE Keyword**

```

CREATE TYPE inner_table AS TABLE OF NUMBER;
/
CREATE TYPE outer_table AS TABLE OF inner_table;
/
CREATE TABLE tab1 (
  col1 NUMBER, -- inner nested table, unnamed
  col2 outer_table)
NESTED TABLE col2 STORE AS col2_ntab
  (NESTED TABLE COLUMN_VALUE STORE AS cv_ntab);

```

## 5.2.1.3 Specifying Physical Attributes for Nested Table Storage

You can physical attributes for nested table storage.

[Example 5-12](#) shows how to specify physical attributes for the storage tables in the nested table clause.

Specifying a primary key with `NESTED_TABLE_ID` as the first column and index-organizing the table causes Oracle database to physically cluster all the nested table rows that belong to the same parent row, for more efficient access. In [Example 5-12](#) the nested table has a primary key in which the first column is `NESTED_TABLE_ID`. This column contains the ID of the row in the parent table with which a storage table row is associated.

### **Example 5-12 Specifying Physical Attributes for Nested Table Storage**

```

-- Requires Ex. 5-10
-- drop the following if you have previously created it

```

```

DROP TABLE region_tab FORCE;

CREATE TABLE region_tab (
  region_id      NUMBER,
  region_name    VARCHAR2(25),
  countries      nt_country_typ)
NESTED TABLE countries STORE AS nt_countries_tab (
  (PRIMARY KEY (NESTED_TABLE_ID, country_id))
  NESTED TABLE locations STORE AS nt_locations_tab);

```

## 5.2.2 Varray Storage for Multilevel Collections

Multilevel varrays are stored in one of two ways, depending on whether the varray is a varray of varrays or a varray of nested tables.

- In a varray of varrays, the entire varray is stored inline in the row unless it is larger than approximately 4000 bytes or LOB storage is explicitly specified.
- In a varray of nested tables, the entire varray is stored in a LOB, with only the LOB locator stored in the row. There is no storage table associated with nested table elements of a varray.

You can explicitly specify LOB storage for varrays.

### See Also:

- ["Storage Considerations for Varrays"](#)
- *Oracle Database SecureFiles and Large Objects Developer's Guide* for a general understanding of LOBs

## 5.2.3 Specifying LOB Storage for VARRAY of VARRAY Type

You can explicitly specify LOB storage for VARRAYS of VARRAY type.

[Example 5-13](#) shows explicit LOB storage specified for a VARRAY of VARRAY type..

### **Example 5-13 Specifying LOB Storage for a VARRAY of VARRAY Type**

```

-- Requires Ex. 5-8, drop following if created

DROP TYPE email_varray_typ FORCE;
CREATE TYPE email_list_typ2 AS OBJECT (
  section_no  NUMBER,
  emails      email_list_arr);
/

CREATE TYPE email_varray_typ AS VARRAY(5) OF email_list_typ2;
/

CREATE TABLE dept_email_list2 (
  dept_no NUMBER,
  email_addrs email_varray_typ)
VARRAY email_addrs STORE AS LOB dept_emails_lob2;

```

## 5.2.4 Specifying LOB Storage for a Nested Table of VARRAYs

You can explicitly specify LOB storage for a nested table of varray elements.

[Example 5-14](#) shows the `COLUMN_VALUE` keyword used with varrays. See [Example 5-11](#) for discussion of this keyword and its use with nested tables.

### Example 5-14 Specifying LOB Storage for a Nested Table of VARRAYs

```
-- drop the following types if you have created them
DROP TYPE email_list_typ FORCE;
DROP TABLE dept_email_list FORCE;
DROP TYPE email_list_arr FORCE;

CREATE TYPE email_list_arr AS VARRAY(10) OF VARCHAR2(80);
/

CREATE TYPE email_list_typ AS TABLE OF email_list_arr;
/

CREATE TABLE dept_email_list (
  dept_no NUMBER,
  email_addrs email_list_typ)
  NESTED TABLE email_addrs STORE AS email_addrs_nt
  (
  VARRAY COLUMN_VALUE STORE AS LOB
  dept_emails_lob);
```

## 5.2.5 Constructors for Multilevel Collections

Multilevel collection types are created by calling the constructor of the respective type, just like single-level collections and other object types.

The constructor for a multilevel collection type is a system-defined function that has the same name as the type and returns a new instance of it. Constructor parameters have the names and types of the attributes of the object type.

[Example 5-15](#) shows the constructor call for the multilevel collection type `nt_country_typ`. The `nt_country_typ` constructor calls the `country_typ` constructor, which calls the `nt_location_typ`, which calls the `location_typ` constructor.

### Note:

`nt_country_typ` is a multilevel collection because it is a nested table that contains another nested table as an attribute.

### Example 5-15 Using Constructors for Multilevel Collections

```
-- Requires 5-10 and HR sample schema
INSERT INTO region_tab
VALUES(1, 'Europe', nt_country_typ(
  country_typ( 'IT', 'Italy', nt_location_typ (
    location_typ(1000, '1297 Via Cola di Rie', '00989', 'Roma', ''),
    location_typ(1100, '93091 Calle della Testa', '10934', 'Venice', '') )
  ),
```

```
country_typ( 'CH', 'Switzerland', nt_location_typ (
  location_typ(2900, '20 Rue des Corps-Saints', '1730', 'Geneva', 'Geneve'),
  location_typ(3000, 'Murtenstrasse 921', '3095', 'Bern', 'BE') )
),
country_typ( 'UK', 'United Kingdom', nt_location_typ (
  location_typ(2400, '8204 Arthur St', '', 'London', 'London'),
  location_typ(2500, 'Magdalen Centre, The Oxford Science Park', 'OX9 9ZB',
  'Oxford', 'Oxford'),
  location_typ(2600, '9702 Chester Road', '09629850293', 'Stretford',
  'Manchester') )
)
);
```

## 5.3 Operations on Collection Data Types

Operations on collection data types includes querying and comparing.

Topics:

- [Collection Querying](#)
- [DML Operations on Collections](#)
- [Using BULK COLLECT to Return Entire Result Sets](#)
- [Conditions that Compare Nested Tables](#)
- [Multiset Operations for Nested Tables](#)

### 5.3.1 Collection Querying

There are two general ways to query a table that contains a collection type as a column or attribute.

- Nest the collections in the result rows that contain them.
- Distribute or unnest collections so that each collection element appears on a row by itself.

Topics:

- [Nesting Results of Collection Queries](#)
- [Unnesting Results of Collection Queries](#)
- [Unnesting Queries Containing Table Expression Subqueries](#)
- [Using a Table Expression in a CURSOR Expression](#)
- [Unnesting Queries with Multilevel Collections](#)

#### 5.3.1.1 Nesting Results of Collection Queries

Querying a collection column in the `SELECT` list nests the elements of the collection in the result row that the collection is associated with.

The queries in [Example 5-16](#) use the `department_persons` table shown in [Example 5-3](#).

The column `dept_emps` is a nested table collection of `person_typ` type. The `dept_emps` collection column appears in the `SELECT` list like an ordinary scalar column

**Example 5-16 Nesting Results of Collection Queries**

```
-- Requires Ex. 5-1 and Ex. 5-3
SELECT d.dept_emps
   FROM department_persons d;
```

These queries retrieve this nested collection of employees.

```
DEPT_EMPS(IDNO, NAME, PHONE)
-----
PEOPLE_TYP(PERSON_TYP(1, 'John Smith', '1-650-555-0135'),
PERSON_TYP(2, 'Diane Smith', '1-650-555-0135'))
```

The results are also nested if an object type column in the `SELECT` list contains a collection attribute, even if that collection is not explicitly listed in the `SELECT` list itself. For example, the query `SELECT * FROM department_persons` produces a nested result.

### 5.3.1.2 Unnesting Results of Collection Queries

You can unnest the results of collection queries.

Unnesting collection query results is useful because not all tools or applications can deal with results in a nested format. To view Oracle collection data using tools that require a conventional format, you must unnest, or flatten, the collection attribute of a row into one or more relational rows. You can do this using a `TABLE` expression with the collection. `TABLE` expressions enable you to query a collection in the `FROM` clause like a table. In effect, you join the nested table with the row that contains the nested table.

`TABLE` expressions can be used to query any collection value expression, including transient values such as variables and parameters.

 **See Also:**

*Oracle Database SQL Language Reference* for further information on the `TABLE` expression and unnesting collections

The query in [Example 5-17](#), like that of [Example 5-16](#), retrieves the collection of employees, but here the collection is unnested.

**Example 5-17 Unnesting Results of Collection Queries**

```
-- Requires Ex. 5-1 and 5-3
SELECT e.*
   FROM department_persons d, TABLE(d.dept_emps) e;
```

Output:

IDNO	NAME	PHONE
1	John Smith	1-650-555-0135
2	Diane Smith	1-650-555-0135

[Example 5-17](#) shows that a `TABLE` expression can have its own table alias. A table alias for the `TABLE` expression appears in the `SELECT` list to select columns returned by the `TABLE` expression.

The `TABLE` expression uses another table alias to specify the table that contains the collection column that the `TABLE` expression references. The expression `TABLE(d.dept_emps)` specifies the `department_persons` table as containing the `dept_emps` collection column. To reference a table column, a `TABLE` expression can use the table alias of any table appearing to the left of it in a `FROM` clause. This is called left correlation.

In [Example 5-17](#), the `department_persons` table is listed in the `FROM` clause solely to provide a table alias for the `TABLE` expression to use. No columns from the `department_persons` table other than the column referenced by the `TABLE` expression appear in the result.

The following example produces rows only for departments that have employees.

```
SELECT d.dept_no, e.*
   FROM department_persons d, TABLE(d.dept_emps) e;
```

To get rows for departments with or without employees, you can use outer-join syntax:

```
SELECT d.dept_no, e.*
   FROM department_persons d, TABLE(d.dept_emps) (+) e;
```

The `(+)` indicates that the dependent join between `department_persons` and `e.dept_emps` should be `NULL`-augmented. That is, there will be rows of `department_persons` in the output for which `e.dept_emps` is `NULL` or empty, with `NULL` values for columns corresponding to `e.dept_emps`.

### 5.3.1.3 Unnesting Queries Containing Table Expression Subqueries

A `TABLE` expression can contain a subquery of a collection.

This is an alternative to the examples in "[Unnesting Results of Collection Queries](#)" which show a `TABLE` expression that contains the name of a collection.

[Example 5-18](#) returns the collection of employees whose department number is 101.

#### **Example 5-18 Using a Table Expression Containing a Subquery of a Collection**

```
-- Requires Ex. 5-1 and 5-3
SELECT *
   FROM TABLE(SELECT d.dept_emps
                FROM department_persons d
                WHERE d.dept_no = 101);
```

Subqueries in a `TABLE` expression have these restrictions:

- The subquery must return a collection type.
- The `SELECT` list of the subquery must contain exactly one item.
- The subquery must return only a single collection; it cannot return collections for multiple rows. For example, the subquery `SELECT dept_emps FROM department_persons` succeeds in a `TABLE` expression only if table `department_persons` contains just a single row. If the table contains more than one row, the subquery produces an error.

### 5.3.1.4 Using a Table Expression in a CURSOR Expression

You can use a `TABLE` expression in a `CURSOR` expression.

[Example 5-19](#) shows a `TABLE` expression used in the `FROM` clause of a `SELECT` embedded in a `CURSOR` expression.

#### Example 5-19 Using a Table Expression in a CURSOR Expression

```
-- Requires Ex. 5-1 and 5-3
SELECT d.dept_no, CURSOR(SELECT * FROM TABLE(d.dept_emps))
FROM department_persons d
WHERE d.dept_no = 101;
```

### 5.3.1.5 Unnesting Queries with Multilevel Collections

Unnesting queries can be also used with multilevel collections, both `varrays` and nested tables.

[Example 5-20](#) shows an unnesting query on a multilevel nested table collection of nested tables. From the table `region_tab` where each region has a nested table of countries and each country has a nested table of locations, the query returns the names of all regions, countries, and locations.

#### Example 5-20 Unnesting Queries with Multilevel Collections Using the TABLE Function

```
-- Requires Ex. 5-10 and 5-15
SELECT r.region_name, c.country_name, l.location_id
FROM region_tab r, TABLE(r.countries) c, TABLE(c.locations) l;

-- the following query is optimized to run against the locations table
SELECT l.location_id, l.city
FROM region_tab r, TABLE(r.countries) c, TABLE(c.locations) l;
```

The output should be as follows:

REGION_NAME	COUNTRY_NAME	LOCATION_ID
Europe	Italy	1000
Europe	Italy	1100
Europe	Switzerland	2900
Europe	Switzerland	3000
Europe	United Kingdom	2400
Europe	United Kingdom	2500
Europe	United Kingdom	2600

7 rows selected.

```
LOCATION_ID CITY
-----
1000 Roma
1100 Venice
2900 Geneva
3000 Bern
2400 London
2500 Oxford
2600 Stretford
```

7 rows selected.

Because no columns of the base table `region_tab` appear in the second `SELECT` list, the query is optimized to run directly against the `locations` storage table.

Outer-join syntax can also be used with queries of multilevel collections.



#### See Also:

["Viewing Object Data in Relational Form with Unnesting Queries"](#)

## 5.3.2 DML Operations on Collections

Oracle supports the following DML operations on collections:

- Inserts and updates that provide a new value for the entire collection
- Individual or piecewise updates of nested tables and multilevel nested tables, including inserting, deleting, and updating elements

Oracle does not support piecewise updates on `VARRAY` columns. However, `VARRAY` columns can be inserted into or updated as an atomic unit. This section contains these topics:

- [Performing Piecewise Operations on Nested Tables](#)
- [Updating a Nested Table](#)
- [Performing Piecewise Operations on Multilevel Nested Tables](#)
- [Performing Piecewise INSERT to Inner Nested Table](#)
- [Performing Atomical Changes on VARRAYs and Nested Tables](#)
- [Updating Collections as Atomic Data Items](#)

### 5.3.2.1 Performing Piecewise Operations on Nested Tables

For piecewise operations on nested table columns, use the `TABLE` expression.

The `TABLE` expression uses a subquery to extract the nested table, so that the `INSERT`, `UPDATE`, or `DELETE` statement applies to the nested table rather than the top-level table.

`CAST` operators are also helpful. With them, you can do set operations on nested tables using SQL notation, without actually storing the nested tables in the database.

The DML statements in [Example 5-21](#) demonstrate piecewise operations on nested table columns.



#### See Also:

- *Oracle Database SQL Language Reference*
- `CAST`

**Example 5-21 Piecewise Operations on Collections**

```
-- Requires Ex. 5-1 and 5-3
INSERT INTO TABLE(SELECT d.dept_emps
                    FROM department_persons d
                    WHERE d.dept_no = 101)
VALUES (5, 'Kevin Taylor', '1-408-555-0199');

UPDATE TABLE(SELECT d.dept_emps
              FROM department_persons d
              WHERE d.dept_no = 101) e
SET VALUE(e) = person_typ(5, 'Kevin Taylor', '1-408-555-0199')
WHERE e.idno = 5;

DELETE FROM TABLE(SELECT d.dept_emps
                   FROM department_persons d
                   WHERE d.dept_no = 101) e
WHERE e.idno = 5;
```

**5.3.2.1.1 Updating a Nested Table**

You can use `VALUE` to return object instance rows for updating.

[Example 5-22](#) shows `VALUE` used to return object instance rows for updating:

**Example 5-22 Using VALUE to Update a Nested Table**

```
-- Requires Ex. 5-1, 5-3
UPDATE TABLE(SELECT d.dept_emps FROM department_persons d
              WHERE d.dept_no = 101) p
SET VALUE(p) = person_typ(2, 'Diane Smith', '1-650-555-0148')
WHERE p.idno = 2;
```

**5.3.2.2 Performing Piecewise Operations on Multilevel Nested Tables**

Piecewise DML is possible only on multilevel nested tables, not on multilevel varrays.

You can perform DML operations atomically on both `VARRAYs` and nested tables multilevel collections as described in "[Updating Collections as Atomic Data Items](#)".

[Example 5-23](#) shows a piecewise insert operation on the `countries` nested table of nested tables. The example inserts a new country, complete with its own nested table of `location_typ`:

**Example 5-23 Piecewise INSERT on a Multilevel Collection**

```
-- Requires Ex. 5-10 and 5-15
INSERT INTO TABLE( SELECT countries FROM region_tab r WHERE r.region_id = 2)
VALUES ( 'CA', 'Canada', nt_location_typ(
        location_typ(1800, '147 Spadina Ave', 'M5V 2L7', 'Toronto', 'Ontario')));
```

**5.3.2.2.1 Performing Piecewise INSERT to Inner Nested Table**

You can use piecewise insert into an inner nested table to make an individual addition.

[Example 5-24](#) performs a piecewise insert into an inner nested table to add a location for a country. Like the preceding example, this example uses a `TABLE` expression containing a subquery that selects the inner nested table to specify the target for the insert.

**Example 5-24 Piecewise INSERT into an Inner Nested Table**

```
-- Requires Ex. 5-10 and 5-15
INSERT INTO TABLE( SELECT c.locations
  FROM TABLE( SELECT r.countries FROM region_tab r WHERE r.region_id = 2) c
  WHERE c.country_id = 'US')
  VALUES (1700, '2004 Lakeview Rd', '98199', 'Seattle', 'Washington');

SELECT r.region_name, c.country_name, l.location_id
  FROM region_tab r, TABLE(r.countries) c, TABLE(c.locations) l;
```

### 5.3.2.3 Performing Atomical Changes on VARRAYs and Nested Tables

You can make atomical changes to nested tables and VARRAYs.

Note: While nested tables can also be changed in a piecewise fashions, varrays cannot.

[Example 5-25](#) shows how you can manipulate SQL varray object types with PL/SQL statements. In this example, varrays are transferred between PL/SQL variables and SQL tables. You can insert table rows containing collections, update a row to replace its collection, and select collections into PL/SQL variables.

However, you cannot update or delete individual varray elements directly with SQL; you have to select the varray from the table, change it in PL/SQL, then update the table to include the new varray. You can also do this with nested tables, but nested tables have the option of doing piecewise updates and deletes.

**Example 5-25 Using INSERT, UPDATE, DELETE, and SELECT Statements With Varrays**

```
CREATE TYPE dnames_var IS VARRAY(7) OF VARCHAR2(30);
/
CREATE TABLE depts (region VARCHAR2(25), dept_names dnames_var);
BEGIN
  INSERT INTO depts VALUES('Europe', dnames_var('Shipping','Sales','Finance'));
  INSERT INTO depts VALUES('Americas', dnames_var('Sales','Finance','Shipping'));
  INSERT INTO depts
    VALUES('Asia', dnames_var('Finance','Payroll','Shipping','Sales'));
  COMMIT;
END;
/
DECLARE
  new_dnames dnames_var := dnames_var('Benefits', 'Advertising', 'Contracting',
    'Executive', 'Marketing');
  some_dnames dnames_var;
BEGIN
  UPDATE depts SET dept_names = new_dnames WHERE region = 'Europe';
  COMMIT;
  SELECT dept_names INTO some_dnames FROM depts WHERE region = 'Europe';
  FOR i IN some_dnames.FIRST .. some_dnames.LAST
  LOOP
    DBMS_OUTPUT.PUT_LINE('dept_names = ' || some_dnames(i));
  END LOOP;
END;
/
```

### 5.3.2.4 Updating Collections as Atomic Data Items

Multilevel collections (both `VARRAY` and nested tables) can also be updated atomically with an `UPDATE` statement. For example, suppose `v_country` is a variable declared to be of the `countries` nested table type `nt_country_typ`.

[Example 5-26](#) updates `region_tab` by setting the `countries` collection as a unit to the value of `v_country`.

The section "[Constructors for Multilevel Collections](#)" shows how to insert an entire multilevel collection with an `INSERT` statement.

#### Example 5-26 Using UPDATE to Insert an Entire Multilevel Collection

```
-- Requires Ex. 5-10 and 5-15
INSERT INTO region_tab (region_id, region_name) VALUES(2, 'Americas');

DECLARE
    v_country nt_country_typ;
BEGIN
    v_country := nt_country_typ( country_typ(
        'US', 'United States of America', nt_location_typ (
            location_typ( 1500,'2011 Interiors Blvd','99236','San Francisco','California'),
            location_typ(1600,'2007 Zagora St','50090','South Brunswick','New Jersey'))));
    UPDATE region_tab r
        SET r.countries = v_country WHERE r.region_id = 2;
END;
/
-- Invocation:
SELECT r.region_name, c.country_name, l.location_id
FROM region_tab r, TABLE(r.countries) c, TABLE(c.locations) l
WHERE r.region_id = 2;
```

### 5.3.3 Using BULK COLLECT to Return Entire Result Sets

The PL/SQL `BULK COLLECT` clause is an alternative to using DML statements, which can be time consuming to process. You can return an entire result set in one operation.

In [Example 5-27](#), `BULK COLLECT` is used with a multilevel collection that includes an object type.

#### Example 5-27 Using BULK COLLECT with Collections

```
-- unrelated to other examples in this chapter
CREATE TYPE dnames_var IS VARRAY(7) OF VARCHAR2(30);
/
CREATE TABLE depts (region VARCHAR2(25), dept_names dnames_var);
BEGIN
    INSERT INTO depts VALUES('Europe', dnames_var('Shipping','Sales','Finance'));
    INSERT INTO depts VALUES('Americas', dnames_var('Sales','Finance','Shipping'));
    INSERT INTO depts
        VALUES('Asia', dnames_var('Finance','Payroll','Shipping','Sales'));
    COMMIT;
END;
/
DECLARE
    TYPE dnames_tab IS TABLE OF dnames_var;
    v_depts dnames_tab;
```

```
BEGIN
  SELECT dept_names BULK COLLECT INTO v_depts FROM depts;
  DBMS_OUTPUT.PUT_LINE(v_depts.COUNT); -- prints 3
END;
/
```

## 5.3.4 Conditions that Compare Nested Tables

Using certain conditions, you can compare nested tables, including multilevel nested tables. There is no mechanism for comparing varrays.

The SQL examples in this section use the nested tables created in [Example 5-5](#), and contain the objects created in [Example 5-1](#).

Topics:

- [Comparing Equal and Not Equal Conditions](#)
- [Comparing the IN Condition](#)
- [Comparing Subset of Multiset Conditions](#)
- [Determining Members of a Nested Table](#)
- [Determining Empty Conditions](#)
- [Determining Set Conditions](#)

### 5.3.4.1 Comparing Equal and Not Equal Conditions

The equal (=) and not equal (<>) conditions determine whether the input nested tables are identical or not, returning the result as a Boolean value.

Two nested tables are equal if they have the same named type, have the same cardinality, and their elements are equal. Elements are equal depending on whether they are equal by the elements own equality definitions, except for object types which require a map method. Equality is determined in the existing order of the elements, because nested tables are unordered.

In [Example 5-28](#), the nested tables contain `person_typ` objects, which have an associated map method. See [Example 5-1](#). Since the two nested tables in the `WHERE` clause are not equal, no rows are selected.

#### **Example 5-28 Using an Equality Comparison with Nested Tables**

```
-- Requires Ex. 5-1 and 5-5
SELECT p.name
  FROM students, TABLE(physics_majors) p
 WHERE math_majors = physics_majors;
```

### 5.3.4.2 Comparing the IN Condition

The `IN` condition checks whether or not a nested table is in a list of nested tables, returning the result as a Boolean value. `NULL` is returned if the nested table is a null nested table.

#### **Example 5-29 Using an IN Comparison with Nested Tables**

```
-- Requires Ex. 5-1 and 5-5
SELECT p.idno, p.name
```

```
FROM students, TABLE(physics_majors) p
WHERE physics_majors IN (math_majors, chem_majors);
```

### 5.3.4.3 Comparing Subset of Multiset Conditions

The `SUBMULTISET [OF]` condition checks whether or not a nested table is a subset of another nested table, returning the result as a Boolean value. The `OF` keyword is optional and does not change the functionality of `SUBMULTISET`.

This condition is implemented only for nested tables.



#### See Also:

["Multiset Operations for Nested Tables"](#)

#### Example 5-30 Testing the `SUBMULTISET OF` Condition on a Nested Table

```
-- Requires Ex. 5-1 and 5-5
SELECT p.idno, p.name
   FROM students, TABLE(physics_majors) p
  WHERE physics_majors SUBMULTISET OF math_majors;
```

### 5.3.4.4 Determining Members of a Nested Table

The `MEMBER [OF]` or `NOT MEMBER [OF]` condition tests whether or not an element is a member of a nested table, returning the result as a Boolean value. The `OF` keyword is optional and has no effect on the output.

In [Example 5-31](#), the `person_typ` is an element of the same type as the elements of the nested table `math_majors`.

[Example 5-32](#) presents an alternative approach to the `MEMBER OF` condition, which performs more efficiently for large collections.

#### Example 5-31 Using `MEMBER OF` on a Nested Table

```
-- Requires Ex. 5-1 and 5-5
SELECT graduation
   FROM students
  WHERE person_typ(12, 'Bob Jones', '1-650-555-0130') MEMBER OF math_majors;
```

#### Example 5-32 Alternative to Using `MEMBER OF` on a Nested Table

```
-- Requires Ex. 5-1 and 5-5
SELECT graduation
   FROM students
  WHERE person_typ(12, 'Bob Jones', '1-650-555-0130') in (select value(p)
   from TABLE( math_majors) p);
```

### 5.3.4.5 Determining Empty Conditions

The `IS [NOT] EMPTY` condition checks whether a given nested table is empty or not empty, regardless of whether any of the elements are `NULL`. If a `NULL` is given for the nested table, the result is `NULL`. The result is returned as a Boolean value.

**Example 5-33 Using IS NOT on a Nested Table**

```
-- Requires Ex. 5-1 and 5-5
SELECT p.idno, p.name
   FROM students, TABLE(physics_majors) p
 WHERE physics_majors IS NOT EMPTY;
```

### 5.3.4.6 Determining Set Conditions

The `IS [NOT] A SET` condition checks whether or not a given nested table is composed of unique elements, returning a Boolean value.

**Example 5-34 Using IS A SET on a Nested Table**

```
-- Requires Ex. 5-1 and 5-5
SELECT p.idno, p.name
   FROM students, TABLE(physics_majors) p
 WHERE physics_majors IS A SET;
```

### 5.3.5 Multiset Operations for Nested Tables

You can use [multiset operators](#) for nested tables. Multiset operations are not available for varrays.

The SQL examples in this section use the nested tables created in [Example 5-5](#) and the objects created in [Example 5-1](#).

**See Also:**

- "[Functions and Operators Useful with Objects](#)" for a description of additional operations
- *Oracle Database SQL Language Reference*.for more information about using operators with nested tables

#### 5.3.5.1 CARDINALITY

The `CARDINALITY` function returns the number of elements in a nested table. The return type is `NUMBER`. If the nested table is a null collection, `NULL` is returned.

**Example 5-35 Determining the CARDINALITY of a Nested Table**

```
-- Requires Ex. 5-1 and 5-5
SELECT CARDINALITY(math_majors)
   FROM students;
```

For more information about the `CARDINALITY` function, see *Oracle Database SQL Language Reference*.

#### 5.3.5.2 COLLECT

The `COLLECT` function is an aggregate function which creates a multiset from a set of elements. The function takes a column of the element type as input and creates a

multiset from rows selected. To get the results of this function, you must use it within a `CAST` function to specify the output type of `COLLECT`.

 **See Also:**

- See "[CAST](#)" for an example of the `COLLECT` function.
- For more information about the `COLLECT` function, see *Oracle Database SQL Language Reference*.

### 5.3.5.3 MULTISSET EXCEPT

The `MULTISSET EXCEPT` operator inputs two nested tables and returns a nested table whose elements are in the first nested table but not the second. The input nested tables and the output nested table will all be of the same nested table type.

The `ALL` or `DISTINCT` options can be used with the operator. The default is `ALL`.

- With the `ALL` option, for `ntab1 MULTISSET EXCEPT ALL ntab2`, all elements in `ntab1` other than those in `ntab2` are part of the result. If a particular element occurs  $m$  times in `ntab1` and  $n$  times in `ntab2`, the result shows  $(m - n)$  occurrences of the element if  $m$  is greater than  $n$ , otherwise, 0 occurrences of the element.
- With the `DISTINCT` option, any element that is present in `ntab1` and is also present in `ntab2` is eliminated, irrespective of the number of occurrences.

#### Example 5-36 Using the `MULTISSET EXCEPT` Operation on Nested Tables

```
-- Requires Ex. 5-1 and 5-5
SELECT math_majors MULTISSET EXCEPT physics_majors
       FROM students
WHERE graduation = '01-JUN-03';
```

 **See Also:**

For more information about the `MULTISSET EXCEPT` operator, see *Oracle Database SQL Language Reference*.

### 5.3.5.4 MULTISSET INTERSECT

The `MULTISSET INTERSECT` operator returns a nested table whose values are common to the two input nested tables. The input nested tables and the output nested table are all type name equivalent.

There are two options associated with the operator: `ALL` or `DISTINCT`. The default is `ALL`. With the `ALL` option, if a particular value occurs  $m$  times in `ntab1` and  $n$  times in `ntab2`, the result contains the element  $\text{MIN}(m, n)$  times. With the `DISTINCT` option, the duplicates from the result are eliminated, including duplicates of `NULL` values if they exist.

**Example 5-37 Using the MULTiset INTERSECT Operation on Nested Tables**

```
-- Requires Ex. 5-1 and 5-5
SELECT math_majors MULTiset INTERSECT physics_majors
       FROM students
WHERE graduation = '01-JUN-03';
```

 **See Also:**

For more information about the MULTiset INTERSECT operator, see *Oracle Database SQL Language Reference*.

### 5.3.5.5 MULTiset UNION

The MULTiset UNION operator returns a nested table whose values are those of the two input nested tables. The input nested tables and the output nested table are all type name equivalent.

There are two options associated with the operator: ALL or DISTINCT. The default is ALL. With the ALL option, all elements in *ntab1* and *ntab2* are part of the result, including all copies of NULLS. If a particular element occurs *m* times in *ntab1* and *n* times in *ntab2*, the result contains the element (*m* + *n*) times. With the DISTINCT option, the duplicates from the result are eliminated, including duplicates of NULL values if they exist.

**Example 5-38 Using the MULTiset UNION Operation on Nested Tables**

```
-- Requires Ex. 5-1 and 5-5
SELECT math_majors MULTiset UNION DISTINCT physics_majors
       FROM students
WHERE graduation = '01-JUN-03';

PEOPLE_TYP(PERSON_TYP(12, 'Bob Jones', '1-650-555-0130'),
           PERSON_TYP(31, 'Sarah Chen', '1-415-555-0120'),
           PERSON_TYP(45, 'Chris Woods', '1-408-555-0128'))
```

```
-- Requires Ex. 5-1 and 5-5
SELECT math_majors MULTiset UNION ALL physics_majors
       FROM students
WHERE graduation = '01-JUN-03';
```

Output:

```
PEOPLE_TYP(PERSON_TYP(12, 'Bob Jones', '1-650-555-0130'),
           PERSON_TYP(31, 'Sarah Chen', '1-415-555-0120'),
           PERSON_TYP(45, 'Chris Woods', '1-408-555-0128'),
           PERSON_TYP(12, 'Bob Jones', '1-650-555-0130'),
           PERSON_TYP(45, 'Chris Woods', '1-408-555-0128'))
```

 **See Also:**

For more information about the `MULTISET UNION` operator, see *Oracle Database SQL Language Reference*.

### 5.3.5.6 POWERMULTISET

The `POWMULTISET` function generates all non-empty submultisets from a given multiset. The input to the `POWMULTISET` function can be any expression which evaluates to a multiset. The limit on the cardinality of the multiset argument is 32.

#### Example 5-39 Using the `POWMULTISET` Operation on Multiset

```
-- Requires Ex. 5-1 and 5-5
SELECT * FROM TABLE(POWMULTISET( people_typ (
    person_typ(12, 'Bob Jones', '1-650-555-0130'),
    person_typ(31, 'Sarah Chen', '1-415-555-0120'),
    person_typ(45, 'Chris Woods', '1-415-555-0124'))));
```

 **See Also:**

For more information about the `POWMULTISET` function, see *Oracle Database SQL Language Reference*.

### 5.3.5.7 POWERMULTISET\_BY\_CARDINALITY

The `POWMULTISET_BY_CARDINALITY` function returns all non-empty submultisets of a nested table of the specified cardinality. The output is rows of nested tables.

`POWMULTISET_BY_CARDINALITY(x, l)` is equivalent to `TABLE(POWMULTISET(x)) p` where `CARDINALITY(value(p)) = l`, where `x` is a multiset and `l` is the specified cardinality.

The first input parameter to the `POWMULTISET_BY_CARDINALITY` can be any expression which evaluates to a nested table. The length parameter must be a positive integer, otherwise an error is returned. The limit on the cardinality of the nested table argument is 32.

#### Example 5-40 Using the `POWMULTISET_BY_CARDINALITY` Function

```
-- Requires Ex. 5-1 and 5-5
SELECT * FROM TABLE(POWMULTISET_BY_CARDINALITY( people_typ (
    person_typ(12, 'Bob Jones', '1-650-555-0130'),
    person_typ(31, 'Sarah Chen', '1-415-555-0120'),
    person_typ(45, 'Chris Woods', '1-415-555-0124')),2));
```

 **See Also:**

For more information about the `POWMULTISET_BY_CARDINALITY` function, see *Oracle Database SQL Language Reference*.

### 5.3.5.8 SET

The `SET` function converts a nested table into a set by eliminating duplicates, and returns a nested table whose elements are distinct from one another. The nested table returned is of the same named type as the input nested table.

#### Example 5-41 Using the SET Function on a Nested Table

```
-- Requires Ex. 5-1 and 5-5
SELECT SET(physics_majors)
   FROM students
 WHERE graduation = '01-JUN-03';
```

#### See Also:

For more information about the `SET` function, see *Oracle Database SQL Language Reference*.

## 5.4 Partitioning Tables That Contain Oracle Objects

Partitioning addresses the key problem of supporting very large tables and indexes by allowing you to decompose them into smaller and more manageable pieces called partitions.

Oracle extends partitioning capabilities by letting you partition tables that contain objects, `REFS`, `varrays`, and nested tables. `Varrays` stored in `LOBs` are equipartitioned in a way similar to `LOBs`. Nested table storage tables will be equipartitioned with the base table.

#### See Also:

For further information on equipartitioning

- *Oracle Database SecureFiles and Large Objects Developer's Guide*
- *Oracle Database VLDB and Partitioning Guide*
- *Oracle XML DB Developer's Guide*

**Example 5-42** partitions the purchase order table along zip codes (`ToZip`), which is an attribute of the `ShipToAddr` embedded column object. The `LineItemList_nt` nested table illustrates storage for the partitioned nested table.

#### Example 5-42 Partitioning a Nested Table That Contains Objects

```
CREATE TYPE StockItem_objtyp AS OBJECT (
    StockNo NUMBER,
    Price NUMBER,
    TaxRate NUMBER);
/

CREATE TYPE LineItem_objtyp AS OBJECT (
```

```
        LineItemNo NUMBER,
        Stock_ref REF StockItem_objtyp,
        Quantity NUMBER,
        Discount NUMBER);
/

CREATE TYPE Address_objtyp AS OBJECT (
    Street VARCHAR2(200),
    City VARCHAR2(200),
    State CHAR(2),
    Zip VARCHAR2(20))
/

CREATE TYPE LineItemList_nt as table of LineItem_objtyp;
/

CREATE TYPE PurchaseOrder_ntyp AS OBJECT (
    PONO          NUMBER,
    OrderDate     DATE,
    ShipDate      DATE,
    OrderForm     BLOB,
    LineItemList  LineItemList_nt,
    ShipToAddr    Address_objtyp,

    MAP MEMBER FUNCTION
        ret_value RETURN NUMBER,
    MEMBER FUNCTION
        total_value RETURN NUMBER);
/

CREATE TABLE PurchaseOrders_ntab of PurchaseOrder_ntyp
LOB (OrderForm) store as (nocache logging)
NESTED TABLE LineItemList STORE AS LineItemList_ntab
PARTITION BY RANGE (ShipToAddr.zip)
(PARTITION PurOrderZone1_part VALUES LESS THAN ('59999')
LOB (OrderForm) store as (
storage (INITIAL 10 MINEXTENTS 10 MAXEXTENTS 100))
NESTED TABLE LineItemList store as LineitemZone1_part(
storage (INITIAL 10 MINEXTENTS 10 MAXEXTENTS 100)),
PARTITION PurOrderZone2_part VALUES LESS THAN ('79999')
LOB (OrderForm) store as (
storage (INITIAL 10 MINEXTENTS 10 MAXEXTENTS 100))
NESTED TABLE LineItemList store as LineitemZone2_part(
storage (INITIAL 10 MINEXTENTS 10 MAXEXTENTS 100)),
PARTITION PurOrderZone3_part VALUES LESS THAN ('99999')
LOB (OrderForm) store as (
storage (INITIAL 10 MINEXTENTS 10 MAXEXTENTS 100))
NESTED TABLE LineItemList store as LineitemZone3_part(
storage (INITIAL 10 MINEXTENTS 10 MAXEXTENTS 100)) )
/
```

# 6

## Applying an Object Model to Relational Data

You can write object-oriented applications without changing the underlying structure of your relational data.

Topics:

- [Why Use Object Views](#)
- [Defining Object Views](#)
- [Object Views Used in Applications](#)
- [Objects Nested in Object Views](#)
- [Identifying Null Objects in Object Views](#)
- [Nested Tables and Varrays Used in Object Views](#)
- [Object Identifiers for Object Views](#)
- [References Created to View Objects](#)
- [Inverse Relationships Modelled with Object Views](#)
- [Object View Manipulations](#)
- [Applying the Object Model to Remote Tables](#)
- [Defining Complex Relationships in Object Views](#)
- [Object View Hierarchies](#)

### 6.1 Why Use Object Views

Just as a view is a virtual table, an object view is a virtual object table. Each row in the view is an object: you can call its methods, access its attributes using the dot notation, and create a `REF` that points to it.

You can run object-oriented applications without converting existing tables to a different physical structure. To do this, you can use object views to prototype or transition to object-oriented applications because the data in the view can be taken from relational tables and accessed as if the table were defined as an object table.

Object views can be used like relational views to present only the data that you want users to see. For example, you might create an object view that presents selected data from an employee table but omits sensitive data about salaries.

Using object views can lead to better performance. Relational data that makes up a row of an object view traverses the network as a unit, potentially saving many round trips.

You can fetch relational data into the client-side object cache and map it into C structures or C++ or Java classes, so 3GL applications can manipulate it just like

native classes. You can also use object-oriented features like complex object retrieval with relational data.

- You can query the data in new ways by synthesizing objects from relational data. You can view data from multiple tables by using object dereferencing instead of writing complex joins with multiple tables.
- You can pin the object data from object views and use the data in the client side object cache. When you retrieve these synthesized objects in the object cache by means of specialized object-retrieval mechanisms, you reduce network traffic.
- You gain great flexibility when you create an object model within a view, enabling you to continue developing the model. If you need to alter an object type, you can simply replace the invalidated views with a new definition.
- You do not place any restrictions on the characteristics of the underlying storage mechanisms by using objects in views. By the same token, you are not limited by the restrictions of current technology. For example, you can synthesize objects from relational tables which are parallelized and partitioned.
- You can create different complex data models from the same underlying data.

#### See Also:

- *Oracle Database SQL Language Reference* for a complete description of SQL syntax and usage
- *Oracle Database PL/SQL Language Reference* for a complete discussion of PL/SQL capabilities
- *Oracle Database Java Developer's Guide* for a complete discussion of Java
- *Oracle Call Interface Programmer's Guide* for a complete discussion of those facilities

## 6.2 Defining Object Views

Object views allow you to present only data that you want users to see.

The procedure for defining an object view is:

1. Define an object type, where each attribute of the type corresponds to an existing column in a relational table.
2. Write a query that specifies how to extract the data from the relational table. Specify the columns in the same order as the attributes in the object type.
3. Specify a unique value, based on attributes of the underlying data, to serve as an object identifier, enabling you to create pointers (*REFS*) to the objects in the view. You can often use an existing primary key.

#### See Also:

["Object Identifiers Used to Identify Row Objects"](#)

To update an object view where the attributes of the object type do not correspond exactly to columns in existing tables, you may need to do the following:

Write an `INSTEAD OF` trigger procedure for Oracle to execute whenever an application program tries to update data in the object view. See "[Object View Manipulations](#)".

After these steps, you can use an object view just like an object table.

[Example 6-1](#) contains SQL statements to define an object view, where each row in the view is an object of type `employee_t`:

### Example 6-1 Creating an Object View

```
CREATE TABLE emp_table (
  empnum  NUMBER (5),
  ename   VARCHAR2 (20),
  salary  NUMBER (9,2),
  job     VARCHAR2 (20));

CREATE TYPE employee_t AS OBJECT (
  empno   NUMBER (5),
  ename   VARCHAR2 (20),
  salary  NUMBER (9,2),
  job     VARCHAR2 (20));
/

CREATE VIEW emp_view1 OF employee_t
  WITH OBJECT IDENTIFIER (empno) AS
  SELECT e.empnum, e.ename, e.salary, e.job
     FROM emp_table e
     WHERE job = 'Developer';

insert into emp_table values(1,'John',1000.00,'Architect');
insert into emp_table values(2,'Robert',900.00,'Developer');
insert into emp_table values(3,'James',2000.00,'Director');

select * from emp_view1;
```

EMPNO	ENAME	SALARY	JOB
2	Robert	900	Developer

To access the data from the `empnum` column of the relational table, access the `empno` attribute of the object type.

## 6.3 Object Views Used in Applications

Data in the rows of an object view may come from more than one table, but the object view still traverses the network in one operation. The instance appears in the client side object cache as a C or C++ structure or as a PL/SQL object variable. You can manipulate it like any other native structure.

You can refer to object views in SQL statements in the same way you refer to an object table. For example, object views can appear in a `SELECT` list, in an `UPDATE-SET` clause, or in a `WHERE` clause.

You can also define object views on object views.

You can access object view data on the client side using the same OCI calls you use for objects from object tables. For example, you can use `OCIObjectPin()` for [pinning](#) a `REF` and `OCIObjectFlush()` for flushing an object to the server. When you update or flush an object to the database in an object view, the database updates the object view.



#### See Also:

See *Oracle Call Interface Programmer's Guide* for more information about OCI calls.

## 6.4 Objects Nested in Object Views

An object type can have other object types nested in it as attributes.

If the object type on which an object view is based has an attribute that itself is an object type, then you must provide column objects for this attribute as part of the process of creating the object view. If column objects of the attribute type already exist in a relational table, you can simply select them; otherwise, you must synthesize the object instances from underlying relational data just as you synthesize the principal object instances of the view. You synthesize, or create, these objects by calling the respective constructor methods of the object type to create the object instances, and you can populate their attributes with data from relational columns specified in the constructor.

For example, consider the department table `dept` in [Example 6-2](#). You might want to create an object view where the addresses are objects inside the department objects. That would allow you to define reusable methods for address objects, and use them for all kinds of addresses.

First, create the types for the address and department objects, then create the view containing the department number, name and address. The `address` objects are constructed from columns of the relational table.

### Example 6-2 Creating a View with Nested Object Types

```
CREATE TABLE dept (
  deptno      NUMBER PRIMARY KEY,
  deptname    VARCHAR2(20),
  deptstreet  VARCHAR2(20),
  deptcity    VARCHAR2(10),
  deptstate   CHAR(2),
  deptzip     VARCHAR2(10));

CREATE TYPE address_t AS OBJECT (
  street  VARCHAR2(20),
  city    VARCHAR2(10),
  state   CHAR(2),
  zip     VARCHAR2(10));
/
CREATE TYPE dept_t AS OBJECT (
  deptno      NUMBER,
  deptname    VARCHAR2(20),
  address     address_t );
/
```

```

CREATE VIEW dept_view OF dept_t WITH OBJECT IDENTIFIER (deptno) AS
  SELECT d.deptno, d.deptname,
         address_t(d.deptstreet,d.deptcity,d.deptstate,d.deptzip) AS
         deptaddr
  FROM dept d;

insert into dept values(1,'Sales','500 Oracle pkwy','Redwood S','CA','94065');
insert into dept values(2,'ST','400 Oracle Pkwy','Redwood S','CA','94065');
insert into dept values(3,'Apps','300 Oracle pkwy','Redwood S','CA','94065');

select * from dept_view;

      DEPTNO DEPTNAME
-----
ADDRESS(STREET, CITY, STATE, ZIP)
-----
          1 Sales
ADDRESS_T('500 Oracle pkwy', 'Redwood S', 'CA', '94065')

          2 ST
ADDRESS_T('400 Oracle Pkwy', 'Redwood S', 'CA', '94065')

          3 Apps
ADDRESS_T('300 Oracle pkwy', 'Redwood S', 'CA', '94065')

```

## 6.5 Identifying Null Objects in Object Views

You can identify null objects in object views.

Because the constructor for an object never returns a null, none of the address objects in the preceding view, [Example 6-2](#) can ever be null, even if the city, street, and similar columns in the relational table are all null. The relational table has no column that specifies whether or not the department address is null.

- Use the `DECODE` function, or a similar function, to return either a null or the constructed object.

In [Example 6-3](#) the null `deptstreet` column can be used to indicate that the whole address is null.

The null `deptstreet` column can be used to indicate that the whole address is null.

### Example 6-3 Identifying Null Objects in an Object View

```

-- Requires Ex. 6-2
CREATE OR REPLACE VIEW dept_view AS
  SELECT d.deptno, d.deptname,
         DECODE(d.deptstreet, NULL, NULL,
         address_t(d.deptstreet, d.deptcity, d.deptstate, d.deptzip)) AS deptaddr
  FROM dept d;

```

This technique makes it impossible to directly update the department address through the view, because it does not correspond directly to a column in the relational table. Instead, define an `INSTEAD OF` trigger over the view to handle updates to this column.

## 6.6 Nested Tables and Varrays Used in Object Views

Collections, both nested tables and `VARRAYS`, can be columns in views. You can select these collections from underlying collection columns or you can synthesize them using subqueries. The `CAST-MULTISET` operator provides a way of synthesizing such collections.

This section contains the following topics:

- [Single-Level Collections in Object Views](#)
- [Multilevel Collections in Object Views](#)

### 6.6.1 Single-Level Collections in Object Views

You can create an object view with a single level connection.

Using [Example 6-1](#) and [Example 6-2](#) as starting points, each employee in an `emp` relational table has the structure in [Example 6-4](#). Using this relational table, you can construct a `dept_view` with the department number, name, address and a collection of employees belonging to the department.

First, define a nested table type for the employee type `employee_t`. Next, define a department type with a department number, name, address, and a nested table of employees. Finally, define the object view `dept_view`.

The `SELECT` subquery inside the `CAST-MULTISET` block selects the list of employees that belong to the current department. The `MULTISET` keyword indicates that this is a list as opposed to a singleton value. The `CAST` operator casts the result set into the appropriate type, in this case to the `employee_list_t` nested table type.

A query on this view could provide the list of departments, with each department row containing the department number, name, the address object and a collection of employees belonging to the department.

#### Example 6-4 Creating a View with a Single-Level Collection

```
-- Requires Ex. 6-1 and Ex. 6-2
CREATE TABLE emp (
  empno    NUMBER PRIMARY KEY,
  empname  VARCHAR2(20),
  salary   NUMBER,
  job      VARCHAR2 (20),
  deptno   NUMBER REFERENCES dept(deptno));

CREATE TYPE employee_list_t AS TABLE OF employee_t; -- nested table
/
CREATE TYPE dept_t AS OBJECT (
  deptno    NUMBER,
  deptname  VARCHAR2(20),
  address   address_t,
  emp_list  employee_list_t);
/
CREATE VIEW dept_view OF dept_t WITH OBJECT IDENTIFIER (deptno) AS
  SELECT d.deptno, d.deptname,
         address_t(d.deptstreet,d.deptcity,d.deptstate,d.deptzip) AS deptaddr,
         CAST( MULTISET (
                   SELECT e.empno, e.empname, e.salary, e.job
```

```

                FROM emp e
                WHERE e.deptno = d.deptno)
            AS employee_list_t)
        AS emp_list
    FROM dept d;

insert into dept values(100,'ST','400 Oracle Pkwy','Redwood S','CA',94065);
insert into dept values(200,'Sales','500 Oracle Pkwy','Redwood S','CA',94065);
insert into emp values(1,'John',900,'Developer1',100);

insert into emp values(2,'Robert',1000,'Developer2',100);
insert into emp values(3,'Mary', 1000,'Apps1',200);
insert into emp values(4,'Maria',1500,'Developer3',200);
select * from dept_view where deptno = 100;

        DEPTNO DEPTNAME
-----
ADDRESS(STREET, CITY, STATE, ZIP)
-----
EMP_LIST(EMPNO, ENAME, SALARY, JOB)
-----
        100 ST
ADDRESS_T('400 Oracle Pkwy', 'Redwood S', 'CA', '94065')
EMPLOYEE_LIST_T(EMPLOYEE_T(1, 'John', 900, 'Developer1'), EMPLOYEE_T(2, 'Robert'
, 1000, 'Developer2'))

select emp_list from dept_view where deptno = 100;

EMP_LIST(EMPNO, ENAME, SALARY, JOB)
-----
EMPLOYEE_LIST_T(EMPLOYEE_T(1, 'John', 900, 'Developer1'), EMPLOYEE_T(2, 'Robert'
, 1000, 'Developer2'))

```

## 6.6.2 Multilevel Collections in Object Views

You can create to view and query objects.

Multilevel collections and single-level collections are created and used in object views in the same way. The only difference is that, for a multilevel collection, you must create an additional level of collections.

**Example 6-5** builds an object view containing a multilevel collection. The view is based on flat relational tables that contain no collections. As a preliminary to building the object view, the example creates the object and collection types it uses. An object type (for example, `emp_t`) is defined to correspond to each relational table, with attributes whose types correspond to the types of the respective table columns. In addition, the employee type has a nested table (attribute) of projects, and the department type has a nested table (attribute) of employees. The latter nested table is a multilevel collection. The `CAST-MULTISET` operator is used in the `CREATE VIEW` statement to build the collections.

### Example 6-5 Creating a View with Multilevel Collections

```

CREATE TABLE depts
  ( deptno      NUMBER,
    deptname    VARCHAR2(20));

CREATE TABLE emps
  ( ename VARCHAR2(20),

```

```

        salary    NUMBER,
        deptname  VARCHAR2(20));

CREATE TABLE projects
  ( projname    VARCHAR2(20),
    mgr         VARCHAR2(20));

CREATE TYPE project_t AS OBJECT
  ( projname    VARCHAR2(20),
    mgr         VARCHAR2(20));
/
CREATE TYPE nt_project_t AS TABLE OF project_t;
/
CREATE TYPE emp_t AS OBJECT
  (  ename      VARCHAR2(20),
    salary     NUMBER,
    deptname   VARCHAR2(20),
    projects   nt_project_t );
/
CREATE TYPE nt_emp_t AS TABLE OF emp_t;
/
CREATE TYPE depts_t AS OBJECT
  ( deptno     NUMBER,
    deptname   VARCHAR2(20),
    emps       nt_emp_t );
/
CREATE VIEW v_depts OF depts_t WITH OBJECT IDENTIFIER (deptno) AS
  SELECT d.deptno, d.deptname,
         CAST(MULTISET(SELECT e.ename, e.salary, e.deptname,
                           CAST(MULTISET(SELECT p.projname, p.mgr
                                         FROM projects p
                                         WHERE p.mgr = e.ename)
                               AS nt_project_t)
         FROM emps e
         WHERE e.deptname = d.deptname)
         AS nt_emp_t)
  FROM depts d;

```

## 6.7 Object Identifiers for Object Views

You can construct pointers (REFS) to the row objects in an object view. Because the view data is not stored persistently, you must specify a set of distinct values to be used as object identifiers. Object identifiers allow you to reference the objects in object views and pin them in the object cache.

If the view is based on an object table or an object view, then there is already an object identifier associated with each row and you can reuse them. To do this, either omit the `WITH OBJECT IDENTIFIER` clause or specify `WITH OBJECT IDENTIFIER DEFAULT`.

However, if the row object is synthesized from relational data, you must choose some other set of values.

You can specify object identifiers based on the primary key. This turns the set of unique keys that identify the row object into an identifier for the object. These values must be unique within the rows selected out of the view, because duplicates would lead to problems during navigation through object references.

- Object views created with the `WITH OBJECT IDENTIFIER` Clause

An object view created with the `WITH OBJECT IDENTIFIER` clause has an object identifier derived from the primary key.

For example, note the definition of the object type `dept_t` and the object view `dept_view` described in "[Single-Level Collections in Object Views](#)".

Because the underlying relational table has `deptno` as the primary key, each department row has a unique department number. In the view, the `deptno` column becomes the `deptno` attribute of the object type. Once you know that `deptno` is unique within the view objects, you can specify it as the object identifier.

- Object views created with the `WITH OBJECT IDENTIFIER DEFAULT` Clause  
If the `WITH OBJECT IDENTIFIER DEFAULT` clause is specified, the object identifier is either system-generated or primary-key based, depending on the underlying table or view definition.

#### See Also:

- "[Object Identifiers Used to Identify Row Objects](#)" for a description of primary-key based and system-generated object identifiers
- See "[Storage Considerations for Object Identifiers \(OIDs\)](#)".

## 6.8 References Created to View Objects

In this connected group of examples, [Example 6-2](#) and [Example 6-4](#), each object selected out of the `dept_view` view has a unique object identifier derived from the department number value. In the relational case, the foreign key `deptno` in the `emp` employee table matches the `deptno` primary key value in the `dept` department table. The primary key value creates the object identifier in the `dept_view`, allowing the foreign key value in the `emp_view` to create a reference to the primary key value in `dept_view`.

To synthesize a primary key object reference, use the `MAKE_REF` operator. This takes the view or table name that the reference points to, and a list of foreign key values, to create the object identifier portion of the reference that matches a specific object in the referenced view.

[Example 6-6](#) creates an `emp_view` view which has the employee's number, name, salary and a reference to the employee's department, by first creating the employee type `emp_t` and then the view based on that type.

### Example 6-6 Creating a Reference to Objects in a View

```
-- Requires Ex. 6-2 and Ex. 6-4
-- if you have previously created emp_t, you must drop it
CREATE TYPE emp_t AS OBJECT (
    empno    NUMBER,
    ename    VARCHAR2(20),
    salary   NUMBER,
    deptref  REF dept_t);
/
CREATE OR REPLACE VIEW emp_view OF emp_t WITH OBJECT IDENTIFIER(empno)
AS SELECT e.empno, e.empname, e.salary,
```

```

                MAKE_REF(dept_view, e.deptno)
FROM emp e;

```

The `deptref` column in the view holds the department reference. The following simple query retrieves all employees whose departments are located in the city of Redwood S:

```

SELECT e.empno, e.salary, e.deptref.deptno
FROM emp_view e
WHERE e.deptref.address.city = 'Redwood S';

```

EMPNO	SALARY	DEPTREF.DEPTNO
2	1000	100
1	900	100
4	1500	200
3	1000	200

Note that you can also create `emp_view` using the `REF` modifier instead of `MAKE_REF` as shown in [Example 6-7](#) to get the reference to the `dept_view` objects:

## 6.9 Creating References to Objects with REF

You can create views using a `REF` modifier to get references to objects.

### Example 6-7 Query References to Objects with REF

```

-- Requires Ex. 6-2, Ex. 6-4, and Ex. 6-6
CREATE OR REPLACE VIEW emp_view OF emp_t WITH OBJECT IDENTIFIER(empno)
AS SELECT e.empno, e.empname, e.salary, REF(d)
FROM emp e, dept_view d
WHERE e.deptno = d.deptno;

```

In [Example 6-7](#), the `dept_view` joins the `emp` table on the `deptno` key.

The advantage of using the `MAKE_REF` operator, as in [Example 6-6](#), instead of the `REF` modifier is that with the former, you can create circular references. For example, you can create an employee view that has a reference to the employee's department, while the department view has a list of references to the employees who work in that department.

As with synthesized objects, you can also select persistently stored references as view columns and use them seamlessly in queries. However, the object references to view objects cannot be stored persistently.



**See Also:**

["Object Cache"](#)

## 6.10 Inverse Relationships Modelled with Object Views

You can use views with objects to model inverse relationships.

### One-to-One Relationships

One-to-one relationships can be modeled with inverse object references. For example, suppose that each employee has a particular desktop computer, and that the computer belongs to that employee only.

A relational model would capture this using foreign keys either from the computer table to the employee table, or in the reverse direction. Using views, you can model the objects so there is an object reference from the employee to the computer object and also a reference from the computer object to the employee.

### One-to-Many and Many-to-One Relationships

One-to-many relationships (or many-to-many relationships) can be modeled either by using object references or by embedding the objects.

One-to-many relationship can be modeled by having a collection of objects or object references. The many-to-one side of the relationship can be modeled using object references.

Consider the department-employee case. In the underlying relational model, the foreign key is in the employee table. The relationship between departments and employees can be modeled using collections in views. The department view can have a collection of employees, and the employee view can have a reference to the department (or inline the department values). This gives both the forward relation (from employee to department) and the inverse relation (department to list of employees). The department view can also have a collection of references to employee objects instead of embedding the employee objects.

## 6.11 Object View Manipulations

You can update, insert, and delete data in an object view using the same SQL DML you use for object tables. Oracle updates the base tables of the object view if there is no ambiguity.

Views are not always directly updatable.

A view is not directly updatable if the view query contains joins, set operators, aggregate functions, or `GROUP BY` or `DISTINCT` clauses. Also, individual columns of a view are not directly updatable if they are based on pseudocolumns or expressions in the view query.

If a view is not directly updatable, you can still update it indirectly using `INSTEAD OF` triggers. To do so, you define an `INSTEAD OF` trigger for each kind of DML statement you want to execute on the view. In the `INSTEAD OF` trigger, code the operations that must take place on the underlying tables of the view to accomplish the desired change in the view. Then, when you issue a DML statement for which you have defined an `INSTEAD OF` trigger, Oracle transparently runs the associated trigger.

 **Note:**

In an object view hierarchy, `UPDATE` and `DELETE` statements operate polymorphically just as `SELECT` statements do: the set of rows picked out by an `UPDATE` or `DELETE` statement on a view implicitly includes qualifying rows in any subviews of the specified view as well.

For example, the following statement, which deletes all persons from `Person_v`, also deletes all students from `Student_v` and all employees from the `Employee_v` view.

```
DELETE FROM Person_v;
```

To exclude subviews and restrict the affected rows to just those in the view specified, use the `ONLY` keyword. For example, the following statement updates only persons and not employees or students.

```
UPDATE ONLY(Person_v) SET address = ...
```

 **See Also:**

- ["INSTEAD OF Triggers to Control Mutating and Validation"](#) for an example of an `INSTEAD OF` trigger
- ["Object View Hierarchies"](#) for a discussion of object view hierarchy and examples defining `Student_v` and `Employee_v` views

## 6.11.1 Nested Table Columns Updated in Views

You can modify a nested table by inserting new elements and updating or deleting existing elements. Nested table columns that are virtual or synthesized, as in a view, are not usually updatable. To overcome this, Oracle allows `INSTEAD OF` triggers to be created on these columns.

The `INSTEAD OF` trigger defined on a nested table column (of a view) is fired when the column is modified. Note that if the entire collection is replaced (by an update of the parent row), the `INSTEAD OF` trigger on the nested table column is not fired.

## 6.11.2 INSTEAD OF Triggers to Control Mutating and Validation

You can update complex views with `INSTEAD OF` triggers.

`INSTEAD OF` triggers provide a way to update complex views that otherwise could not be updated. They can also be used to enforce constraints, check privileges, and validate DML statements. Using these triggers, you can control mutation that might be caused by inserting, updating, and deleting in the objects created through an object view.

For instance, to enforce the condition that the number of employees in a department cannot exceed 10, you can write an `INSTEAD OF` trigger for the employee view. The

trigger is not needed to execute the DML statement because the view can be updated, but you need it to enforce the constraint.

[Example 6-8](#) shows how to implement the trigger by means of SQL statements.

### Example 6-8 Creating INSTEAD OF Triggers on a View

```
-- Requires Ex. 6-2, Ex. 6-4, and Ex. 6-6
CREATE TRIGGER emp_instr INSTEAD OF INSERT ON emp_view
FOR EACH ROW
DECLARE
    dept_var dept_t;
    emp_count integer;
BEGIN
    -- Enforce the constraint
    -- First get the department number from the reference
    UTL_REF.SELECT_OBJECT(:NEW.deptref, dept_var);

    SELECT COUNT(*) INTO emp_count
    FROM emp
    WHERE deptno = dept_var.deptno;
    IF emp_count < 9 THEN
        -- Do the insert
        INSERT INTO emp (empno, empname, salary, deptno)
        VALUES (:NEW.empno, :NEW.ename, :NEW.salary, dept_var.deptno);
    END IF;
END;
/
```



#### See Also:

["Defining Triggers for Object Tables"](#)

## 6.12 Applying the Object Model to Remote Tables

Although you cannot directly access remote tables as object tables, object views let you access remote tables as if they were object tables.

Consider a company with two branches; one in Washington D.C. and another in Chicago. Each site has an employee table. The headquarters in Washington has a department table with a list of all the departments. To get a total view of the entire organization, you can create views over the individual remote tables and then a overall view of the organization.

To this requires the following:

- Update the entry in `listener.ora`, such as: `(ADDRESS=(PROTOCOL=tcp)(HOST=stadv07.us.example.com)(PORT=1640))`
- Add entries to `tnsnames.ora`, such as: `chicago=(DESCRIPTION=(ADDRESS=(PROTOCOL=ipc)(KEY=linux))(CONNECT_DATA=(SERVICE_NAME=linux.regress.rdbms.dev.us.example.com)))`
- Provide `CREATE DATABASE LINK` code as shown in [Example 6-9](#)

[Example 6-9](#) begins by creating an object view for each employee table and then creates the global view.

**Example 6-9 Creating an Object View to Access Remote Tables**

```
-- Requires Ex. 6-2, Ex. 6-4, and Ex. 6-6
-- Example requires DB links, such as these, modify for your use and uncomment
-- CREATE DATABASE LINK chicago CONNECT TO hr IDENTIFIED BY hr USING 'inst1';
-- CREATE DATABASE LINK washington CONNECT TO hr IDENTIFIED BY hr USING 'inst1';
CREATE VIEW emp_washington_view (eno, ename, salary, job)
  AS SELECT e.empno, e.empname, e.salary, e.job
     FROM emp@washington e;

CREATE VIEW emp_chicago_view (eno, ename, salary, job)
  AS SELECT e.empno, e.empname, e.salary, e.job
     FROM emp@chicago e;

CREATE VIEW orgnzn_view OF dept_t WITH OBJECT IDENTIFIER (deptno)
  AS SELECT d.deptno, d.deptname,
     address_t(d.deptstreet,d.deptcity,d.deptstate,d.deptzip) AS deptaddr,
     CAST( MULTISSET (
           SELECT e.eno, e.ename, e.salary, e.job
           FROM emp_washington_view e)
           AS employee_list_t) AS emp_list
     FROM dept d
     WHERE d.deptcity = 'Washington'
UNION ALL
  SELECT d.deptno, d.deptname,
     address_t(d.deptstreet,d.deptcity,d.deptstate,d.deptzip) AS deptaddr,
     CAST( MULTISSET (
           SELECT e.eno, e.ename, e.salary, e.job
           FROM emp_chicago_view e)
           AS employee_list_t) AS emp_list
     FROM dept d
     WHERE d.deptcity = 'Chicago';
```

This view has a list of all employees for each department. The `UNION ALL` clause is used because employees cannot work in more than one department.

## 6.13 Defining Complex Relationships in Object Views

You can define circular references in object views using the `MAKE_REF` operator: `view_A` can refer to `view_B` which in turn can refer to `view_A`. This allows an object view to synthesize a complex structure such as a graph from relational data.

For example, in the case of the department and employee, the department object currently includes a list of employees. To conserve space, you may want to put references to the employee objects inside the department object, instead of materializing all the employees within the department object. You can construct (pin) the references to employee objects, and later follow the references using the dot notation to extract employee information.

Because the employee object already has a reference to the department in which the employee works, an object view over this model contains circular references between the department view and the employee view.

You can create circular references between object views in two different ways:

 **Note:**

Both ways to create circular references require the setup described in "[Tables and Types to Demonstrate Circular View References](#)".

- First View After Second View
  1. Create view A without any reference to view B.
  2. Create view B, which includes a reference to view A.
  3. Replace view A with a new definition that includes the reference to view B.

See the example in "[Method 1: Re-create First View After Creating Second View](#)"
- First View Using the `FORCE` Keyword
  1. Create view A with a reference to view B using the `FORCE` keyword.
  2. Create view B with a reference to view A. When view A is used, it is validated and re-compiled.

See the example in "[Method 2: Create First View Using FORCE Keyword](#)"

Method 2 has fewer steps, but the `FORCE` keyword may hide errors in the view creation. You need to query the `USER_ERRORS` catalog view to see if there were any errors during the view creation. Use this method only if you are sure that there are no errors in the view creation statement.

Also, if errors prevent the views from being recompiled upon use, you must recompile them manually using the `ALTER VIEW COMPILE` command.

Perform the setup described next before attempting to use either method of creating circular view references.

## 6.13.1 Tables and Types to Demonstrate Circular View References

First, you need set up some relational tables and associated object types. Although the tables contain some objects, they are not object tables. To access the data objects, you will create object views later.

The `emp` table stores the employee information:

### Example 6-10 Creating `emp` table to demonstrate circular references

```
CREATE TABLE emp
( empno    NUMBER PRIMARY KEY,
  empname  VARCHAR2(20),
  salary   NUMBER,
  deptno   NUMBER );

-- first create a dummy, that is, incomplete, department type, so emp_t type
-- created later will succeed

CREATE TYPE dept_t;
/

-- Create the employee type with a reference to the department, dept_t:
CREATE TYPE emp_t AS OBJECT
```

```

( eno NUMBER,
  ename VARCHAR2(20),
  salary NUMBER,
  deptref REF dept_t );
/

-- Represent the list of references to employees as a nested table:
CREATE TYPE employee_list_ref_t AS TABLE OF REF emp_t;
/

-- Create the department table as a relational table
CREATE TABLE dept
( deptno      NUMBER PRIMARY KEY,
  deptname    VARCHAR2(20),
  deptstreet  VARCHAR2(20),
  deptcity    VARCHAR2(10),
  deptstate   CHAR(2),
  deptzip     VARCHAR2(10) );

-- Create object types that map to columns from the relational tables:
CREATE TYPE address_t AS OBJECT
( street      VARCHAR2(20),
  city        VARCHAR2(10),
  state       CHAR(2),
  zip         VARCHAR2(10));
/

-- Fill in the definition for dept_t, the incomplete type you previously created:
CREATE OR REPLACE TYPE dept_t AS OBJECT
( dno         NUMBER,
  dname       VARCHAR2(20),
  deptaddr    address_t,
  empreflist  employee_list_ref_t);
/

```

As [Example 6-10](#) indicates, you must create the `emp` table, then create a dummy department type, `dept_t` which will enable the `emp_t` type to succeed once you create it. After that, create `emp_t` with a reference to `dept_t`. Create a list of references to employees as a nested table, `employee_list_ref_t` and create the department table, `dept`. Then create an object type, `address_t` that has columns mapping to the relational tables, and finally fill in the definition for the incomplete `dept_t`.

The following is example data you could use:

```

insert into emp values(1,'John','900',100);
insert into emp values(2,'james','1000',100);
insert into emp values(3,'jack',2000,200);

```

## 6.13.2 Creating Object Views with Circular References

You can create object views with circular references.

If you have established the underlying relational table definitions, as described in [Defining Complex Relationships in Object Views](#), you can create the object views on top of them.

Topics:

- [Method 1: Re-create First View After Creating Second View](#)

- [Method 2: Create First View Using FORCE Keyword](#)

### 6.13.2.1 Method 1: Re-create First View After Creating Second View

You can recreate the first view after creating the second view.

First create the employee view with a null in the `deptref` column. Later, you can turn that column into a reference.

Next, create the department view, which includes references to the employee objects. This creates a list of references to employee objects, instead of including the entire employee object.

Next, re-create the employee view with the reference to the department view.

#### Example 6-11 Creating an Object View with a Circular Reference, Method 1

```
-- Requires Ex. 6-10
CREATE VIEW emp_view OF emp_t WITH OBJECT IDENTIFIER(eno)
  AS SELECT e.empno, e.empname, e.salary, NULL
     FROM emp e;

-- create department view, including references to the employee objects
CREATE VIEW dept_view OF dept_t WITH OBJECT IDENTIFIER(dno)
  AS SELECT d.deptno, d.deptname,
     address_t(d.deptstreet,d.deptcity,d.deptstate,d.deptzip),
     CAST( MULTISSET (
           SELECT MAKE_REF(emp_view, e.empno)
           FROM emp e
           WHERE e.deptno = d.deptno)
     AS employee_list_ref_t)
  FROM dept d;

CREATE OR REPLACE VIEW emp_view OF emp_t WITH OBJECT IDENTIFIER(eno)
  AS SELECT e.empno, e.empname, e.salary,
     MAKE_REF(dept_view, e.deptno)
  FROM emp e;
```

This creates the views.

### 6.13.2.2 Method 2: Create First View Using FORCE Keyword

You can force creation of a first view even if the other view does not yet exist.

If you are sure that the view creation statement has no syntax errors, you can use the `FORCE` keyword to force the creation of the first view without the other view being present.

First, create an employee view that includes a reference to the department view, which does not exist at this point. This view cannot be queried until the department view is created properly.

Next, create a department view that includes references to the employee objects. You do not have to use the `FORCE` keyword here, because `emp_view` already exists. This allows you to query the department view, getting the employee object by dereferencing the employee reference from the nested table `empreflist`.

**Note:**

If you previously ran [Example 6-11](#), remove the views you created before running [Example 6-12](#).

**Example 6-12 Creating view with FORCE Method 2**

```
-- Requires Ex. 6-10
-- create employee view
CREATE OR REPLACE FORCE VIEW emp_view OF emp_t WITH OBJECT IDENTIFIER(eno)
  AS SELECT e.empno, e.empname, e.salary,
           MAKE_REF(dept_view, e.deptno)
  FROM emp e;

-- create a department view that includes references to the employee objects
CREATE OR REPLACE VIEW dept_view OF dept_t WITH OBJECT IDENTIFIER(dno)
  AS SELECT d.deptno, d.deptname,
           address_t(d.deptstreet,d.deptcity,d.deptstate,d.deptzip),
           CAST( MULTISSET (
                 SELECT MAKE_REF(emp_view, e.empno)
                 FROM emp e
                 WHERE e.deptno = d.deptno)
           AS employee_list_ref_t)
  FROM dept d;

-- Querying with DEREf method
SELECT DEREf(e.COLUMN_VALUE)
  FROM TABLE( SELECT e.empreflist FROM dept_view e WHERE e.dno = 100) e;
```

`COLUMN_VALUE` is a special name that represents the scalar value in a scalar nested table. In this case, `COLUMN_VALUE` denotes the reference to the employee objects in the nested table `empreflist`.

You can also access the employee number only, for all those employees whose name begins with John.

**Example 6-13 Querying with COLUMN\_VALUE**

```
-- Requires Ex. 6-10 and 6-12
SELECT e.COLUMN_VALUE.eno
  FROM TABLE(SELECT e.empreflist FROM dept_view e WHERE e.dno = 100) e
 WHERE e.COLUMN_VALUE.ename like 'John%';
```

To get a tabular output, unnest the list of references by joining the department table with the items in its nested table:

**Example 6-14 Querying with COLUMN\_VALUE, Unnesting References**

```
-- Requires Ex. 6-10 and 6-12
SELECT d.dno, e.COLUMN_VALUE.eno, e.COLUMN_VALUE.ename
  FROM dept_view d, TABLE(d.empreflist) e
 WHERE e.COLUMN_VALUE.ename like 'John%'
 AND d.dno = 100;
```

Finally, you can rewrite the preceding query to use the `emp_view` instead of the `dept_view` to show how to navigate from one view to the other:

**Example 6-15 Querying with COLUMN\_VALUE, Querying emp\_view**

```
-- Requires Ex. 6-10 and 6-12
SELECT e.deptref.dno, Deref(f.COLUMN_VALUE)
  FROM emp_view e, TABLE(e.deptref.empreflist) f
 WHERE e.deptref.dno = 100
 AND f.COLUMN_VALUE.ename like 'John%';
```

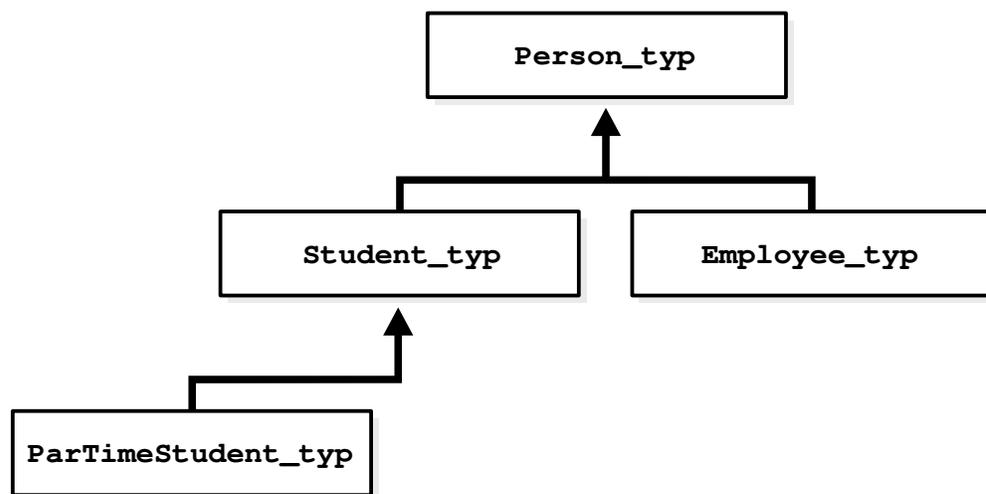
## 6.14 Object View Hierarchies

An object view hierarchy is a set of object views each of which is based on a different type in a type hierarchy. Subviews in a view hierarchy are created under a superview, analogously to the way subtypes in a type hierarchy are created under a supertype.

Each object view in a view hierarchy is populated with objects of a single type, but queries on a given view implicitly address its subviews as well. Thus an object view hierarchy gives you a simple way to frame queries that can return a polymorphic set of objects of a given level of specialization or greater.

For example, suppose you have the following type hierarchy, with `person_typ` as the root:

**Figure 6-1 Object Type Hierarchy**



If you have created an object view hierarchy based on this type hierarchy, with an object view built on each type, you can query the object view that corresponds to the level of specialization you are interested in. For instance, you can query the view of `student_typ` to get a result set that contains only students, including part-time students.

You can base the root view of an object view hierarchy on any type in a type hierarchy: you do not need to start the object view hierarchy at the root type. Nor do you need to extend an object view hierarchy to every leaf of a type hierarchy or cover every branch. However, you cannot skip intervening subtypes in the line of descent. Any subview must be based on a direct subtype of the type of its direct superview.

Just as a type can have multiple sibling subtypes, an object view can have multiple sibling subviews. However, a subview based on a given type can participate in only

one object view hierarchy: two different object view hierarchies cannot each have a subview based on the same subtype.

A subview inherits the object identifier (OID) from its superview. An OID cannot be explicitly specified in any subview.

A root view can explicitly specify an object identifier using the `WITH OBJECT ID` clause. If the OID is system-generated or the clause is not specified in the root view, then subviews can be created only if the root view is based on a table or view that also uses a system-generated OID.

The query underlying a view determines whether or not the view is updatable. For a view to be updatable, its query must contain no joins, set operators, aggregate functions, `GROUP BY` clause, `DISTINCT` clause, pseudocolumns, or expressions. The same applies to subviews.

If a view is not updatable, you can define `INSTEAD OF` triggers to perform appropriate DML actions. Note that `INSTEAD OF` triggers are not inherited by subviews.

All views in a view hierarchy must be in the same schema.

 **Note:**

You can create views of types that are non-instantiable. A non-instantiable type cannot have instances, so ordinarily there would be no point in creating an object view of such a type. However, a non-instantiable type can have subtypes that *are* instantiable. The ability to create object views of non-instantiable types enables you to base an object view hierarchy on a type hierarchy that contains a non-instantiable type.

## 6.14.1 Creating an Object View Hierarchy

You build an object view hierarchy by creating subviews under a root view. You do this by using the `UNDER` keyword in the `CREATE VIEW` statement, as show in [Example 6-17](#).

The same object view hierarchy can be based on different underlying storage models. In other words, a variety of layouts or designs of underlying tables can produce the same object view hierarchy. The design of the underlying storage model affects the performance and updatability of the object view hierarchy.

Three possible storage models are described. In the first, a flat model, all views in the object view hierarchy are based on the same table. In the second, a horizontal model, each view has a one-to-one correspondence with a different table. And in the third, a vertical model, the views are constructed using joins.

To execute any of these storage models, first create types shown in [Example 6-16](#).

### Example 6-16 Creating Types for Storage Model Examples

```
CREATE TYPE person_typ AS OBJECT
( ssn NUMBER,
  name VARCHAR2(30),
  address VARCHAR2(100)) NOT FINAL;

CREATE TYPE student_typ UNDER person_typ
```

```
( deptid NUMBER,
  major VARCHAR2(30)) NOT FINAL;/

CREATE TYPE employee_typ UNDER person_typ
( empid NUMBER,
  mgr VARCHAR2(30));/
```

Topics:

- [The Flat Model](#)
- [The Horizontal Model](#)
- [The Vertical Model](#)

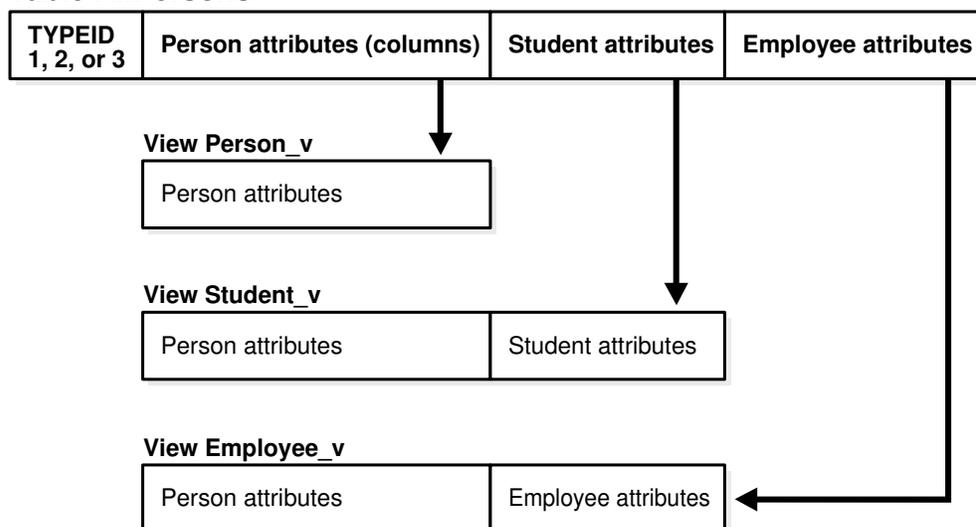
### 6.14.1.1 The Flat Model

In the flat model, all the views in the hierarchy are based on the same table.

In the following example, the single table `AllPersons` contains columns for all the attributes of `person_typ`, `student_typ`, and `employee_typ`.

**Figure 6-2 Flat Storage Model for Object View Hierarchy**

**Table AllPersons**



The `typeid` column identifies the type of each row. These possible values are the types created in [Example 6-16](#), 1 = `person_typ`, 2 = `student_typ`, and 3 = `employee_typ`:

[Example 6-17](#) creates the table `AllPersons` and then the views that make up the object view hierarchy:

#### **Example 6-17 Creating an Object View Hierarchy**

```
-- Requires Ex. 6-16
CREATE TABLE AllPersons
( typeid NUMBER(1),
  ssn NUMBER,
  name VARCHAR2(30),
```

```

address VARCHAR2(100),
deptid NUMBER,
major VARCHAR2(30),
empid NUMBER,
mgr VARCHAR2(30));

CREATE VIEW Person_v OF person_typ
WITH OBJECT OID(ssn) AS
SELECT ssn, name, address
FROM AllPersons
WHERE typeid = 1;

CREATE VIEW Student_v OF student_typ UNDER Person_v
AS
SELECT ssn, name, address, deptid, major
FROM AllPersons
WHERE typeid = 2;

CREATE VIEW Employee_v OF employee_typ UNDER Person_v
AS
SELECT ssn, name, address, empid, mgr
FROM AllPersons
WHERE typeid = 3;

```

The flat model has the advantage of simplicity and poses no obstacles to supporting indexes and constraints. Its drawbacks are:

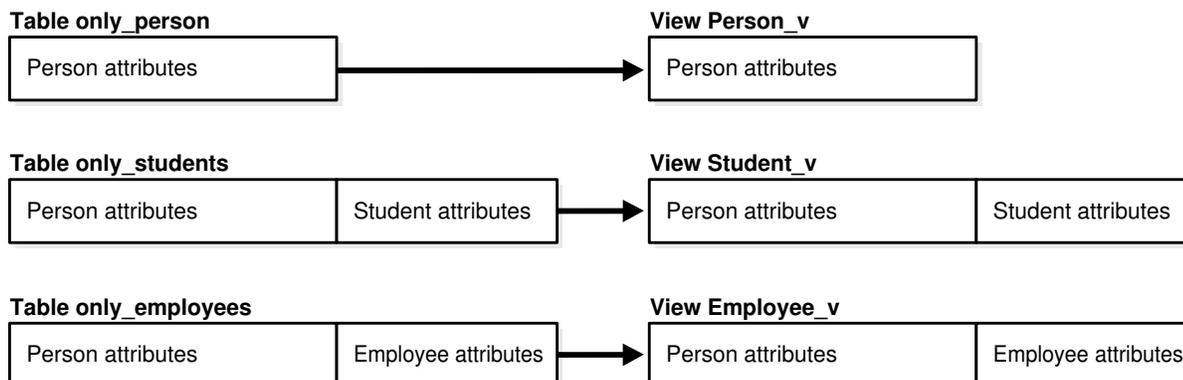
- A single table cannot contain more than 1000 columns, so the flat model imposes a 1000-column limit on the total number of columns that the object view hierarchy can contain.
- Each row of the table will have NULLs for all the attributes not belonging to its type. Such non-trailing NULLs can adversely affect performance.

### 6.14.1.2 The Horizontal Model

On the horizontal model, each view or subview is based on a different table.

In the example, the tables are relational, but they could just as well be object tables for which column substitutability is turned off.

**Figure 6-3 Horizontal Storage Model for Object View Hierarchy**



[Example 6-18](#) creates tables and then views based on these tables.

**Example 6-18 -- Creating Table Horizontal Model**

```
-- Requires Ex. 6-16 and Ex. 6-17
CREATE TABLE only_persons
( ssn NUMBER,
  name VARCHAR2(30),
  address VARCHAR2(100));

CREATE TABLE only_students
( ssn NUMBER,
  name VARCHAR2(30),
  address VARCHAR2(100),
  deptid NUMBER,
  major VARCHAR2(30));

CREATE TABLE only_employees
( ssn NUMBER,
  name VARCHAR2(30),
  address VARCHAR2(100),
  empid NUMBER,
  mgr VARCHAR2(30));

CREATE OR REPLACE VIEW Person_v OF person_typ
WITH OBJECT OID(ssn) AS
SELECT *
FROM only_persons;

CREATE OR REPLACE VIEW Student_v OF student_typ UNDER Person_v
AS
SELECT *
FROM only_students;

CREATE OR REPLACE VIEW Employee_v OF employee_typ UNDER Person_v
AS
SELECT *
FROM only_employees;
```

The horizontal model is very efficient at processing queries of the form:

**Example 6-19 -- Querying views horizontal model**

```
-- Requires Ex. 6-16 and Ex. 6-17
-- add the following data
insert into only_persons values(1234,'John','abc');
insert into only_students values(1111,'James','abc',100,'CS');
insert into only_employees values(2222,'jack','abc',400,'Juliet');

SELECT VALUE(p) FROM Person_v p
WHERE VALUE(p) IS OF (ONLY student_typ);

OUTPUT:
VALUE(P)(SSN, NAME, ADDRESS)
-----
STUDENT_TYP(1111, 'James', 'abc', 100, 'CS')
```

Such queries only need to access a single physical table to get all the objects of the specific type. The drawbacks of this model are that queries such as `SELECT * FROM view` require performing a `UNION` over all the underlying tables and projecting the rows over just the columns in the specified view. Also, indexes on attributes (and unique constraints) must span multiple tables, and support for this does not currently exist.

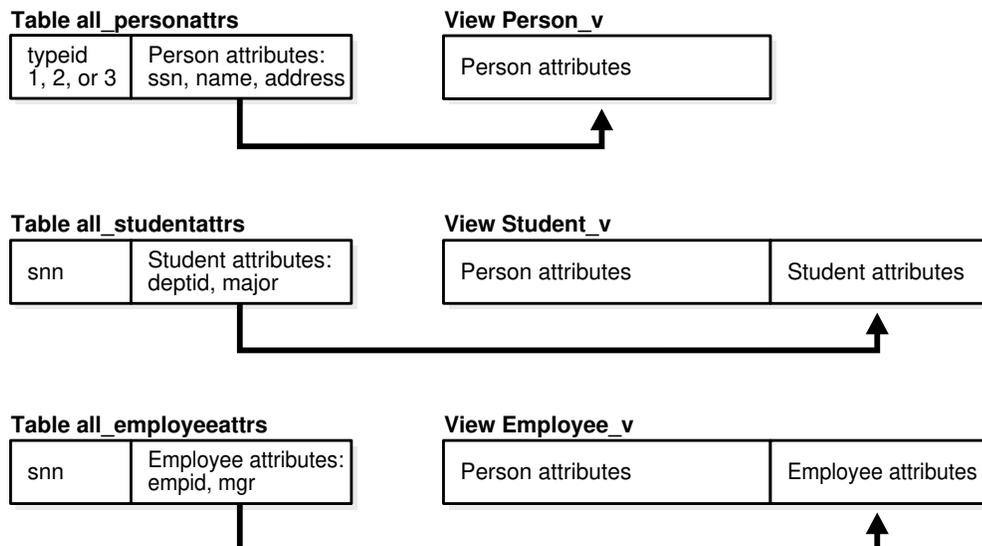
**See Also:**["About Querying a View in a Hierarchy"](#).

### 6.14.1.3 The Vertical Model

In the vertical model, there is a physical table corresponding to each view in the hierarchy.

However, the physical tables store only those attributes that are unique to their corresponding subtypes.

**Figure 6-4 Vertical Storage Model for Object View Hierarchy**



[Example 6-20](#) creates tables and then corresponding views.

#### **Example 6-20 Creating table, views vertical model**

```

CREATE TABLE all_personattrs
( typeid NUMBER,
  ssn NUMBER,
  name VARCHAR2(30),
  address VARCHAR2(100));

CREATE TABLE all_studentattrs
( ssn NUMBER,
  deptid NUMBER,
  major VARCHAR2(30));

CREATE TABLE all_employeeattrs
( ssn NUMBER,
  empid NUMBER,
  mgr VARCHAR2(30));

CREATE OR REPLACE VIEW Person_v OF person_typ

```

```

WITH OBJECT OID(ssn) AS
  SELECT ssn, name, address
  FROM all_personattrs
  WHERE typeid = 1;

CREATE OR REPLACE VIEW Student_v OF student_typ UNDER Person_v
AS
  SELECT x.ssn, x.name, x.address, y.deptid, y.major
  FROM all_personattrs x, all_studentattrs y
  WHERE x.typeid = 2 AND x.ssn = y.ssn;

CREATE OR REPLACE VIEW Employee_v OF employee_typ UNDER Person_v
AS
  SELECT x.ssn, x.name, x.address, y.empid, y.mgr
  FROM all_personattrs x, all_employeetrans y
  WHERE x.typeid = 3 AND x.ssn = y.ssn;

```

The vertical model can efficiently process queries of the kind `SELECT * FROM root_view`, and it is possible to index individual attributes and impose unique constraints on them. However, to re-create an instance of a type, a join over object identifiers (OIDs) must be performed for each level that the type is removed from the root in the hierarchy.

## 6.14.2 About Querying a View in a Hierarchy

You can query any view or subview in an object view hierarchy.

The query returns rows for the declared type of the view that you query and for any of the subtypes of that type.

So, for instance, in an object view hierarchy based on the `person_typ` type hierarchy, you can query the view of `person_typ` to get a result set that contains all persons, including students and employees; or you can query the view of `student_typ` to get a result set that contains only students, including part-time students.

In the `SELECT` list of a query, you can include either functions such as `REF()` and `VALUE()` that return an object instance, or you can specify object attributes of the declared type of the view, such as the `name` and `ssn` attributes of `person_typ`.

If you specify functions, to return object instances, the query returns a polymorphic result set: that is, it returns instances of both the declared type of the view and any subtypes of that type.

For example, the following query returns instances of persons, employees, and students of all types, as well as `REFs` to those instances.

### Example 6-21 Query with REF and Value

```

-- Requires Ex. 6-20
insert into all_personattrs values(1,1111,'John','abc');
insert into all_personattrs values(2,2222,'Jack','def');
insert into all_personattrs values(3,3333,'James','ghi');
insert into all_studentattrs values(2222,100,'CS');
insert into all_employeetrans values(3333,444,'Julia');
SELECT REF(p), VALUE(p) FROM Person_v p;

```

```

OUTPUT:
REF(P)
-----

```

```

VALUE(P)(SSN, NAME, ADDRESS)
-----

```



To simplify the process of granting `SELECT` privileges on an entire view hierarchy, you can use the `HIERARCHY` option. Specifying the `HIERARCHY` option when granting a user `SELECT` privileges on a view implicitly grants `SELECT` privileges on all current and future subviews of the view as well. For example:

```
GRANT SELECT ON Person_v TO user WITH HIERARCHY OPTION;
```

A query that excludes rows belonging to subviews also requires `SELECT` privileges on all subviews. The reason is that information about which rows belong exclusively to the most specific type of an instance may be sensitive, so the system requires `SELECT` privileges on subviews for queries (such as the following one) that exclude all rows from subviews.

```
SELECT * FROM ONLY(Person_v);
```

# 7

## Managing Oracle Objects

This chapter explains how Oracle objects work in combination with the rest of the database, and how to perform DML and DDL operations on them. It contains the following major sections:

- [Privileges on Object Types and Their Methods](#)
- [Type Dependencies](#)
- [Synonyms for Object Types](#)
- [Performance Tuning](#)

### 7.1 Privileges on Object Types and Their Methods

Privileges for object types exist at the system level and the schema object level.

Topics:

- [System Privileges for Object Types](#)
- [Schema Object Privileges](#)
- [Types Used in New Types or Tables](#)
- [Example: Privileges on Object Types](#)
- [Access Privileges on Objects, Types, and Tables](#)

#### 7.1.1 System Privileges for Object Types

Oracle database defines the following system privileges for object types:

- `CREATE TYPE` enables you to create object types in your own schema
- `CREATE ANY TYPE` enables you to create object types in any schema
- `ALTER ANY TYPE` enables you to alter object types in any schema
- `DROP ANY TYPE` enables you to drop named types in any schema
- `EXECUTE ANY TYPE` enables you to use and reference named types in any schema
- `UNDER ANY TYPE` enables you to create subtypes under any non-final object types
- `UNDER ANY VIEW` enables you to create subviews under any object view

The following roles are helpful:

- The `RESOURCE` role includes the `CREATE TYPE` system privilege.
- The `DBA` role includes all of these privileges.

#### 7.1.2 Schema Object Privileges

Two schema object privileges apply to object types:

- `EXECUTE` enables you to use the type to:
  - Define a table.
  - Define a column in a relational table.
  - Declare a variable or parameter of the named type.

`EXECUTE` lets you invoke the methods of a type, including the constructor.

Method execution and the associated permissions are the same as for stored PL/SQL procedures.

- `UNDER` enables you to create a subtype or subview under the type or view on which the privilege is granted.

Only a grantor with the `UNDER` privilege `WITH GRANT OPTION` on the direct supertype or superview can grant the `UNDER` privilege on a subtype or subview.

The phrase `WITH HIERARCHY OPTION` grants a specified object privilege on all subtypes of the object. This option is meaningful only with the `SELECT` object privilege granted on an object view in an object view hierarchy. In this case, the privilege applies to all subviews of the view on which the privilege is granted.

### 7.1.3 Types Used in New Types or Tables

In addition to the permissions detailed in the previous sections, you need specific privileges to:

- Create types or tables that use types created by other users.
- Grant use of your new types or tables to other users.

You must have either the `EXECUTE ANY TYPE` system privilege or the `EXECUTE` object privilege for any type used to define a new type or table. You must have been granted these privileges explicitly, and not through a role.

To grant access to your new type or table to other users, you must have either the required `EXECUTE` object privileges with the `GRANT` option or the `EXECUTE ANY TYPE` system privilege with the option `WITH ADMIN OPTION`. You must have been granted these privileges explicitly, not through a role.

### 7.1.4 Example: Privileges on Object Types

This section presents several related examples, creating users or schemas and then granting privileges on them.

[Example 7-1](#) creates three users or schemas, `USER1`, `USER2`, and `USER3`, and grants them the `CREATE SESSION` and `RESOURCE` roles. Some of the subsequent examples in this chapter use these schemas.

This example requires you to create and use several passwords. If you plan to run the example, make these changes to your SQL code first.

 **Note:**

For simplicity, this example does not perform the password management techniques that a deployed system normally uses. In a production environment, follow the Oracle Database password management guidelines, and disable any sample accounts.

 **See Also:**

See *Oracle Database Security Guide* for password management guidelines and other security recommendations.

**Example 7-1 Creating User Schemas**

```
-- Requires passwords
CONNECT SYSTEM
-- Enter password
CREATE USER user1 PROFILE default
    IDENTIFIED BY password DEFAULT TABLESPACE example ACCOUNT UNLOCK;
GRANT CREATE SESSION TO user1;
GRANT RESOURCE TO user1;
GRANT CREATE SYNONYM TO user1;
GRANT CREATE PUBLIC SYNONYM TO user1;
GRANT DROP PUBLIC SYNONYM TO user1;
CREATE USER user2 PROFILE default
    IDENTIFIED BY password DEFAULT TABLESPACE example ACCOUNT UNLOCK;
GRANT CREATE SESSION TO user2;
GRANT RESOURCE TO user2;
CREATE USER user3 PROFILE default
    IDENTIFIED BY password DEFAULT TABLESPACE example ACCOUNT UNLOCK;
GRANT CREATE SESSION TO user3;
GRANT RESOURCE TO user3;
```

**Example 7-2** requires the input of a password, USER1 performs the CREATE and GRANT Data Definition Language (DDL) statements in the USER1 schema:

**Example 7-2 Granting Privileges on Object Types**

```
CREATE TYPE type1 AS OBJECT ( attr1 NUMBER );
/
CREATE TYPE type2 AS OBJECT ( attr2 NUMBER );
/
GRANT EXECUTE ON type1 TO user2;
GRANT EXECUTE ON type2 TO user2 WITH GRANT OPTION;
```

In **Example 7-3**, USER2 performs the CREATE DDL statement in the USER2 schema:

**Example 7-3 Performing DDL Statements in USER2 Schema**

```
-- Requires Ex. 7-1, 7-2 and password input
CONNECT user2
-- Enter password
CREATE TABLE tabl OF user1.type1;
CREATE TYPE type3 AS OBJECT ( attr3 user1.type2 );
```

```

/
CREATE TABLE tab2 (col1 user1.type2 );

```

In [Example 7-4](#), the first two statements succeed because USER2 was granted the EXECUTE privilege with the GRANT option on USER1's TYPE2 in the last line of [Example 7-2](#) and [Example 7-3](#) created type3 as an object using attr3 user1.type2.

However, the last grant [Example 7-4](#) fails because USER2 has not been granted the EXECUTE privilege with the GRANT option on USER1.TYPE1.

#### Example 7-4 Performing Grants to USER3

```

-- Requires Ex. 7-1, 7-2, and 7-3
GRANT EXECUTE ON type3 TO user3;
GRANT SELECT ON tab2 TO user3;

-- Privileges on Object Types
GRANT SELECT ON tab1 TO user3 -- incorrect statement;

```

In [Example 7-5](#), USER3 has the necessary privileges to perform the following actions:

#### Example 7-5 Creating Tables and Types

```

-- Requires Ex. 7-1, 7-2, 7-3, and 7-4
CONNECT user3
-- Enter password
CREATE TYPE type4 AS OBJECT (attr4 user2.type3);
/
CREATE TABLE tab3 OF type4;

```

## 7.1.5 Access Privileges on Objects, Types, and Tables

Object types only make use of the EXECUTE privilege.

However, object tables use all the same privileges as relational tables:

- READ or SELECT lets you access an object and its attributes from the table.
- UPDATE lets you modify attributes of objects in the table.
- INSERT lets you add new objects to the table.
- DELETE lets you delete objects from the table.

Similar table and column privileges regulate the use of table columns of object types.

Selecting columns of an object table does not require privileges on the type of the object table. Selecting the entire [row object](#), however, does.

Consider the schema and queries created below in [Example 7-6](#):

#### Example 7-6 SELECT Privileges on Type Access

```

-- Requires Ex. 7-1, 7-2, 7-3, 7-4, and 7-5
CREATE TYPE emp_type AS OBJECT (
  eno      NUMBER,
  ename    VARCHAR2(36));
/
CREATE TABLE emp OF emp_type; // an object table
GRANT SELECT ON emp TO user1;
SELECT VALUE(e) FROM emp e;
SELECT eno, ename FROM emp;

```

For both queries, Oracle database checks the user's `SELECT` privilege for the object table `emp`. For the first query, the user needs to obtain the `emp_type` type information to interpret the data. When the query accesses the `emp_type` type, the database checks the user's `EXECUTE` privilege.

The second query, however, does not involve named types, so the database does not check type privileges.

Additionally, `USER3` can perform queries such as these:

```
SELECT t.col1.attr2 from user2.tab2 t;  
SELECT t.attr4.attr3.attr2 FROM tab3 t;
```

Note that in both queries, `USER3` does not have explicit privileges on the underlying type. However, the statement succeeds because the type and table owners have the necessary privileges with the `GRANT` option.

Oracle database checks privileges on the following requests and returns an error if the requestor does not have the privilege for the action:

- Pinning an object in the object cache using its `REF` value causes the database to check the `READ` or `SELECT` privilege on the object table containing the object and the `EXECUTE` privilege on the object type.
- Modifying an existing object or flushing an object from the object cache causes the database to check the `UPDATE` privilege on the destination object table. Flushing a new object causes the database to check the `INSERT` privilege on the destination object table.
- Deleting an object causes the database to check the `DELETE` privilege on the destination table.
- Invoking a method causes the database to check the `EXECUTE` privilege on the corresponding object type.

Oracle database does not provide column level privileges for object tables.

#### See Also:

*Oracle Call Interface Programmer's Guide* for tips and techniques for using OCI program effectively with objects

## 7.2 Type Dependencies

Type dependencies fall into two broad categories:

- Situations where types depend upon each other for their definitions, where one type might be part of the definition of another type.
- Situations where creating or dropping types is complicated by dependencies that the type has such, as tables or types.

This section covers the following topics:

- [Creating Incomplete Types](#)
- [Completing Incomplete Types](#)

- [Recompiling a Type Manually](#)
- [Using CREATE OR REPLACE TYPE with Type and Table Dependencies](#)
- [Type Dependencies of Substitutable Tables and Columns](#)
- [The DROP TYPE FORCE Option](#)
- [Creating a Type Synonym](#)
- [Using a Type Synonym](#)

## 7.2.1 Creating Incomplete Types

Types that depend on each other for their definitions, either directly or through intermediate types, are called mutually dependent. For example, you might want to define object types `employee` and `department` in such a way that one attribute of `employee` is the department the employee belongs to and one attribute of `department` is the employee who manages the department.

If you visualize a diagram with arrows showing the relationships among a set of mutually dependent types, the connections form a loop. To define such a circular dependency, you must use `REFs` for at least one segment of the circle.

For example, you can define the types shown in [Example 7-7](#).

### Example 7-7 Creating Dependent Object Types

```
-- Requires Ex. 7-1 and password
CONNECT user1
-- Enter password
ALTER SESSION SET PLSQL_WARNINGS = 'enable:all';

CREATE TYPE department; // a placeholder
/

CREATE TYPE employee AS OBJECT (
  name  VARCHAR2(30),
  dept  REF department,
  supv  REF employee );
/

CREATE TYPE emp_list AS TABLE OF employee;
/

CREATE TYPE department AS OBJECT (
  name  VARCHAR2(30),
  mgr   REF employee,
  staff emp_list );
/
```

This is a legal set of mutually dependent types and a legal sequence of SQL DDL statements. Oracle database compiles it without errors.

Notice that the code in [Example 7-7](#) creates the type `department` twice. The first statement is an optional, incomplete declaration of `department` that serves as a placeholder for the `REF` attribute of `employee` to point to. The declaration is incomplete in that it omits the `AS OBJECT` phrase and lists no attributes or methods. These are specified later in the full declaration that completes the type. In the meantime, `department` is created as an incomplete object type. This enables the compilation of `employee` to proceed without errors.

If you do not create incomplete types as placeholders, types that refer to the missing types still compile, but the compilation proceeds with errors. For example, if `department` did not exist at all, Oracle database would create it as an incomplete type and compile `employee` with errors. Then `employee` would be recompiled the next time that some operation accesses it. This time, if all the types it depends on have been created and its dependencies are satisfied, it compiles without errors.

Incomplete types also enable you to create types that contain `REF` attributes to a subtype that has not yet been created. To create such a supertype, first create an incomplete type of the subtype to be referenced. Create the complete subtype after you create the supertype.

## 7.2.2 Completing Incomplete Types

When you have created all the types referenced by an incomplete type, complete the declaration of the incomplete type, because there is no longer any need for it to remain incomplete.

Completing the type recompiles it and enables the system to release various locks. You complete the type with a `CREATE TYPE` statement.

- Execute a `CREATE TYPE` statement that specifies the attributes and methods of the type, as shown at the end of [Example 7-7](#).

Also, you must complete any incomplete types that the database creates for you. If, as discussed in the preceding section, you did not explicitly create `department` as an incomplete type, then the database did. In this case, you still need to complete it.

You must complete an incomplete object type as an object type: you cannot complete an object type as a collection type (a nested table type or an array type). The only alternative is to drop the type.

## 7.2.3 Recompiling a Type Manually

If a type was created with compilation errors, and you attempt an operation on it, such as creating tables or inserting rows, you may receive an error. You need to recompile the type before attempting the operation. You recompile with an `ALTER TYPE` statement.

- Execute an `ALTER TYPE typename COMPILE` statement. After you have successfully compiled the type, attempt the operation again.

## 7.2.4 Using CREATE OR REPLACE TYPE with Type and Table Dependencies

The `CREATE OR REPLACE TYPE` statement throws an error if the type being replaced has table or type dependencies. This applies to objects, varrays, and nested table types. This also applies to type dependencies involving either inheritance or type composition (embedding one type into another). The latter might be a situation where one type is attribute of another.

Using the `FORCE` option with a `CREATE OR REPLACE TYPE` statement enables you to replace a type if it has type dependencies, but not table dependencies. Table dependencies still cause errors.

- Use the `FORCE` option with a `CREATE OR REPLACE TYPE` statement to replace a type if it has type dependencies.

**Example 7-8** shows a `CREATE OR REPLACE` statement (second statement) that fails due to a type dependency.

### Example 7-8 CREATE OR REPLACE Type and Table Failure

```
SQL> CREATE type t1 AS OBJECT (a number) not final;
  2 /
Type created.

SQL> CREATE TYPE t2 UNDER t1 (b varchar(10));
  2 /
Type created.

SQL> CREATE OR REPLACE TYPE t1 AS OBJECT (c varchar(20));
  2 /
CREATE OR REPLACE TYPE t1 AS OBJECT (c varchar(20));
*
ERROR at line 1:
ORA-02303: cannot drop or replace a type with type or table dependents
```

## 7.2.5 Creating or Replacing Type with Force

A `CREATE OR REPLACE FORCE` statement fails if the type has a table dependency because a type with a table dependency cannot be replaced.

**Example 7-9** shows code in which a `CREATE OR REPLACE FORCE` statement succeeds in replacing a type that has a type dependency and then creates a table using the parent type. However, the final `CREATE OR REPLACE FORCE` statement fails because the type now has a table dependency and even with the `FORCE` option, a type with a table dependency cannot be replaced.



### See Also:

*Oracle Database PL/SQL Language Reference* for details of the `CREATE OR REPLACE TYPE SQL` statement

### Example 7-9 CREATE OR REPLACE with FORCE

```
SQL> CREATE OR REPLACE TYPE t1 FORCE AS OBJECT (c varchar(20));
  2 /
Type created.

SQL> CREATE TABLE tb1 (c1 t1);
Table created.

SQL> CREATE OR REPLACE TYPE t1 FORCE AS OBJECT (d number);
  2 /
CREATE OR REPLACE TYPE t1 FORCE AS OBJECT (d number);
*
ERROR at line 1:
ORA-22866: cannot replace a type with table dependents
```

## 7.2.6 Type Dependencies of Substitutable Tables and Columns

A substitutable table or column of a specific type is dependent not only on that type but on all subtypes of the type as well.

This is because a hidden column is added to the table for each attribute added in a subtype of the type. The hidden columns are added even if the substitutable table or column contains no data of that subtype.

In [Example 7-10](#), a `persons` table of type `person_typ` is dependent not only on `person_typ` but also on the `person_typ` subtypes `student_typ` and `part_time_student_typ`.

If you attempt to drop a subtype that has a dependent type, table, or column, the `DROP TYPE` statement returns an error and aborts. Consequently, trying to drop a `part_time_student_typ` raises an error because of the dependent `persons` table.

If dependent tables or columns exist but contain no data of the type being dropped, you can use the `VALIDATE` keyword to drop the type. The `VALIDATE` keyword causes Oracle database to check for actual stored instances of the specified type and to drop the type if none are found. This also removes hidden columns associated with attributes unique to the type.

In [Example 7-10](#), the first `DROP TYPE` statement fails because `part_time_student_typ` has a dependent table (`persons`). But if `persons` contains no instances of `part_time_student_typ` (nor does any other dependent table or column), the `VALIDATE` keyword causes the second `DROP TYPE` statement to succeed.

### Example 7-10 DROP TYPE with and without VALIDATE

```
CREATE TYPE person_typ AS OBJECT (  
    idno          NUMBER,  
    name          VARCHAR2(30),  
    phone         VARCHAR2(20))  
    NOT FINAL;  
/  
CREATE TYPE student_typ UNDER person_typ (  
    dept_id NUMBER,  
    major VARCHAR2(30))  
    NOT FINAL;  
/  
CREATE TYPE part_time_student_typ UNDER student_typ (number_hours NUMBER);  
/  
CREATE TABLE persons OF person_typ;  
-- Following generates an error due to presence of Persons table  
DROP TYPE part_time_student_typ -- incorrect statement;  
-- Following succeeds if there are no stored instances of part_time_student_typ  
DROP TYPE part_time_student_typ VALIDATE;
```

 **Note:**

Oracle recommends that you always use the `VALIDATE` option while dropping subtypes.

**See Also:**

"[Type Substitution in a Type Hierarchy](#)" for further explanation of substitutability

## 7.2.7 The DROP TYPE FORCE Option

The `DROP TYPE` statement has a `FORCE` option that causes the type to be dropped even though it may have dependent types or tables.

Use the `FORCE` option with great care, because any dependent types or tables that do exist are marked invalid and become inaccessible when the type is dropped. Data in a table that is marked invalid for this reason can never be accessed again. The only action that can be performed on such a table is to drop it.

**See Also:**

See "[Type Evolution](#)" for information about how to alter a type.

## 7.3 Synonyms for Object Types

Just as you can create synonyms for tables, views, and various other schema objects, you can also define synonyms for object types.

Synonyms for types have the same advantages as synonyms for other kinds of schema objects: they provide a location-independent way to reference the underlying schema object. An application that uses public type synonyms can be deployed unaltered, in any schema of a database, without requiring a qualified type name with the schema name.

**See Also:**

*Oracle Database Administrator's Guide* for more information on synonyms in general

Topics:

- [Creating a Type Synonym](#)
- [Using a Type Synonym](#)

### 7.3.1 Creating a Type Synonym

You create a type synonym with a `CREATE SYNONYM` statement.

The user must have been granted `CREATE SYNONYM` and `CREATE PUBLIC SYNONYM` privileges.

For example, these statements create a type `typ1` and then create a synonym for it:

#### Example 7-11 CREATE TYPE / SYNONYM for user1

```
-- Example requires Ex.7-1 which created user1 and granted it the CREATE SYNONYM
-- and CREATE PUBLIC SYNONYM privileges
-- connect as user1 if not already connected.
```

```
CREATE TYPE typ1 AS OBJECT (x number);
/
CREATE SYNONYM syn1 FOR typ1;
```

Synonyms can be created for collection types, too. The following example creates a synonym for a nested table type:

```
CREATE TYPE typ2 AS TABLE OF NUMBER;
/
CREATE SYNONYM syn2 FOR typ2;
```

You create a public synonym by using the `PUBLIC` keyword:

```
CREATE TYPE shape AS OBJECT ( name VARCHAR2(10) );
/
CREATE PUBLIC SYNONYM pub_shape FOR shape;
```

With the `REPLACE` option you can make the synonym point to a different underlying type. For example, the following statement causes `syn1` to point to type `typ2` instead of the type it formerly pointed to:

```
CREATE OR REPLACE SYNONYM syn1 FOR typ2;
```

## 7.3.2 Using a Type Synonym

You can use a type synonym anywhere that you can refer to a type. For instance, you can use a type synonym in a DDL statement to name the type of a table column or type attribute.

[Example 7-12](#) uses synonym `syn1` to specify the type of an attribute in type `typ3`:

#### Example 7-12 Using a Type Synonym in a Create Statement

```
-- Requires Ex 7-1 and connection as user1
-- drop syn1 and typ1 if created for Ex. 7-12
CREATE TYPE typ1 AS OBJECT (x number);
/
CREATE SYNONYM syn1 FOR typ1;

CREATE TYPE typ3 AS OBJECT ( a syn1 );
/
```

In the next statement, the type synonym `syn1` calls the constructor of the object type `typ1`, for which `syn1` is a synonym. The statement returns an object instance of `typ1`:

```
SELECT syn1(0) FROM dual;
```

In the following, `syn2` is a synonym for a nested table type. The synonym replaces the actual type name in a `CAST` expression.

```
SELECT CAST(MULTISET(SELECT eno FROM USER3.EMP) AS syn2) FROM dual;
```

This code returns the following output:

```
SQL> -- Type synonym used to call a constructor / nested table
SELECT syn1(0) FROM dual;
SELECT CAST(MULTISET(SELECT eno FROM USER3.EMP) AS syn2) FROM
dual;
SQL> SYN1(0)(X)
-----
TYP1(0)
SQL>
CAST(MULTISET(SELECT ENO FROM USER3.EMP) AS SYN2)
-----
TYP2()
```

Type synonyms can be used in the following kinds of statements:

- **DML statements:** SELECT, INSERT, UPDATE, DELETE, FLASHBACK TABLE, EXPLAIN PLAN, and LOCK TABLE
- **DDL statements:** AUDIT, NOAUDIT, GRANT, REVOKE, and COMMENT

### 7.3.2.1 Describing Schema Objects That Use Synonyms

If a type or table has been created using type synonyms, the `DESCRIBE` command shows the synonyms that the types represent.

You can query the catalog view `USER_SYNONYMS` to find out the underlying type of a type synonym.

- Use the `DESCRIBE` command to show the synonyms instead of the types they represent.

Similarly, catalog views, which show type names, such as `USER_TYPE_ATTRS`, show the type synonym names in their place.



#### See Also:

Chapter 2 of *Oracle Database Reference* for a complete list of the data dictionary catalog views

### 7.3.2.2 Dependents of Type Synonyms

A type that directly or indirectly references a synonym in its type declaration is a dependent of that synonym. Thus, in the following line from [Example 7-12](#), type `typ3` is a dependent type of synonym `syn1`.

```
CREATE TYPE typ3 AS OBJECT ( a syn1 );
/
```

Other kinds of schema objects that reference synonyms in their DDL statements also become dependents of those synonyms. An object that depends on a type synonym depends on both the synonym and the underlying type of the synonym.

The dependency relationships of a synonym affect your ability to drop or rename the synonym. Dependent schema objects are also affected by some operations on synonyms. The following sections describe these various ramifications.

### 7.3.2.3 Restriction on Replacing a Type Synonym

You can replace a synonym only if it has no dependent tables or valid user-defined types. Replacing a synonym is equivalent to dropping it and then re-creating a new synonym with the same name.

### 7.3.2.4 Dropping Type Synonyms

You drop a synonym with the `DROP SYNONYM` statement as shown in [Example 7-13](#).

#### Example 7-13 Dropping Type Synonyms

```
CREATE SYNONYM syn4 FOR typ1;

DROP SYNONYM syn4;
```

You cannot drop a type synonym if it has table or valid object types as dependents unless you use the `FORCE` option. The `FORCE` option causes any columns that directly or indirectly depend on the synonym to be marked unused, just as if the actual types of the columns were dropped. (A column indirectly depends on a synonym if, for instance, the synonym is used to specify the type of an attribute of the declared type of the column.)

Any dependent schema objects of a dropped synonym are invalidated. They can be revalidated by creating a local object or a new public synonym with the same name as the dropped synonym.

Dropping the underlying base type of a type synonym has the same effect on dependent objects as dropping the synonym.

### 7.3.2.5 Renaming Type Synonyms

You can rename a type synonym with the `RENAME` statement. Renaming a synonym is equivalent to dropping it and then re-creating it with a new name. You cannot rename a type synonym if it has dependent tables or valid object types. The following example fails because synonym `syn1` has a dependent object type:

```
RENAME syn1 TO syn3 -- invalid statement;
```

### 7.3.2.6 Public Type Synonyms and Local Schema Objects

You cannot create a local schema object that has the same name as a public synonym if the public synonym has a dependent table or valid object type in the local schema that will hold the new schema object. Nor can you create a local schema object that has the same name as a private synonym in the same schema.

For instance, in the following example, table `shape_tab` is a dependent table of public synonym `pub_shape` because the table has a column that uses the synonym in its type definition. Consequently, the attempt to create a table that has the same name as public synonym `pub_shape`, in the same schema as the dependent table, fails:

```
-- Following uses public synonym pub_shape
CREATE TABLE shape_tab ( c1 pub_shape );
```

```
-- Following is not allowed  
CREATE TABLE pub_shape ( c1 NUMBER ) -- invalid statement;
```

## 7.4 Performance Tuning

When tuning objects, the following items need to be addressed:

- How objects and object views consume CPU and memory resources during runtime
- How to monitor memory and CPU resources during runtime
- How to manage large numbers of objects

Some of the key performance factors are the following:

- DBMS\_STATS package to collect statistics
- tkprof to profile execution of SQL commands
- EXPLAIN PLAN to generate the query plans

### See Also:

*Oracle Database SQL Tuning Guide* for details on measuring and tuning the performance of your application

# 8

## Advanced Topics for Oracle Objects

Advanced topics section are of interest once you start applying object-relational techniques to large-scale applications or complex schemas.

Topics:

- [Storage of Objects](#)
- [Creating Indexes on Typeids or Attributes](#)
- [Type Evolution](#)
- [System-Defined and User-Defined Constructors](#)
- [Transient and Generic Types](#)
- [User-Defined Aggregate Functions](#)
- [How Locators Improve the Performance of Nested Tables](#)

### 8.1 Storage of Objects

Oracle database automatically maps the complex structure of object types into simple table structure for storage.

Topics:

- [Leaf-Level Attributes](#)
- [How Row Objects Are Split Across Columns](#)
- [Hidden Columns for Tables with Column Objects](#)
- [Hidden Columns for Substitutable Columns and Object Tables](#)
- [Storage of REFS](#)
- [Internal Layout of Nested Tables](#)
- [Internal Layout of VARRAYs](#)

#### 8.1.1 Leaf-Level Attributes

An object type is like a tree structure, where the branches represent the attributes. Attributes that are objects sprout subbranches with their own attributes.

Ultimately, each branch ends at an attribute that is a built-in type; such as `NUMBER`, `VARCHAR2`, or `REF`, or a collection type, such as `VARRAY` or nested table. Each of these leaf-level attributes of the original object type is stored in a table column.

Leaf-level attributes that are not collection types are called the [leaf-level scalar attributes](#) of the object type.

The following topics relate to the discussion of object tables and relational tables in "[How Objects are Stored in Tables](#)".

## 8.1.2 How Row Objects Are Split Across Columns

In an [object table](#), Oracle database stores the data for every leaf-level scalar or `REF` attribute in a separate column.

### Note:

Each `VARRAY` is also stored in a column, unless it is too large. Oracle database stores leaf-level attributes of nested table types in separate tables associated with the object table. You must declare these tables as part of the object table declaration.

When you retrieve or change attributes of [row objects](#) in an object table, the database performs the corresponding operations on the columns of the table. Accessing the value of the [row object](#) itself invokes the default constructor for the type, using the columns of the object table as arguments and produces a copy of the object.

The database stores the system-generated object identifier in a hidden column. The database uses the object identifier to construct `REFS` to the object.

### See Also:

- ["Internal Layout of VARRAYs"](#)
- ["Internal Layout of Nested Tables"](#)

## 8.1.3 Hidden Columns for Tables with Column Objects

When a table (relational table) is defined with a column of an object type, the database adds hidden columns to the table for the leaf-level attributes of the object type.

Each object-type column also has a corresponding hidden column to store the `NULL` information for the column objects (that is, the atomic nulls of the top-level and the nested objects).

## 8.1.4 Hidden Columns for Substitutable Columns and Object Tables

A substitutable column or object table has a hidden column not only for each attribute of the object type of the column but also for each attribute added in any subtype of the object type.

Hidden columns store the values of those attributes for any subtype instances inserted in the substitutable column.

Besides the type-discriminant column and the null-image column, the following are associated with a substitutable column of `person_typ`, created by [Example 8-1](#)

- A hidden column for each of the attributes of `person_typ`: `idno`, `name`, and `phone`
- Hidden columns for attributes of the subtypes of `person_typ`

Thus, the following might be associated with a substitutable column of `person_typ`: the attributes `dept_id` and `major` (for `student_typ`) and `number_hours` (for `part_time_student_typ`).

When you create a subtype, the database automatically adds hidden columns for new attributes in the subtype to tables containing a substitutable column of any of the ancestor types of the new subtype. These retrofit the tables to store data of the new type. If, for some reason, the columns cannot be added, creation of the subtype is rolled back.

When you drop a subtype using `DROP TYPE` with the `VALIDATE` option, the database automatically drops hidden columns for attributes unique to the subtype that do not contain data. Errors are raised if these columns contain data.

[Example 8-1](#) creates types needed for related examples.

### Example 8-1 Creating Types and Inserting in Tables

```
-- drop any of these objects created for Ex.7-10
CREATE TYPE person_typ AS OBJECT (
  idno          NUMBER,
  name          VARCHAR2(30),
  phone        VARCHAR2(20),
  MAP MEMBER FUNCTION get_idno RETURN NUMBER )
  NOT FINAL;
/
CREATE TYPE BODY person_typ AS
  MAP MEMBER FUNCTION get_idno RETURN NUMBER IS
  BEGIN
    RETURN idno;
  END;
END;
/
CREATE TYPE student_typ UNDER person_typ (
  dept_id NUMBER,
  major VARCHAR2(30))
  NOT FINAL;
/
CREATE TYPE part_time_student_typ UNDER student_typ (
  number_hours NUMBER);
/
CREATE TYPE employee_typ UNDER person_typ (
  emp_id NUMBER,
  mgr VARCHAR2(30));
/
CREATE TABLE person_obj_table OF person_typ; // an object table
INSERT INTO person_obj_table
  VALUES (person_typ(12, 'Bob Jones', '650-555-0130'));
INSERT INTO person_obj_table
  VALUES (student_typ(51, 'Joe Lane', '1-650-555-0140', 12, 'HISTORY'));
INSERT INTO person_obj_table
  VALUES (part_time_student_typ(52, 'Kim Patel', '1-650-555-0135', 14,
    'PHYSICS', 20));
```

Substitutable columns are associated with hidden type-discriminant columns. The hidden columns contains an identifier, called a `typeid`, that identifies the most specific type of each object in the substitutable columns. Typically, a `typeid` (`RAW`) is one byte, though it can be as big as four bytes for a large hierarchy.

You can find the `typeid` of a specified object instance using the function `SYS_TYPEID`.

[Example 8-2](#) retrieves typeids of object instances stored in the substitutable object table created in [Example 8-1](#).

## 8.1.5 Querying for Typeids of Objects Stored in Tables

You can retrieve typeids of object instances stored in a substitutable object table. See [Example 8-2](#).

### Example 8-2 Querying for Typeids of Objects Stored in the Table

```
-- Requires Ex. 8-1
SELECT name, SYS_TYPEID(VALUE(p)) typeid
  FROM person_obj_table p;
```

Output:

NAME	TYPEID
Bob Jones	01
Joe Lane	02
Kim Patel	03

The catalog views `USER_TYPES`, `DBA_TYPES`, and `ALL_TYPES` contain a `TYPEID` column (not hidden) that gives the typeid value for each type. You can join on this column to get the type names corresponding to the typeids in a type-discriminant column.



#### See Also:

"`SYS_TYPEID`" for more information about `SYS_TYPEID`, typeids, and type-discriminant columns.

## 8.1.6 Storage of REFs

When the database constructs a `REF` to a row object, the constructed `REF` is made up of the object identifier (OID), some metadata of the object table, and, optionally, the `ROWID`.

The size of a `REF` in a column of `REF` type depends on the storage requirements associated with the column, as follows:

- If the column is declared as a `REF WITH ROWID`, the database stores the `ROWID` in the `REF` column. The `ROWID` hint is ignored for object references in constrained `REF` columns.
- If a column is declared as a `REF` with a `SCOPE` clause, the column decreases due to the omission of the object table metadata and the `ROWID`. A scoped `REF` is 16 bytes long.

## 8.1.7 Internal Layout of Nested Tables

The rows of a nested table are stored in a separate storage table. Each nested table column has a single associated storage table. The storage table holds all the elements

for all of the nested tables in that column. The storage table has a hidden `NESTED_TABLE_ID` column with a system-generated value that lets Oracle database map the nested table elements back to the appropriate row.

You can speed up queries that retrieve entire collections by making the storage table index-organized. Include the `ORGANIZATION INDEX` clause inside the `STORE AS` clause.

A nested table type can contain objects or scalars:

- If the elements are objects, the storage table is like an object table: the top-level attributes of the object type become the columns of the storage table. However, you cannot construct `REFs` to objects in a nested table because a nested table row has no object identifier column.
- If the elements are scalars, the storage table contains a single column called `COLUMN_VALUE` that contains the scalar values.

 **See Also:**

See "[Nested Table Storage](#)".

## 8.1.8 Internal Layout of VARRAYs

All the elements of a `VARRAY` are stored in a single column. Depending upon the size of the array, it may be stored inline or in a `BLOB`.

 **See Also:**

See [Storage Considerations for Varrays](#) for details.

## 8.2 Creating Indexes on Typeids or Attributes

You can use indexes on typeids and attributes.

Topics:

- [Indexing a Type-Discriminant Column](#)
- [Indexing Subtype Attributes of a Substitutable Column](#)

### 8.2.1 Indexing a Type-Discriminant Column

Using the `SYS_TYPEID` function, you can build an index on the hidden type-discriminant column of substitutable columns. The type-discriminant column contains typeids that identify the most specific type of every object instance stored in the substitutable column.

The system uses this information to evaluate queries that filter by type using the `IS OF` predicate, but you can access the typeids for your own purposes using the `SYS_TYPEID` function.

Generally, a type-discriminant column contains only a small number of distinct typeids: at most, there can be only as many as there are types in the related type hierarchy. The low cardinality of this column makes it a good candidate for a bitmap index.

For example, the following statement creates a bitmap index on the type-discriminant column underlying the substitutable `contact` column of table `contacts`. The function `SYS_TYPEID` references the type-discriminant column:

### Example 8-3 Create bitmap index on type-discriminant column

```
-- Requires Ex. 8-1
CREATE TABLE contacts (
  contact          person_typ,
  contact_date     DATE );
INSERT INTO contacts VALUES (
  person_typ (65, 'Vrinda Mills', '1-650-555-0125'), '24 Jun 2003' );
INSERT INTO contacts VALUES (
  person_typ (12, 'Bob Jones', '650-555-0130'), '24 Jun 2003' );
INSERT INTO contacts VALUES (
  student_typ(51, 'Joe Lane', '1-650-555-0140', 12, 'HISTORY'), '24 Jun 2003' );
INSERT INTO contacts VALUES ( part_time_student_typ(52, 'Kim Patel',
'1-650-555-0135', 14, 'PHYSICS', 20), '24 Jun 2003' );
CREATE BITMAP INDEX typeid_idx ON contacts (SYS_TYPEID(contact));
```

## 8.2.2 Indexing Subtype Attributes of a Substitutable Column

You can build an index on attributes for any types that can be stored in a substitutable column.

You can reference attributes of subtypes in the `CREATE INDEX` statement by filtering out types other than the desired subtype (and its subtypes) using the `TREAT` function; you then use dot notation to specify the desired attribute.

For example, the following statement creates an index on the `major` attribute of all students in the `contacts` table. The declared type of the `contact` column is `person_typ`, of which `student_typ` is a subtype, so the column may contain instances of `person_typ`, `student_typ`, and subtypes of either one:

### Example 8-4 Create index on attribute of all students

```
-- Requires Ex.8-1- and 8-3
CREATE INDEX major1_idx ON contacts
  (TREAT(contact AS student_typ).major);
```

The `student_typ` type first defined the `major` attribute: the `person_typ` supertype does not have it. Consequently, all the values in the hidden column for the `major` attribute are values for persons of type `student_typ` or `parttimestudent_typ` (a `student_typ` subtype). This means that the values of the hidden column are identical to the values returned by the `TREAT` expression, `major` values for all students, including student subtypes: both the hidden column and the `TREAT` expression list majors for students and nulls for non-students. The system exploits this fact and creates index `major1_idx` as an ordinary B-tree index on the hidden column.

Values in a hidden column are only identical to the values returned by the `TREAT` expression just described if the type named as the target of the `TREAT` function (`student_typ`) is the type that first defined the `major` attribute. If the target of the `TREAT` function is a subtype that merely inherited the attribute, as in the following example,

the `TREAT` expression returns non-null `major` values for the subtype (part-time students) but not for its supertype (other students).

```
CREATE INDEX major2_idx ON contacts
  (TREAT(contact AS part_time_student_typ).major);
```

Here, the values stored in the hidden column for `major` may be different from the results of the `TREAT` expression. Consequently, an ordinary B-tree index cannot be created on the underlying column. Therefore, the database treats the `TREAT` expression like any other function-based expression and tries to create the index as a function-based index on the result.

The following example, like the previous one, creates a function-based index on the `major` attribute of part-time students, but in this case, the hidden column for `major` is associated with a substitutable object table `person_obj_table`:

```
CREATE INDEX major3_idx ON person_obj_table p
  (TREAT(VALUE(p) AS part_time_student_typ).major);
```

## 8.3 Type Evolution

Type evolution is the process of changing a object type.

Topics:

- [About Type Evolution](#)
- [Type Evolution and Dependent Schema Objects](#)
- [Options for Updating Data](#)
- [Effects of Structural Changes to Types](#)
- [Altering a Type by Adding and Dropping Attributes](#)
- [Altering a Type by Adding a Nested Table Attribute](#)
- [About Validating Types That Have Been Altered](#)
- [ALTER TYPE Statement for Type Evolution](#)
- [ALTER TABLE Statement for Type Evolution](#)

### 8.3.1 About Type Evolution

You can make the following changes to evolve an object type:

- Add and drop attributes
- Add and drop methods
- Modify a numeric attribute to increase its length, precision, or scale
- Modify a varying length character attribute to increase its length
- Change the `FINAL` and `INSTANTIABLE` properties of a type
- Modify limit and size of `VARRAYS`
- Modify length, precision, and scale of collection elements

Changes to a type affect things that reference the type. For example, if you add a new attribute to a type, data in a column of that type must be presented so as to include the new attribute.

## 8.3.2 Type Evolution and Dependent Schema Objects

Dependent schema objects of a type are objects that directly or indirectly reference the type and are affected by a change to it.

A type can have these kinds of dependent schema objects: tables; types or subtypes; program units (PL/SQL blocks) such as procedures, functions, packages, and triggers; indextypes; views (including object views); function-based indexes; and operators.

How a dependent schema object is affected by a change to a type depends on the object and on the nature of the change.

- Dependent program units, views, operators, and indextypes are marked invalid when the type is modified. The next time one of these invalid schema objects is referenced, it is revalidated using the new type definition. If the object recompiles successfully, it becomes valid and can be used again.
- Dependent function-based indexes may be dropped or disabled, depending on the type change, and must be rebuilt.
- Dependent tables have one or more internal columns added for each attribute added to the type, depending on the attribute type. New attributes are added with `NULL` values. For each dropped attribute, the columns associated with that attribute are dropped. For each modified attribute, the length, precision, or scale of its associated column is changed accordingly.

These changes mainly involve updating the metadata of the tables and can be performed quickly. However, the data in those tables must be updated to the format of the new type version as well, as discussed in "[Options for Updating Data](#)".

## 8.3.3 Options for Updating Data

Depending on the amount of data, updating can be time-consuming, so the `ALTER TYPE` command has options to let you choose whether to convert all dependent table data immediately or to leave it in the old format to be converted piecemeal as it is updated in the course of business.

The `CASCADE` option for `ALTER TYPE` propagates a type change to dependent types and tables. `CASCADE` itself has the following options that let you choose whether or not to convert table data to the new type format as part of the propagation:

- `INCLUDING TABLE DATA`: converts the data (default)
- `NOT INCLUDING TABLE DATA`: does not convert data

By default, the `CASCADE` option converts the data. In either case, table data is always returned in the format of the latest type version. If the table data is stored in the format of an earlier type version, the database converts the data to the format of the latest version before returning it, even though the format in which the data is actually stored is not changed until the data is rewritten.

You can retrieve the definition of the latest type from the system view `USER_SOURCE`. You can view definitions of all versions of a type in the `USER_TYPE_VERSIONS` view.

 **See Also:**

- ["ALTER TYPE Statement for Type Evolution"](#).
- See *Oracle Database PL/SQL Language Reference* for details about type specification and body compilation

## 8.3.4 Effects of Structural Changes to Types

Structural changes to a type affect dependent data and require the data to be converted. This is not true for changes that are confined to method definitions or behavior (implementation) of the type.

These possible changes to a type are structural:

- Add or drop an attribute
- Modify the length, precision, or scale of an attribute
- Change the finality of a type from `FINAL` to `NOT FINAL` or the reverse

These changes result in new versions of the altered type and all its dependent types and require the system to add, drop, or modify internal columns of dependent tables as part of the process of converting to the new version.

When you make any of these kinds of changes to a type that has dependent types or tables, the effects of propagating the change are not confined only to metadata but also affect data storage arrangements and require data conversion.

Besides converting data, you may also need to make other changes. For example, if a new attribute is added to a type, and the type body invokes the constructor of the type, then each constructor in the type body must be modified to specify a value for the new attribute. Similarly, if a new method is added, then the type body must be replaced to add the implementation of the new method. The type body can be modified by using the `CREATE OR REPLACE TYPE BODY` statement.

## 8.3.5 Altering a Type by Adding and Dropping Attributes

You can make a simple change to a type by adding one attribute and dropping another.

[Example 8-5](#) makes such a change to `person_type`. The `CASCADE` keyword propagates the type change to dependent types and tables, but the phrase `NOT INCLUDING TABLE DATA` prevents conversion of the related data.

### Example 8-5 Altering an Object Type by Adding and Dropping an Attribute

```
-- Drop person_typ and person_obj_table if they exist
CREATE TYPE person_typ AS OBJECT (
  idno          NUMBER,
  name          VARCHAR2(30),
  phone        VARCHAR2(20));
/
CREATE TABLE person_obj_table OF person_typ;

INSERT INTO person_obj_table
```

```
VALUES (person_typ(12, 'Bob Jones', '650-555-0130'));

SELECT value(p) FROM person_obj_table p;

VALUE(P)(IDNO, NAME, PHONE)
-----
PERSON_TYP(12, 'Bob Jones', '650-555-0130')
```

You can add the email attribute and drop the phone attribute as follows:

```
ALTER TYPE person_typ
  ADD ATTRIBUTE (email VARCHAR2(80)),
  DROP ATTRIBUTE phone CASCADE NOT INCLUDING TABLE DATA;
```

Then you can disconnect and reconnect to accommodate the type change:

```
connect oe/oe;
connect hr/<password>;
ALTER SESSION SET PLSQL_WARNINGS = 'enable:all';
-- The data of table person_obj_table has not been converted yet, but
-- when the data is retrieved, Oracle returns the data based on
-- the latest type version. The new attribute is initialized to NULL.
SELECT value(p) FROM person_obj_table p;

VALUE(P)(IDNO, NAME, EMAIL)
-----
PERSON_TYP(12, 'Bob Jones', NULL)
```

During `SELECT` statements, even though column data may be converted to the latest type version, the converted data is not written back to the column. If you retrieve a particular user-defined type column in a table often, consider converting that data to the latest type version to eliminate redundant data conversions. Converting is especially beneficial if the column contains `VARRAY` attributes which typically take more time to convert than objects or nested table columns.

You can convert a column of data by issuing an `UPDATE` statement to set the column to itself, as indicated in the following code snippet, which is unrelated to previous code.

```
UPDATE dept_tab SET emp_array_col = emp_array_col;
```

You can convert all columns in a table by using `ALTER TABLE` with the `UPGRADE INCLUDING DATA`. For example:

```
ALTER TYPE person_typ ADD ATTRIBUTE (photo BLOB)
  CASCADE NOT INCLUDING TABLE DATA;
ALTER TABLE person_obj_table UPGRADE INCLUDING DATA;
```

The `ALTER TABLE` line converts only the table listed. The `CASCADE` option prevents conversion of other tables or dependents.

### 8.3.6 Altering a Type by Adding a Nested Table Attribute

You can add a nested table attribute to an object type that is included in a nested table.

The following steps are required to make this complex change to a type.

The steps require this initial schema which is then altered by the code in Step 1.

### Initial Schema

```
-- Drop existing person_typ, department_typ, people_typ objects or tables
CREATE TYPE person_typ AS OBJECT (
  idno          NUMBER,
  name          VARCHAR2(30),
  phone        VARCHAR2(20));
/
-- creating a nested table type
CREATE TYPE people_typ AS TABLE OF person_typ;
CREATE TYPE department_typ AS OBJECT (
  manager      person_typ,
  employee     people_typ); // a nested table/
CREATE TABLE department OF department_typ
  NESTED TABLE employee STORE AS employee_store_nt;
```

The code example in Step 1 starts by creating a new object `tasks_typ` and a nested table type to hold it, `tasks_nttab`.

The following steps, both in the code example in Step 1, and in other programs, are necessary to add the nested table `tasks` as an attribute to the object type `person_typ`, which is already included in the nested table `people_typ`.

#### 1. .

#### Altering an Object Type by Adding a Nested Table Attribute

```
-- Requires Ex. 8-6
CREATE TYPE tasks_typ AS OBJECT (
  priority      VARCHAR2(2),
  description   VARCHAR2(30));
/

CREATE TYPE tasks_nttab AS TABLE OF tasks_typ;
/

-- Propagate the change to employee_store_nt
-- Specify a storage name for the new nested table
ALTER TABLE employee_store_nt
  UPGRADE NESTED TABLE tasks STORE AS tasks_nt;
```

2. Use `CREATE OR REPLACE TYPE BODY` for `person_typ` to update the corresponding type body to make it current with the new type definition, *if necessary*.
3. Upgrade the dependent tables to the latest type version and convert the data in the tables. This validates the table and allow for data access again.

```
ALTER TABLE department UPGRADE INCLUDING DATA;
```

4. Alter dependent PL/SQL program units as needed to take account of changes to the type.
5. Use Oracle Type Translator (OTT) to generate new header files for applications, depending on whether the application is written in C or Java.

Adding a new attribute to a supertype also increases the number of attributes in all its subtypes because these inherit the new attribute. Inherited attributes always precede declared (locally defined) attributes, so adding a new attribute to a supertype causes the ordinal position of all declared attributes of any subtype to be incremented by one recursively.

You must update the mappings of the altered type to include the new attributes. Use Oracle Type Translator (OTT) to do this. If you use another tool, you must be sure that the type headers are properly synchronized with the type definition in the server; otherwise, unpredictable behavior may result.

6. Modify application code as needed and rebuild the application.

### 8.3.7 About Validating Types That Have Been Altered

When the system executes an `ALTER TYPE` statement, it first validates the requested type change syntactically and semantically to make sure it is legal.

The system performs the same validations as for a `CREATE TYPE` statement plus some additional ones. If the new specification of the target type or any of its dependent types fails the type validations, the `ALTER TYPE` statement aborts. No new type version is created, and all dependent objects remain unchanged.

If dependent tables exist, further checking ensures that restrictions relating to the tables and indexes are observed. For example, it ensures that an attribute being dropped is not used as a partitioning key. Again, if the `ALTER TYPE` statement fails the check of table-related restrictions, then the type change is aborted, and no new version of the type is created.

When a single `ALTER TYPE` statement adds multiple attributes, it is done in the order specified. Multiple type changes can be specified in the same `ALTER TYPE` statement, but no attribute name or method signature can be specified more than once in the statement. For example, adding and modifying the same attribute in a single statement is not allowed.

The following sections contain other notes on type changes including:

- [Dropping an Attribute](#)
- [Modifying the Length, Precision, or Scale of an Attribute Type](#)
- [Dropping a Method](#)
- [Modifying the INSTANTIABLE Property](#)

#### Dropping an Attribute

- Dropping all attributes from a root type is not allowed. Instead, you must drop the type. Because a subtype inherits all the attributes from its supertype, dropping all the attributes from a subtype does not reduce its attribute count to zero; therefore, dropping all attributes declared locally in a subtype is allowed.
- Only an attribute declared locally in the target type can be dropped. You cannot drop an inherited attribute from a subtype. Instead, drop the attribute from the type where it is locally declared.
- Dropping an attribute which is part of a table partitioning or sub-partitioning key in a table is not allowed.
- When an attribute is dropped, the column corresponding to the dropped attribute is dropped.
- When an attribute is dropped, any indexes, statistics, constraints, and referential integrity constraints that reference it are removed.

### Modifying the Length, Precision, or Scale of an Attribute Type

- You are not allowed to expand the length of an attribute referenced in a function-based index, clustered key or domain index on a dependent table.
- You are not allowed to decrease the length, precision, or scale of an attribute.

### Dropping a Method

- You can only drop a method from the type in which the method is defined (or redefined): You cannot drop an inherited method from a subtype, and you cannot drop a redefined method from a supertype.
- If a method is not redefined, dropping it using the `CASCADE` option removes the method from the target type and all subtypes. However, if a method is redefined in a subtype, the `CASCADE` will fail and roll back. For the `CASCADE` to succeed, you must first drop each redefined method from the subtype that defines it and then drop the method from the supertype.

You can consult the `USER_DEPENDENCIES` table to find all the schema objects, including types, that depend on a given type. You can also run the `DBMS_UTILITY.GET_DEPENDENCY` utility to find the dependencies of a type.

- You can use the `INVALIDATE` option to drop a method that has been redefined, but the redefined versions in the subtypes must still be dropped manually. The subtypes will remain in an invalid state until they are explicitly altered to drop the redefined versions. Until then, an attempt to recompile the subtypes for revalidation will produce the error `Method does not override`.

Unlike `CASCADE`, `INVALIDATE` bypasses all the type and table checks and simply invalidates all schema objects dependent on the type. The objects are revalidated the next time they are accessed. This option is faster than using `CASCADE`, but you must be certain that no problems occur when revalidating dependent types and tables. Table data cannot be accessed while a table is invalid; if a table cannot be validated, its data remains inaccessible.

### Modifying the INSTANTIABLE Property

- Altering an object type from `INSTANTIABLE` to `NOT INSTANTIABLE` is allowed only if the type has no table dependents.
- Altering an object type from `NOT INSTANTIABLE` to `INSTANTIABLE` is allowed anytime. This change does not affect tables.

### Modifying the FINAL Property

- Altering an object type from `NOT FINAL` to `FINAL` is only allowed if the target type has no subtypes.
- When you alter an object type from `FINAL` to `NOT FINAL` or vice versa, you must use `CASCADE` to convert data in dependent columns and tables immediately. You may not use the `CASCADE` option `NOT INCLUDING TABLE DATA` to defer converting data.
  - From `NOT FINAL` to `FINAL`, you must use `CASCADE INCLUDING TABLE DATA`.
  - From `FINAL` to `NOT FINAL`, you may use either `CASCADE INCLUDING TABLE DATA` or `CASCADE CONVERT TO SUBSTITUTABLE`.

When you alter a type from `FINAL` to `NOT FINAL`, select the `CASCADE` option based on whether or not you want to insert new subtypes of the altered types into existing columns and tables.

By default, altering a type from `FINAL` to `NOT FINAL` enables you to create new substitutable tables and columns of that type, but it does not automatically make existing columns (or object tables) of that type substitutable. In fact, just the opposite happens: existing columns and tables of the type are marked `NOT SUBSTITUTABLE AT ALL LEVELS`. If any embedded attribute of these columns is substitutable, an error is generated. New subtypes of the altered type cannot be inserted into these preexisting columns and tables.

To alter an object type to `NOT FINAL` in a way that makes existing columns and tables of the type substitutable (assuming that they are not marked `NOT SUBSTITUTABLE`), use the `CASCADE` option `CONVERT TO SUBSTITUTABLE`.

The following example shows the use of `CASCADE` with the option `CONVERT TO SUBSTITUTABLE`:

```
CREATE TYPE shape AS OBJECT (
  name VARCHAR2(30),
  area NUMBER)
FINAL;
ALTER TYPE shape NOT FINAL CASCADE CONVERT TO SUBSTITUTABLE;
```

This `CASCADE` option marks each existing column as `SUBSTITUTABLE AT ALL LEVELS` and causes a new, hidden column to be added for the `TypeId` of instances stored in the column. The column can then store subtype instances of the altered type.

## 8.3.8 ALTER TYPE Statement for Type Evolution

[Table 8-1](#) lists some of the important options in the `ALTER TYPE` and `ALTER TYPE . . . CASCADE` statements for altering the attribute or method definition of a type.

**Table 8-1 ALTER TYPE Options for Type Evolution**

Option	Description
<code>CASCADE</code>	<p>Propagates the type change to dependent types and tables. The statement aborts if an error is found in dependent types or tables unless the <code>FORCE</code> option is specified.</p> <p>If <code>CASCADE</code> is specified without other options, then the <code>INCLUDING TABLE DATA</code> option for <code>CASCADE</code> is implied, and the database converts all table data to the latest type version.</p>
<code>INCLUDING TABLE DATA</code> (Option of <code>CASCADE</code> )	<p>Converts data stored in all user-defined columns to the most recent version of the column type.</p> <p>For each new attribute added to the column type, a new attribute is added to the data and is initialized to <code>NULL</code>. For each attribute dropped from the referenced type, the corresponding attribute data is removed from the table. All tablespaces containing the table data must be in read-write mode; otherwise, the statement will not succeed.</p>

**Table 8-1 (Cont.) ALTER TYPE Options for Type Evolution**

Option	Description
NOT INCLUDING TABLE DATA (Option of CASCADE)	<p>Leaves column data as is, does not change type version. If an attribute is dropped from a type referenced by a table, the corresponding column of the dropped attribute is not removed from the table. However, the metadata of the column is marked unused. If the dropped attribute is stored out-of-line (for example, VARRAY, LOB, or nested table attribute), the out-of-line data is not removed. (Unused columns can be removed afterward by using an ALTER TABLE DROP UNUSED COLUMNS statement.)</p> <p>This option is useful when you have many large tables and may run out of rollback segments if you convert them all in one transaction. This option enables you to convert the data of each dependent table later in a separate transaction (using an ALTER TABLE UPGRADE INCLUDING DATA statement).</p> <p>Specifying this option speeds up the table upgrade because the table data remains in the format of the old type version. However, selecting data from this table requires converting the images stored in the column to the latest type version. This is likely to affect performance during subsequent SELECT statements.</p> <p>Because this option only requires updating the table metadata, it does not require that all tablespaces be on-line in read/write mode for the statement to succeed.</p>
FORCE (Option of CASCADE)	<p>Forces the system to ignore errors from dependent tables and indexes. Errors are logged in a specified exception table so that they can be queried afterward. Use this option with caution because dependent tables can become inaccessible if some table errors occur.</p>
CONVERT TO SUBSTITUTABLE (Option of CASCADE)	<p>For use when altering a type from FINAL to NOT FINAL: Converts data stored in all user-defined columns to the most recent version of the column type and then marks these existing columns and object tables of the type SUBSTITUTABLE AT ALL LEVELS so that they can store any newly created subtypes of the type.</p> <p>If the type is altered to NOT FINAL without specifying this option, existing columns and tables of the type are marked NOT SUBSTITUTABLE AT ALL LEVELS, and new subtypes of the type cannot be stored in them. You can only store these subtypes in columns and tables created after the type was altered.</p>

 **See Also:**

*Oracle Database SQL Language Reference* for further information about ALTER TYPE options

## 8.3.9 ALTER TABLE Statement for Type Evolution

You can use ALTER TABLE to convert table data to the latest version of referenced types. For an example, see "[Altering a Type by Adding a Nested Table Attribute](#)".

 **See Also:**

- [Table 8-1](#) for a discussion of the `INCLUDING DATA` option.
- *Oracle Database SQL Language Reference* for information about `ALTER TABLE` options

## 8.4 Storing XMLTypes and LOBs in an ANYDATA Column

Beginning with Oracle Database 12c, you can use `ALTER TABLE` to store ADTs with `XMLTYPES` and `LOB` attributes in `ANYDATA` columns. You can also do the same for standalone `XMLTYPES`.

- Use the `modify_opaque_type` clause, which instructs the database to store these types unpacked. Otherwise, they cannot be stored in an `ANYDATA` column.

 **See Also:**

*Oracle Database SQL Language Reference* for information about `ALTER TABLE` used with the `modify_opaque_type` clause

## 8.5 System-Defined and User-Defined Constructors

There are various aspects to system-defined constructors, also known as attribute-value constructors, and user-defined constructors.

Topics:

- [The Attribute-Value Constructor](#)
- [Constructors and Type Evolution](#)
- [Advantages of User-Defined Constructors](#)
- [Defining and Implementing User-Defined Constructors](#)
- [Overloaded and Hidden Constructors](#)
- [Calling User-Defined Constructors](#)
- [Constructors for SQLJ Object Types](#)

### 8.5.1 The Attribute-Value Constructor

The system-defined constructor, also known as the attribute-value constructor, requires you to pass the constructor a value for each attribute of the type. The constructor then sets the attributes of the new object instance to those values, as shown in [Example 8-6](#).

The keyword `NEW` preceding a call to a constructor is optional but recommended.

**Example 8-6 Setting the attribute-value with the Constructor**

```
CREATE TYPE shape AS OBJECT (  
    name VARCHAR2(30),  
    area NUMBER);  
/  
CREATE TABLE building_blocks OF shape;  
  
-- attribute-value constructor: Sets instance attributes to the specified values  
INSERT INTO building_blocks  
VALUES (  
    NEW shape('my_shape', 4));
```

## 8.5.2 Constructors and Type Evolution

The attribute-value constructor saves you the trouble of defining your own constructors for a type. However, you must supply a value for every attribute declared in the type or the constructor call fails to compile.

This requirement can create a problem if you evolve the type later on, especially because the attribute-value constructor is implicit and not visible in the code, unlike a user-defined constructor. When you change the attributes of a type, the attribute-value constructor of the type changes, too. If you add an attribute, the updated attribute-value constructor expects a value for the new attribute; otherwise, any attribute-value constructor calls in your existing code fail.

 **See Also:**  
"Type Evolution"

## 8.5.3 Advantages of User-Defined Constructors

User-defined constructors do not need to explicitly set a value for every attribute of a type, unlike attribute-value constructors.

A user-defined constructor can have any number of arguments, of any type, and these do not need to map directly to type attributes. When you define a constructor, you can initialize the attributes to any appropriate values. For any attributes which you do not supply values, the system initialized to `NULL`.

If you evolve a type—for example, by adding an attribute—calls to user-defined constructors for the type do not need to be changed. User-defined constructors are not automatically modified when the type evolves, so their signatures remain the same. You may, however, need to change the definition of the constructor if you do not want the new attribute to be initialized to `NULL`.

## 8.5.4 Defining and Implementing User-Defined Constructors

You define user-defined constructors in the type body, like an ordinary method. You introduce the declaration and the definition with the phrase `CONSTRUCTOR FUNCTION` and end with the clause `RETURN SELF AS RESULT`.

A constructor for a type must have the same name as the type. [Example 8-7](#) defines two constructor functions for the `shape` type. As the example shows, you can overload user-defined constructors by defining multiple versions with different signatures.

### Example 8-7 Defining and Implementing User-Defined Constructors

```
CREATE TYPE shape AS OBJECT (  
    name VARCHAR2(30),  
    area NUMBER,  
    CONSTRUCTOR FUNCTION shape(SELF IN OUT NOCOPY shape, name VARCHAR2)  
        RETURN SELF AS RESULT,  
    CONSTRUCTOR FUNCTION shape(SELF IN OUT NOCOPY shape, name VARCHAR2,  
        area NUMBER) RETURN SELF AS RESULT  
)  
NOT FINAL;  
/  
  
CREATE TYPE BODY shape AS  
    CONSTRUCTOR FUNCTION shape(SELF IN OUT NOCOPY shape, name VARCHAR2)  
        RETURN SELF AS RESULT IS  
  
    BEGIN  
        SELF.name := name;  
        SELF.area := 0;  
        RETURN;  
    END;  
  
    CONSTRUCTOR FUNCTION shape(SELF IN OUT NOCOPY shape, name VARCHAR2,  
        area NUMBER) RETURN SELF AS RESULT IS  
  
    BEGIN  
        SELF.name := name;  
        SELF.area := area;  
        RETURN;  
    END;  
END;  
/  
/
```

A user-defined constructor has an implicit first parameter `SELF`. Specifying this parameter in the declaration of a user-defined constructor is optional. If you do specify it, you must declare its mode to be `IN OUT`.

The required clause `RETURN SELF AS RESULT` ensures that the most specific type of the instance being returned is the same as the most specific type of the `SELF` argument. In the case of constructors, this is the type for which the constructor is defined. For example, if the most specific type of the `SELF` argument on a call to the `shape` constructor is `shape`, then this clause ensures that the `shape` constructor returns an instance of `shape` (not an instance of a subtype of `shape`).

When a constructor function is called, the system initializes the attributes of the `SELF` argument to `NULL`. Names of attributes subsequently initialized in the function body may be qualified with `SELF`, such as `SELF.name` in [Example 8-7](#), to distinguish them from the names of the arguments of the constructor function, if these are the same. If the argument names are different, this qualification is not necessary.

The function body must include an explicit `return;` as shown. The `return` keyword must not be followed by a `return` expression. The system automatically returns the newly constructed `SELF` instance.

A user-defined constructor may be implemented in PL/SQL, C, or Java.

## 8.5.5 Overloaded and Hidden Constructors

You can overload user-defined constructors, like other type methods.

User-defined constructors are not inherited, so a user-defined constructor defined in a supertype cannot be hidden in a subtype. However, a user-defined constructor does hide, and thus supersede, the attribute-value constructor for its type if the signature of the user-defined constructor exactly matches the signature of the attribute-value constructor.

For the signatures to match, the names and types of the parameters (after the implicit `SELF` parameter) of the user-defined constructor must be the same as the names and types of the attributes of the type. The mode of the parameters (after the implicit `SELF` parameter) of the user-defined constructor must be `IN`.

If an attribute-value constructor is not hidden by a user-defined constructor that has the same name and signature, the attribute-value constructor can still be called.

Note that, if you evolve a type—for example, by adding an attribute—the signature of the attribute-value constructor of the type changes accordingly. This can cause a formerly hidden attribute-value constructor to become usable again.

## 8.5.6 Calling User-Defined Constructors

You call a user-defined constructor like any other function and you can use it anywhere you can use an ordinary function.

The `SELF` argument is passed in implicitly and may not be passed in explicitly. In other words, usages like the following are not allowed:

```
NEW constructor(instance, argument_list)
```

A user-defined constructor cannot occur in the `DEFAULT` clause of a `CREATE` or `ALTER TABLE` statement, but an attribute-value constructor can. The arguments to the attribute-value constructor must not contain references to PL/SQL functions or to other columns, including the pseudocolumns `LEVEL`, `PRIOR`, and `ROWNUM`, or to date constants that are not fully specified. The same is true for check constraint expressions: an attribute-value constructor can be used as part of check constraint expressions while creating or altering a table, but a user-defined constructor cannot.

Parentheses are required in SQL even for constructor calls that have no arguments. In PL/SQL, parentheses are optional when invoking a zero-argument constructor. They do, however, make it more obvious that the constructor call is a function call. The following PL/SQL example omits parentheses in the constructor call to create a new shape:

```
shape s := NEW my_schema.shape;
```

The `NEW` keyword and the schema name are optional.

[Example 8-8](#) creates a subtype under the type created in [Example 8-7](#) and shows examples for calling the user-defined constructors.

### Example 8-8 Calling User-Defined Constructors

```
-- Requires Ex. 8-8  
CREATE TYPE rectangle UNDER shape (
```

```

len NUMBER,
wth NUMBER,
CONSTRUCTOR FUNCTION rectangle(SELF IN OUT NOCOPY rectangle,
    name VARCHAR2, len NUMBER, wth NUMBER) RETURN SELF AS RESULT,
CONSTRUCTOR FUNCTION rectangle(SELF IN OUT NOCOPY rectangle,
    name VARCHAR2, side NUMBER) RETURN SELF AS RESULT);
/
SHOW ERRORS
CREATE TYPE BODY rectangle IS
CONSTRUCTOR FUNCTION rectangle(SELF IN OUT NOCOPY rectangle,
    name VARCHAR2, len NUMBER, wth NUMBER) RETURN SELF AS RESULT IS
BEGIN
    SELF.name := name;
    SELF.area := len*wth;
    SELF.len := len;
    SELF.wth := wth;
    RETURN ;
END;
CONSTRUCTOR FUNCTION rectangle(SELF IN OUT NOCOPY rectangle,
    name VARCHAR2, side NUMBER) RETURN SELF AS RESULT IS
BEGIN
    SELF.name := name;
    SELF.area := side * side;
    SELF.len := side;
    SELF.wth := side;
    RETURN ;
END;
END;
/

CREATE TABLE shape_table OF shape;
INSERT INTO shape_table VALUES(shape('shape1'));
INSERT INTO shape_table VALUES(shape('shape2', 20));
INSERT INTO shape_table VALUES(rectangle('rectangle', 2, 5));
INSERT INTO shape_table VALUES(rectangle('quadrangle', 12, 3));
INSERT INTO shape_table VALUES(rectangle('square', 12));

```

The following query selects the rows in the `shape_table`:

```

SELECT VALUE(s) FROM shape_table s;

VALUE(S)(NAME, AREA)
-----
SHAPE('shape1', 0)
SHAPE('shape2', 20)
RECTANGLE('rectangle', 10, 2, 5)
RECTANGLE('quadrangle', 36, 12, 3)
RECTANGLE('square', 144, 12, 12)

```

The following PL/SQL code calls the constructor:

```
s shape := NEW shape('void');
```

## 8.5.7 Constructors for SQLJ Object Types

A SQLJ object type is a SQL object type mapped to a Java class. A SQLJ object type has an attribute-value constructor. It can also have user-defined constructors that are mapped to constructors in the referenced Java class.

**Example 8-9 Creating a SQLJ Object**

```

CREATE TYPE address AS OBJECT
  EXTERNAL NAME 'university.address' LANGUAGE JAVA
  USING SQLData(
    street  VARCHAR2(100) EXTERNAL NAME 'street',
    city    VARCHAR2(50)  EXTERNAL NAME 'city',
    state   VARCHAR2(50)  EXTERNAL NAME 'state',
    zipcode NUMBER        EXTERNAL NAME 'zipcode',
    CONSTRUCTOR FUNCTION address (SELF IN OUT NOCOPY address, street VARCHAR2,
                                   city VARCHAR2, state VARCHAR2, zipcode NUMBER)
    RETURN SELF AS RESULT AS LANGUAGE JAVA
    NAME 'university.address (java.lang.String, java.lang.String,
                                   java.lang.String, int) return address');
/

```

A SQLJ type of a serialized representation can have only a user-defined constructor. The internal representation of an object of SQLJ type is opaque to SQL, so an attribute-value constructor is not possible for a SQLJ type.

## 8.6 Transient and Generic Types

Oracle database has three generic (that is, generically programmed) SQL data types that enable you to dynamically encapsulate and access type descriptions, data instances, and sets of data instances of any other SQL type, including object and collection types. You can also use these three types to create anonymous types, including anonymous collection types.

The three SQL types are implemented as opaque types. In other words, the internal structure of these types is not known to the database; their data can be queried only by implementing functions (typically 3GL routines) for the purpose. Oracle database provides both an OCI and a PL/SQL API for implementing such functions.

Of the three types, `ANYTYPE` is transient, and `ANYDATA` and `ANYDATASET` are not transient, but rather persistent. Transient types cannot be persistently stored because their structures are opaque to the database. You cannot create columns of transient types or make them attributes of persistent types.

Beginning with Oracle Database release 12c, release 12.2, transient types can be created on Active Data Guard instance if:

1. Real Time Apply is running on Active Data Guard, and
2. Logical Standby is not lagging far behind the Primary (typically, order of seconds).

The three generic SQL types are described in [Table 8-2](#).

**Table 8-2 Generic SQL Types**

Type	Description
<code>SYS.ANYTYPE</code>	<p>A type description type. A <code>SYS.ANYTYPE</code> can contain a type description of any SQL type, named or unnamed, including object types and collection types.</p> <p>An <code>ANYTYPE</code> can contain a type description of a persistent type, but an <code>ANYTYPE</code> itself is transient: in other words, the value in an <code>ANYTYPE</code> itself is not automatically stored in the database. To create a persistent type, use a <code>CREATE TYPE</code> statement from SQL.</p>

**Table 8-2 (Cont.) Generic SQL Types**

Type	Description
<code>SYS.ANYDATA</code>	<p>A self-describing data instance type. A <code>SYS.ANYDATA</code> contains an instance of a given type, with data, plus a description of the type. In this sense, a <code>SYS.ANYDATA</code> is self-describing. An <code>ANYDATA</code> can be persistently stored in the database.</p> <p>The following cannot be stored in an <code>ANYDATA</code> column:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Another opaque type except <code>XMLTYPE</code></li> <li>• LOB types (<code>BLOB/CLOB/NCLOB</code>)</li> <li>• <code>VARRAY</code> types with maximum size greater than 4K</li> <li>• Transient types</li> </ul>
<code>SYS.ANYDATASET</code>	<p>A self-describing data set type. A <code>SYS.ANYDATASET</code> type contains a description of a given type plus a set of data instances of that type. An <code>ANYDATASET</code> can be persistently stored in the database.</p> <p>The following cannot be stored in an <code>ANYDATASET</code> column:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Another opaque type such as <code>ANYDATA</code> or <code>XMLTYPE</code></li> <li>• LOB types (<code>BLOB/CLOB/NCLOB</code>)</li> <li>• <code>VARRAY</code> types with maximum size greater than 4K</li> <li>• ADTs that contain any of the above types</li> <li>• Transient types</li> </ul>

Each of these three types can be used with any built-in type native to the database as well as with object types and collection types, both named and unnamed. The types provide a generic way to work dynamically with type descriptions, lone instances, and sets of instances of other types. Using the APIs, you can create a transient `ANYTYPE` description of any kind of type. Similarly, you can create or convert (cast) a data value of any SQL type to an `ANYDATA` and can convert an `ANYDATA` (back) to a SQL type. And similarly again with sets of values and `ANYDATASET`.

The generic types simplify working with stored procedures. You can use the generic types to encapsulate descriptions and data of standard types and pass the encapsulated information into parameters of the generic types. In the body of the procedure, you can detail how to handle the encapsulated data and type descriptions of whatever type.

You can also store encapsulated data of a variety of underlying types in one table column of type `ANYDATA` or `ANYDATASET`. For example, you can use `ANYDATA` with Advanced Queuing to model queues of heterogeneous types of data. You can query the data of the underlying data types like any other data.

**Example 8-10** defines and executes a PL/SQL procedure that uses methods built into `SYS.ANYDATA` to access information about data stored in a `SYS.ANYDATA` table column.

#### Example 8-10 Using `SYS.ANYDATA`

```
CREATE OR REPLACE TYPE dogowner AS OBJECT (
    ownerno NUMBER, ownername VARCHAR2(10) );
/
CREATE OR REPLACE TYPE dog AS OBJECT (
    breed VARCHAR2(10), dogname VARCHAR2(10) );
/
CREATE TABLE mytab ( id NUMBER, data SYS.ANYDATA );
INSERT INTO mytab VALUES ( 1, SYS.ANYDATA.ConvertNumber (5) );
```

```
INSERT INTO mytab VALUES ( 2, SYS.ANYDATA.ConvertObject (
    dogowner ( 5555, 'John' ) ) );
commit;

CREATE OR REPLACE procedure P IS
    CURSOR cur IS SELECT id, data FROM mytab;

    v_id mytab.id%TYPE;
    v_data mytab.data%TYPE;
    v_type SYS.ANYTYPE;
    v_typecode PLS_INTEGER;
    v_typename VARCHAR2(60);
    v_dummy PLS_INTEGER;
    v_n NUMBER;
    v_dogowner dogowner;
    non_null_anytype_for_NUMBER exception;
    unknown_typename exception;

BEGIN
    OPEN cur;
    LOOP
        FETCH cur INTO v_id, v_data;
        EXIT WHEN cur%NOTFOUND;
        v_typecode := v_data.GetType ( v_type /* OUT */ );
        CASE v_typecode
            WHEN Dbms_Types.Typecode_NUMBER THEN
                IF v_type IS NOT NULL
                    THEN RAISE non_null_anytype_for_NUMBER; END IF;
                v_dummy := v_data.GetNUMBER ( v_n /* OUT */ );
                Dbms_Output.Put_Line (
                    To_Char(v_id) || ': NUMBER = ' || To_Char(v_n) );
            WHEN Dbms_Types.Typecode_Object THEN
                v_typename := v_data.GetTypeName();
                IF v_typename NOT IN ( 'HR.DOGOWNER' )
                    THEN RAISE unknown_typename; END IF;
                v_dummy := v_data.GetObject ( v_dogowner /* OUT */ );
                Dbms_Output.Put_Line (
                    To_Char(v_id) || ': user-defined type = ' || v_typename ||
                    '(' || v_dogowner.ownerno || ', ' || v_dogowner.ownername || ')' );
            END CASE;
        END LOOP;
    CLOSE cur;

EXCEPTION
    WHEN non_null_anytype_for_NUMBER THEN
        RAISE_Application_Error ( -20000,
            'Paradox: the return AnyType instance FROM GetType ' ||
            'should be NULL for all but user-defined types' );
    WHEN unknown_typename THEN
        RAISE_Application_Error ( -20000,
            'Unknown user-defined type ' || v_typename ||
            ' - program written to handle only HR.DOGOWNER' );

END;
/

SELECT t.data.gettypename() FROM mytab t;
SET SERVEROUTPUT ON;
EXEC P;
```

The query and the procedure P in the preceding code sample produce output like the following:

```
T.DATA.GETTYPENAME( )
-----
SYS.NUMBER
HR.DOGOWNER
1: NUMBER = 5
2: user-defined type = HR.DOGOWNER(5555, John )
```

Corresponding to the three generic SQL types are three OCI types that model them. Each has a set of functions for creating and accessing the respective type:

- `OCIType`: corresponds to `SYS.ANYTYPE`
- `OCIAnyData`: corresponds to `SYS.ANYDATA`
- `OCIAnyDataSet`: corresponds to `SYS.ANYDATASET`

#### See Also:

- *Oracle Call Interface Programmer's Guide* for the `OCIType`, `OCIAnyData`, and `OCIAnyDataSet` APIs and details on how to use them
- *Oracle Database PL/SQL Packages and Types Reference* for information about the interfaces to the `ANYTYPE`, `ANYDATA`, and `ANYDATASET` types and the `DBMS_TYPES` package, which defines constants for built-in and user-defined types, for use with `ANYTYPE`, `ANYDATA`, and `ANYDATASET`

## 8.7 User-Defined Aggregate Functions

Oracle database provides a number of pre-defined aggregate functions such as `MAX`, `MIN`, `SUM` for performing operations on a set of records.

These pre-defined aggregate functions can be used only with scalar data. However, you can create your own custom implementations of these functions, or define entirely new aggregate functions, to use with complex data—for example, with multimedia data stored using object types, opaque types, and LOBs.

User-defined aggregate functions are used in SQL DML statements just like the Oracle database built-in aggregates. Once such functions are registered with the server, the database simply invokes the aggregation routines that you supplied instead of the native ones.

User-defined aggregates can be used with scalar data as well. For example, it may be worthwhile to implement special aggregate functions for working with complex statistical data associated with financial or scientific applications.

User-defined aggregates are a feature of the Extensibility Framework. You implement them using `ODCIAggregate` interface routines.

 **See Also:**

*Oracle Database Data Cartridge Developer's Guide* for information on using the `ODCIAggregate` interface routines to implement user-defined aggregate functions

## 8.8 How Locators Improve the Performance of Nested Tables

You can use nested table locators to improve performance when retrieving data.

Collection types do not map directly to a native type or structure in languages such as C++ and Java. An application using those languages must access the contents of a collection through Oracle database interfaces, such as OCI.

Generally, when the client accesses a nested table explicitly or implicitly (by fetching the containing object), the database returns the entire collection value to the client process. For performance reasons, a client may wish to delay or avoid retrieving the entire contents of the collection. Oracle database handles this case for you by using a locator instead of the actual nested table value. When you really access the contents of the collection, they are automatically transferred to the client.

A nested table locator is like a handle to the collection value. It attempts to preserve the value or copy semantics of the nested table by containing the database snapshot as of its time of retrieval. The snapshot helps the database retrieve the correct instantiation of the nested table value at a later time when the collection elements are fetched using the locator. The locator is scoped to a session and cannot be used across sessions. Because database snapshots are used, it is possible to get a `snapshot too old` error if there is a high update rate on the nested table. Unlike a LOB locator, the nested table locator is truly a locator and cannot be used to modify the collection instance.

 **See Also:**

["Nested Table Locators"](#) for more specific information

# 9

## Design Considerations for Oracle Objects

There are implementation and performance characteristics of the Oracle object-relational model that you should understand.

Then you can map a logical data model into an Oracle physical implementation, and develop applications that use object-oriented features.

Topics:

- [General Storage Considerations for Objects](#)
- [Performance of Object Comparisons](#)
- [Design Considerations for REFs](#)
- [Design Considerations for Collections](#)
- [Design Considerations for Methods](#)
- [Reusable Code Using Invoker Rights](#)
- [Roles with Invoker's Rights Subprograms](#)
- [Replication Support for Objects](#)
- [Materialized View Support for Objects](#)
- [Constraints on Objects](#)
- [Considerations Related to Type Evolution](#)
- [Parallel Queries with Oracle Objects](#)
- [Design Consideration Tips and Techniques](#)

### 9.1 General Storage Considerations for Objects

There are general storage considerations for various object types.

Topics:

- [About Storing Objects as Columns or Rows](#)
- [Storage Considerations for Object Identifiers \(OIDs\)](#)

#### 9.1.1 About Storing Objects as Columns or Rows

You can store objects in relational tables as column objects or in object tables as row objects. Those objects that have meaning outside of the relational database they reside in, should be made referenceable as row objects in an object table. Otherwise, they should be stored as column objects in a relational table.

See "[How Objects are Stored in Tables](#)" for an introduction to table storage.

This section describes the following topics:

- [Column Object Storage in Relational Tables](#)
- [Row Object Storage in Object Tables](#)

### 9.1.1.1 Column Object Storage in Relational Tables

Column object storage is similar to storage of an equivalent set of scalar columns that collectively make up the object.

The difference is the additional overhead of maintaining the atomic null values of any noncollection columns objects and their [embedded object attributes](#). These values, called null indicators (or sometimes, null images), specify for every [column object](#), whether or not the column object is null and whether or not each of its embedded object attributes is null.

Note that null indicators do not specify whether the scalar attributes of a column object are null. Oracle uses a different method to determine whether scalar attributes are null.

Consider a table that holds the identification number, name, address, and phone numbers of people within an organization. You can create three different object types to hold the name, address, and phone numbers and an object `employee_objtyp` that contains the name and address objects. Because each person may have more than one phone number, you need to create a nested table type based on the phone number object type

First, enter the SQL statements in [Example 9-1](#) to create the four object types and a table for phone number objects.

#### Example 9-1 Creating Object Types for Columns in a Relational Table

```
CREATE TYPE name_objtyp AS OBJECT (  
    first      VARCHAR2(15),  
    middle     VARCHAR2(15),  
    last       VARCHAR2(15));  
/  
CREATE TYPE address_objtyp AS OBJECT (  
    street     VARCHAR2(200),  
    city       VARCHAR2(200),  
    state      VARCHAR2(2),  
    zipcode    VARCHAR2(20));  
NOT FINAL;  
/  
CREATE TYPE phone_objtyp AS OBJECT (  
    location   VARCHAR2(15),  
    num        VARCHAR2(14));  
/  
  
CREATE TYPE employee_objtyp AS OBJECT (  
    name name_objtyp,  
    address address_objtyp);  
/  
  
CREATE TYPE phone_ntabtyp AS TABLE OF phone_objtyp;  
/
```

 **See Also:**

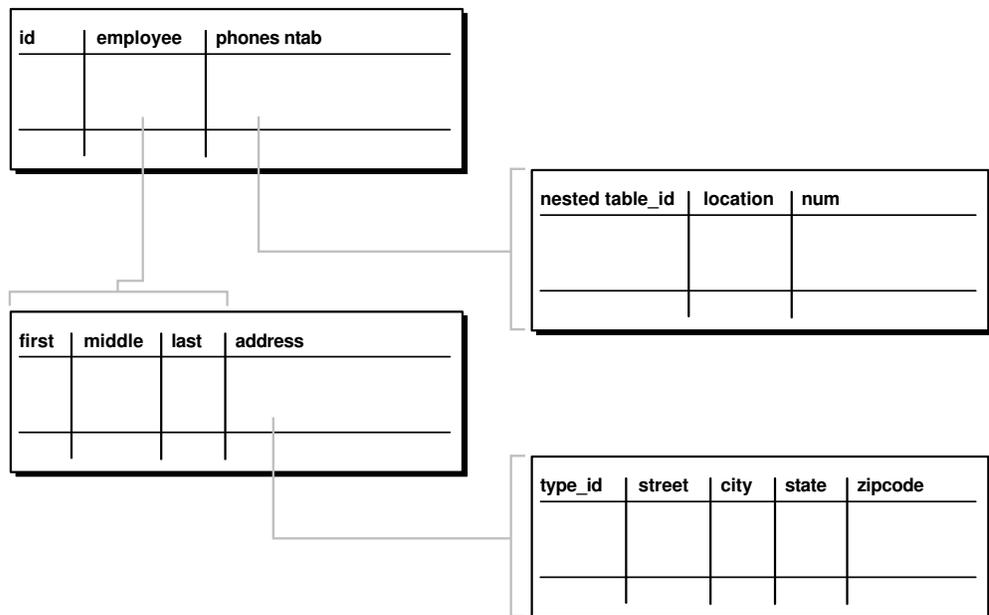
"[Design Considerations for Nested Tables](#)" for more information about nested tables

Next, create a table to hold the information about the people in the organization with the SQL statement in [Example 9-2](#). This statement also creates an id for people in the organization.

**Example 9-2 Creating a Table with Column Objects**

```
CREATE TABLE people_reltab (
  id          NUMBER(4)  CONSTRAINT pk_people_reltab PRIMARY KEY,
  employee    employee_objtyp
  phones_ntab phone_ntabtyp)
  NESTED TABLE phones_ntab STORE AS phone_store_ntab;
```

**Figure 9-1 Representation of the people\_reltab Relational Table**



The `people_reltab` table has two column objects: `employee` and `phones_ntab`. The `phones_ntab` column object is a nested table, a collection type of column object.

The storage for each object in the `people_reltab` table is that of the attributes of the object plus overhead for the null indicator.

The null indicators for an object and its embedded object attributes occupy one bit each. Thus, an object with  $n$  embedded object attributes (including objects at all levels of nesting) has a storage overhead of  $\text{CEIL}(n/8)$  bytes. There is one null indicator column for each noncollection column object, `name_obj` and `address_obj`. The null indicator column length is one byte, as one bit represents the object itself, which translates to  $\text{CEIL}(1/8)$  or 1.

Since the null indicator is one byte in size, the overhead of null information for each row of the `people_reltab` table is two bytes, one for each [object column](#).

Every noncollection object has a null indicator column, whether or not the object is `FINAL`. The columns in these examples are `FINAL`.



#### See Also:

*Oracle Database SQL Language Reference* for more information about `CEIL`

### 9.1.1.2 Row Object Storage in Object Tables

Row objects are stored in object tables. An [object table](#) is a special kind of table that holds objects and provides a relational view of the attributes of those objects. An object table is logically and physically similar to a relational table whose column types correspond to the top level attributes of the object type stored in the object table. The key difference is that an object table can optionally contain an additional object identifier (OID) column and index.

### 9.1.2 Storage Considerations for Object Identifiers (OIDs)

There are two types of object identifiers for row objects in object tables which can be stored and referenced.

An object identifier (OID) allows the corresponding row object to be referred to and from other objects or from relational tables. A built-in data type called a `REF` represents such references. `REFS` use object identifiers (OIDs) to point to row objects.

You can use either system-generated OIDs or primary-key based OIDs.



#### See Also:

["References to Row Objects"](#)

#### 9.1.2.1 System-Generated Object Identifiers (OIDs)

System-generated OIDs are the default for row objects in an object table.

Oracle assigns to each row object a unique system-generated OID, 16 bytes in length, that is automatically indexed for efficient OID-based lookups. The OID column is the equivalent of having an extra 16-byte primary key column. In a distributed environment, the system-generated unique identifier lets Oracle identify objects unambiguously.

The object identifier column is a hidden column that Oracle uses to construct references to the row objects. Oracle provides no access to the internal structure of object identifiers. This structure can change at any time. Applications are only concerned with using object references for fetching and navigating objects.

### 9.1.2.2 Primary-Key Based Object Identifiers (OIDs)

Oracle allows the option of specifying the primary key value of a row object as its object identifier, if there is a primary key column.

Instead of using the system-generated OIDs, you use a `CREATE TABLE` statement with this clause, `OBJECT IDENTIFIER IS PRIMARY KEY`. This specifies that the system use the primary key column(s) as the OIDs of the objects in the table. That way, you can use existing columns as the OIDs of the objects or use application generated OIDs that are smaller than the 16-byte globally unique OIDs generated by Oracle.

#### See Also:

*Oracle Database SQL Language Reference* for further information on `OBJECT IDENTIFIER` syntax

You can enforce referential integrity on columns that store references to these row objects in a way similar to foreign keys in relational tables.

#### Note:

Each primary-key based OID is locally (but not necessarily globally) unique. If you require a globally unique identifier, you must ensure that the primary key is globally unique or use system-generated OIDs.

### 9.1.2.3 System-Generated Versus Primary-Key Based OIDs

Primary-key based identifiers make it faster and easier to load data into an object table. By contrast, system-generated object identifiers need to be remapped using some user-specified keys, especially when references to them are also stored.

If you use system-generated OIDs for an object table, Oracle maintains an index on the column that stores these OIDs. A system-generated OID requires extra storage space for this index and an extra 16 bytes of storage for each row object.

However, if each primary key value requires more than 16 bytes of storage and you have a large number of `REFs`, using the primary key might require more space than system-generated OIDs because each `REF` is the size of the primary key.

## 9.2 Performance of Object Comparisons

You can compare objects by invoking either a `map` or `order` method.

A `map` method converts objects into scalar values while preserving the ordering of the objects. Using a `map` method is preferable because it allows the system to efficiently order objects.

 **Note:**

For any one object type, you can implement either a map or an order method, but not both. Neither are required.

The way objects are mapped has significant performance implications when sorting the objects using `ORDER BY` or `GROUP BY` processes. An object may need to be compared to other objects many times, and it is much more efficient if the objects can be mapped to scalar values first (the map method). If the comparison semantics are extremely complex, or if the objects cannot be mapped to scalar values for comparison, you can define an order method that, given two objects, returns the ordering determined by the object implementor. Order methods are not as efficient as map methods, so performance may suffer if you use order methods.

Consider an object type `address` consisting of four character attributes: `street`, `city`, `state`, and `zipcode`. Here, the most efficient comparison method is a map method because each object can be converted easily into scalar values. For example, you might define a map method that orders all of the objects by state.

On the other hand, suppose you want to compare binary objects, such as images. In this case, the comparison semantics may be too complex to use a map method; if so, you can use an order method to perform comparisons. For example, you could create an order method that compares images according to brightness or the number of pixels in each image.

If an object type does not have either a map or order method, only equality comparisons are allowed on objects of that type. In this case, Oracle performs the comparison by doing a field-by-field comparison of the corresponding object attributes, in the order they are defined. If the comparison fails at any point, a `FALSE` value is returned. If the comparison matches at every point, a `TRUE` value is returned. However, if an object has a `LOB` or `ANYDATA` attributes, then Oracle does not compare the object on a field-by-field basis. Such objects must have a map or order method to perform comparisons.

## 9.3 Design Considerations for REFS

You need to take various issues into consideration when working with REFS.

Topics:

- [Storage Size of REFS](#)
- [Integrity Constraints for REF Columns](#)
- [Performance and Storage Considerations for Scoped REFS](#)
- [Performance Improvement for Object Access Using the WITH ROWID Option](#)

### 9.3.1 Storage Size of REFS

A REF contains the following three logical components:

- OID of the object referenced. A system-generated OID is 16 bytes long. The size of a primary-key based OID depends on the size of the primary key column(s).

- OID of the table or view containing the object referenced, which is 16 bytes long.
- Rowid hint, which is 10 bytes long.

## 9.3.2 Integrity Constraints for REF Columns

Referential integrity constraints on `REF` columns ensure that there is a row object for the `REF`.

Referential integrity constraints on `REFS` create the same relationship as specifying a primary key/foreign key relationship on relational data. In general, you should use referential integrity constraints wherever possible because they are the only way to ensure that the row object for the `REF` exists. However, you cannot specify referential integrity constraints on `REFS` that are in nested tables.

## 9.3.3 Performance and Storage Considerations for Scoped REFS

A scoped `REF` is constrained to contain only references to a specified object table. You can specify a scoped `REF` when you declare a column type, collection element, or object type attribute to be a `REF`.

In general, you should use scoped `REFS` instead of unscoped `REFS` because scoped `REFS` are stored more efficiently. Whereas an unscoped `REF` takes at least 36 bytes to store (more if it uses rowids), a scoped `REF` is stored as just the OID of its target object and can take less than 16 bytes, depending on whether the referenced OID is system-generated or primary-key based. A system-generated OID requires 16 bytes; a primary key based (PK-based) OID requires enough space to store the primary key value, which may be less than 16 bytes. However, a `REF` to a PK-based OID, which must be dynamically constructed upon selection, may take more space in memory than a `REF` to a system-generated OID.

Besides requiring less storage space, scoped `REFS` often enable the optimizer to optimize queries that dereference a scoped `REF` into more efficient joins. This optimization is not possible for unscoped `REFS` because the optimizer cannot determine the containing table(s) for unscoped `REFS` at query-optimization time.

Unlike referential integrity constraints, scoped `REFS` do not ensure that the referenced row object exists; they only ensure that the referenced object table exists. Therefore, if you specify a scoped `REF` to a row object and then delete the row object, the scoped `REF` becomes a dangling `REF` because the referenced object no longer exists.

 **Note:**

Referential integrity constraints are scoped implicitly.

Unscoped `REFS` are useful if the application design requires that the objects referenced be scattered in multiple tables. Because rowid hints are ignored for scoped `REFS`, you should use unscoped `REFS` if the performance gain of the rowid hint, as explained in the "[Performance Improvement for Object Access Using the WITH ROWID Option](#)", outweighs the benefits of the storage saving and query optimization of using scoped `REFS`.

### 9.3.3.1 Indexing for Scoped REFS

You can build indexes on scoped REF columns using the `CREATE INDEX` command. This allows you to use the index to efficiently evaluate queries that dereference the scoped REFS. Such queries are turned into joins implicitly. For certain types of queries, Oracle can use an index on the scoped REF column to evaluate the join efficiently.

For example, suppose the object type `address_objtyp` is used to create an object table named `address_objtab`:

```
CREATE TABLE address_objtab OF address_objtyp ;
```

A `people_reltab2` table can be created that has the same definition as the `people_reltab` table shown in [Example 9-2](#), except that a REF is used for the address. Next, an index can be created on the `address_ref` column.

#### Example 9-3 Creating an Index on Scoped REF Columns

```
CREATE TABLE people_reltab2 (  
  id          NUMBER(4)  CONSTRAINT pk_people_reltab2 PRIMARY KEY,  
  name_obj    name_objtyp,  
  address_ref REF address_objtyp SCOPE IS address_objtab,  
  phones_ntab phone_ntabtyp)  
  NESTED TABLE phones_ntab STORE AS phone_store_ntab2 ;  
  
CREATE INDEX address_ref_idx ON people_reltab2 (address_ref) ;
```

The following query dereferences the `address_ref`:

```
SELECT id FROM people_reltab2 p  
  WHERE p.address_ref.state = 'CA' ;
```

When this query is executed, the `address_ref_idx` index is used to efficiently evaluate it. Here, `address_ref` is a scoped REF column that stores references to addresses stored in the `address_objtab` object table. Oracle implicitly transforms the preceding query into a query with a join:

```
SELECT p.id FROM people_reltab2 p, address_objtab a  
  WHERE p.address_ref = REF(a) AND a.state = 'CA' ;
```

The Oracle query optimizer might create a plan to perform a nested-loops join with `address_objtab` as the outer table and look up matching addresses using the index on the `address_ref` scoped REF column.

### 9.3.4 Performance Improvement for Object Access Using the WITH ROWID Option

If the `WITH ROWID` option is specified for a REF column, Oracle maintains the rowid of the object referenced in the REF. Then, Oracle can find the object referenced directly using the rowid contained in the REF, without the need to fetch the rowid from the OID index. Therefore, you use the `WITH ROWID` option to specify a rowid hint. Maintaining the rowid requires more storage space because the rowid adds 10 bytes to the storage requirements of the REF.

Bypassing the OID index search improves the performance of REF traversal (navigational access) in applications. The actual performance gain may vary from application to application depending on the following factors:

- How large the OID indexes are.
- Whether the OID indexes are cached in the buffer cache.
- How many REF traversals an application does.

The WITH ROWID option is only a hint because, when you use this option, Oracle checks the OID of the row object with the OID in the REF. If the two OIDs do not match, Oracle uses the OID index instead. The rowid hint is not supported for scoped REFS, for REFS with referential integrity constraints. .

## 9.4 Design Considerations for Collections

There are certain considerations to think about when you work with collections.

Topics:

- [Viewing Object Data in Relational Form with Unnesting Queries](#)
- [Storage Considerations for Varrays](#)
- [Performance of Varrays Versus Nested Tables](#)
- [Design Considerations for Nested Tables](#)
- [Design Considerations for Multilevel Collections](#)

### 9.4.1 Viewing Object Data in Relational Form with Unnesting Queries

An unnesting query on a collection allows the data to be viewed in a flat (relational) form.

You can execute unnesting queries on single-level and multilevel collections of either nested tables or varrays.

Nested tables can be unnested for queries using the TABLE syntax, as in the following example:

#### Example 9-4 Unnesting a Nested Table with the TABLE Function

```
SELECT p.name_obj, n.num
       FROM people_reltab p, TABLE(p.phones_ntab) n ;
```

Here, phones\_ntab specifies the attributes of the phones\_ntab nested table. To retrieve even parent rows that have no child rows (no phone numbers, in this case), use the outer join syntax, with the +. For example:

```
SELECT p.name_obj, n.num
       FROM people_reltab p, TABLE(p.phones_ntab) (+) n ;
```

If the SELECT list of a query does not refer to any columns from the parent table other than the nested table column, the query is optimized to execute only against the nested table's storage table.

The unnesting query syntax is the same for varrays as for nested tables. For instance, suppose the `phones_ntab` nested table is instead a varray named `phones_var`. The following example shows how to use the `TABLE` syntax to query the varray:

```
SELECT p.name_obj, v.num
FROM people_reltab p, TABLE(p.phones_var) v;
```

### 9.4.1.1 Creating Procedures and Functions to Unnest Queries

You can create procedures and functions that you can then execute to perform unnesting queries. For example, you can create a function called `home_phones()` that returns only the phone numbers where `location` is `home`. To create the `home_phones()` function, you enter code like the following:

#### Example 9-5 Creating the `home_phones` Function

```
CREATE OR REPLACE FUNCTION home_phones(allphones IN phone_ntabtyp)
RETURN phone_ntabtyp IS
  homephones phone_ntabtyp := phone_ntabtyp();
  indx1      number;
  indx2      number := 0;
BEGIN
  FOR indx1 IN 1..allphones.count LOOP
    IF
      allphones(indx1).location = 'home'
    THEN
      homephones.extend; -- extend the local collection
      indx2 := indx2 + 1;
      homephones(indx2) := allphones(indx1);
    END IF;
  END LOOP;

  RETURN homephones;
END;
```

### 9.4.1.2 Querying the `TABLE` Function to Unnest Data

You can query for a list of people and their home phone numbers, based on the `home_phones()` function you just created.

#### Example 9-6 Querying for Phone Numbers

See [Example 9-5](#)

```
SELECT p.name_obj, n.num
FROM people_reltab p, TABLE(
  CAST(home_phones(p.phones_ntab) AS phone_ntabtyp)) n ;
```

To query for a list of people and their home phone numbers, including those people who do not have a home phone number listed, enter the following:

```
SELECT p.name_obj, n.num
FROM people_reltab p,
  TABLE(CAST(home_phones(p.phones_ntab) AS phone_ntabtyp))(+) n ;
```

 **See Also:**

*Oracle Database SQL Language Reference* and *Oracle Database Data Cartridge Developer's Guide* for more information about the `TABLE` function

## 9.4.2 Storage Considerations for Varrays

The size of a stored varray depends only on the current count of the number of elements in the varray and not on the maximum number of elements that it can hold.

Because the storage of varrays incurs some overhead, such as null information, the size of the varray stored may be slightly greater than the size of the elements multiplied by the count.

Varrays are stored in columns either as raw values or LOBs. Oracle decides how to store the varray when the varray is defined, based on the maximum possible size of the varray computed using the `LIMIT` of the declared varray. If the size exceeds approximately 4000 bytes, then the varray is stored in LOBs. Otherwise, the varray is stored in the column itself as a raw value. In addition, Oracle supports inline LOBs which means that elements that fit in the first 4000 bytes of a large varray, with some bytes reserved for the LOB locator, are stored in the column of the row. See also *Oracle Database SecureFiles and Large Objects Developer's Guide*.

### 9.4.2.1 About Propagating VARRAY Size Change

When changing the size of a `VARRAY` type, a new type version is generated for the dependent types.

It is important to be aware of this when a `VARRAY` column is not explicitly stored as a LOB and its maximum size is originally smaller than 4000 bytes. If the size is larger than or equal to 4000 bytes after the increase, the `VARRAY` column has to be stored as a LOB. This requires an extra operation to upgrade the metadata of the `VARRAY` column in order to set up the necessary LOB metadata information including the LOB segment and LOB index.

The `CASCADE` option in the `ALTER TYPE` statement propagates the `VARRAY` size change to its dependent types and tables. A new version is generated for each valid dependent type and dependent tables metadata are updated accordingly based on the different case scenarios described previously. If the `VARRAY` column is in a cluster table, an `ALTER TYPE` statement with the `CASCADE` option fails because a cluster table does not support a LOB.

The `CASCADE` option in the `ALTER TYPE` statement also provides the `[NOT] INCLUDING TABLE DATA` option. The `NOT INCLUDING TABLE DATA` option only updates the metadata of the table, but does not convert the data image. In order to convert the `VARRAY` image to the latest version format, you can either specify `INCLUDING TABLE DATA` explicitly in `ALTER TYPE CASCADE` statement or issue `ALTER TABLE UPGRADE` statement.

## 9.4.3 Performance of Varrays Versus Nested Tables

If an entire collection is manipulated as a single unit in the application, varrays perform much better than nested tables. The varray is stored packed and requires no joins to retrieve the data, unlike nested tables.

### Varray Querying

The unnesting syntax can be used to access varray columns similar to the way it is used to access nested tables. See "[Viewing Object Data in Relational Form with Unnesting Queries](#)" for more information.

### Varray Updates

Piece-wise updates of a varray value are not supported. Thus, when a varray is updated, the entire old collection is replaced by the new collection.

## 9.4.4 Design Considerations for Nested Tables

Topics:

There are several design considerations for using nested tables.

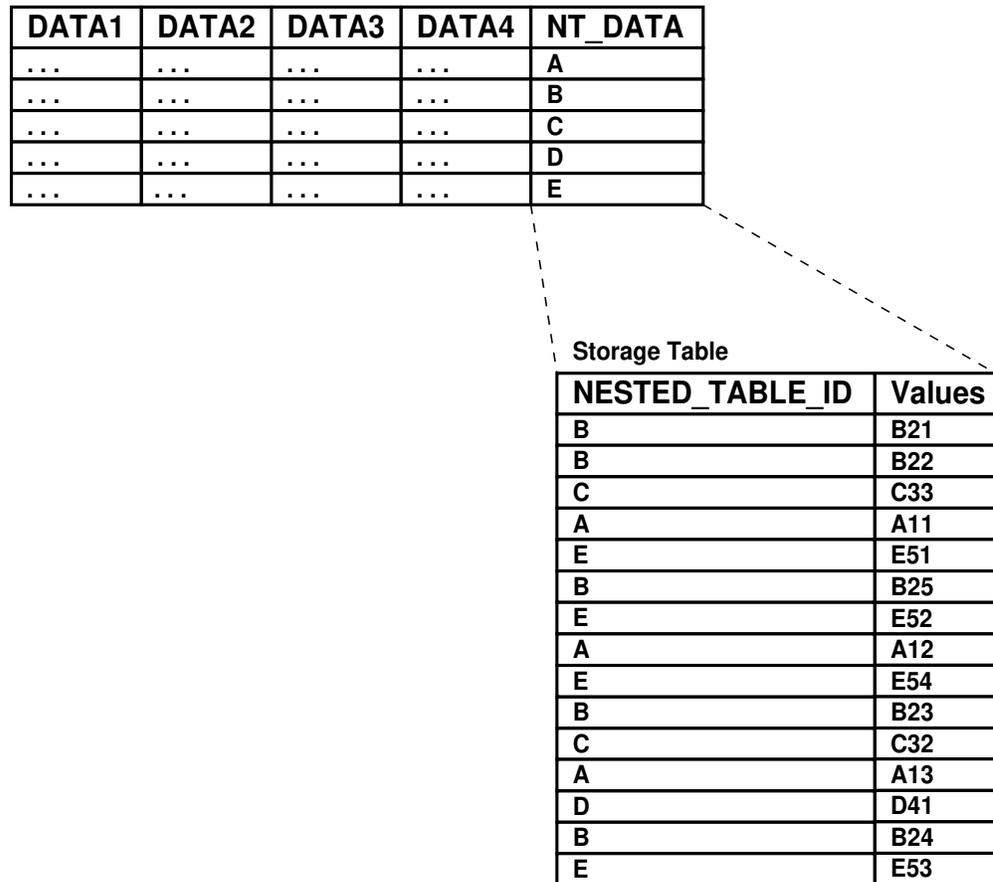
- [Nested Table Storage](#)
- [Nested Table Indexes](#)
- [Nested Table Locators](#)
- [Set Membership Query Optimazation](#)

### 9.4.4.1 Nested Table Storage

Oracle stores the rows of a nested table in a separate storage table. A system generated `NESTED_TABLE_ID`, which is 16 bytes in length, correlates the parent row with the rows in its corresponding storage table.

[Figure 9-2](#) shows how the storage table works. The storage table contains each value for each nested table in a nested table column. Each value occupies one row in the storage table. The storage table uses the `NESTED_TABLE_ID` to track the nested table for each value. So, in [Figure 9-2](#), all of the values that belong to nested table `A` are identified, all of the values that belong to nested table `B` are identified, and so on.

Figure 9-2 Nested Table Storage



### 9.4.4.2 Nested Table Indexes

When creating nested tables stored in heap tables, Oracle database automatically creates an index on the `NESTED_TABLE_ID` column of the storage table and an index on the corresponding ID column of the parent table.

Creating an index on the `NESTED_TABLE_ID` column enables the database to access the child rows of the nested table more efficiently, because the database must perform a join between the parent table and the nested table using the `NESTED_TABLE_ID` column.

### 9.4.4.3 Nested Table Locators

For large child sets, the parent row and a locator to the child set can be returned so that the child rows can be accessed on demand; the child sets also can be filtered. Using nested table locators enables you to avoid unnecessarily transporting child rows for every parent.

You can perform either one of the following actions to access the child rows using the nested table locator:

- Call the OCI collection functions. This action occurs implicitly when you access the elements of the collection in the client-side code, such as `OCIcoll*` functions. The entire collection is retrieved implicitly on the first access.

 **See Also:**

*Oracle Call Interface Programmer's Guide* for more information about OCI collection functions.

- Use SQL to retrieve the rows corresponding to the nested table.

In a multilevel collection, you can use a locator with a specified collection at any level of nesting.

The following topics specify ways that a collection can be retrieved as a locator:

- [At Table Creation Time](#)
- [As a HINT During Retrieval](#)

#### 9.4.4.3.1 At Table Creation Time

When the collection type is being used as a column type and the `NESTED TABLE` storage clause is used, you can use the `RETURN AS LOCATOR` clause to specify that a particular collection is to be retrieved as a locator.

For instance, suppose that `inner_table` is a collection type consisting of three levels of nested tables. In the following example, the `RETURN AS LOCATOR` clause specifies that the third level of nested tables is always to be retrieved as a locator.

##### Example 9-7 Using the RETURN AS LOCATOR Clause

```
CREATE TYPE inner_table AS TABLE OF NUMBER;/
CREATE TYPE middle_table AS TABLE OF inner_table;/
CREATE TYPE outer_table AS TABLE OF middle_table;/
CREATE TABLE tab1 (
  col1 NUMBER,
  col2 outer_table)
NESTED TABLE col2 STORE AS col2_ntab
(NESTED TABLE COLUMN_VALUE STORE AS cval1_ntab
(NESTED TABLE COLUMN_VALUE STORE AS cval2_ntab RETURN AS LOCATOR) );
```

#### 9.4.4.3.2 As a HINT During Retrieval

A query can retrieve a collection as a locator by means of the hint `NESTED_TABLE_GET_REFS`. Here is an example of retrieving the column `col2` from the table `tab1` as a locator:

```
SELECT /*+ NESTED_TABLE_GET_REFS */ col2
FROM tab1
WHERE col1 = 2;
```

Unlike with the `RETURN AS LOCATOR` clause, however, you cannot specify a particular inner collection to return as a locator when using the hint.

#### 9.4.4.4 Set Membership Query Optimization

Set membership queries are useful when you want to search for a specific item in a nested table.

The following query tests the membership in a child-set; specifically, whether the location `home` is in the nested table `phones_ntab`, which is in the parent table `people_reltab`:

```
SELECT * FROM people_reltab p
       WHERE 'home' IN (SELECT location FROM TABLE(p.phones_ntab)) ;
```

Oracle can execute a query that tests the membership in a child-set more efficiently by transforming it internally into a semijoin. However, this optimization only happens if the `ALWAYS_SEMI_JOIN` initialization parameter is set. If you want to perform semijoins, the valid values for this parameter are `MERGE` and `HASH`; these parameter values indicate which join method to use.

 **Note:**

In the preceding example, `home` and `location` are child set elements. If the child set elements are object types, they must have a `map` or `order` method to perform a set membership query.

#### 9.4.5 Design Considerations for Multilevel Collections

You can nest collection types to create true multilevel collections.

[Support for Collection Data Types](#) describes how to nest collection types such as a nested table of nested tables, a nested table of varrays, a varray of nested tables, or a varray or nested table of an object type that has an attribute of a collection type. These create true multilevel collections.

You can also nest collections indirectly using `REFs`. For example, you can create a nested table of an object type that has an attribute that references an object that has a nested table or varray attribute. If you do not actually need to access all elements of a multilevel collection, then nesting a collection with `REFs` may provide better performance because only the `REFs` need to be loaded, not the elements themselves.

True multilevel collections (specifically multilevel nested tables) perform better for queries that access individual elements of the collection. Using nested table locators can improve the performance of programmatic access if you do not need to access all elements.

A series of examples demonstrate this type of design.

Topics:

- [Creating an Object Table with a Multilevel Collection](#)
- [Creating an Object Table Using REFs](#)
- [Inserting Values into Object Tables](#)

### 9.4.5.1 Creating an Object Table with a Multilevel Collection

You can create an object table with a multilevel collection.

To create an example of a collection that uses `REFs` to nest another collection, you create a new object type called `person_objtyp` using the object types provided: `name_objtyp`, `address_objtyp`, and `phone_ntabtyp`. Remember that the `phone_ntabtyp` object type is a nested table because each person may have more than one phone number.

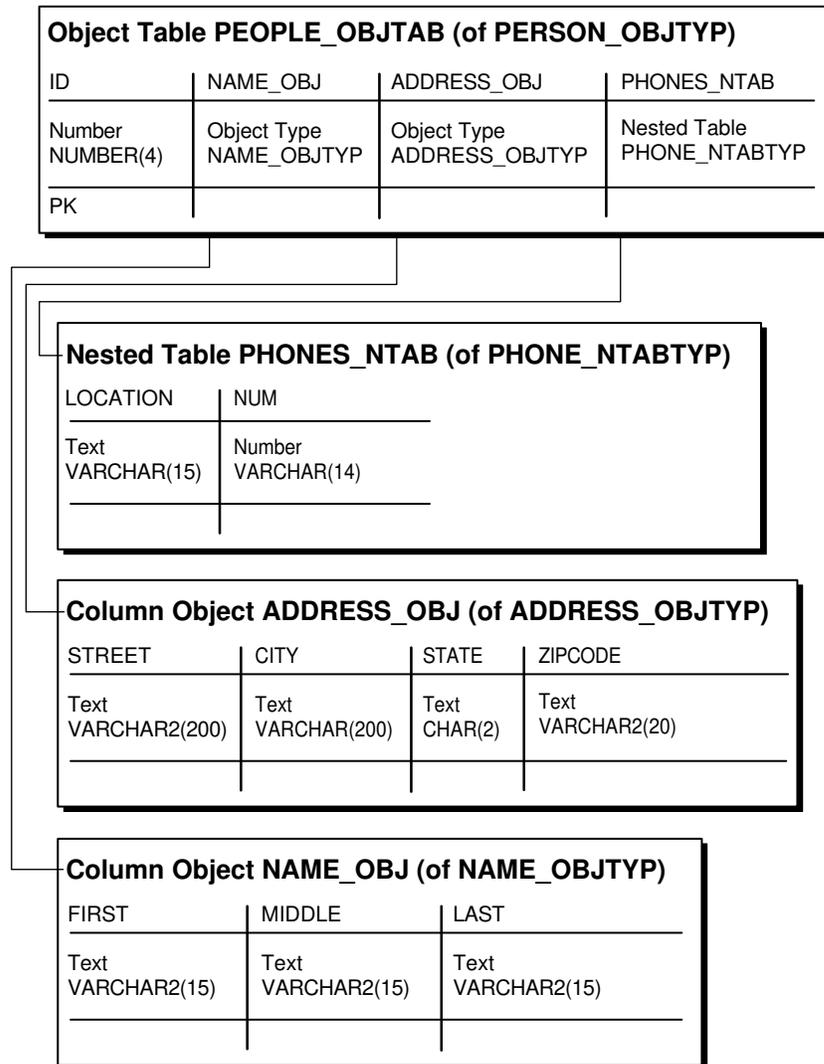
To create the `person_objtyp` object type and an object table called `people_objtab` of `person_objtyp` object type, issue the following SQL statement:

#### Example 9-8 Creating an Object Table with a Multilevel Collection

```
CREATE TYPE person_objtyp AS OBJECT (  
    id          NUMBER(4),  
    name_obj    name_objtyp,  
    address_obj address_objtyp,  
    phones_ntab phone_ntabtyp);  
/  
  
CREATE TABLE people_objtab OF person_objtyp (id PRIMARY KEY)  
    NESTED TABLE phones_ntab STORE AS phones_store_ntab ;
```

The `people_objtab` table has the same attributes as the `people_reltab` table. The difference is that the `people_objtab` is an object table with row objects, while the `people_reltab` table is a relational table with column objects, as seen in "[Column Object Storage in Relational Tables](#)".

**Figure 9-3 Object-Relational Representation of the people\_objtab Object Table**



You can reference the row objects in the `people_objtab` object table from other tables. For example, suppose you want to create a `projects_objtab` table that contains:

- A project identification number for each project.
- The title of each project.
- The project lead for each project.
- A description of each project.
- Nested table collection of the team of people assigned to each project.

You can use `REFS` in the `people_objtab` for the project leads, and you can use a nested table collection of `REFS` for the team. To begin, create a nested table object type called `personref_ntabtyp` based on the `person_objtyp` object type:

```
CREATE TYPE personref_ntabtyp AS TABLE OF REF person_objtyp;
/
```

You are now set up to create to create an object table as shown in [Creating an Object Table Using REFS](#).

### 9.4.5.2 Creating an Object Table Using REFs

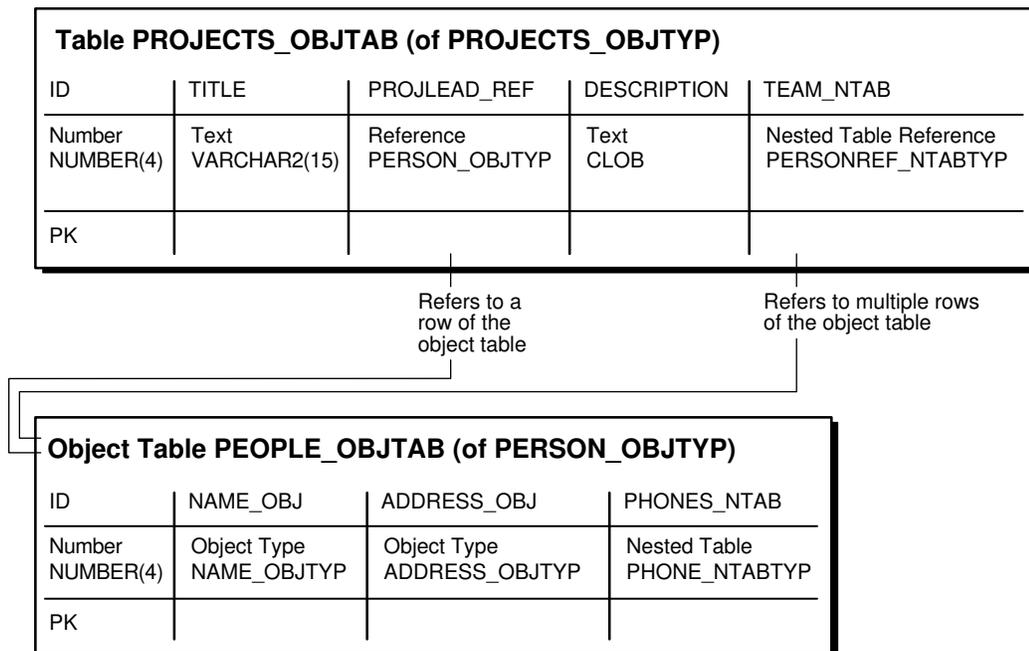
You can create an object table using REFs

After creating the person object table, in [Creating an Object Table with a Multilevel Collection](#), you are ready to create the project object table `projects_objtab`. First, create the object type `projects_objtyp`, then create the object table `projects_objtab` based on the `projects_objtyp`.

#### Example 9-9 Creating an Object Table Using REFs

```
CREATE TYPE projects_objtyp AS OBJECT (
  id          NUMBER(4),
  title       VARCHAR2(15),
  projlead_ref REF person_objtyp,
  description CLOB,
  team_ntab   personref_ntabtyp);
/
CREATE TABLE projects_objtab OF projects_objtyp (id PRIMARY KEY)
  NESTED TABLE team_ntab STORE AS team_store_ntab ;
```

Figure 9-4 Object-Relational Representation of the `projects_objtab` Object Table



After the `people_objtab` object table and the `projects_objtab` object table are in place, you indirectly have a nested collection. That is, the `projects_objtab` table contains a nested table collection of REFS that point to the people in the `people_objtab` table, and the people in the `people_objtab` table have a nested table collection of phone numbers.

You are now set to insert value as shown [Inserting Values into Object Tables](#).

### 9.4.5.3 Inserting Values into the PEOPLE\_OBJTAB Object Table

After you have created an object table, you can then insert values into it.

You can insert values into the `people_objtab` table as in this example.

#### Example 9-10 Inserting Values into the `people_objtab` Object Table

```
INSERT INTO people_objtab VALUES (
  0001,
  name_objtyp('JOHN', 'JACOB', 'SCHMIDT'),
  address_objtyp('1252 Maple Road', 'Fairfax', 'VA', '22033'),
  phone_ntabtyp(
    phone_objtyp('home', '650.555.0141'),
    phone_objtyp('work', '510.555.0122')));

INSERT INTO people_objtab VALUES (
  0002,
  name_objtyp('MARY', 'ELLEN', 'MILLER'),
  address_objtyp('33 Spruce Street', 'McKees Rocks', 'PA', '15136'),
  phone_ntabtyp(
    phone_objtyp('home', '415.555.0143'),
    phone_objtyp('work', '650.555.0192')));

INSERT INTO people_objtab VALUES (
  0003,
  name_objtyp('SARAH', 'MARIE', 'SINGER'),
  address_objtyp('525 Pine Avenue', 'San Mateo', 'CA', '94403'),
  phone_ntabtyp(
    phone_objtyp('home', '510.555.0101'),
    phone_objtyp('work', '650.555.0178'),
    phone_objtyp('cell', '650.555.0143')));
```

#### Example 9-11 Inserting Values into the `projects_objtab` Object Table

Then, you can insert into the `projects_objtab` relational table by selecting from the `people_objtab` object table using a `REF` operator, as in .

```
INSERT INTO projects_objtab VALUES (
  1101,
  'Demo Product',
  (SELECT REF(p) FROM people_objtab p WHERE id = 0001),
  'Demo the product, show all the great features.',
  personref_ntabtyp(
    (SELECT REF(p) FROM people_objtab p WHERE id = 0001),
    (SELECT REF(p) FROM people_objtab p WHERE id = 0002),
    (SELECT REF(p) FROM people_objtab p WHERE id = 0003)));

INSERT INTO projects_objtab VALUES (
  1102,
  'Create PRODDB',
  (SELECT REF(p) FROM people_objtab p WHERE id = 0002),
  'Create a database of our products.',
  personref_ntabtyp(
    (SELECT REF(p) FROM people_objtab p WHERE id = 0002),
    (SELECT REF(p) FROM people_objtab p WHERE id = 0003)));
```

**Note:**

This example uses nested tables to store `REFS`, but you also can store `REFS` in varrays. That is, you can have a varray of `REFS`.

## 9.5 Design Considerations for Methods

There are special considerations to think about when working with methods.

Topics:

- [Choice of Language for Method Functions](#)
- [Static Methods](#)
- [About Using SELF IN OUT NOCOPY with Member Procedures](#)
- [Function-Based Indexes on the Return Values of Type Methods](#)

### 9.5.1 Choice of Language for Method Functions

Method functions can be implemented in any of the languages supported by Oracle, such as PL/SQL, Java, or C.

Consider the following factors when you choose the language for a particular application:

- Ease of use
- SQL calls
- Speed of execution
- Same/different address space

In general, if the application performs intense computations, C is preferable, but if the application performs a relatively large number of database calls, PL/SQL or Java is preferable.

A method implemented in C executes in a separate process from the server using external procedures. In contrast, a method implemented in Java or PL/SQL executes in the same process as the server.

#### Example: Implementing a Method

The example described in this section involves an object type whose methods are implemented in different languages. In the example, the object type `ImageType` has an `ID` attribute, which is a `NUMBER` that uniquely identifies it, and an `IMG` attribute, which is a `BLOB` that stores the raw image. The object type `ImageType` has the following methods:

- The method `get_name` fetches the name of the image by looking it up in the database. This method is implemented in PL/SQL.
- The method `rotate` rotates the image. This method is implemented in C.
- The method `clear` returns a new image of the specified color. This method is implemented in Java.

For implementing a method in C, a `LIBRARY` object must be defined to point to the library that contains the external C routines. For implementing a method implemented in Java, this example assumes that the Java class with the method has been compiled and uploaded into Oracle.

The object type specification and its methods are shown in [Example 9-12](#).

 **Note:**

Type methods can be mapped only to static Java methods.

 **See Also:**

- *Oracle Database Java Developer's Guide* for more information
- [Object Support in Oracle Programming Environments](#) for more information about choosing a language

### Example 9-12 Creating an Object Type with Methods Implemented in Different Languages

```
CREATE LIBRARY myCfuncs TRUSTED AS STATIC
/

CREATE TYPE ImageType AS OBJECT (
  id NUMBER,
  img BLOB,
  MEMBER FUNCTION get_name return VARCHAR2,
  MEMBER FUNCTION rotate return BLOB,
  STATIC FUNCTION clear(color NUMBER) return BLOB);/

CREATE TYPE BODY ImageType AS
  MEMBER FUNCTION get_name RETURN VARCHAR2
  IS
    imgname VARCHAR2(100);
    sqlstmt VARCHAR2(200);
  BEGIN
    sqlstmt := 'SELECT name INTO imgname FROM imgtab WHERE imgid = id';
    EXECUTE IMMEDIATE sqlstmt;
    RETURN imgname;
  END;

  MEMBER FUNCTION rotate RETURN BLOB
  AS LANGUAGE C
  NAME "Crotate"
  LIBRARY myCfuncs;

  STATIC FUNCTION clear(color NUMBER) RETURN BLOB
  AS LANGUAGE JAVA
  NAME 'myJavaClass.clear(oracle.sql.NUMBER) return oracle.sql.BLOB';

END;
/
```

## 9.5.2 Static Methods

Static methods differ from member methods in that the `SELF` value is not passed in as the first parameter. Methods in which the value of `SELF` is not relevant should be implemented as static methods. Static methods can be used for user-defined constructors.

[Example 9-13](#) shows a constructor-like method that constructs an instance of the type based on the explicit input parameters and inserts the instance into the specified table:.

### Example 9-13 Creating an Object Type with a STATIC Method

```
CREATE TYPE atype AS OBJECT(  
  a1 NUMBER,  
  STATIC PROCEDURE newa (  
    p1          NUMBER,  
    tabname     VARCHAR2,  
    schname     VARCHAR2));  
/  
CREATE TYPE BODY atype AS  
  STATIC PROCEDURE newa (p1 NUMBER, tabname VARCHAR2, schname VARCHAR2)  
  IS  
    sqlstmt VARCHAR2(100);  
  BEGIN  
    sqlstmt := 'INSERT INTO '||schname||'.'||tabname|| ' VALUES (atype(:1))';  
    EXECUTE IMMEDIATE sqlstmt USING p1;  
  END;  
END;  
/  
  
CREATE TABLE atab OF atype;  
  
BEGIN  
  atype.newa(1, 'atab', 'HR');  
END;  
/
```

## 9.5.3 About Using SELF IN OUT NOCOPY with Member Procedures

In member procedures, if `SELF` is not declared, its parameter mode defaults to `IN OUT`. However, the default behavior does not include the `NOCOPY` compiler hint. See ["Member Methods"](#).

Because the value of the `IN OUT` actual parameter is copied into the corresponding formal parameter, the copying slows down execution when the parameters hold large data structures such as instances of large object types.

For performance reasons, you may want to include `SELF IN OUT NOCOPY` when passing a large object type as a parameter. For example:

```
MEMBER PROCEDURE my_proc (SELF IN OUT NOCOPY my_LOB)
```

 See Also:

- *Oracle Database PL/SQL Language Reference* for information on performance issues and restrictions on the use of `NOCOPY`
- *Oracle Database SQL Language Reference* for information about using `NOCOPY` in the `CREATE PROCEDURE` statement

## 9.5.4 Function-Based Indexes on the Return Values of Type Methods

A function-based index is an index based on the return values of an expression or function. The function may be a method function of an object type.

A function-based index built on a method function precomputes the return value of the function for each object instance in the column or table being indexed and stores those values in the index. There they can be referenced without having to evaluate the function again.

Function-based indexes are useful for improving the performance of queries that have a function in the `WHERE` clause. For example, the following code contains a query of an object table `emps`:

```
CREATE TYPE emp_t AS OBJECT(
  name  VARCHAR2(36),
  salary NUMBER,
  MEMBER FUNCTION bonus RETURN NUMBER DETERMINISTIC);
/
CREATE TYPE BODY emp_t IS
  MEMBER FUNCTION bonus RETURN NUMBER DETERMINISTIC IS
  BEGIN
    RETURN self.salary * .1;
  END;
END;
/

CREATE TABLE emps OF emp_t ;

SELECT e.name
       FROM emps e
       WHERE e.bonus() > 2000;
```

To evaluate this query, Oracle must evaluate `bonus()` for each row object in the table. If there is a function-based index on the return values of `bonus()`, then this work has already been done, and Oracle can simply look up the results in the index. This enables Oracle to return a result from the query more quickly.

Return values of a function can be usefully indexed only if those values are constant, that is, only if the function always returns the same value for each object instance. For this reason, to use a user-written function in a function-based index, the function must have been declared with the `DETERMINISTIC` keyword, as in the preceding example. This keyword promises that the function always returns the same value for each object instance's set of input argument values.

The following example creates a function-based index on the method `bonus()` in the table `emps`:

**Example 9-14 Creating a Function-Based Index on a Method**

```
CREATE INDEX emps_bonus_idx ON emps x (x.bonus()) ;
```

## 9.6 Reusable Code Using Invoker Rights

To create generic object types that can be used in any schema, you must define the type to use invoker rights, through the `AUTHID CURRENT_USER` option of `CREATE OR REPLACE TYPE`.

**Note:**

For information on controlling invoker's rights privileges, see *Oracle Database Security Guide*.

In general, use invoker rights when both of the following conditions are true:

- There are type methods that access and manipulate data.
- Users who did not define these type methods must use them.

For example, you can grant user `OE` execute privileges on type `atype` created by `HR` in "[Static Methods](#)", and then create table `atab` based on the type:

```
GRANT EXECUTE ON atype TO oe;
CONNECT oe;
Enter password: password
CREATE TABLE atab OF HR.atype ;
```

Now, suppose user `OE` tries to use `atype` in the following statement:

```
BEGIN -- follwing call raises an error, insufficient privileges
  HR.atype.newa(1, 'atab', 'OE');
END;
/
```

This statement raises an error because the definer of the type (`HR`) does not have the privileges required to perform the insert in the `newa` procedure. You can avoid this error by defining `atype` using invoker rights. Here, you first drop the `atab` table in both schemas and re-create `atype` using invoker rights:

```
DROP TABLE atab;
CONNECT hr;
Enter password: password

DROP TABLE atab;
DROP TYPE atype FORCE;
COMMIT;

CREATE TYPE atype AUTHID CURRENT_USER AS OBJECT(
  a1 NUMBER,
  STATIC PROCEDURE newa(p1 NUMBER, tabname VARCHAR2, schname VARCHAR2));
/
CREATE TYPE BODY atype AS
  STATIC PROCEDURE newa(p1 NUMBER, tabname VARCHAR2, schname VARCHAR2)
  IS
    sqlstmt VARCHAR2(100);
```

```

BEGIN
  sqlstmt := 'INSERT INTO '||schname||'. '||tabname|| '
             VALUES (HR.atype(:1))';
  EXECUTE IMMEDIATE sqlstmt USING p1;
END;
/

```

Now, if user OE tries to use atype again, the statement executes successfully:

```

GRANT EXECUTE ON atype TO oe;
CONNECT oe;
Enter password: password
CREATE TABLE atab OF HR.atype;

BEGIN
  HR.atype.new(1, 'atab', 'OE');
END;
/
DROP TABLE atab;
CONNECT hr;
Enter password: password

DROP TYPE atype FORCE;

```

The statement is successful this time because the procedure is executed under the privileges of the invoker (OE), not the definer (HR).

In a type hierarchy, a subtype has the same rights model as its immediate supertype. That is, it implicitly inherits the rights model of the supertype and cannot explicitly specify one. Furthermore, if the supertype was declared with definer rights, the subtype must reside in the same schema as the supertype. These rules allow invoker-rights type hierarchies to span schemas. However, type hierarchies that use a definer-rights model must reside within a single schema. For example:

```

CREATE TYPE deftype1 AS OBJECT (...); --Definer-rights type
CREATE TYPE subtype1 UNDER deftype1 (...); --subtype in same schema as supertype
CREATE TYPE schema2.subtype2 UNDER deftype1 (...); --ERROR
CREATE TYPE invtype1 AUTHID CURRENT_USER AS OBJECT (...); --Invoker-rights type
CREATE TYPE schema2.subtype2 UNDER invtype1 (...); --LEGAL

```

## 9.7 Roles with Invoker's Rights Subprograms

The use of roles in a subprogram depends on whether it executes with definer's rights or invoker's rights. Within a definer's rights subprogram, all roles are disabled. Roles are not used for privilege checking, and you cannot set roles.

Within an invoker's rights subprogram, roles are enabled (unless the subprogram was called directly or indirectly by a definer's rights subprogram). Roles are used for privilege checking, and you can use native dynamic SQL to set roles for the session. However, you cannot use roles to grant privileges on template objects because roles apply at run time, not at compile time.

## 9.8 Replication Support for Objects

- [Object Replication Using Oracle Golden Gate](#)
- [Active Data Guard and Logical Standby Support for Objects](#)

## 9.8.1 Object Replication Using Oracle Golden Gate

Beginning with Oracle Database 12c Release 12.1, Oracle supports Oracle Golden Gate for all object datatypes, except nested tables. Oracle supports object tables and columns of ADTs, REFs, VARRAYS, and ANYDATA. Oracle also supports type evolution and object inheritance. The only exception is nested table columns, object tables, and columns of ADTs with nested table attributes.

### See Also:

For information about data types supported by Oracle Golden Gate, see *Oracle Golden Gate Administration Guide*.

## 9.8.2 Active Data Guard and Logical Standby Support for Objects

Beginning with Oracle Database release 12c, release 12.1, Oracle supports Active Data Guard and Logical Standby for Object Tables and column for all Object datatypes, including REFs, varrays, ANYDATA and object inheritance. The only exception is that Active Data Guard and Logical Standby is not supported for tables with top-level nested tables and ADTs with nested table attributes.

### See Also:

Oracle Data Guard Concepts and Administration for information about data types supported by SQL Apply (logical standby)

## 9.9 Materialized View Support for Objects

Materialized view support is available for relational tables that contain columns of an object, collection, or REF type. Such materialized views are called object-relational materialized views.

All user-defined types required by an object-relational materialized view must exist at the materialized view site as well as at the master site. They must have the same object type IDs and versions at both sites.

Topics:

- [Object, Collection, or REF Type Columns](#)
- [Object Tables](#)

### 9.9.1 Object, Collection, or REF Type Columns

To be updatable, a materialized view based on a table that contains an [object column](#) must select the column as an object in the query that defines the view: if the query selects only certain attributes of the column's object type, then the materialized view is read-only.

The view-definition query can also select columns of collection or REF type. REFS can be either primary-key based or have a system-generated key, and they can be either scoped or unscoped. Scoped REF columns can be rescoped to a different table at the site of the materialized view—for example, to a local materialized view of the master table instead of the original, remote table.

## 9.9.2 Object Tables

A materialized view based on an object table is called an object materialized view. Such a materialized view is itself an object table. An object materialized view is created by adding the *OF type* keyword to the CREATE MATERIALIZED VIEW statement. For example:

```
CREATE MATERIALIZED VIEW customer OF cust_objtyp AS
  SELECT * FROM HR.Customer_objtab@dbs1;
```

As with an ordinary object table, each row of an object materialized view is an object instance, so the view-definition query that creates the materialized view must select entire objects from the master table: the query cannot select only a subset of the object type's attributes. For example, the following materialized view is not allowed:

```
CREATE MATERIALIZED VIEW customer OF cust_objtyp AS
  SELECT CustNo FROM HR.Customer_objtab@dbs1;
```

You can create an object-relational materialized view from an object table by omitting the *OF type* keyword, but such a view is read-only: you cannot create an updatable object-relational materialized view from an object table.

For example, the following CREATE MATERIALIZED VIEW statement creates a read-only object-relational materialized view of an object table. Even though the view-definition query selects all columns and attributes of the object type, it does not select them as attributes of an object, so the view created is object-relational and read-only:

```
CREATE MATERIALIZED VIEW customer AS
  SELECT * FROM HR.Customer_objtab@dbs1;
```

For both object-relational and object materialized views that are based on an object table, if the type of the master object table is not FINAL, the FROM clause in the materialized view definition query must include the ONLY keyword. For example:

```
CREATE MATERIALIZED VIEW customer OF cust_objtyp AS
  SELECT CustNo FROM ONLY HR.Customer_objtab@dbs1;
```

Otherwise, the FROM clause must omit the ONLY keyword.

## 9.10 Constraints on Objects

Oracle does not support constraints and defaults in type specifications. However, you can specify the constraints and defaults when creating the tables:

**Example 9-15 Specifying Constraints on an Object Type When Creating a Table**

```
CREATE TYPE customer_typ AS OBJECT(  
    cust_id INTEGER);  
/  
CREATE TYPE department_typ AS OBJECT(  
    deptno INTEGER);  
/  
CREATE TABLE customer_tab OF customer_typ (  
    cust_id default 1 NOT NULL);  
  
CREATE TABLE department_tab OF department_typ (  
    deptno PRIMARY KEY);  
  
CREATE TABLE customer_tab1 (  
    cust customer_typ DEFAULT customer_typ(1)  
    CHECK (cust.cust_id IS NOT NULL),  
    some_other_column VARCHAR2(32));
```

## 9.11 Considerations Related to Type Evolution

The following sections contain design considerations relating to type evolution.

This section contains the following topics:

- [Pushing a Type Change Out to Clients](#)
- [About Changing Default Constructors](#)
- [About Altering the FINAL Property of a Type](#)

### 9.11.1 Pushing a Type Change Out to Clients

Once a type has evolved on the server side, all client applications using this type need to make the necessary changes to structures associated with the type. You can do this with OTT/JPUB.

You also may need to make programmatic changes associated with the structural change. After making these changes, you must recompile your application and relink.

Types may be altered between releases of a third-party application. To inform client applications that they need to recompile to become compatible with the latest release of the third-party application, you can have the clients call a release-oriented compatibility initialization function.

This function could take as input a string that tells it which release the client application is working with. If the release string mismatches with the latest version, an error is generated. The client application must then change the release string as part of the changes required to become compatible with the latest release.

For example:

```
FUNCTION compatibility_init(  
    rel IN VARCHAR2, errmsg OUT VARCHAR2)  
RETURN NUMBER;
```

where:

- `rel` is a release string that is chosen by the product, such as, 'Release 10.1'
- `errmsg` is any error message that may need to be returned
- The function returns 0 on success and a nonzero value on error

## 9.11.2 About Changing Default Constructors

When a type is altered, its default, system-defined constructors need to be changed in order (for example) to include newly added attributes in the parameter list. If you are using default constructors, you need to modify their invocations in your program in order for the calls to compile.

You can avoid having to modify constructor calls if you define your own constructor functions instead of using the system-defined default ones. See "[Advantages of User-Defined Constructors](#)".

## 9.11.3 About Altering the FINAL Property of a Type

When you alter a type `T1` from `FINAL` to `NOT FINAL`, any attribute of type `T1` in the client program changes from being an inlined structure to a pointer to `T1`. This means that you need to change the program to use dereferencing when this attribute is accessed.

Conversely, when you alter a type from `NOT FINAL` to `FINAL`, the attributes of that type change from being pointers to inlined structures.

For example, say that you have the types `T1(a int)` and `T2(b T1)`, where `T1`'s property is `FINAL`. The C/JAVA structure corresponding to `T2` is `T2(T1 b)`. But if you change `T1`'s property to `NOT FINAL`, then `T2`'s structure becomes `T2(T1 *b)`.

## 9.12 Parallel Queries with Oracle Objects

Oracle lets you perform parallel queries with objects and objects synthesized in views, when you follow these rules:

- To make queries involving joins and sorts parallel (using the `ORDER BY`, `GROUP BY`, and `SET` operations), a `MAP` function is required. In the absence of a `MAP` function, the query automatically becomes serial.
- Parallel queries on nested tables are not supported. Even if there are parallel hints or parallel attributes for the table, the query is serial.
- Parallel Insert Direct Load (PIDL) and Parallel Create Table As Select (PCTAS) are supported on varray and ADT columns. The ADT columns must meet the following characteristics:
  - type is final
  - ADT attributes, at any level within the main type is final
  - lob/varray/xmltype attributes are stored as securefile
  - all other attributes are simple scalars

Rest of the DML and DDL are always performed in serial.

- Parallel DML is not supported on views with `INSTEAD-OF` trigger. However, the individual statements within the trigger may be parallelized.

## 9.13 Design Consideration Tips and Techniques

There are assorted tips on various aspects of working with Oracle object types.

Topics:

- [Whether to Evolve a Type or Create a Subtype](#)
- [How ANYDATA Differs from User-Defined Types](#)
- [Polymorphic Views: An Alternative to an Object View Hierarchy](#)
- [The SQLJ Object Type](#)
- [Miscellaneous Design Tips](#)

### 9.13.1 Whether to Evolve a Type or Create a Subtype

As an application goes through its life cycle, the question often arises whether to change an existing object type or to create a specialized subtype to meet new requirements. The answer depends on the nature of the new requirements and their context in the overall application semantics. Here are two examples:

#### Changing a Widely Used Base Type

Suppose that we have an object type `address` with attributes `Street`, `State`, and `ZIP`:

```
CREATE TYPE address AS OBJECT (  
    Street VARCHAR2(80),  
    State  VARCHAR2(20),  
    ZIP    VARCHAR2(10));  
/
```

We later find that we need to extend the `address` type by adding a `Country` attribute to support addresses internationally. Is it better to create a subtype of `address` or to evolve the `address` type itself?

With a general base type that has been widely used throughout an application, it is better to implement the change using type evolution.

#### Adding Specialization

Suppose that an existing type hierarchy of Graphic types (for example, `curve`, `circle`, `square`, `text`) needs to accommodate an additional variation, namely, `Bezier curve`. To support a new specialization of this sort that does not reflect a shortcoming of the base type, we should use inheritance and create a new subtype `BezierCurve` under the `Curve` type.

To sum up, the semantics of the required change dictates whether we should use type evolution or inheritance. For a change that is more general and affects the base type, use type evolution. For a more specialized change, implement the change using inheritance.

## 9.13.2 How ANYDATA Differs from User-Defined Types

`ANYDATA` is an Oracle-supplied type that can hold instances of any Oracle data type, whether built-in or user-defined. `ANYDATA` is a self-describing type and supports a reflection-like API that you can use to determine the shape of an instance.

While both inheritance, through the substitutability feature, and `ANYDATA` provide the polymorphic ability to store any of a set of possible instances in a placeholder, the two models give the capability two very different forms.

In the inheritance model, the polymorphic set of possible instances must form part of a single type hierarchy. A variable can potentially hold instances only of its defined type or of its subtypes. You can access attributes of the supertype and call methods defined in the supertype (and potentially overridden by the subtype). You can also test the specific type of an instance using the `IS OF` and the `TREAT` operators.

`ANYDATA` variables, however, can store heterogeneous instances. You cannot access attributes or call methods of the actual instance stored in an `ANYDATA` variable (unless you extract out the instance). You use the `ANYDATA` methods to discover and extract the type of the instance. `ANYDATA` is a very useful mechanism for parameter passing when the function/procedure does not care about the specific type of the parameter(s).

Inheritance provides better modeling, strong typing, specialization, and so on. Use `ANYDATA` when you simply want to be able to hold one of any number of possible instances that do not necessarily have anything in common.

## 9.13.3 Polymorphic Views: An Alternative to an Object View Hierarchy

[Applying an Object Model to Relational Data](#) describes how to build up a view hierarchy from a set of object views each of which contains objects of a single type. Such a view hierarchy enables queries on a view within the hierarchy to see a polymorphic set of objects contained by the queried view or its subviews.

As an alternative way to support such polymorphic queries, you can define an object view based on a query that returns a polymorphic set of objects. This approach is especially useful when you want to define a view over a set of tables or views that already exists.

For example, an object view of `Person_t` can be defined over a query that returns `Person_t` instances, including `Employee_t` instances. The following statement creates a view based on queries that select persons from a `persons` table and employees from an `employees` table.

```
CREATE VIEW Persons_view OF Person_t AS
SELECT Person_t(...) FROM persons
UNION ALL
SELECT TREAT(Employee_t(...) AS Person_t) FROM employees;
```

An `INSTEAD OF` trigger defined for this view can use the `VALUE` function to access the current object and to take appropriate action based on the object's most specific type.

Polymorphic views and object view hierarchies have these important differences:

- **Addressability:** In a view hierarchy, each subview can be referenced independently in queries and DML statements. Thus, every set of objects of a

particular type has a logical name. However, a polymorphic view is a single view, so you must use predicates to obtain the set of objects of a particular type.

- **Evolution:** If a new subtype is added, a subview can be added to a view hierarchy without changing existing view definitions. With a polymorphic view, the single view definition must be modified by adding another `UNION` branch.
- **DML Statements:** In a view hierarchy, each subview can be either inherently updatable or can have its own `INSTEAD OF` trigger. With a polymorphic view, only one `INSTEAD OF` trigger can be defined for a given operation on the view.

## 9.13.4 The SQLJ Object Type

This section discusses the SQLJ object type.

Topics:

- [The Intended Use of SQLJ Object Types](#)
- [Actions Performed When Creating a SQLJ Object Type](#)
- [Uses of SQLJ Object Types](#)
- [Uses of Custom Object Types](#)
- [Differences Between SQLJ and Custom Object Types Through JDBC](#)

### 9.13.4.1 The Intended Use of SQLJ Object Types

According to the *Information Technology - SQLJ - Part 2* document (SQLJ Standard), a SQLJ object type is a database object type designed for Java. A SQLJ object type maps to a Java class. Once the mapping is registered through the extended SQL `CREATE TYPE` command (a DDL statement), the Java application can insert or select the Java objects directly into or from the database through an Oracle JDBC driver. This enables the user to deploy the same class in the client, through JDBC, and in the server, through SQL method dispatch.

### 9.13.4.2 Actions Performed When Creating a SQLJ Object Type

The extended SQL `CREATE TYPE` command:

- Populates the database catalog with the external names for attributes, functions, and the Java class. Also, dependencies between the Java class and its corresponding SQLJ object type are maintained.
- Validates the existence of the Java class and validates that it implements the interface corresponding to the value of the `USING` clause.
- Validates the existence of the Java fields (as specified in the `EXTERNAL NAME` clause) and whether these fields are compatible with corresponding SQL attributes.
- Generates an internal class to support constructors, external variable names, and external functions that return `self` as a result.

### 9.13.4.3 Uses of SQLJ Object Types

The SQLJ object type is a special case of SQL object type in which all methods are implemented in a Java class.

The mapping between a Java class and its corresponding SQL type is managed by the SQLJ object type specification. That is, the SQLJ Object type specification cannot have a corresponding type body specification.

Also, the inheritance rules among SQLJ object types specify the legal mapping between a Java class hierarchy and its corresponding SQLJ object type hierarchy. These rules ensure that the SQLJ Type hierarchy contains a valid mapping. That is, the supertype or subtype of a SQLJ object type has to be another SQLJ object type.

### 9.13.4.4 Uses of Custom Object Types

The custom object type is the Java interface for accessing SQL object types. A SQL object type may include methods that are implemented in languages such as PLSQL, Java, and C. Methods implemented in Java in a given SQL object type can belong to different unrelated classes. That is, the SQL object type does not map to a specific Java class.

In order for the client to access these objects, Oracle JVM Web Services Call-Out Utility can be used to generate the corresponding Java class. Furthermore, the user has to augment the generated classes with the code of the corresponding methods. Alternatively, the user can create the class corresponding to the SQL object type.

At runtime, the JDBC user has to register the correspondence between a SQL Type name and its corresponding Java class in a map.

 **See Also:**

*Oracle Database Java Developer's Guide*

### 9.13.4.5 Differences Between SQLJ and Custom Object Types Through JDBC

The following table summarizes the differences between SQLJ object types and custom object types.

**Table 9-1 Differences Between SQLJ and Custom Object Types**

Feature	SQLJ Object Type Behavior	Custom Object Type Behavior
Typecodes	Use the <code>OracleTypes.JAVA_STRUCT</code> typecode to register a SQLJ object type as a SQL OUT parameter. The <code>OracleTypes.JAVA_STRUCT</code> typecode is also used in the <code>_SQL_TYPECODE</code> field of a class implementing the <code>ORADATA</code> or <code>SQLDATA</code> interface.	Use the <code>OracleTypes.STRUCT</code> typecode to register a custom object type as a SQL OUT parameter. The <code>OracleTypes.STRUCT</code> typecode is also used in the <code>_SQL_TYPECODE</code> field of a class implementing the <code>ORADATA</code> or <code>SQLDATA</code> interface.
Creation	Create a Java class implementing the <code>SQLDATA</code> or <code>ORADATA</code> and <code>ORADATAFACTORY</code> interfaces first and then load the Java class into the database. Next, you issue the extended SQL <code>CREATE TYPE</code> command for SQLJ object type.	Issue the extended SQL <code>CREATE TYPE</code> command for a custom object type and then create the <code>SQLDATA</code> or <code>ORADATA</code> Java wrapper class using Oracle JVM Web Services Call-Out Utility or do this manually.
Method Support	Supports external names, constructor calls, and calls for member functions with side effects.	There is no default class for implementing type methods as Java methods. Some methods may also be implemented in SQL.

**Table 9-1 (Cont.) Differences Between SQLJ and Custom Object Types**

Feature	SQLJ Object Type Behavior	Custom Object Type Behavior
Type Mapping	Type mapping is automatically done by the extended SQL <code>CREATE TYPE</code> command. However, the SQLJ object type must have a defining Java class on the client.	Register the correspondence between SQL and Java in a type map. Otherwise, the type is materialized as <code>oracle.sql.STRUCT</code> .
Inheritance	There are rules for mapping SQL hierarchy to a Java class hierarchy. See the <i>Oracle Database SQL Language Reference</i> for a complete description of these rules.	There are no mapping rules.

## 9.13.5 Miscellaneous Design Tips

You should know these miscellaneous tips for designing with Oracle objects.

### 9.13.5.1 Column Substitutability and the Number of Attributes in a Hierarchy

If a column or table is of type `T`, Oracle adds a hidden column for each attribute of type `T` and, if the column or table is substitutable, for each attribute of every subtype of `T`, to store attribute data. A hidden `typeid` column is added as well, to keep track of the type of the object instance in a row.

The number of columns in a table is limited to 1,000. A type hierarchy with a number of total attributes approaching 1,000 puts you at risk of running up against this limit when using substitutable columns of a type in the hierarchy. To avoid problems as a result of this, consider one of the following options for dealing with a hierarchy that has a large number of total attributes:

- Use views
- Use `REFS`
- Break up the hierarchy

### 9.13.5.2 Circular Dependencies Among Types

Avoid creating circular dependencies among types. In other words, do not create situations in which a method of type `T` returns a type `T1`, which has a method that returns a type `T`.

# Glossary

## **atomically null object**

An object whose value is `NULL` is called atomically null. An atomically null object is different from an object that has null values for all its attributes.

## **Binary Large Object (BLOB)**

A large object data type whose value consists of raw binary data.

## **character large object (CLOB)**

The large object (LOB) data type whose value is composed of character data corresponding to the database character set.

## **column object**

An object that is stored as a column of a relational database table (as opposed to an object table). A column object can also be an attribute of another object. A column object is also known as a stored inline object or an embedded object.

## **embedded object attribute**

An attribute of a [column object](#).

## **dynamic method dispatch**

A method call that is dispatched at run-time to the nearest method implementation when there are multiple implementations of the same method using overriding.

## **leaf-level scalar object**

An object that is not a collection and is not composed of other types.

## **leaf-level scalar attribute**

An attribute of a [leaf-level scalar object](#).

## **literal invocation**

An invocation where all arguments are literals or invocations of literal methods. Arguments cannot be variables.

## **materialized view**

A view that contains both the query and its results.

## **multilevel collection type**

Collection types whose elements are collection types, either directly or indirectly.

**multiset operators**

An operator that combines elements of two nested tables into a single nested table.

**nested table**

An unordered set of data elements of the same data type.

**normalize**

The process of removing redundancy in data by separating the data into multiple tables.

**object column**

A column of user-defined types or abstract data types (ADT)s .

**object identifier**

Identifier for a row object which can be either system-generated (default) or based on a primary key using the `CREATE TABLE` statement.

**object instance**

An instance of an object type. Also referred to as an object.

**object table**

A table in which each row represents an object. See [row object](#).

**object type**

The type of the object instance. It is similar to a record that has methods. Object types are user-defined.

**outer table**

A table that contains a nested table.

**pinning**

Fetching.

**PL/SQL**

The Oracle procedural language extension to SQL.

**polymorphism**

Allows handling data types and methods generically using the same interface. In polymorphic overriding, subtypes redefine a method they have inherited. In polymorphic overloading, there may be several versions of the same method, with different parameters.

**primary key**

The column or set of columns specified in the `PRIMARY KEY` constraint of a table.

**REF**

An Oracle built-in data type that encapsulates references to row objects of a specified object type.

**row object**

An object that is stored in a complete row in an [object table](#).

**specializing**

Adding new attributes or methods to a subtype that the parent supertype does not have, or changing the implementation of a method or methods.

**stored procedure**

A PL/SQL block that is stored in the database and can be executed from an application.

**substitutability**

A supertype is substitutable if one of its subtypes can substitute or stand in for it in a variable or column whose declared type is the supertype.

**type evolution**

The modification of a subtype of a type, typically using an `ALTER` statement.

**VARRAY**

An ordered set of data elements, that are of the same data type or a subtype of the declared data type.

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