

part 4

**Database Programming
Techniques**

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Introduction to SQL Programming Techniques

In Chapters 6 and 7, we described several aspects of the SQL language, which is the standard for relational databases. We described the SQL statements for data definition, schema modification, queries, views, and updates. We also described how various constraints on the database contents, such as key and referential integrity constraints, are specified.

In this chapter and the next, we discuss some of the methods that have been developed for accessing databases from programs. Most database access in practical applications is accomplished through software programs that implement **database applications**. This software is usually developed in a general-purpose programming language such as Java, C/C++/C#, COBOL (historically), or some other programming language. In addition, many scripting languages, such as PHP, Python, and JavaScript, are also being used for programming of database access within Web applications. In this chapter, we focus on how databases can be accessed from the traditional programming languages C/C++ and Java, whereas in the next chapter we introduce how databases are accessed from scripting languages such as PHP. Recall from Section 2.3.1 that when database statements are included in a program, the general-purpose programming language is called the *host language*, whereas the database language—SQL, in our case—is called the *data sublanguage*. In some cases, special *database programming languages* are developed specifically for writing database applications. Although many of these were developed as research prototypes, some notable database programming languages have widespread use, such as Oracle's PL/SQL (Programming Language/SQL).

It is important to note that database programming is a very broad topic. There are whole textbooks devoted to each database programming technique and how that technique is realized in a specific system. New techniques are developed all the

time, and changes to existing techniques are incorporated into newer system versions and languages. An additional difficulty in presenting this topic is that although there are SQL standards, these standards themselves are continually evolving, and each DBMS vendor may have some variations from the standard. Because of this, we have chosen to give an introduction to some of the main types of database programming techniques and to compare these techniques, rather than study one particular method or system in detail. The examples we give serve to illustrate the main differences that a programmer would face when using each of these database programming techniques. We will try to use the SQL standards in our examples rather than describe a specific system. When using a specific system, the materials in this chapter can serve as an introduction, but should be augmented with the system manuals or with books describing the specific system.

We start our presentation of database programming in Section 10.1 with an overview of the different techniques developed for accessing a database from programs. Then, in Section 10.2, we discuss the rules for embedding SQL statements into a general-purpose programming language, generally known as *embedded SQL*. This section also briefly discusses *dynamic SQL*, in which queries can be dynamically constructed at runtime, and presents the basics of the SQLJ variation of embedded SQL that was developed specifically for the programming language Java. In Section 10.3, we discuss the technique known as *SQL/CLI* (Call Level Interface), in which a library of procedures and functions is provided for accessing the database. Various sets of library functions have been proposed. The SQL/CLI set of functions is the one given in the SQL standard. Another widely used library of functions is *ODBC* (Open Data Base Connectivity), which has many similarities to SQL/CLI; in fact, SQL/CLI can be thought of as the standardized version of ODBC. A third library of classes—which we do describe—is *JDBC*; this was developed specifically for accessing databases from the Java object-oriented programming language (OOPL). In OOPL, a library of classes is used instead of a library of functions and procedures, and each class has its own operations and functions. In Section 10.4 we discuss *SQL/PSM* (Persistent Stored Modules), which is a part of the SQL standard that allows program modules—procedures and functions—to be stored by the DBMS and accessed through SQL; this also specifies a procedural *database programming language* for writing the persistent stored modules. We briefly compare the three approaches to database programming in Section 10.5, and provide a chapter summary in Section 10.6.

10.1 Overview of Database Programming Techniques and Issues

We now turn our attention to the techniques that have been developed for accessing databases from programs and, in particular, to the issue of how to access SQL databases from application programs. Our presentation of SQL in Chapters 6 and 7 focused on the language constructs for various database operations—from schema definition and constraint specification to querying, updating, and specifying views.

Most database systems have an **interactive interface** where these SQL commands can be typed directly into a monitor for execution by the database system. For example, in a computer system where the Oracle RDBMS is installed, the command SQLPLUS starts the interactive interface. The user can type SQL commands or queries directly over several lines, ended by a semicolon and the Enter key (that is, "`;<cr>`"). Alternatively, a **file of commands** can be created and executed through the interactive interface by typing `@<filename>`. The system will execute the commands written in the file and display the results, if any.

The interactive interface is quite convenient for schema and constraint creation or for occasional ad hoc queries. However, in practice, the majority of database interactions are executed through programs that have been carefully designed and tested. These programs are generally known as **application programs** or **database applications**, and are used as *canned transactions* by the end users, as discussed in Section 1.4.3. Another common use of database programming is to access a database through an application program that implements a **Web interface**, for example, when making airline reservations or online purchases. In fact, the vast majority of Web electronic commerce applications include some database access commands. Chapter 11 gives an overview of Web database programming using PHP, a scripting language that has recently become widely used.

In this section, first we give an overview of the main approaches to database programming. Then we discuss some of the problems that occur when trying to access a database from a general-purpose programming language, and the typical sequence of commands for interacting with a database from a software program.

10.1.1 Approaches to Database Programming

Several techniques exist for including database interactions in application programs. The main approaches for database programming are the following:

1. **Embedding database commands in a general-purpose programming language.** In this approach, database statements are **embedded** into the host programming language, but they are identified by a special prefix. For example, the prefix for embedded SQL is the string EXEC SQL, which precedes all SQL commands in a host language program.¹ A **precompiler** or **preprocessor** scans the source program code to identify database statements and extract them for processing by the DBMS. They are replaced in the program by function calls to the DBMS-generated code. This technique is generally referred to as **embedded SQL**.
2. **Using a library of database functions or classes.** A **library of functions** is made available to the host programming language for database calls. For example, there could be functions to connect to a database, prepare a query, execute a query, execute an update, loop over the query result on record at a time, and so on. The actual database query and update commands and any

¹Other prefixes are sometimes used, but this is the most common.

other necessary information are included as parameters in the function calls. This approach provides what is known as an **application programming interface (API)** for accessing a database from application programs. For object-oriented programming languages (OOPLs), a **class library** is used. For example, Java has the JDBC class library, which can generate various types of objects such as: connection objects to a particular database, query objects, and query result objects. Each type of object has a set of operations associated with the class corresponding to the object.

3. **Designing a brand-new language.** A **database programming language** is designed from scratch to be compatible with the database model and query language. Additional programming structures such as loops and conditional statements are added to the database language to convert it into a full-fledged programming language. An example of this approach is Oracle's PL/SQL. The SQL standard has the SQL/PSM language for specifying stored procedures.

In practice, the first two approaches are more common, since many applications are already written in general-purpose programming languages but require some database access. The third approach is more appropriate for applications that have intensive database interaction. One of the main problems with the first two approaches is *impedance mismatch*, which does not occur in the third approach.

10.1.2 Impedance Mismatch

Impedance mismatch is the term used to refer to the problems that occur because of differences between the database model and the programming language model. For example, the practical relational model has three main constructs: columns (attributes) and their data types, rows (also referred to as tuples or records), and tables (sets or multisets of records). The first problem that may occur is that the *data types of the programming language* differ from the *attribute data types* that are available in the data model. Hence, it is necessary to have a **binding** for each host programming language that specifies for each attribute type the compatible programming language types. A different binding is needed *for each programming language* because different languages have different data types. For example, the data types available in C/C++ and Java are different, and both differ from the SQL data types, which are the standard data types for relational databases.

Another problem occurs because the results of most queries are sets or multisets of tuples (rows), and each tuple is formed of a sequence of attribute values. In the program, it is often necessary to access the individual data values within individual tuples for printing or processing. Hence, a binding is needed to map the *query result data structure*, which is a table, to an appropriate data structure in the programming language. A mechanism is needed to loop over the tuples in a **query result** in order to access a single tuple at a time and to extract individual values from the tuple. The extracted attribute values are typically copied to appropriate program variables for further processing by the program. A **cursor** or **iterator variable** is typically used to loop over the tuples in a query result. Individual values within each tuple are then extracted into distinct program variables of the appropriate type.

Impedance mismatch is less of a problem when a special database programming language is designed that uses the same data model and data types as the database model. One example of such a language is Oracle's PL/SQL. The SQL standard also has a proposal for such a database programming language, known as *SQL/PSM*. For object databases, the object data model (see Chapter 12) is quite similar to the data model of the Java programming language, so the impedance mismatch is greatly reduced when Java is used as the host language for accessing a Java-compatible object database. Several database programming languages have been implemented as research prototypes (see the Selected Bibliography).

10.1.3 Typical Sequence of Interaction in Database Programming

When a programmer or software engineer writes a program that requires access to a database, it is quite common for the program to be running on one computer system while the database is installed on another. Recall from Section 2.5 that a common architecture for database access is the three-tier client/server model, where a top-tier **client program** handles display of information on a laptop or mobile device usually as a Web client or mobile app, a middle-tier **application program** implements the logic of a business software application but includes some calls to one or more **database servers** at the bottom tier to access or update the data.² When writing such an application program, a common sequence of interaction is the following:

1. When the application program requires access to a particular database, the program must first *establish* or *open* a **connection** to the database server. Typically, this involves specifying the Internet address (URL) of the machine where the database server is located, plus providing a login account name and password for database access.
2. Once the connection is established, the program can interact with the database by submitting queries, updates, and other database commands. In general, most types of SQL statements can be included in an application program.
3. When the program no longer needs access to a particular database, it should *terminate* or *close* the connection to the database.

A program can access multiple databases if needed. In some database programming approaches, only one connection can be active at a time, whereas in other approaches multiple connections can be established simultaneously.

In the next three sections, we discuss examples of each of the three main approaches to database programming. Section 10.2 describes how SQL is *embedded* into a programming language. Section 10.3 discusses how *function calls* and *class libraries* are used to access the database using SQL/CLI (similar to ODBC) and JDBC, and Section 10.4 discusses an extension to SQL called SQL/PSM that allows *general-purpose*

²As we discussed in Section 2.5, there are two-tier and three-tier architectures; to keep our discussion simple, we will assume a two-tier client/server architecture here.

programming constructs for defining modules (procedures and functions) that are stored within the database system.³ Section 10.5 compares these approaches.

10.2 Embedded SQL, Dynamic SQL, and SQLJ

In this section, we give an overview of the techniques for embedding SQL statements in a general-purpose programming language. We focus on two languages: C and Java. The examples used with the C language, known as **embedded SQL**, are presented in Sections 10.2.1 through 10.2.3, and can be adapted to other similar programming languages. The examples using Java, known as **SQLJ**, are presented in Sections 10.2.4 and 10.2.5. In this embedded approach, the programming language is called the **host language**. Most SQL statements—including data or constraint definitions, queries, updates, or view definitions—can be embedded in a host language program.

10.2.1 Retrieving Single Tuples with Embedded SQL

To illustrate the concepts of embedded SQL, we will use C as the host programming language.⁴ In a C program, an embedded SQL statement is distinguished from programming language statements by prefixing it with the keywords **EXEC SQL** so that a **preprocessor** (or **precompiler**) can separate embedded SQL statements from the host language source code. The SQL statements within a program are terminated by a matching **END-EXEC** or by a semicolon (;). Similar rules apply to embedding SQL in other programming languages.

Within an embedded SQL command, the programmer can refer to specially declared C program variables; these are called **shared variables** because they are used in both the C program and the embedded SQL statements. Shared variables are prefixed by a colon (:) *when they appear in an SQL statement*. This distinguishes program variable names from the names of database schema constructs such as attributes (column names) and relations (table names). It also allows program variables to have the same names as attribute names, since they are distinguishable by the colon (:) prefix in the SQL statement. Names of database schema constructs—such as attributes and relations—can only be used within the SQL commands, but shared program variables can be used elsewhere in the C program without the colon (:) prefix.

Suppose that we want to write C programs to process the **COMPANY** database in Figure 5.5. We need to declare program variables to match the types of the database attributes that the program will process. The programmer can choose the names of the **program variables**; they may or may not have names that are identical to their

³SQL/PSM illustrates how typical general-purpose programming language constructs—such as loops and conditional structures—can be incorporated into SQL.

⁴Our discussion here also applies to the C++ or C# programming languages, since we do not use any of the object-oriented features, but focus on the database programming mechanism.


```

0) int loop ;
1) EXEC SQL BEGIN DECLARE SECTION ;
2) varchar dname [16], fname [16], lname [16], address [31] ;
3) char ssn [10], bdate [11], sex [2], minit [2] ;
4) float salary, raise ;
5) int dno, dnumber ;
6) int SQLCODE ; char SQLSTATE [6] ;
7) EXEC SQL END DECLARE SECTION ;

```

Figure 10.1

C program variables used in the embedded SQL examples E1 and E2.

corresponding database attributes. We will use the C program variables declared in Figure 10.1 for all our examples and show C program segments *without variable declarations*. Shared variables are declared within a **declare section** in the program, as shown in Figure 10.1 (lines 1 through 7).⁵ A few of the common bindings of C types to SQL types are as follows. The SQL types INTEGER, SMALLINT, REAL, and DOUBLE are mapped to the C data types long, short, float, and double, respectively. Fixed-length and varying-length strings (CHAR [i], VARCHAR [i]) in SQL can be mapped to arrays of characters (char [i+1], varchar [i+1]) in C that are one character longer than the SQL type because strings in C are terminated by a NULL character (\0), which is not part of the character string itself.⁶ Although varchar is not a standard C data type, it is permitted when C is used for SQL database programming.

Notice that the only embedded SQL commands in Figure 10.1 are lines 1 and 7, which tell the precompiler to take note of the C variable names between BEGIN DECLARE and END DECLARE because they can be included in embedded SQL statements—as long as they are preceded by a colon (:). Lines 2 through 5 are regular C program declarations. The C program variables declared in lines 2 through 5 correspond to the attributes of the EMPLOYEE and DEPARTMENT tables from the COMPANY database in Figure 5.5 that was declared by the SQL DDL in Figure 6.1. The variables declared in line 6—SQLCODE and SQLSTATE—are called **SQL communication variables**; they are used to communicate errors and exception conditions between the database system and the executing program. Line 0 shows a program variable *loop* that will not be used in any embedded SQL statement, so it is declared outside the SQL declare section.

Connecting to the Database. The SQL command for establishing a connection to a database has the following form:

```

CONNECT TO <server name>AS <connection name>
AUTHORIZATION <user account name and password> ;

```

In general, since a user or program can access several database servers, several connections can be established, but only one connection can be active at any point in

⁵We use line numbers in our code segments for easy reference; these numbers are not part of the actual code.

⁶SQL strings can also be mapped to char* types in C.

time. The programmer or user can use the <connection name> to change from the currently active connection to a different one by using the following command:

```
SET CONNECTION <connection name> ;
```

Once a connection is no longer needed, it can be terminated by the following command:

```
DISCONNECT <connection name> ;
```

In the examples in this chapter, we assume that the appropriate connection has already been established to the COMPANY database, and that it is the currently active connection.

Communication variables SQLCODE and SQLSTATE. The two special **communication variables** that are used by the DBMS to communicate exception or error conditions to the program are SQLCODE and SQLSTATE. The **SQLCODE** variable shown in Figure 10.1 is an integer variable. After each database command is executed, the DBMS returns a value in SQLCODE. A value of 0 indicates that the statement was executed successfully by the DBMS. If SQLCODE > 0 (or, more specifically, if SQLCODE = 100), this indicates that no more data (records) are available in a query result. If SQLCODE < 0, this indicates some error has occurred. In some systems—for example, in the Oracle RDBMS—SQLCODE is a field in a record structure called SQLCA (SQL communication area), so it is referenced as SQLCA.SQLCODE. In this case, the definition of SQLCA must be included in the C program by including the following line:

```
EXEC SQL include SQLCA ;
```

In later versions of the SQL standard, a communication variable called **SQLSTATE** was added, which is a string of five characters. A value of '00000' in SQLSTATE indicates no error or exception; other values indicate various errors or exceptions. For example, '02000' indicates 'no more data' when using SQLSTATE. Currently, both SQLSTATE and SQLCODE are available in the SQL standard. Many of the error and exception codes returned in SQLSTATE are supposed to be standardized for all SQL vendors and platforms,⁷ whereas the codes returned in SQLCODE are not standardized but are defined by the DBMS vendor. Hence, it is generally better to use SQLSTATE because this makes error handling in the application programs independent of a particular DBMS. As an exercise, the reader should rewrite the examples given later in this chapter using SQLSTATE instead of SQLCODE.

Example of Embedded SQL Programming. Our first example to illustrate embedded SQL programming is a repeating program segment (loop) that takes as input a Social Security number of an employee and prints some information from the corresponding EMPLOYEE record in the database. The C program code is shown as program segment E1 in Figure 10.2. The program reads (inputs) an Ssn value

⁷In particular, SQLSTATE codes starting with the characters 0 through 4 or A through H are supposed to be standardized, whereas other values can be implementation-defined.

```

//Program Segment E1:
0) loop = 1 ;
1) while (loop) {
2)     prompt("Enter a Social Security Number: ", ssn) ;
3)     EXEC SQL
4)         SELECT Fname, Minit, Lname, Address, Salary
5)         INTO :fname, :minit, :lname, :address, :salary
6)         FROM EMPLOYEE WHERE Ssn = :ssn ;
7)     if (SQLCODE == 0) printf(fname, minit, lname, address, salary)
8)     else printf("Social Security Number does not exist: ", ssn) ;
9)     prompt("More Social Security Numbers (enter 1 for Yes, 0 for No): ", loop) ;
10) }

```

Figure 10.2

Program segment E1, a C program segment with embedded SQL.

and then retrieves the EMPLOYEE tuple with that Ssn from the database via the embedded SQL command. The INTO clause (line 5) specifies the program variables into which attribute values from the database record are retrieved. C program variables in the INTO clause are prefixed with a colon (:), as we discussed earlier. The INTO clause can be used in this manner only when the query result is a *single record*; if multiple records are retrieved, an error will be generated. We will see how multiple records are handled in Section 10.2.2.

Line 7 in E1 illustrates the communication between the database and the program through the special variable SQLCODE. If the value returned by the DBMS in SQLCODE is 0, the previous statement was executed without errors or exception conditions. Line 7 checks this and assumes that if an error occurred, it was because no EMPLOYEE tuple existed with the given Ssn; therefore it outputs a message to that effect (line 8).

When a single record is retrieved as in example E1, the programmer can assign its attribute values directly to C program variables in the INTO clause, as in line 5. In general, an SQL query can retrieve many tuples. In that case, the C program will typically loop through the retrieved tuples and process them one at a time. The concept of a *cursor* is used to allow tuple-at-a-time processing of a query result by the host language program. We describe cursors next.

10.2.2 Processing Query Results Using Cursors

A **cursor** is a variable that refers to a *single tuple (row)* from a **query result** that retrieves a collection of tuples. It is used to loop over the query result, one record at a time. The cursor is declared when the SQL query is **declared**. Later in the program, an **OPEN CURSOR** command fetches the query result from the database and sets the cursor to a position *before the first row* in the result of the query. This becomes the **current row** for the cursor. Subsequently, **FETCH** commands are issued in the program; each FETCH moves the cursor to the *next row* in the result of the query, making it the current row and copying its attribute values into the C (host language) program variables specified in the FETCH command by an INTO

clause. The cursor variable is basically an **iterator** that iterates (loops) over the tuples in the query result—one tuple at a time.

To determine when all the tuples in the result of the query have been processed, the communication variable `SQLCODE` (or, alternatively, `SQLSTATE`) is checked. If a `FETCH` command is issued that results in moving the cursor past the last tuple in the result of the query, a positive value (`SQLCODE > 0`) is returned in `SQLCODE`, indicating that no data (tuple) was found (or the string '02000' is returned in `SQLSTATE`). The programmer uses this to terminate the loop over the tuples in the query result. In general, numerous cursors can be opened at the same time. A **CLOSE CURSOR** command is issued to indicate that we are done with processing the result of the query associated with that cursor.

An example of using cursors to process a query result with multiple records is shown in Figure 10.3, where a cursor called `EMP` is declared in line 4. The `EMP` cursor is associated with the SQL query declared in lines 5 through 6, but the query is not executed until the `OPEN EMP` command (line 8) is processed. The `OPEN <cursor name>` command executes the query and fetches its result as a table into the program workspace, where the program can loop through the individual rows (tuples) by subsequent `FETCH <cursor name>` commands (line 9). We assume

Figure 10.3

Program segment E2, a C program segment that uses cursors with embedded SQL for update purposes.

```
//Program Segment E2:
0) prompt("Enter the Department Name: ", dname) ;
1) EXEC SQL
2)   SELECT Dnumber INTO :dnumber
3)   FROM DEPARTMENT WHERE Dname = :dname ;
4) EXEC SQL DECLARE EMP CURSOR FOR
5)   SELECT Ssn, Fname, Minit, Lname, Salary
6)   FROM EMPLOYEE WHERE Dno = :dnumber
7)   FOR UPDATE OF Salary ;
8) EXEC SQL OPEN EMP ;
9) EXEC SQL FETCH FROM EMP INTO :ssn, :fname, :minit, :lname, :salary ;
10) while (SQLCODE == 0) {
11)   printf("Employee name is:", Fname, Minit, Lname) ;
12)   prompt("Enter the raise amount: ", raise) ;
13)   EXEC SQL
14)     UPDATE EMPLOYEE
15)     SET Salary = Salary + :raise
16)     WHERE CURRENT OF EMP ;
17)   EXEC SQL FETCH FROM EMP INTO :ssn, :fname, :minit, :lname, :salary ;
18) }
19) EXEC SQL CLOSE EMP ;
```

that appropriate C program variables have been declared as in Figure 10.1. The program segment in E2 reads (inputs) a department name (line 0), retrieves the matching department number from the database (lines 1 to 3), and then retrieves the employees who work in that department via the declared EMP cursor. A loop (lines 10 to 18) iterates over each record in the query result, one at a time, and prints the employee name, then reads (inputs) a raise amount for that employee (line 12) and updates the employee's salary in the database by the raise amount (lines 14 to 16).

This example also illustrates how the programmer can *update* database records. When a cursor is defined for rows that are to be modified (**updated**), we must add the clause **FOR UPDATE OF** in the cursor declaration and list the names of any attributes that will be updated by the program. This is illustrated in line 7 of code segment E2. If rows are to be **deleted**, the keywords **FOR UPDATE** must be added without specifying any attributes. In the embedded UPDATE (or DELETE) command, the condition **WHERE CURRENT OF** <cursor name> specifies that the current tuple referenced by the cursor is the one to be updated (or deleted), as in line 16 of E2.

There is no need to include the **FOR UPDATE OF** clause in line 7 of E2 if the results of the query are to be used *for retrieval purposes only* (no update or delete).

General Options for a Cursor Declaration. Several options can be specified when declaring a cursor. The general form of a cursor declaration is as follows:

```
DECLARE <cursor name> [ INSENSITIVE ] [ SCROLL ] CURSOR
[ WITH HOLD ] FOR <query specification>
[ ORDER BY <ordering specification> ]
[ FOR READ ONLY | FOR UPDATE [ OF <attribute list> ] ] ;
```

We already briefly discussed the options listed in the last line. The default is that the query is for retrieval purposes (FOR READ ONLY). If some of the tuples in the query result are to be updated, we need to specify FOR UPDATE OF <attribute list> and list the attributes that may be updated. If some tuples are to be deleted, we need to specify FOR UPDATE without any attributes listed.

When the optional keyword SCROLL is specified in a cursor declaration, it is possible to position the cursor in other ways than for purely sequential access. A **fetch orientation** can be added to the FETCH command, whose value can be one of NEXT, PRIOR, FIRST, LAST, ABSOLUTE *i*, and RELATIVE *i*. In the latter two commands, *i* must evaluate to an integer value that specifies an absolute tuple position within the query result (for ABSOLUTE *i*), or a tuple position relative to the current cursor position (for RELATIVE *i*). The default fetch orientation, which we used in our examples, is NEXT. The fetch orientation allows the programmer to move the cursor around the tuples in the query result with greater flexibility, providing random access by position or access in reverse order. When SCROLL is specified on the cursor, the general form of a FETCH command is as follows, with the parts in square brackets being optional:

```
FETCH [ [ <fetch orientation> ] FROM ] <cursor name> INTO <fetch target list>;
```

The ORDER BY clause orders the tuples so that the FETCH command will fetch them in the specified order. It is specified in a similar manner to the corresponding clause for SQL queries (see Section 6.3.6). The last two options when declaring a cursor (INSENSITIVE and WITH HOLD) refer to transaction characteristics of database programs, which we will discuss in Chapter 20.

10.2.3 Specifying Queries at Runtime Using Dynamic SQL

In the previous examples, the embedded SQL queries were written as part of the host program source code. Hence, anytime we want to write a different query, we must modify the program code and go through all the steps involved (compiling, debugging, testing, and so on). In some cases, it is convenient to write a program that can execute different SQL queries or updates (or other operations) *dynamically at runtime*. For example, we may want to write a program that accepts an SQL query typed from the monitor, executes it, and displays its result, such as the interactive interfaces available for most relational DBMSs. Another example is when a user-friendly interface generates SQL queries dynamically for the user based on user input through a Web interface or mobile App. In this section, we give a brief overview of **dynamic SQL**, which is one technique for writing this type of database program, by giving a simple example to illustrate how dynamic SQL can work. In Section 10.3, we will describe another approach for dealing with dynamic queries using function libraries or class libraries.

Program segment E3 in Figure 10.4 reads a string that is input by the user (that string should be an SQL *update command* in this example) into the string program variable *sqlupdatestring* in line 3. It then **prepares** this as an SQL command in line 4 by associating it with the SQL variable *sqlcommand*. Line 5 then **executes** the command. Notice that in this case no syntax check or other types of checks on the command are possible *at compile time*, since the SQL command is not available until runtime. This contrasts with our previous examples of embedded SQL, where the query could be checked at compile time because its text was in the program source code.

In E3, the reason for separating PREPARE and EXECUTE is that if the command is to be executed multiple times in a program, it can be prepared only once. **Preparing the command** generally involves syntax and other types of checks by the system, as

```
//Program Segment E3:
0) EXEC SQL BEGIN DECLARE SECTION ;
1) varchar sqlupdatestring [256] ;
2) EXEC SQL END DECLARE SECTION ;
...
3) prompt("Enter the Update Command: ", sqlupdatestring) ;
4) EXEC SQL PREPARE sqlcommand FROM :sqlupdatestring ;
5) EXEC SQL EXECUTE sqlcommand ;
...
```

Figure 10.4

Program segment E3, a C program segment that uses dynamic SQL for updating a table.

well as generating the code for executing it. It is possible to combine the PREPARE and EXECUTE commands (lines 4 and 5 in E3) into a single statement by writing

```
EXEC SQL EXECUTE IMMEDIATE :sqlupdatestring ;
```

This is useful if the command is to be executed only once. Alternatively, the programmer can separate the two statements to catch any errors after the PREPARE statement as in E3.

Although including a dynamic *update command* is relatively straightforward in dynamic SQL, a dynamic *retrieval query* is much more complicated. This is because the programmer does not know the types or the number of attributes to be retrieved by the SQL query when writing the program. A complex data structure is needed to allow for different numbers and types of attributes in the query result if no prior information is known about the dynamic query. Techniques similar to those that we shall discuss in Section 10.3 can be used to assign retrieval query results (and query parameters) to host program variables.

10.2.4 SQLJ: Embedding SQL Commands in Java

In the previous subsections, we gave an overview of how SQL commands can be embedded in a traditional programming language, using the C language in our examples. We now turn our attention to how SQL can be embedded in an object-oriented programming language,⁸ in particular, the Java language. SQLJ is a standard that has been adopted by several vendors for embedding SQL in Java. Historically, SQLJ was developed after JDBC, which is used for accessing SQL databases from Java using class libraries and function calls. We discuss JDBC in Section 10.3.2. In this section, we focus on SQLJ as it is used in the Oracle RDBMS. An SQLJ translator will generally convert SQL statements into Java, which can then be executed through the JDBC interface. Hence, it is necessary to install a *JDBC driver* when using SQLJ.⁹ In this section, we focus on how to use SQLJ concepts to write embedded SQL in a Java program.

Before being able to process SQLJ with Java in Oracle, it is necessary to import several class libraries, shown in Figure 10.5. These include the JDBC and IO classes (lines 1 and 2), plus the additional classes listed in lines 3, 4, and 5. In addition, the program must first connect to the desired database using the function call `getConnection`, which is one of the methods of the `oracle` class in line 5 of Figure 10.5. The format of this function call, which returns an object of type *default context*,¹⁰ is as follows:

```
public static DefaultContext
getConnection(String url, String user, String password,
              Boolean autoCommit)
throws SQLException ;
```

⁸This section assumes familiarity with object-oriented concepts (see Chapter 12) and basic Java concepts.

⁹We discuss JDBC drivers in Section 10.3.2.

¹⁰A *default context*, when set, applies to subsequent commands in the program until it is changed.


```

1) import java.sql.* ;
2) import java.io.* ;
3) import sqlj.runtime.* ;
4) import sqlj.runtime.ref.* ;
5) import oracle.sqlj.runtime.* ;
   ...
6) DefaultContext cntxt =
7) oracle.getConnection("<url name>", "<user name>", "<password>", true) ;
8) DefaultContext.setDefaultContext(cntxt) ;
   ...

```

Figure 10.5

Importing classes needed for including SQLJ in Java programs in Oracle, and establishing a connection and default context.

For example, we can write the statements in lines 6 through 8 in Figure 10.5 to connect to an Oracle database located at the url <url name> using the login of <user name> and <password> with automatic commitment of each command,¹¹ and then set this connection as the **default context** for subsequent commands.

In the following examples, we will not show complete Java classes or programs since it is not our intention to teach Java. Rather, we will show program segments that illustrate the use of SQLJ. Figure 10.6 shows the Java program variables used in our examples. Program segment J1 in Figure 10.7 reads an employee's Ssn and prints some of the employee's information from the database.

Notice that because Java already uses the concept of **exceptions** for error handling, a special exception called `SQLException` is used to return errors or exception conditions after executing an SQL database command. This plays a similar role to `SQLCODE` and `SQLSTATE` in embedded SQL. Java has many types of predefined exceptions. Each Java operation (function) must specify the exceptions that can be **thrown**—that is, the exception conditions that may occur while executing the Java code of that operation. If a defined exception occurs, the system transfers control to the Java code specified for exception handling. In J1, exception handling for an `SQLException` is specified in lines 7 and 8. In Java, the following structure

```

try {<operation>} catch (<exception>) {<exception handling
    code>} <continuation code>

```

Figure 10.6

Java program variables used in SQLJ examples J1 and J2.

```

1) string dname, ssn , fname, fn, lname, ln,
   bdate, address ;
2) char sex, minit, mi ;
3) double salary, sal ;
4) integer dno, dnumber ;

```

¹¹Automatic commitment roughly means that each command is applied to the database after it is executed. The alternative is that the programmer wants to execute several related database commands and then commit them together. We discuss commit concepts in Chapter 20 when we describe database transactions.


```

//Program Segment J1:
1) ssn = readEntry("Enter a Social Security Number: ") ;
2) try {
3)     #sql { SELECT Fname, Minit, Lname, Address, Salary
4)         INTO :fname, :minit, :lname, :address, :salary
5)         FROM EMPLOYEE WHERE Ssn = :ssn} ;
6) } catch (SQLException se) {
7)     System.out.println("Social Security Number does not exist: " + ssn) ;
8)     Return ;
9) }
10) System.out.println(fname + " " + minit + " " + lname + " " + address
    + " " + salary)

```

Figure 10.7
Program segment J1,
a Java program
segment with SQLJ.

is used to deal with exceptions that occur during the execution of <operation>. If no exception occurs, the <continuation code> is processed directly. Exceptions that can be thrown by the code in a particular operation should be specified as part of the operation declaration or *interface*—for example, in the following format:

```

<operation return type> <operation name> (<parameters>)
    throws SQLException, IOException ;

```

In SQLJ, the embedded SQL commands within a Java program are preceded by `#sql`, as illustrated in J1 line 3, so that they can be identified by the preprocessor. The `#sql` is used instead of the keywords `EXEC SQL` that are used in embedded SQL with the C programming language (see Section 10.2.1). SQLJ uses an *INTO clause*—similar to that used in embedded SQL—to return the attribute values retrieved from the database by an SQL query into Java program variables. The program variables are preceded by colons (`:`) in the SQL statement, as in embedded SQL.

In J1 a *single tuple* is retrieved by the embedded SQLJ query; that is why we are able to assign its attribute values directly to Java program variables in the *INTO* clause in line 4 in Figure 10.7. For queries that retrieve many tuples, SQLJ uses the concept of an *iterator*, which is similar to a cursor in embedded SQL.

10.2.5 Processing Query Results in SQLJ Using Iterators

In SQLJ, an **iterator** is a type of object associated with a collection (set or multiset) of records in a **query result**.¹² The iterator is associated with the tuples and attributes that appear in a query result. There are two types of iterators:

1. A **named iterator** is associated with a query result by listing the attribute *names and types* that appear in the query result. The attribute names must correspond to appropriately declared Java program variables, as shown in Figure 10.6.
2. A **positional iterator** lists only the *attribute types* that appear in the query result.

¹²We shall discuss iterators in more detail in Chapter 12 when we present object database concepts.

In both cases, the list should be *in the same order* as the attributes that are listed in the SELECT clause of the query. However, looping over a query result is different for the two types of iterators. First, we show an example of using a *named iterator* in Figure 10.8, program segment J2A. Line 9 in Figure 10.8 shows how a *named iterator type* `Emp` is declared. Notice that the names of the attributes in a named iterator type must match the names of the attributes in the SQL query result. Line 10 shows how an *iterator object* `e` of type `Emp` is created in the program and then associated with a query (lines 11 and 12).

When the iterator object is associated with a query (lines 11 and 12 in Figure 10.8), the program fetches the query result from the database and sets the iterator to a position *before the first row* in the result of the query. This becomes the **current row** for the iterator. Subsequently, **next** operations are issued on the iterator object; each **next** moves the iterator to the *next row* in the result of the query, making it the current row. If the row exists, the operation retrieves the attribute values for that row into the corresponding program variables. If no more rows exist, the next operation returns NULL, and can thus be used to control the looping. Notice that the named iterator *does not need* an INTO clause, because the program variables corresponding to the retrieved attributes are already specified when the iterator type is declared (line 9 in Figure 10.8).

In Figure 10.8, the command `(e.next())` in line 13 performs two functions: It gets the next tuple in the query result and controls the WHILE loop. Once the

Figure 10.8

Program segment J2A, a Java program segment that uses a named iterator to print employee information in a particular department.

```
//Program Segment J2A:
0) dname = readEntry("Enter the Department Name: ") ;
1) try {
2)     #sql { SELECT Dnumber INTO :dnumber
3)         FROM DEPARTMENT WHERE Dname = :dname} ;
4) } catch (SQLException se) {
5)     System.out.println("Department does not exist: " + dname) ;
6)     Return ;
7) }
8) System.out.println("Employee information for Department: " + dname) ;
9) #sql iterator Emp(String ssn, String fname, String minit, String lname,
    double salary) ;
10) Emp e = null ;
11) #sql e = { SELECT ssn, fname, minit, lname, salary
12)     FROM EMPLOYEE WHERE Dno = :dnumber} ;
13) while (e.next()) {
14)     System.out.println(e.ssn + " " + e.fname + " " + e.minit + " " +
        e.lname + " " + e.salary) ;
15) } ;
16) e.close() ;
```

program is done with processing the query result, the command `e.close()` (line 16) closes the iterator.

Next, consider the same example using *positional* iterators as shown in Figure 10.9 (program segment J2B). Line 9 in Figure 10.9 shows how a *positional iterator type* `Emppos` is declared. The main difference between this and the named iterator is that there are no attribute names (corresponding to program variable names) in the positional iterator—only attribute types. This can provide more flexibility, but it makes the processing of the query result slightly more complex. The attribute types must still be compatible with the attribute types in the SQL query result and in the same order. Line 10 shows how a *positional iterator object* `e` of type `Emppos` is created in the program and then associated with a query (lines 11 and 12).

The positional iterator behaves in a manner that is more similar to embedded SQL (see Section 10.2.2). A **FETCH <iterator variable> INTO <program variables>** command is needed to get the next tuple in a query result. The first time `fetch` is executed, it gets the first tuple (line 13 in Figure 10.9). Line 16 gets the next tuple until no more tuples exist in the query result. To control the loop, a positional iterator function `e.endFetch()` is used. This function is automatically set to a value of `TRUE` when the iterator is initially associated with an SQL query (line 11), and is set to `FALSE` each time a fetch command returns a valid tuple from the query result. It is set to `TRUE` again when a fetch command does not find any more tuples. Line 14 shows how the looping is controlled by negation.

Figure 10.9

Program segment J2B, a Java program segment that uses a positional iterator to print employee information in a particular department.

```
//Program Segment J2B:
0) dname = readEntry("Enter the Department Name: ") ;
1) try {
2)     #sql { SELECT Dnumber INTO :dnumber
3)         FROM DEPARTMENT WHERE Dname = :dname} ;
4) } catch (SQLException se) {
5)     System.out.println("Department does not exist: " + dname) ;
6)     Return ;
7) }
8) System.out.println("Employee information for Department: " + dname) ;
9) #sql iterator Emppos(String, String, String, String, double) ;
10) Emppos e = null ;
11) #sql e = { SELECT ssn, fname, minit, lname, salary
12)     FROM EMPLOYEE WHERE Dno = :dnumber} ;
13) #sql { FETCH :e INTO :ssn, :fn, :mi, :ln, :sal} ;
14) while (!e.endFetch()) {
15)     System.out.println(ssn + " " + fn + " " + mi + " " + ln + " " + sal) ;
16)     #sql { FETCH :e INTO :ssn, :fn, :mi, :ln, :sal} ;
17) } ;
18) e.close() ;
```

10.3 Database Programming with Function Calls and Class Libraries: SQL/CLI and JDBC

Embedded SQL (see Section 10.2) is sometimes referred to as a **static** database programming approach because the query text is written within the program source code and cannot be changed without recompiling or reprocessing the source code. The use of function calls is a more **dynamic** approach for database programming than embedded SQL. We already saw one dynamic database programming technique—dynamic SQL—in Section 10.2.3. The techniques discussed here provide another approach to dynamic database programming. A **library of functions**, also known as an **application programming interface (API)**, is used to access the database. Although this provides more flexibility because no preprocessor is needed, one drawback is that syntax and other checks on SQL commands have to be done at runtime. Another drawback is that it sometimes requires more complex programming to access query results because the types and numbers of attributes in a query result may not be known in advance.

In this section, we give an overview of two function call interfaces. We first discuss the **SQL Call Level Interface (SQL/CLI)**, which is part of the SQL standard. This was developed as a standardization of the popular library of functions known as **ODBC (Open Database Connectivity)**. We use C as the host language in our SQL/CLI examples. Then we give an overview of **JDBC**, which is the call function interface for accessing databases from Java. Although it is commonly assumed that JDBC stands for Java Database Connectivity, JDBC is just a registered trademark of Sun Microsystems (now Oracle), *not* an acronym.

The main advantage of using a function call interface is that it makes it easier to access multiple databases within the same application program, even if they are stored under different DBMS packages. We discuss this further in Section 10.3.2 when we discuss Java database programming with JDBC, although this advantage also applies to database programming with SQL/CLI and ODBC (see Section 10.3.1).

10.3.1 Database Programming with SQL/CLI Using C as the Host Language

Before using the function calls in SQL/CLI, it is necessary to install the appropriate library packages on the database server. These packages are obtained from the vendor of the DBMS being used. We now give an overview of how SQL/CLI can be used in a C program.¹³ We will illustrate our presentation with the sample program segment CLI1 shown in Figure 10.10.

¹³Our discussion here also applies to the C++ and C# programming languages, since we do not use any of the object-oriented features but focus on the database programming mechanism.

```

//Program CLI1:
0) #include sqlcli.h ;
1) void printSal() {
2) SQLHSTMT stmt1 ;
3) SQLHDBC con1 ;
4) SQLHENV env1 ;
5) SQLRETURN ret1, ret2, ret3, ret4 ;
6) ret1 = SQLAllocHandle(SQL_HANDLE_ENV, SQL_NULL_HANDLE, &env1) ;
7) if (!ret1) ret2 = SQLAllocHandle(SQL_HANDLE_DBC, env1, &con1) else exit ;
8) if (!ret2) ret3 = SQLConnect(con1, "dbs", SQL_NTS, "js", SQL_NTS, "xyz",
    SQL_NTS) else exit ;
9) if (!ret3) ret4 = SQLAllocHandle(SQL_HANDLE_STMT, con1, &stmt1) else exit ;
10) SQLPrepare(stmt1, "select Lname, Salary from EMPLOYEE where Ssn = ?",
    SQL_NTS) ;
11) prompt("Enter a Social Security Number: ", ssn) ;
12) SQLBindParameter(stmt1, 1, SQL_CHAR, &ssn, 9, &fetchlen1) ;
13) ret1 = SQLExecute(stmt1) ;
14) if (!ret1) {
15)     SQLBindCol(stmt1, 1, SQL_CHAR, &lname, 15, &fetchlen1) ;
16)     SQLBindCol(stmt1, 2, SQL_FLOAT, &salary, 4, &fetchlen2) ;
17)     ret2 = SQLFetch(stmt1) ;
18)     if (!ret2) printf(ssn, lname, salary)
19)         else printf("Social Security Number does not exist: ", ssn) ;
20) }
21) }

```

Figure 10.10

Program segment CLI1, a C program segment with SQL/CLI.

Handles to environment, connection, statement, and description records. When using SQL/CLI, the SQL statements are dynamically created and passed as *string parameters* in the function calls. Hence, it is necessary to keep track of the information about host program interactions with the database in runtime data structures because the database commands are processed at runtime. The information is kept in four types of records, represented as *structs* in C data types. An **environment record** is used as a container to keep track of one or more database connections and to set environment information. A **connection record** keeps track of the information needed for a particular database connection. A **statement record** keeps track of the information needed for one SQL statement. A **description record** keeps track of the information about tuples or parameters—for example, the number of attributes and their types in a tuple, or the number and types of parameters in a function call. This is needed when the programmer does not know this information about the query when writing the program. In our examples, we assume that the programmer knows the exact query, so we do not show any description records.

Each record is accessible to the program through a C pointer variable—called a **handle** to the record. The handle is returned when a record is first created. To create a record and return its handle, the following SQL/CLI function is used:

```
SQLAllocHandle(<handle_type>, <handle_1>, <handle_2>)
```

In this function, the parameters are as follows:

- **<handle_type>** indicates the type of record being created. The possible values for this parameter are the keywords `SQL_HANDLE_ENV`, `SQL_HANDLE_DBC`, `SQL_HANDLE_STMT`, or `SQL_HANDLE_DESC`, for an environment, connection, statement, or description record, respectively.
- **<handle_1>** indicates the container within which the new handle is being created. For example, for a connection record this would be the environment within which the connection is being created, and for a statement record this would be the connection for that statement.
- **<handle_2>** is the pointer (handle) to the newly created record of type **<handle_type>**.

Steps in a database program. When writing a C program that will include database calls through SQL/CLI, the following are the typical steps that are taken. We illustrate the steps by referring to the example CLI1 in Figure 10.10, which reads a Social Security number of an employee and prints the employee's last name and salary.

1. **Including the library of functions.** The *library of functions* comprising SQL/CLI must be included in the C program. This is called `sqlcli.h`, and is included using line 0 in Figure 10.10.
2. **Declaring handle variables.** Declare *handle variables* of types `SQLHSTMT`, `SQLHDBC`, `SQLHENV`, and `SQLHDESC` for the statements, connections, environments, and descriptions needed in the program, respectively (lines 2 to 4).¹⁴ Also declare variables of type `SQLRETURN` (line 5) to hold the return codes from the SQL/CLI function calls. A return code of 0 (zero) indicates *successful execution* of the function call.
3. **Environment record.** An *environment record* must be set up in the program using `SQLAllocHandle`. The function to do this is shown in line 6. Because an environment record is not contained in any other record, the parameter **<handle_1>** is the NULL handle `SQL_NULL_HANDLE` (NULL pointer) when creating an environment. The handle (pointer) to the newly created environment record is returned in variable `env1` in line 6.
4. **Connecting to the database.** A *connection record* is set up in the program using `SQLAllocHandle`. In line 7, the connection record created has the handle `con1` and is contained in the environment `env1`. A **connection** is then established in `con1` to a particular server database using the `SQLConnect`

¹⁴To keep our presentation simple, we will not show description records here.

function of SQL/CLI (line 8). In our example, the database server name we are connecting to is *db*s and the account name and password for login are *js* and *xyz*, respectively.

5. **Statement record.** A *statement record* is set up in the program using `SQLAllocHandle`. In line 9, the statement record created has the handle `stmt1` and uses the connection `con1`.
6. **Preparing an SQL statement and statement parameters.** The SQL statement is *prepared* using the SQL/CLI function `SQLPrepare`. In line 10, this assigns the SQL **statement string** (the *query* in our example) to the statement handle `stmt1`. The question mark (?) symbol in line 10 represents a **statement parameter**, which is a value to be determined at run-time—typically by binding it to a C program variable. In general, there could be several parameters in a statement string. They are distinguished by the order of appearance of the question marks in the statement string (the first ? represents parameter 1, the second ? represents parameter 2, and so on). The last parameter in `SQLPrepare` should give the length of the SQL statement string in bytes, but if we enter the keyword `SQL_NTS`, this indicates that the string holding the query is a *NULL-terminated string* so that SQL can calculate the string length automatically. This use of `SQL_NTS` also applies to *other string parameters* in the function calls in our examples.
7. **Binding the statement parameters.** Before executing the query, any parameters in the query string should be bound to program variables using the SQL/CLI function `SQLBindParameter`. In Figure 10.10, the parameter (indicated by ?) to the prepared query referenced by `stmt1` is bound to the C program variable `ssn` in line 12. If there are *n* parameters in the SQL statement, we should have *n* `SQLBindParameter` function calls, each with a different *parameter position* (1, 2, ..., *n*).
8. **Executing the statement.** Following these preparations, we can now execute the SQL statement referenced by the handle `stmt1` using the function `SQLExecute` (line 13). Notice that although the query will be executed in line 13, the query results have not yet been assigned to any C program variables.
9. **Processing the query result.** In order to determine where the result of the query is returned, one common technique is the **bound columns** approach. Here, each column in a query result is bound to a C program variable using the `SQLBindCol` function. The columns are distinguished by their order of appearance in the SQL query. In Figure 10.10 lines 15 and 16, the two columns in the query (`Lname` and `Salary`) are bound to the C program variables `lname` and `salary`, respectively.¹⁵

¹⁵An alternative technique known as **unbound columns** uses different SQL/CLI functions, namely `SQLGetCol` or `SQLGetData`, to retrieve columns from the query result without previously binding them; these are applied after the `SQLFetch` command in line 17.

- 10. Retrieving column values.** Finally, in order to retrieve the column values into the C program variables, the function `SQLFetch` is used (line 17). This function is similar to the `FETCH` command of embedded SQL. If a query result has a collection of tuples, each `SQLFetch` call gets the next tuple and returns its column values into the bound program variables. `SQLFetch` returns an exception (nonzero) code if there are no more tuples in the query result.¹⁶

As we can see, using dynamic function calls requires a lot of preparation to set up the SQL statements and to bind statement parameters and query results to the appropriate program variables.

In CLI1 a *single tuple* is selected by the SQL query. Figure 10.11 shows an example of retrieving multiple tuples. We assume that appropriate C program variables have been declared as in Figure 10.1. The program segment in CLI2 reads (inputs) a

```

//Program Segment CLI2:
0) #include sqlcli.h ;
1) void printDepartmentEmps() {
2) SQLHSTMT stmt1 ;
3) SQLHDBC con1 ;
4) SQLHENV env1 ;
5) SQLRETURN ret1, ret2, ret3, ret4 ;
6) ret1 = SQLAllocHandle(SQL_HANDLE_ENV, SQL_NULL_HANDLE, &env1) ;
7) if (!ret1) ret2 = SQLAllocHandle(SQL_HANDLE_DBC, env1, &con1) else exit ;
8) if (!ret2) ret3 = SQLConnect(con1, "dbs", SQL_NTS, "js", SQL_NTS, "xyz",
    SQL_NTS) else exit ;
9) if (!ret3) ret4 = SQLAllocHandle(SQL_HANDLE_STMT, con1, &stmt1) else exit ;
10) SQLPrepare(stmt1, "select Lname, Salary from EMPLOYEE where Dno = ?",
    SQL_NTS) ;
11) prompt("Enter the Department Number: ", dno) ;
12) SQLBindParameter(stmt1, 1, SQL_INTEGER, &dno, 4, &fetchlen1) ;
13) ret1 = SQLExecute(stmt1) ;
14) if (!ret1) {
15)     SQLBindCol(stmt1, 1, SQL_CHAR, &lname, 15, &fetchlen1) ;
16)     SQLBindCol(stmt1, 2, SQL_FLOAT, &salary, 4, &fetchlen2) ;
17)     ret2 = SQLFetch(stmt1) ;
18)     while (!ret2) {
19)         printf(lname, salary) ;
20)         ret2 = SQLFetch(stmt1) ;
21)     }
22) }
23) }
```

Figure 10.11

Program segment CLI2, a C program segment that uses SQL/CLI for a query with a collection of tuples in its result.

¹⁶If unbound program variables are used, `SQLFetch` returns the tuple into a temporary program area. Each subsequent `SQLGetCol` (or `SQLGetData`) returns one attribute value in order. Basically, for each row in the query result, the program should iterate over the attribute values (columns) in that row. This is useful if the number of columns in the query result is variable.

department number and then retrieves the employees who work in that department. A loop then iterates over each employee record, one at a time, and prints the employee's last name and salary.

10.3.2 JDBC: SQL Class Library for Java Programming

We now turn our attention to how SQL can be called from the Java object-oriented programming language.¹⁷ The class libraries and associated function calls for this access are known as **JDBC**.¹⁸ The Java programming language was designed to be platform independent—that is, a program should be able to run on any type of computer system that has a Java interpreter installed. Because of this portability, many RDBMS vendors provide JDBC drivers so that it is possible to access their systems via Java programs.

JDBC drivers. A **JDBC driver** is basically an implementation of the classes and associated objects and function calls specified in JDBC for a particular vendor's RDBMS. Hence, a Java program with JDBC objects and function calls can access any RDBMS that has a JDBC driver available.

Because Java is object-oriented, its function libraries are implemented as **classes**. Before being able to process JDBC function calls with Java, it is necessary to import the **JDBC class libraries**, which are called `java.sql.*`. These can be downloaded and installed via the Web.¹⁹

JDBC is designed to allow a single Java program to connect to several different databases. These are sometimes called the **data sources** accessed by the Java program, and could be stored using RDBMSs from different vendors residing on different machines. Hence, different data source accesses within the same Java program may require JDBC drivers from different vendors. To achieve this flexibility, a special JDBC class called the **driver manager** class is employed, which keeps track of the installed drivers. A driver should be *registered* with the driver manager before it is used. The operations (methods) of the driver manager class include `getDriver`, `registerDriver`, and `deregisterDriver`. These can be used to add and remove drivers for different systems dynamically. Other functions set up and close connections to data sources.

To load a JDBC driver explicitly, the generic Java function for loading a class can be used. For example, to load the JDBC driver for the Oracle RDBMS, the following command can be used:

```
Class.forName("oracle.jdbc.driver.OracleDriver")
```

¹⁷This section assumes familiarity with object-oriented concepts (see Chapter 11) and basic Java concepts.

¹⁸As we mentioned earlier, JDBC is a registered trademark of Sun Microsystems, although it is commonly thought to be an acronym for Java Database Connectivity.

¹⁹These are available from several Web sites—for example, at <http://industry.java.sun.com/products/jdbc/drivers>.

This will register the driver with the driver manager and make it available to the program. It is also possible to load and register the driver(s) needed in the command line that runs the program, for example, by including the following in the command line:

```
-Djdbc.drivers = oracle.jdbc.driver
```

JDBC programming steps. The following are typical steps that are taken when writing a Java application program with database access through JDBC function calls. We illustrate the steps by referring to the example JDBC1 in Figure 10.12, which reads a Social Security number of an employee and prints the employee's last name and salary.

1. **Import the JDBC class library.** The *JDBC library of classes* must be imported into the Java program. These classes are called `java.sql.*`, and can be imported using line 1 in Figure 10.12. Any additional Java class libraries needed by the program must also be imported.

```
//Program JDBC1:
0) import java.io.* ;
1) import java.sql.*
   ...
2) class getEmpInfo {
3)     public static void main (String args []) throws SQLException, IOException {
4)         try { Class.forName("oracle.jdbc.driver.OracleDriver")
5)             } catch (ClassNotFoundException x) {
6)                 System.out.println ("Driver could not be loaded") ;
7)             }
8)         String dbacct, passwd, ssn, lname ;
9)         Double salary ;
10)        dbacct = readentry("Enter database account:") ;
11)        passwd = readentry("Enter password:") ;
12)        Connection conn = DriverManager.getConnection
13)            ("jdbc:oracle:oci8:" + dbacct + "/" + passwd) ;
14)        String stmt1 = "select Lname, Salary from EMPLOYEE where Ssn = ?" ;
15)        PreparedStatement p = conn.prepareStatement(stmt1) ;
16)        ssn = readentry("Enter a Social Security Number: ") ;
17)        p.clearParameters() ;
18)        p.setString(1, ssn) ;
19)        ResultSet r = p.executeQuery() ;
20)        while (r.next()) {
21)            lname = r.getString(1) ;
22)            salary = r.getDouble(2) ;
23)            system.out.println(lname + salary) ;
24)        } }
25) }
```

Figure 10.12

Program segment JDBC1,
a Java program segment
with JDBC.

2. **Load the JDBC driver.** This is shown in lines 4 to 7. The Java exception in line 5 occurs if the driver is not loaded successfully.
3. **Create appropriate variables.** These are the variables needed in the Java program (lines 8 and 9).
4. **The Connection object.** A **connection object** is created using the `getConnection` function of the `DriverManager` class of JDBC. In lines 12 and 13, the `Connection` object is created by using the function call `getConnection(urlstring)`, where `urlstring` has the form

```
jdbc:oracle:<driverType>:<dbaccount>/<password>
```

An alternative form is

```
getConnection(url, dbaccount, password)
```

Various properties can be set for a connection object, but they are mainly related to transactional properties, which we discuss in Chapter 21.

5. **The Prepared Statement object.** A **statement object** is created in the program. In JDBC, there is a basic statement class, `Statement`, with two specialized subclasses: `PreparedStatement` and `CallableStatement`. The example in Figure 10.12 illustrates how **PreparedStatement** objects are created and used. The next example (Figure 10.13) illustrates the other type of `Statement` objects. In line 14 in Figure 10.12, a query string with a single parameter—indicated by the `?` symbol—is created in the string variable `stmt1`. In line 15, an object `p` of type `PreparedStatement` is created based on the query string in `stmt1` and using the connection object `conn`. In general, the programmer should use `PreparedStatement` objects if a query is to be executed *multiple times*, since it would be prepared, checked, and compiled only once, thus saving this cost for the additional executions of the query.
6. **Setting the statement parameters.** The question mark (`?`) symbol in line 14 represents a **statement parameter**, which is a value to be determined at run-time, typically by binding it to a Java program variable. In general, there could be several parameters, distinguished by the order of appearance of the question marks within the statement string (first `?` represents parameter 1, second `?` represents parameter 2, and so on), as we discussed previously.
7. **Binding the statement parameters.** Before executing a `PreparedStatement` query, any parameters should be bound to program variables. Depending on the type of the parameter, different functions such as `setString`, `setInteger`, `setDouble`, and so on are applied to the `PreparedStatement` object to set its parameters. The appropriate function should be used to correspond to the data type of the parameter being set. In Figure 10.12, the parameter (indicated by `?`) in object `p` is bound to the Java program variable `ssn` in line 18. The function `setString` is used because `ssn` is a string variable. If there are n parameters in the SQL statement, we should have n `set . . .` functions, each with a different parameter position (1, 2, . . . , n). Generally, it is advisable to clear all parameters before setting any new values (line 17).

```

//Program Segment JDBC2:
0) import java.io.* ;
1) import java.sql.*
...
2) class printDepartmentEmps {
3)     public static void main (String args [])
4)         throws SQLException, IOException {
5)     try { Class.forName("oracle.jdbc.driver.OracleDriver")
6)     } catch (ClassNotFoundException x) {
7)         System.out.println ("Driver could not be loaded") ;
8)     }
9)     String dbacct, passwd, lname ;
10)    Double salary ;
11)    Integer dno ;
12)    dbacct = readentry("Enter database account:") ;
13)    passwd = readentry("Enter password:") ;
14)    Connection conn = DriverManager.getConnection
15)        ("jdbc:oracle:oci8:" + dbacct + "/" + passwd) ;
16)    dno = readentry("Enter a Department Number: ") ;
17)    String q = "select Lname, Salary from EMPLOYEE where Dno = " +
18)        dno.toString() ;
19)    Statement s = conn.createStatement() ;
20)    ResultSet r = s.executeQuery(q) ;
21)    while (r.next()) {
22)        lname = r.getString(1) ;
23)        salary = r.getDouble(2) ;
24)        system.out.println(lname + salary) ;
25)    } }
26) }

```

Figure 10.13

Program segment JDBC2, a Java program segment that uses JDBC for a query with a collection of tuples in its result.

-
8. **Executing the SQL statement.** Following these preparations, we can now execute the SQL statement referenced by the object *p* using the function `executeQuery` (line 19). There is a generic function `execute` in JDBC, plus two specialized functions: `executeUpdate` and `executeQuery`. `executeUpdate` is used for SQL insert, delete, or update statements, and returns an integer value indicating the number of tuples that were affected. `executeQuery` is used for SQL retrieval statements, and returns an object of type `ResultSet`, which we discuss next.
 9. **Processing the `ResultSet` object.** In line 19, the result of the query is returned in an *object* *r* of type `ResultSet`. This resembles a two-dimensional array or a table, where the tuples are the rows and the attributes returned are the columns. A `ResultSet` object is similar to a cursor in embedded SQL and an iterator in SQLJ. In our example, when the query is executed, *r* refers to a tuple before the first tuple in the query result. The `r.next()` function (line 20) moves to the next tuple (row) in the `ResultSet` object and returns `NULL` if there are no more objects. This is used to control the looping. The

programmer can refer to the attributes in the current tuple using various `get ...` functions that depend on the type of each attribute (for example, `getString`, `getInteger`, `getDouble`, and so on). The programmer can either use the attribute positions (1, 2) or the actual attribute names ("Lname", "Salary") with the `get ...` functions. In our examples, we used the positional notation in lines 21 and 22.

In general, the programmer can check for SQL exceptions after each JDBC function call. We did not do this to simplify the examples.

Notice that JDBC does not distinguish between queries that return single tuples and those that return multiple tuples, unlike some of the other techniques. This is justifiable because a single tuple result set is just a special case.

In example JDBC1, a *single tuple* is selected by the SQL query, so the loop in lines 20 to 24 is executed at most once. The example shown in Figure 10.13 illustrates the retrieval of multiple tuples. The program segment in JDBC2 reads (inputs) a department number and then retrieves the employees who work in that department. A loop then iterates over each employee record, one at a time, and prints the employee's last name and salary. This example also illustrates how we can *execute a query directly*, without having to prepare it as in the previous example. This technique is preferred for queries that will be executed only once, since it is simpler to program. In line 17 of Figure 10.13, the programmer creates a **Statement** object (instead of `PreparedStatement`, as in the previous example) without associating it with a particular query string. The query string `q` is *passed to the statement object* `s` when it is executed in line 18.

This concludes our brief introduction to JDBC. The interested reader is referred to the Web site <http://java.sun.com/docs/books/tutorial/jdbc/>, which contains many further details about JDBC.

10.4 Database Stored Procedures and SQL/PSM

This section introduces two additional topics related to database programming. In Section 10.4.1, we discuss the concept of stored procedures, which are program modules that are stored by the DBMS at the database server. Then in Section 10.4.2 we discuss the extensions to SQL that are specified in the standard to include general-purpose programming constructs in SQL. These extensions are known as SQL/PSM (SQL/Persistent Stored Modules) and can be used to write stored procedures. SQL/PSM also serves as an example of a database programming language that extends a database model and language—namely, SQL—with programming language constructs, such as conditional statements and loops.

10.4.1 Database Stored Procedures and Functions

In our presentation of database programming techniques so far, there was an implicit assumption that the database application program was running on a client

machine, or more likely at the *application server computer* in the middle-tier of a three-tier client-server architecture (see Section 2.5.4 and Figure 2.7). In either case, the machine where the program is executing is different from the machine on which the database server—and the main part of the DBMS software package—is located. Although this is suitable for many applications, it is sometimes useful to create database program modules—procedures or functions—that are stored and executed by the DBMS at the database server. These are historically known as database **stored procedures**, although they can be functions or procedures. The term used in the SQL standard for stored procedures is **persistent stored modules** because these programs are stored persistently by the DBMS, similarly to the persistent data stored by the DBMS.

Stored procedures are useful in the following circumstances:

- If a database program is needed by several applications, it can be stored at the server and invoked by any of the application programs. This reduces duplication of effort and improves software modularity.
- Executing a program at the server can reduce data transfer and communication cost between the client and server in certain situations.
- These procedures can enhance the modeling power provided by views by allowing more complex types of derived data to be made available to the database users via the stored procedures. Additionally, they can be used to check for complex constraints that are beyond the specification power of assertions and triggers.

In general, many commercial DBMSs allow stored procedures and functions to be written in a general-purpose programming language. Alternatively, a stored procedure can be made of simple SQL commands such as retrievals and updates. The general form of declaring stored procedures is as follows:

```
CREATE PROCEDURE <procedure name> (<parameters>)
<local declarations>
<procedure body> ;
```

The parameters and local declarations are optional, and are specified only if needed. For declaring a function, a return type is necessary, so the declaration form is:

```
CREATE FUNCTION <function name> (<parameters>)
RETURNS <return type>
<local declarations>
<function body> ;
```

If the procedure (or function) is written in a general-purpose programming language, it is typical to specify the language as well as a file name where the program code is stored. For example, the following format can be used:

```
CREATE PROCEDURE <procedure name> (<parameters>)
LANGUAGE <programming language name>
EXTERNAL NAME <file path name> ;
```

In general, each parameter should have a **parameter type** that is one of the SQL data types. Each parameter should also have a **parameter mode**, which is one of IN, OUT, or INOUT. These correspond to parameters whose values are input only, output (returned) only, or both input and output, respectively.

Because the procedures and functions are stored persistently by the DBMS, it should be possible to call them from the various SQL interfaces and programming techniques. The **CALL statement** in the SQL standard can be used to invoke a stored procedure—either from an interactive interface or from embedded SQL or SQLJ. The format of the statement is as follows:

```
CALL <procedure or function name> (<argument list>);
```

If this statement is called from JDBC, it should be assigned to a statement object of type **CallableStatement** (see Section 10.3.2).

10.4.2 SQL/PSM: Extending SQL for Specifying Persistent Stored Modules

SQL/PSM is the part of the SQL standard that specifies how to write persistent stored modules. It includes the statements to create functions and procedures that we described in the previous section. It also includes additional programming constructs to enhance the power of SQL for the purpose of writing the code (or body) of stored procedures and functions.

In this section, we discuss the SQL/PSM constructs for conditional (branching) statements and for looping statements. These will give a flavor of the type of constructs that SQL/PSM has incorporated;²⁰ then we give an example to illustrate how these constructs can be used.

The conditional branching statement in SQL/PSM has the following form:

```
IF <condition> THEN <statement list>
  ELSEIF <condition> THEN <statement list>
  ...
  ELSEIF <condition> THEN <statement list>
  ELSE <statement list>
END IF ;
```

Consider the example in Figure 10.14, which illustrates how the conditional branch structure can be used in an SQL/PSM function. The function returns a string value (line 1) describing the size of a department within a company based on the number of employees. There is one IN integer parameter, `deptno`, which gives a department number. A local variable `noOfEmps` is declared in line 2. The query in lines 3 and 4 returns the number of employees in the department, and the conditional

²⁰We only give a brief introduction to SQL/PSM here. There are many other features in the SQL/PSM standard.

```

//Function PSM1:
0) CREATE FUNCTION Dept_size(IN deptno INTEGER)
1) RETURNS VARCHAR [7]
2) DECLARE No_of_ems INTEGER ;
3) SELECT COUNT(*) INTO No_of_ems
4) FROM EMPLOYEE WHERE Dno = deptno ;
5) IF No_of_ems > 100 THEN RETURN "HUGE"
6) ELSEIF No_of_ems > 25 THEN RETURN "LARGE"
7) ELSEIF No_of_ems > 10 THEN RETURN "MEDIUM"
8) ELSE RETURN "SMALL"
9) END IF ;

```

Figure 10.14

Declaring a function in SQL/PSM.

branch in lines 5 to 8 then returns one of the values {'HUGE', 'LARGE', 'MEDIUM', 'SMALL'} based on the number of employees.

SQL/PSM has several constructs for looping. There are standard while and repeat looping structures, which have the following forms:

```

WHILE <condition> DO
    <statement list>
END WHILE ;
REPEAT
    <statement list>
UNTIL <condition>
END REPEAT ;

```

There is also a cursor-based looping structure. The statement list in such a loop is executed once for each tuple in the query result. This has the following form:

```

FOR <loop name> AS <cursor name> CURSOR FOR <query> DO
    <statement list>
END FOR ;

```

Loops can have names, and there is a `LEAVE <loop name>` statement to break a loop when a condition is satisfied. SQL/PSM has many other features, but they are outside the scope of our presentation.

10.5 Comparing the Three Approaches

In this section, we briefly compare the three approaches for database programming and discuss the advantages and disadvantages of each approach.

4. **Embedded SQL Approach.** The main advantage of this approach is that the query text is part of the program source code itself, and hence can be checked for syntax errors and validated against the database schema at compile time. This also makes the program quite readable, as the queries are readily visible

in the source code. The main disadvantages are the loss of flexibility in changing the query at runtime, and the fact that all changes to queries must go through the whole recompilation process. In addition, because the queries are known beforehand, the choice of program variables to hold the query results is a simple task, and so the programming of the application is generally easier. However, for complex applications where queries have to be generated at runtime, the function call approach will be more suitable.

5. **Library of Classes and Function Calls Approach.** This approach provides more flexibility in that queries can be generated at runtime if needed. However, this leads to more complex programming, as program variables that match the columns in the query result may not be known in advance. Because queries are passed as statement strings within the function calls, no checking can be done at compile time. All syntax checking and query validation has to be done at runtime by preparing the query, and the programmer must check and account for possible additional runtime errors within the program code.
6. **Database Programming Language Approach.** This approach does not suffer from the impedance mismatch problem, as the programming language data types are the same as the database data types. However, programmers must learn a new programming language rather than use a language they are already familiar with. In addition, some database programming languages are vendor-specific, whereas general-purpose programming languages can easily work with systems from multiple vendors.

10.6 Summary

In this chapter we presented additional features of the SQL database language. In particular, we presented an overview of the most important techniques for database programming in Section 10.1. Then we discussed the various approaches to database application programming in Sections 10.2 to 10.4.

In Section 10.2, we discussed the general technique known as embedded SQL, where the queries are part of the program source code. A precompiler is typically used to extract SQL commands from the program for processing by the DBMS, and replacing them with function calls to the DBMS compiled code. We presented an overview of embedded SQL, using the C programming language as host language in our examples. We also discussed the SQLJ technique for embedding SQL in Java programs. The concepts of cursor (for embedded SQL) and iterator (for SQLJ) were presented and illustrated by examples to show how they are used for looping over the tuples in a query result, and extracting the attribute value into program variables for further processing.

In Section 10.3, we discussed how function call libraries can be used to access SQL databases. This technique is more dynamic than embedding SQL, but requires more complex programming because the attribute types and number in a query result may be determined at runtime. An overview of the SQL/CLI standard was

presented, with examples using C as the host language. We discussed some of the functions in the SQL/CLI library, how queries are passed as strings, how query parameters are assigned at runtime, and how results are returned to program variables. We then gave an overview of the JDBC class library, which is used with Java, and discussed some of its classes and operations. In particular, the `ResultSet` class is used to create objects that hold the query results, which can then be iterated over by the `next()` operation. The `get` and `set` functions for retrieving attribute values and setting parameter values were also discussed.

In Section 10.4, we gave a brief overview of stored procedures, and discussed SQL/PSM as an example of a database programming language. Finally, we briefly compared the three approaches in Section 10.5. It is important to note that we chose to give a comparative overview of the three main approaches to database programming, since studying a particular approach in depth is a topic that is worthy of its own textbook.

Review Questions

- 10.1. What is ODBC? How is it related to SQL/CLI?
- 10.2. What is JDBC? Is it an example of embedded SQL or of using function calls?
- 10.3. List the three main approaches to database programming. What are the advantages and disadvantages of each approach?
- 10.4. What is the impedance mismatch problem? Which of the three programming approaches minimizes this problem?
- 10.5. Describe the concept of a cursor and how it is used in embedded SQL.
- 10.6. What is SQLJ used for? Describe the two types of iterators available in SQLJ.

Exercises

- 10.7. Consider the database shown in Figure 1.2, whose schema is shown in Figure 2.1. Write a program segment to read a student's name and print his or her grade point average, assuming that A = 4, B = 3, C = 2, and D = 1 points. Use embedded SQL with C as the host language.
- 10.8. Repeat Exercise 10.7, but use SQLJ with Java as the host language.
- 10.9. Consider the library relational database schema in Figure 6.6. Write a program segment that retrieves the list of books that became overdue yesterday and that prints the book title and borrower name for each. Use embedded SQL with C as the host language.
- 10.10. Repeat Exercise 10.9, but use SQLJ with Java as the host language.

- 10.11. Repeat Exercises 10.7 and 10.9, but use SQL/CLI with C as the host language.
- 10.12. Repeat Exercises 10.7 and 10.9, but use JDBC with Java as the host language.
- 10.13. Repeat Exercise 10.7, but write a function in SQL/PSM.
- 10.14. Create a function in PSM that computes the median salary for the EMPLOYEE table shown in Figure 5.5.

Selected Bibliography

There are many books that describe various aspects of SQL database programming. For example, Sunderraman (2007) describes programming on the Oracle 10g DBMS and Reese (1997) focuses on JDBC and Java programming. Many Web resources are also available.

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Web Database Programming Using PHP

In the previous chapter, we gave an overview of database programming techniques using traditional programming languages, and we used the Java and C programming languages in our examples. We now turn our attention to how databases are accessed from scripting languages. Many Internet applications that provide Web interfaces to access information stored in one or more databases use scripting languages. These languages are often used to generate HTML documents, which are then displayed by the Web browser for interaction with the user. In our presentation, we assume that the reader is familiar with basic HTML concepts.

Basic HTML is useful for generating *static* Web pages with fixed text and other objects, but most Internet applications require Web pages that provide interactive features with the user. For example, consider the case of an airline customer who wants to check the arrival time and gate information of a particular flight. The user may enter information such as a date and flight number in certain fields of the Web page. The Web interface will send this information to the application program, which formulates and submits a query to the airline database server to retrieve the information that the user needs. The database information is sent back to the Web page for display. Such Web pages, where part of the information is extracted from databases or other data sources, are called *dynamic* Web pages. The data extracted and displayed each time will be for different flights and dates.

There are various techniques for programming dynamic features into Web pages. We will focus on one technique here, which is based on using the PHP open source server side scripting language. PHP originally stood for Personal Home Page, but now stands for PHP Hypertext Processor. PHP has experienced widespread use. The interpreters for PHP are provided free of charge and are written in the C language so

they are available on most computer platforms. A PHP interpreter provides a Hyper-text Preprocessor, which will execute PHP commands in a text file and create the desired HTML file. To access databases, a library of PHP functions needs to be included in the PHP interpreter, as we will discuss in Section 11.3. PHP programs are executed on the Web server computer. This is in contrast to some scripting languages, such as JavaScript, that are executed on the client computer. There are many other popular scripting languages that can be used to access databases and create dynamic Web pages, such as JavaScript, Ruby, Python, and PERL, to name a few.

This chapter is organized as follows. Section 11.1 gives a simple example to illustrate how PHP can be used. Section 11.2 gives a general overview of the PHP language and how it is used to program some basic functions for interactive Web pages. Section 11.3 focuses on using PHP to interact with SQL databases through a library of functions known as PEAR DB. Section 11.4 lists some of the additional technologies associated with Java for Web and database programming (we already discussed JDBC and SQLJ in Chapter 10). Finally, Section 11.5 contains a chapter summary.

11.1 A Simple PHP Example

PHP is an open source general-purpose scripting language. The interpreter engine for PHP is written in the C programming language so it can be used on nearly all types of computers and operating systems. PHP usually comes installed with the UNIX operating system. For computer platforms with other operating systems such as Windows, Linux, or Mac OS, the PHP interpreter can be downloaded from: <http://www.php.net>. As with other scripting languages, PHP is particularly suited for manipulation of text pages, and in particular for manipulating dynamic HTML pages at the Web server computer. This is in contrast to JavaScript, which is downloaded with the Web pages to execute on the client computer.

PHP has libraries of functions for accessing databases stored under various types of relational database systems such as Oracle, MySQL, SQLServer, and any system that supports the ODBC standard (see Chapter 10). Under the three-tier architecture (see Chapter 2), the DBMS would reside at the **bottom-tier database server**. PHP would run at the **middle-tier Web server**, where the PHP program commands would manipulate the HTML files to create the customized dynamic Web pages. The HTML is then sent to the **client tier** for display and interaction with the user.

Consider the PHP example shown in Figure 11.1(a), which prompts a user to enter the first and last name and then prints a welcome message to that user. The line numbers are not part of the program code; they are used below for explanation purposes only:

1. Suppose that the file containing PHP script in program segment P1 is stored in the following Internet location: <http://www.myserver.com/example/greeting.php>. Then if a user types this address in the browser, the PHP interpreter would start interpreting the code and produce the form shown in Figure 11.1(b). We will explain how that happens as we go over the lines in code segment P1.


(a)

```

//Program Segment P1:
0) <?php
1) // Printing a welcome message if the user submitted their name
   // through the HTML form
2) if ($_POST['user_name']) {
3)     print("Welcome, ") ;
4)     print($_POST['user_name']);
5) }
6) else {
7)     // Printing the form to enter the user name since no name has
       // been entered yet
8)     print <<< _HTML_
9)     <FORM method="post" action="$_SERVER['PHP_SELF']">
10)    Enter your name: <input type="text" name="user_name">
11)    <BR/>
12)    <INPUT type="submit" value="SUBMIT NAME">
13)    </FORM>
14)    _HTML_;
15) }
16) ?>

```

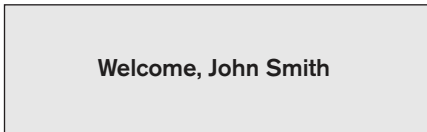
(b)



(c)



(d)


Figure 11.1

(a) PHP program segment for entering a greeting.
 (b) Initial form displayed by PHP program segment.
 (c) User enters name *John Smith*. (d) Form prints welcome message for *John Smith*.

2. Line 0 shows the PHP start tag `<?php`, which indicates to the PHP interpreter engine that it should process all subsequent text lines until it encounters the PHP end tag `?>`, shown on line 16. Text outside of these tags is printed as is. This allows PHP code segments to be included within a larger HTML file. Only the sections in the file between `<?php` and `?>` are processed by the PHP preprocessor.
3. Line 1 shows one way of posting comments in a PHP program on a single line started by `//`. Single-line comments can also be started with `#`, and end at the end of the line in which they are entered. Multiple-line comments start with `/*` and end with `*/`.
4. The **auto-global** predefined PHP variable `$_POST` (line 2) is an array that holds all the values entered through form parameters. Arrays in PHP are

dynamic arrays, with no fixed number of elements. They can be numerically indexed arrays whose indexes (positions) are numbered (0, 1, 2, ...), or they can be associative arrays whose indexes can be any string values. For example, an associative array indexed based on color can have the indexes {"red", "blue", "green"}. In this example, `$_POST` is associatively indexed by the name of the posted value `user_name` that is specified in the name attribute of the input tag on line 10. Thus `$_POST['user_name']` will contain the value typed in by the user. We will discuss PHP arrays further in Section 11.2.2.

5. When the Web page at <http://www.myserver.com/example/greeting.php> is first opened, the `if` condition in line 2 will evaluate to false because there is no value yet in `$_POST['user_name']`. Hence, the PHP interpreter will process lines 6 through 15, which create the text for an HTML file that displays the form shown in Figure 11.1(b). This is then displayed at the client side by the Web browser.
6. Line 8 shows one way of creating **long text strings** in an HTML file. We will discuss other ways to specify strings later in this section. All text between an opening `<<<_HTML_` and a closing `_HTML_;` is printed into the HTML file as is. The closing `_HTML_;` must be alone on a separate line. Thus, the text added to the HTML file sent to the client will be the text between lines 9 and 13. This includes HTML tags to create the form shown in Figure 11.1(b).
7. PHP **variable names** start with a `$` sign and can include characters, numbers, and the underscore character `_`. The PHP auto-global (predefined) variable `$_SERVER` (line 9) is an array that includes information about the local server. The element `$_SERVER['PHP_SELF']` in the array is the path name of the PHP file currently being executed on the server. Thus, the action attribute of the form tag (line 9) instructs the PHP interpreter to reprocess the same file, once the form parameters are entered by the user.
8. Once the user types the name *John Smith* in the text box and clicks on the **SUBMIT NAME** button (Figure 11.1(c)), program segment *P1* is reprocessed. This time, `$_POST['user_name']` will include the string "John Smith", so lines 3 and 4 will now be placed in the HTML file sent to the client, which displays the message in Figure 11.1(d).

As we can see from this example, a PHP program can create two different HTML commands depending on whether the user just started or whether they had already submitted their name through the form. In general, a PHP program can create numerous variations of HTML text in an HTML file at the server depending on the particular conditional paths taken in the program. Hence, the HTML sent to the client will be different depending on the interaction with the user. This is one way in which PHP is used to create *dynamic* Web pages.

11.2 Overview of Basic Features of PHP

In this section we give an overview of a few of the features of PHP that are useful in creating interactive HTML pages. Section 11.3 will focus on how PHP programs can access databases for querying and updating. We cannot give a comprehensive

discussion of PHP; there are many books that focus solely on PHP. Rather, we focus on illustrating certain features of PHP that are particularly suited for creating dynamic Web pages that contain database access commands. This section covers some PHP concepts and features that will be needed when we discuss database access in Section 11.3.

11.2.1 PHP Variables, Data Types, and Programming Constructs

PHP **variable names** start with the \$ symbol and can include characters, letters, and the underscore character (_). No other special characters are permitted. Variable names are case sensitive, and the first character cannot be a number. Variables are not typed. The values assigned to the variables determine their type. In fact, the same variable can change its type once a new value is assigned to it. Assignment is via the = operator.

Since PHP is directed toward text processing, there are several different types of string values. There are also many functions available for processing strings. We only discuss some basic properties of string values and variables here. Figure 11.2 illustrates some string values. There are three main ways to express strings and text:

1. **Single-quoted strings.** Enclose the string between single quotes, as in lines 0, 1, and 2. If a single quote is needed within the string, use the escape character (\) (see line 2).
2. **Double-quoted strings.** Enclose strings between double quotes as in line 7. In this case, *variable names appearing within the string* are replaced by the values that are currently stored in these variables. The interpreter identifies variable names within double-quoted strings by their initial character \$ and replaces them with the value in the variable. This is known as **interpolating variables** within strings. Interpolation does not occur in single-quoted strings.
3. **Here documents.** Enclose a part of a document between a <<<DOCNAME and end it with a single line containing the document name DOCNAME.

```

0) print 'Welcome to my Web site.';
1) print 'I said to him, "Welcome Home"';
2) print 'We\'ll now visit the next Web site';
3) printf('The cost is $%.2f and the tax is $%.2f',
   $cost, $tax) ;
4) print strtolower('AbCdE');
5) print ucwords(strtolower('JOHN smith'));
6) print 'abc' . 'efg'
7) print "send your email reply to: $email_address"
8) print <<<FORM_HTML
9) <FORM method="post" action="$_SERVER['PHP_SELF']">
10) Enter your name: <input type="text" name="user_name">
11) FORM_HTML

```

Figure 11.2

Illustrating basic PHP string and text values.

DOCNAME can be any string as long as it used both to start and end the here document. This is illustrated in lines 8 through 11 in Figure 11.2. Variables are also interpolated by replacing them with their string values if they appear inside here documents. This feature is used in a similar way to double-quoted strings, but it is more convenient for multiple-line text.

4. **Single and double quotes.** Single and double quotes used by PHP to enclose strings should be *straight* quotes ("") on both sides of the string. The text editor that creates these quotes should not produce *curly* opening and closing quotes (“ ”) around the string.

There is also a string concatenate operator specified by the period (.) symbol, as illustrated in line 6 of Figure 11.2. There are many string functions. We only illustrate a couple of them here. The function `strtolower` changes the alphabetic characters in the string to all lowercase, whereas the function `ucwords` capitalizes all the words in a string. These are illustrated in lines 4 and 5 in Figure 11.2.

The general rule is to use single-quoted strings for literal strings that contain no PHP program variables and the other two types (double-quoted strings and here documents) when the values from variables need to be interpolated into the string. For large blocks of multiline text, the program should use the *here documents* style for strings.

PHP also has numeric data types for integers and floating points and generally follows the rules of the C programming language for processing these types. Numbers can be formatted for printing into strings by specifying the number of digits that follow the decimal point. A variation of the `print` function called `printf` (print formatted) allows formatting of numbers within a string, as illustrated in line 3 of Figure 11.2.

There are the standard programming language constructs of for-loops, while-loops, and conditional if-statements. They are generally similar to their C language counterparts. We will not discuss them here. Similarly, *any value* evaluates to true if used as a Boolean expression *except for* numeric zero (0) and blank string, which evaluate to false. There are also literal true and false values that can be assigned. The comparison operators also generally follow C language rules. They are `==` (equal), `!=` (not equal), `>` (greater than), `>=` (greater than or equal), `<` (less than), and `<=` (less than or equal).

11.2.2 PHP Arrays

Arrays are very important in PHP, since they allow lists of elements. They are used frequently in forms that employ pull-down menus. A single-dimensional array is used to hold the list of choices in the pull-down menu. For database query results, two-dimensional arrays are used, with the first dimension representing *rows* of a table and the second dimension representing *columns* (attributes) within a row. There are two main types of arrays: numeric and associative. We discuss each of these in the context of single-dimensional arrays next.

A **numeric array** associates a numeric index (or position or sequence number) with each element in the array. Indexes are integer numbers that start at zero and grow incrementally. An element in the array is referenced through its index. An **associative array** provides pairs of (key => value) elements. The value of an element is referenced through its key, and all key values in a particular array must be unique. The element values can be strings or integers, or they can be arrays themselves, thus leading to higher dimensional arrays.

Figure 11.3 gives two examples of array variables: `$teaching` and `$courses`. The first array `$teaching` is associative (see line 0 in Figure 11.3), and each element associates a course name (as key) with the name of the course instructor (as value). There are three elements in this array. Line 1 shows how the array may be updated. The first command in line 1 assigns a new instructor to the course 'Graphics' by updating its value. Since the key value 'Graphics' already exists in the array, no new element is created but the existing value is updated. The second command creates a new element since the key value 'Data Mining' did not exist in the array before. New elements are added at the end of the array.

If we only provide values (no keys) as array elements, the keys are automatically numeric and numbered 0, 1, 2, This is illustrated in line 5 of Figure 11.3, by the `$courses` array. Both associative and numeric arrays have no size limits. If some value of another data type, say an integer, is assigned to a PHP variable that was holding an array, the variable now holds the integer value and the array contents are lost. Basically, most variables can be assigned to values of any data type at any time.

There are several different techniques for looping through arrays in PHP. We illustrate two of these techniques in Figure 11.3. Lines 3 and 4 show one method of looping through all the elements in an array using the `foreach` construct, and printing the key and value of each element on a separate line. Lines 7 through 10 show how a traditional for-loop construct can be used. A built-in function `count`

Figure 11.3

Illustrating basic PHP array processing.

```

0) $teaching = array('Database' => 'Smith', 'OS' => 'Carrick',
                    'Graphics' => 'Kam');
1) $teaching['Graphics'] = 'Benson'; $teaching['Data Mining'] = 'Li';
2) sort($teaching);
3) foreach ($teaching as $key => $value) {
4)     print " $key : $value\n";}
5) $courses = array('Database', 'OS', 'Graphics', 'Data Mining');
6) $alt_row_color = array('blue', 'yellow');
7) for ($i = 0, $num = count($courses); i < $num; $i++) {
8)     print "<TR bgcolor=\"" . $alt_row_color[$i % 2] . "\">";
9)     print "<TD>Course $i is</TD><TD>$course[$i]</TD></TR>\n";
10) }
```

(line 7) returns the current number of elements in the array, which is assigned to the variable `$num` and used to control ending the loop.

The example in lines 7 through 10 also illustrates how an HTML table can be displayed with alternating row colors, by setting the two colors in an array `$alt_row_color` (line 8). Each time through the loop, the remainder function `$i % 2` switches from one row (index 0) to the next (index 1) (see line 8). The color is assigned to the HTML *bgcolor* attribute of the `<TR>` (table row) tag.

The count function (line 7) returns the current number of elements in the array. The sort function (line 2) sorts the array based on the element values in it (not the keys). For associative arrays, each key remains associated with the same element value after sorting. This does not occur when sorting numeric arrays. There are many other functions that can be applied to PHP arrays, but a full discussion is outside the scope of our presentation.

11.2.3 PHP Functions

As with other programming languages, **functions** can be defined in PHP to better structure a complex program and to share common sections of code that can be reused by multiple applications. The newer version of PHP, PHP5, also has object-oriented features, but we will not discuss these here because we are focusing on the basics of PHP. Basic PHP functions can have arguments that are *passed by value*. Global variables can be accessed within functions. Standard scope rules apply to variables that appear within a function and within the code that calls the function.

We now give two simple examples to illustrate basic PHP functions. In Figure 11.4, we show how we could rewrite the code segment P1 from Figure 11.1(a) using functions. The code segment P1' in Figure 11.4 has two functions: `display_welcome()` (lines 0 to 3) and `display_empty_form()` (lines 5 to 13). Neither of these functions has arguments; nor do they have return values. Lines 14 through 19 show how we can call these functions to produce the same effect as the segment of code P1 in Figure 11.1(a). As we can see in this example, functions can be used just to make the PHP code better structured and easier to follow.

A second example is shown in Figure 11.5. Here we are using the `$teaching` array introduced in Figure 11.3. The function `course_instructor()` in lines 0 to 8 in Figure 11.5 has two arguments: `$course` (a string holding a course name) and `$teaching_assignments` (an associative array holding course assignments, similar to the `$teaching` array shown in Figure 11.3). The function finds the name of the instructor who teaches a particular course. Lines 9 to 14 in Figure 11.5 show how this function may be used.

The function call in line 11 would return the string: *Smith is teaching Database*, because the array entry with the key 'Database' has the value 'Smith' for instructor. On the other hand, the function call on line 13 would return the string: *there is no Computer Architecture course* because there is no entry in the array with the key

Figure 11.4

Rewriting program segment P1 as P1' using functions.

```
//Program Segment P1':
0) function display_welcome() {
1)     print("Welcome, ") ;
2)     print($_POST['user_name']);
3) }
4)
5) function display_empty_form(); {
6) print <<<_HTML_
7) <FORM method="post" action="$_SERVER['PHP_SELF']">
8) Enter your name: <INPUT type="text" name="user_name">
9) <BR/>
10) <INPUT type="submit" value="Submit name">
11) </FORM>
12) _HTML_;
13) }
14) if ($_POST['user_name']) {
15)     display_welcome();
16) }
17) else {
18)     display_empty_form();
19) }
```

Figure 11.5

Illustrating a function with arguments and return value.

```
0) function course_instructor ($course, $teaching_assignments) {
1)     if (array_key_exists($course, $teaching_assignments)) {
2)         $instructor = $teaching_assignments[$course];
3)         RETURN "$instructor is teaching $course";
4)     }
5)     else {
6)         RETURN "there is no $course course";
7)     }
8) }
9) $teaching = array('Database' => 'Smith', 'OS' => 'Carrick',
                    'Graphics' => 'Kam');
10) $teaching['Graphics'] = 'Benson'; $teaching['Data Mining'] = 'Li';
11) $x = course_instructor('Database', $teaching);
12) print($x);
13) $x = course_instructor('Computer Architecture', $teaching);
14) print($x);
```

‘Computer Architecture’. A few comments about this example and about PHP functions in general:

- The built-in PHP array function `array_key_exists($k, $a)` returns true if the value in variable `$k` exists as a key in the associative array in the variable `$a`. In our example, it checks whether the `$course` value provided exists as a key in the array `$teaching_assignments` (line 1 in Figure 11.5).
- Function arguments are passed by value. Hence, in this example, the calls in lines 11 and 13 could not change the array `$teaching` provided as argument for the call. The values provided in the arguments are passed (copied) to the function arguments when the function is called.
- Return values of a function are placed after the `RETURN` keyword. A function can return any type. In this example, it returns a string type. Two different strings can be returned in our example, depending on whether the `$course` key value provided exists in the array or not.
- Scope rules for variable names apply as in other programming languages. Global variables outside of the function cannot be used unless they are referred to using the built-in PHP array `$GLOBALS`. Basically, `$GLOBALS['abc']` will access the value in a global variable `$abc` defined outside the function. Otherwise, variables appearing inside a function are local even if there is a global variable with the same name.

The previous discussion gives a brief overview of PHP functions. Many details are not discussed since it is not our goal to present PHP in detail.

11.2.4 PHP Server Variables and Forms

There are a number of built-in entries in a PHP auto-global built-in array variable called `$_SERVER` that can provide the programmer with useful information about the server where the PHP interpreter is running, as well as other information. These may be needed when constructing the text in an HTML document (for example, see line 7 in Figure 11.4). Here are some of these entries:

1. `$_SERVER['SERVER_NAME']`. This provides the Web site name or the Uniform Resource Locator (URL) of the server computer where the PHP interpreter is running. For example, if the PHP interpreter is running on the Web site `http://www.uta.edu`, then this string would be the value in `$_SERVER['SERVER_NAME']`.
2. `$_SERVER['REMOTE_ADDRESS']`. This is the IP (Internet Protocol) address of the client user computer that is accessing the server; for example, `129.107.61.8`.
3. `$_SERVER['REMOTE_HOST']`. This is the Web site name (URL) of the client user computer; for example, `abc.uta.edu`. In this case, the server will need to translate the name into an IP address to access the client.
4. `$_SERVER['PATH_INFO']`. This is the part of the URL address that comes after a backslash (`/`) at the end of the URL.

5. `$_SERVER['QUERY_STRING']`. This provides the string that holds parameters in a URL after a question mark (?) at the end of the URL. This can hold search parameters, for example.
6. `$_SERVER['DOCUMENT_ROOT']`. This is the root directory that holds the files on the Web server that are accessible to client users.

These and other entries in the `$_SERVER` array are usually needed when creating the HTML file to be sent to the client for display.

Another important PHP auto-global built-in array variable is called `$_POST`. This provides the programmer with input values submitted by the user through HTML forms specified in the HTML `<INPUT>` tag and other similar tags. For example, in Figure 11.4, line 14, the variable `$_POST['user_name']` provides the programmer with the value typed in by the user in the HTML form specified via the `<INPUT>` tag on line 8 in Figure 11.4. The keys to this array are the names of the various input parameters provided via the form, for example by using the name attribute of the HTML `<INPUT>` tag as on line 8. When users enter data through forms, the data values are stored in this array.

11.3 Overview of PHP Database Programming

There are various techniques for accessing a database through a programming language. We discussed some of the techniques in Chapter 10, in the overviews of how to access an SQL database using the C and Java programming languages. In particular, we discussed embedded SQL, JDBC, SQL/CLI (similar to ODBC), and SQLJ. In this section we give an overview of how to access the database using the script language PHP, which is suitable for creating Web interfaces for searching and updating databases, as well as dynamic Web pages.

There is a PHP database access function library that is part of PHP Extension and Application Repository (PEAR), which is a collection of several libraries of functions for enhancing PHP. The PEAR DB library provides functions for database access. Many database systems can be accessed from this library, including Oracle, MySQL, SQLite, and Microsoft SQLServer, among others.

We will discuss several functions that are part of PEAR DB in the context of some examples. Section 11.3.1 shows how to connect to a database using PHP. Section 11.3.2 discusses how data collected from HTML forms can be used to insert a new record in a database table. Section 11.3.3 shows how retrieval queries can be executed and have their results displayed within a dynamic Web page.

11.3.1 Connecting to a Database

To use the database functions in a PHP program, the PEAR DB library module called `DB.php` must be loaded. In Figure 11.6, this is done in line 0 of the example. The DB library functions can now be accessed using `DB::<function_name>`. The function for connecting to a database is called `DB::connect('string')`,

```

0) require 'DB.php';
1) $d = DB::connect('oci8://acctl:pass12@www.host.com/db1');
2) if (DB::isError($d)) { die("cannot connect - " . $d->getMessage());}
   ...
3) $q = $d->query("CREATE TABLE EMPLOYEE
4)   (Emp_id INT,
5)   Name VARCHAR(15),
6)   Job VARCHAR(10),
7)   Dno INT);" );
8) if (DB::isError($q)) { die("table creation not successful - " .
   $q->getMessage()); }
   ...
9) $d->setErrorHandler(PEAR_ERROR_DIE);
   ...
10) $eid = $d->nextID('EMPLOYEE');
11) $q = $d->query("INSERT INTO EMPLOYEE VALUES
12)   ($eid, $_POST['emp_name'], $_POST['emp_job'], $_POST['emp_dno'])" );
   ...
13) $eid = $d->nextID('EMPLOYEE');
14) $q = $d->query('INSERT INTO EMPLOYEE VALUES (?, ?, ?, ?)',
15) array($eid, $_POST['emp_name'], $_POST['emp_job'], $_POST['emp_dno']) );

```

Figure 11.6

Connecting to a database, creating a table, and inserting a record.

where the string argument specifies the database information. The format for 'string' is:

```
<DBMS software>://<user account>:<password>@<database server>
```

In Figure 11.6, line 1 connects to the database that is stored using Oracle (specified via the string `oci8`). The `<DBMS software>` portion of the 'string' specifies the particular DBMS software package being connected to. Some of the DBMS software packages that are accessible through PEAR DB are:

- **MySQL.** Specified as `mysql` for earlier versions and `mysqli` for later versions starting with version 4.1.2.
- **Oracle.** Specified as `oci8i` for versions 7, 8, and 9. This is used in line 1 of Figure 11.6.
- **SQLite.** Specified as `sqlite`.
- **Microsoft SQL Server.** Specified as `mssql`.
- **Mini SQL.** Specified as `msql`.
- **Informix.** Specified as `ifx`.
- **Sybase.** Specified as `sybase`.
- **Any ODBC-compliant system.** Specified as `odbc`.

The above is not a comprehensive list.

Following the `<DB software>` in the string argument passed to `DB::connect` is the separator `://` followed by the user account name `<user account>` followed by the separator `:` and the account password `<password>`. These are followed by the separator `@` and the server name and directory `<database server>` where the database is stored.

In line 1 of Figure 11.6, the user is connecting to the server at `www.host.com/db1` using the account name `acct1` and password `pass12` stored under the Oracle DBMS `oci8`. The whole string is passed using `DB::connect`. The connection information is kept in the database connection variable `$d`, which is used whenever an operation to this particular database is applied.

Checking for errors. Line 2 in Figure 11.6 shows how to check whether the connection to the database was established successfully or not. PEAR DB has a function `DB::isError`, which can determine whether any database access operation was successful or not. The argument to this function is the database connection variable (`$d` in this example). In general, the PHP programmer can check after every database call to determine whether the last database operation was successful or not, and terminate the program (using the *die* function) if it was not successful. An error message is also returned from the database via the operation `$d->get_message()`. This can also be displayed as shown in line 2 of Figure 11.6.

Submitting queries and other SQL statements. In general, most SQL commands can be sent to the database once a connection is established by using the *query* function. The function `$d->query` takes an SQL command as its string argument and sends it to the database server for execution. In Figure 11.6, lines 3 to 7 send a `CREATE TABLE` command to create a table called `EMPLOYEE` with four attributes. Whenever a query or SQL statement is executed, the result of the query is assigned to a query variable, which is called `$q` in our example. Line 8 checks whether the query was executed successfully or not.

The PHP PEAR DB library offers an alternative to having to check for errors after every database command. The function

```
$d->setErrorHandler(PEAR_ERROR_DIE)
```

will terminate the program and print the default error messages if any subsequent errors occur when accessing the database through connection `$d` (see line 9 in Figure 11.6).

11.3.2 Collecting Data from Forms and Inserting Records

It is common in database applications to collect information through HTML or other types of Web forms. For example, when purchasing an airline ticket or applying for a credit card, the user has to enter personal information such as name, address, and phone number. This information is typically collected and stored in a database record on a database server.

Lines 10 through 12 in Figure 11.6 illustrate how this may be done. In this example, we omitted the code for creating the form and collecting the data, which can be a variation of the example in Figure 11.1. We assume that the user entered valid values in the input parameters called `emp_name`, `emp_job`, and `emp_dno`. These would be accessible via the PHP auto-global array `$_POST` as discussed at the end of Section 11.2.4.

In the SQL `INSERT` command shown on lines 11 and 12 in Figure 11.6, the array entries `$POST['emp_name']`, `$POST['emp_job']`, and `$POST['emp_dno']` will hold the values collected from the user through the input form of HTML. These are then inserted as a new employee record in the `EMPLOYEE` table.

This example also illustrates another feature of PEAR DB. It is common in some applications to create a unique record identifier for each new record inserted into the database.¹

PHP has a function `$d->nextID` to create a sequence of unique values for a particular table. In our example, the field `Emp_id` of the `EMPLOYEE` table (see Figure 11.6, line 4) is created for this purpose. Line 10 shows how to retrieve the next unique value in the sequence for the `EMPLOYEE` table and insert it as part of the new record in lines 11 and 12.

The code for insert in lines 10 to 12 in Figure 11.6 may allow malicious strings to be entered that can alter the `INSERT` command. A safer way to do inserts and other queries is through the use of **placeholders** (specified by the `?` symbol). An example is illustrated in lines 13 to 15, where another record is to be inserted. In this form of the `$d->query()` function, there are two arguments. The first argument is the SQL statement, with one or more `?` symbols (placeholders). The second argument is an array, whose element values will be used to replace the placeholders in the order they are specified (see lines 13 to 15 in Figure 11.6).

11.3.3 Retrieval Queries from Database Tables

We now give three examples of retrieval queries through PHP, shown in Figure 11.7. The first few lines 0 to 3 establish a database connection `$d` and set the error handling to the default, as we discussed in the previous section. The first query (lines 4 to 7) retrieves the name and department number of all employee records. The query variable `$q` is used to refer to the **query result**. A while-loop to go over each row in the result is shown in lines 5 to 7. The function `$q->fetchRow()` in line 5 serves to retrieve the next record in the query result and to control the loop. The looping starts at the first record.

The second query example is shown in lines 8 to 13 and illustrates a dynamic query. In this query, the conditions for selection of rows are based on values input by the user. Here we want to retrieve the names of employees who have a

¹This would be similar to the system-generated OID discussed in Chapter 12 for object and object-relational database systems.

```

0) require 'DB.php';
1) $d = DB::connect('oci8://acctl:pass12@www.host.com/dbname');
2) if (DB::isError($d)) { die("cannot connect - " . $d->getMessage()); }
3) $d->setErrorHandler(PEAR_ERROR_DIE);
   ...
4) $q = $d->query('SELECT Name, Dno FROM EMPLOYEE');
5) while ($r = $q->fetchRow()) {
6)     print "employee $r[0] works for department $r[1] \n" ;
7) }
   ...
8) $q = $d->query('SELECT Name FROM EMPLOYEE WHERE Job = ? AND Dno = ?',
9)     array($_POST['emp_job'], $_POST['emp_dno']) );
10) print "employees in dept $_POST['emp_dno'] whose job is
    $_POST['emp_job']: \n"
11) while ($r = $q->fetchRow()) {
12)     print "employee $r[0] \n" ;
13) }
   ...
14) $allresult = $d->getAll('SELECT Name, Job, Dno FROM EMPLOYEE');
15) foreach ($allresult as $r) {
16)     print "employee $r[0] has job $r[1] and works for department $r[2] \n" ;
17) }
   ...

```

Figure 11.7

Illustrating database retrieval queries.

specific job and work for a particular department. The particular job and department number are entered through a form in the array variables `$POST['emp_job']` and `$POST['emp_dno']`. If the user had entered 'Engineer' for the job and 5 for the department number, the query would select the names of all engineers who worked in department 5. As we can see, this is a dynamic query whose results differ depending on the choices that the user enters as input. We used two ? placeholders in this example, as discussed at the end of Section 11.3.2.

The last query (lines 14 to 17) shows an alternative way of specifying a query and looping over its rows. In this example, the function `$d=>getAll` holds all the records in a query result in a single variable, called `$allresult`. To loop over the individual records, a `foreach` loop can be used, with the row variable `$r` iterating over each row in `$allresult`.²

As we can see, PHP is suited for both database access and creating dynamic Web pages.

²The `$r` variable is similar to the cursors and iterator variables discussed in Chapters 10 and 12.

11.4 Brief Overview of Java Technologies for Database Web Programming

The parts of the PHP scripting language that we discussed run on the application server and serve as a conduit that collects client user input through forms, formulates database queries and submits them to the database server, and then creates dynamic HTML Web pages to display query results. The Java environment has components that run on the server and other components that can run on the client machine. It also has standards for exchanging data objects. We briefly discuss some of these components here that are related to Web and database access. We already discussed JDBC and SQLJ in some detail in Chapter 10.

Java Servlets. Servlets are Java objects that can reside on the Web server machine and manage interactions with the client. They can store information that was submitted by the client during a session, so that this information can be used to generate database queries. Servlet objects can also store query results so that parts of these results can be formatted as HTML and sent to the client for display. The servlet object can maintain all the information produced during a particular client interaction until the client session is terminated.

Java Server Pages (JSP). This allows scripting at the server to produce dynamic Web pages to be sent at the client in a manner somewhat similar to PHP. However, it is associated with the Java language and the scripting can be combined with Java code.

JavaScript. JavaScript is a scripting language that is different from the Java programming language and was developed separately. It is widely used in Web applications, and it can run on the client computer or on the server.

Java Script Object Notation (JSON). This is a text-based representation of data objects, so that data can be formatted in JSON and exchanged between clients and servers over the Web in text format. It can be considered as an alternative to XML (see Chapter 13) and represents objects using attribute-value pairs. JSON has also been adopted as the data model by some newer database systems known as NOSQL systems, such as MongoDB (see Chapter 24).

11.5 Summary

In this chapter, we gave an overview of how to convert some structured data from databases into elements to be entered or displayed on a Web page. We focused on the PHP scripting language, which is becoming very popular for Web database programming. Section 11.1 presented some PHP basics for Web programming through a simple example. Section 11.2 gave some of the basics of the PHP language, including its array and string data types that are used extensively. Section 11.3 presented an overview of how PHP can be used to specify various types of database commands, including creating tables, inserting new records, and retrieving database records. PHP runs at the server computer in comparison to some other scripting languages that run on the client computer. Section 11.4 introduced some of the technologies associated with Java that can be used in similar contexts.

We gave only a very basic introduction to PHP. There are many books as well as many Web sites devoted to introductory and advanced PHP programming. Many libraries of functions also exist for PHP, as it is an open source product.

Review Questions

- 11.1. Why are scripting languages popular for programming Web applications? Where in the three-tier architecture does a PHP program execute? Where does a JavaScript program execute?
- 11.2. What type of programming language is PHP?
- 11.3. Discuss the different ways of specifying strings in PHP.
- 11.4. Discuss the different types of arrays in PHP.
- 11.5. What are PHP auto-global variables? Give some examples of PHP auto-global arrays, and discuss how each is typically used.
- 11.6. What is PEAR? What is PEAR DB?
- 11.7. Discuss the main functions for accessing a database in PEAR DB, and how each is used.
- 11.8. Discuss the different ways for looping over a query result in PHP.
- 11.9. What are placeholders? How are they used in PHP database programming?

Exercises

- 11.10. Consider the LIBRARY database schema shown in Figure 4.6. Write PHP code to create the tables of this schema.
- 11.11. Write a PHP program that creates Web forms for entering the information about a new BORROWER entity. Repeat for a new BOOK entity.
- 11.12. Write PHP Web interfaces for the queries specified in Exercise 6.18.

Selected Bibliography

There are many sources for PHP programming, both in print and on the Web. We give two books as examples. A very good introduction to PHP is given in Sklar (2005). For advanced Web site development, the book by Schlossnagle (2005) provides many detailed examples. Nixon (2014) has a popular book on web programming that covers PHP, Javascript, JQuery, CSS and HTML5.