Database 2 course notes

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Contents

Chapter 1

DBMS types

1.1 Relational DBMSs

- Formally introduced by **Codd** in 1970.
- ANSI standard: **SQL**.
- Composed of many relations in form of **2D tables**, containing **tuples**.
  - **Logical view**: data organized in tables.
  - **Internal view**: stored data.
  - Rows *(tuples)* are **records**.
  - Columns *(fields)* are **attributes**.
    - They have specific **data types**.
- **Constraints** are used to restrict stored data.
- **SQL** is divided in **DDL** and **DML**.

1.1.1 Disadvantages

- Lack of flexibility: all processing is based on values in fields of records.
- Inability to handle complex types and complex interrelationships.

1.2 Object-oriented DBMSs

- Integrated with an OOP language.
- Supports:
  - Complex data types.
  - Type inheritance.

  - Object behavior.
- Objects have an **OID** *(object identifier)*.
- **ADTs** *(abstract data types)* are used for **encapsulation**.
- OODBMSs were standardized by **ODMG** *(Object Data Management Group)*.
  - Object model, **ODL**, **OQL** and OOP language bindings.
- **OQL** resembles **SQL**, with additional features *(object identity, complex types, inheritance, polymorphism, ...)*.

1.2.1 Disadvantages

- Poor performance. Queries are hard to optimize.
- Poor scalability.
- Problematic change of schema.
- Dependence from OOP language.

1.2.2 Advantages

- Composite objects and relations.
- Easily manageable class hierarchies.
- Dynamic data model
- No primary key management.

1.3 Object-relational DBMSs

- Hybrid solution, expected to perform well.
- Features:
  - Base datatype extension *(inheritance)*.
  - Complex objects.
  - Rule systems.

Chapter 2

Distributed systems

2.1 General information

- A distributed system is a **software** that makes **a collection of independent machines** appear as **a single coherent system**.
  - Achieved thanks to a **middleware**.
- Goals:
  - Making resource available.
  - Distribution **transparency**.
  - **Openness** and **scalability**.

2.1.1 Transparency

Type	Description
Access	Hides data access
Location	Hides data locality
Migration	Hides ability of a system to change object location
Relocation	Hides system ability to move object bound to client
Replication	Hides object replication
Concurrency	Hides coordination between objects
Failure	Hides failure and recovery

- Hard to fully achieve.
  - Users may live in different continents.
  - Networks are unreliable.
  - Full trasparency is costly.

2.1.2 Openness

- Conformance to well-defined interfaces.
- Portability and interoperability.
- Heterogeneity of underlying environments.
- Requires support for **policies**.
- Provides **mechanisms** to fulfill policies.

2.1.3 Scalability

- **Size**: number of users/processes.
- **Geographical**: maximum distance between nodes.
- **Administrative**: number of administrative domains.
- Techniques to achieve scalability:
  - Hide communication latencies.
    - Use **asynchronous** communication.
    - Use **separate response handlers**.
  - Distribution.
    - Decentralized **DNS** and information systems.
    - Try to compute as much as possible on clients.
  - Replication/caching.
- Issue: **inconsistency** and **global synchronization**.

2.2 Types

2.2.1 Distributed Computing Systems

- **HPC** *(high-performance computing)*.
- Cluster computing:
  - **Homogeneous** LAN-connected machines.
    - Master node + compute nodes.
- Grid computing:
  - **Heterogeneous** WAN-connected machines.
  - Usually divided in **virtual organizations**.

2.2.2 Distributed Information Systems

- **Transaction**-based systems.
  - **Atomicity**.
  - **Consistency**.
  - **Isolation**: no interference between concurrent transaction.
  - **Durability**: changes are permanent.
- **TP Monitors** *(transaction processing monitors)* coordinate execution of a distributed transaction.
  - **Communication middleware** is required to separate applications from databases.
    * **RPC** *(remote procedure call)*.
    * **MOM** *(message-oriented middleware)*.

2.2.3 Distributed Pervasive Systems

- Small nodes, often **mobile** or **embedded**.
- Requirements:
  - **Contextual change**.
  - **Ad-hoc composition**.
  - **Sharing by default**.
- Examples:
  - Home systems.
  - Electronic health systems.
  - Sensor networks.

2.3 Architectures

2.3.1 Styles and models

- Architectural styles:
  - **Layered**: used for client-server systems.
  - **Object-based**: used for distributed systems.
- Decoupling models:
  - **Publish/subscribe**: uses **event bus**, decoupled in space.

- **Shared dataspace**: used shared persistent data space, decoupled both in space and time.

2.3.2 Centralized architectures

- Client-server.
- Three-layered view:
  - User-interface layer.
  - Processing layer.
  - Data layer.
- Multi-tiered architecture:
  - Single-tiered: dumb terminal/mainframe.
  - Two-tiered: client-server.
  - Three-tiered: each layer on separate machine.

2.3.3 Decentralized architectures

- **P2P** *(peer-to-peer)*:
  - P2P architectures are **overlay networks**: application-level multicasting.
  - **Structured**: nodes follow a specific data structure.
    - Example: ring, kd-tree.
  - **Unstructured**: nodes choose random neighbors.
    - Example: random graph.
      - Each node has a **partial view** of the network which is shared with random nodes selected periodically, along with data.
  - **Hybrid**: some nodes are special *(and structured)*.
- Topology management:
  - 2 layers: structured and random.
    - Promote some nodes depending on their services.
    - Torus construction: create $N * N$ grid, keep only **nearest neighbors** via distance formula.
    - **Superpeers:** few specific nodes.
      - Examples: indexing, coordination, connection setup.
- Hybrid architectures *(P2P + client-server)*:
  - **CDNs**: edge-server architectures.

  - **BitTorrent**: tracker and peers.

2.3.4 Architectures versus middleware

- Sometimes the middleware needs to **dyamically adapt its behavior** to distributed application/systems.
  - **Interceptors** can be used.
  - **Adaptive middleware**:
    * Separation of concerns.
    * Computational reflection *(self runtime inspection)*.
    * Component-based design.

2.3.5 Self-managing distributed systems

- Self-x operations:
  - Configuration.
  - Management.
  - Healing.
  - Optimization.
- **Feedback control model**.
  - Example: globule *(collaborative CDN driven by cost model)*.

Chapter 3

Distributed architectures

3.1 Distributed DBMSs

3.1.1 Basics and data fragmentation

- Based on **autonomy** and **cooperation**.
- Data **fragmentation** and **allocation**:
  - A relation R is split in R_i fragments.
  - **Horizontal** fragmentation:
    * R_i: set of tuples with same schema as R.
    * Like the `where` SQL clause.
  - **Vertical** fragmentation:
    * R_i: set of tuples with subschema of R.
    * Like the `select` SQL clause.

3.1.2 Transparency levels

- **Fragmentation** transparency: independence of a query from data fragmentation and allocation.
- **Allocation** transparency: fragment structure must be specified in a query, but not location.
- **Language** transparency: both fragment structure and location have to be specified in a query.

3.1.3 Transaction classification

- **Remote request**: readonly *(`select`)* transactions towards a **single** DBMS.

- **Remote transaction**: general transactions towards a **single** DBMS.
- **Distributed transaction**: towards multiple DBMSs, but every SQL operation targets a single DBMS.
- **Distributed request**: arbitrary transaction, language-level transparency.

3.2 Distributed DBMSs technology

3.2.1 Consistency and persistency

- **Consistency**: does not depend on data distribution. Constraints are only properties local to a specific DBMS. This is a limitation of DBMSs.
- **Persistency**: does not depend on data distribution. Every sistem guarantees persistency thanks to dumps and backups.

3.2.2 Optimization

- **Global optimization** is performed through a cost analysis.
  - A tree of possible alternatives is examined.
  - **IO**, **CPU** and **bandwidth** coss are taken into account.

3.2.3 Concurrency control

- *Problem:* two transactions t_1 and t_2 can be composed of subtransactions whose execution is in conflict.
  - The transactions are **locally serializable**.
  - The transactions are **not globally serializable**.
- **Global serializability**: two transactions are globally serializable if $\exists S$ *(serial schedule)* that is equivalent to every local schedule S_i.
  - For every node i, the projection $S[i]$ of S needs to be equivalent to S_i
  - This property can fulfilled using **2-phase locking** or **timestamping**.

3.2.3.1 Lamport's method for timestamping

- Every transaction needs a timestamp of the time instant where it needs to be synchronized with other transactions.
- A timestamp is composed by two numbers: **node ID** and **event ID**.
- Nodes have a local counter that helps ordering transactions.

3.2.3.2 Distributed deadlock detection

- Two subtransactions may be waiting for one another in the same or in diffrerent DBMSs.
- A **waiting sequence** can be built for every transaction.
- Algorithm:
  1. DBMSs share their waiting sequences.
  2. Waiting sequences are composed in a **local waiting graph**.
  3. Deadlocks are detected locally and solved by aborting transactions.
  4. Updated waiting sequences are sent to other DBMSs.

3.3 Distributed transaction atomicity

3.3.1 2-phase commit protocol

- Conceptually similar to marriage.
- Servers are called **RMs** *(resource managers)*.
- A coordinator is called **TM** *(transaction manager)*.
- Both RMs and the TM have **local logs**.
- TM log records:
  - `prepare`: contains RMs identities.
  - `global commit/abort`: atomic and persistent decision regarding **the entire transaction**.
  - `complete`: conclusion of the protocol.
- RM log records:
  - `ready`: signals availability of the node.
- Algorithm *(ideal situation)*:
  - Phase one *(preparation)*:
    1. TM sends `prepare`, sets a **timeout** for RM responses.
    2. RMs wait for `prepare` messages. On arrival, they send `ready`. If an RM is in a bad state, `not-ready` is sent instead, terminating the protocol *(`global abort`)*.
    3. TM collects RM messages. On success, sends `global commit`.
  - Phase two:
    1. TM sends global decision, setting a **timeout**.
    2. Ready RMs wait for the decision. On arrival, they either log `commit` or `abort`, and send an `ack` to the TM.

3. TM collects all `ack` messages. If all of them arrived, `complete` is set. If an `ack` is missing, a new **timeout** is set and transmissions are repeated.

- The period between `ready` and `commit/abort` is called **uncertainty interval** - the protocol tries to minimize its length.

3.3.1.1 Recovery protocols

- RM drops:
  - If last record was `abort`, actions will be undone.
  - If last record was `commit`, actions will be repeated.
  - If last record was `ready`, we are in a **doubtful situation**.
    * Information needs to be requested from TM.
- TM drops:
  - If last record as `prepare`, some RMs may be locked.
    * `global abort` will be sent, or the first phase will be repeated.
  - If last record was `global commit/abort`, the second phase needs to be repeated.
  - If last record was `complete`, everything is fine.
- Message loss: handled by timeouts, which cause a `global abort` in the first phase, or a retransmission in the second phase.

3.3.1.2 Optimizations

- **Presumed abort protocol**: if in doubt during a RM recovery, and TM has no information, `abort` is returned.
  - Some synchronous record writes can be avoided.
- **Read-only optimization**: if an RM only needs to read, it will not influence the transaction's result - it can be ignored during second phase.
- TODO: other commits, replication, cooperation

3.3.2 Other commit protocols

- The biggest issue with the 2-phase protocol is that an RM can become stuck if the TM drops.
  - The following protocols don't have this issue but are less performant.

3.3.2.1 4-phase commit protocol

- The TM process can be replicated by a **backup process** on a different node.
  - On every phase, the TM first communicates with the backup, then with the RMs.

3.3.2.2 3-phase commit protocol

- After receiving `ready` from every RM, the TM has an additional **pre-commit** state.
  - If the TM drops during that state, any RM can become the TM, because every RM has to be `ready`.
- Unusable in practice due to widened uncertainty interval and atomicity issues in case of network partitioning.

3.3.2.3 Paxos commit

- More general goal: have nodes "agree" on a specific value in case of malfunction.
- Three node categories:
  - Proponent.
  - Acceptor.
  - Receiver.
- Three phases:
  1. Election of a coordinator.
  2. Acceptors agree on a value.
  3. The value is propagated to receivers.
- Algorithm:
  1. The coordinator sends n `prepare` messages to participants.
  2. Every participant sends `ready` to coordinator and to f acceptors.
  3. Every acceptor sends its state using f messages.
  4. Coordinator and acceptors are $f + 1$ nodes that know the state of the transaction. Any malfunction in f is not a problem.

3.3.2.4 X-Open DTP

- Guarantees interoperability of transactions on different DBMSs.
- Two main interfaces:
  1. **TM-interface**: between client and TM.
     - `tm_xxx` functions.

2. **XA-interface**: between TM and RM.
    - Database vendors must guarantee XA-interface availability.
    - `xa_xxx` functions.

- Features:
  - RMs are passive. All control is in TM, which uses RPCs to enable RM functions.
  - Uses 2-phase commit with aforementioned optimizations.
  - **Heuristical decisions** are taken, which can harm atomiticy *(notifying clients)*.

3.4 DBMS replication

- A **data replicator** handles replication and **synchronization** between copies.
  - Copies are updated asynchronously *(no commit protocols)*.
- Replication data can be **batched** and reconciled with the copies all at once.
- **Multidatabase systems**: tree hierarchies of **dispatchers** and multiple DBs behind a single interface.

Chapter 4

Parallel DBMSs and cloud architectures

4.1 Parallelism

- Ideally speeds up computation by a factor of $1/n$.
- Two types:
    1. **Inter-query**: different queries ran in parallel.
    2. **Intra-query**: parts of the same query *(subqueries)* ran in parallel.

4.1.1 Relationship with data fragmentation

- Data fragments are in different locations, which can be associated to different processors.

4.1.2 Speed-up and scale-up

- **Speed-up**: only related to inter-query parallelism. Measures *tps* as the number of processors grows.
- **Scale-up**: related to both parallelism types. Measures $\frac{cost}{tps}$ aas the number of processors grows.

4.2 Cloud computing architectures

4.2.1 Classification

4.2.1.1 Features

- **On-demand self-service**: architecture elements can be defined depending on current needs through web interfaces.
- **Remote access**.
- **Service measuring**: architectural resources are rented using costs depending onuse.
- **Elasticity**.
- **Resource sharing**.

4.2.1.2 Types

- **Private cloud**: of an organization/institution.
- **Community cloud**: of a community of organizations/institutions.
- **Public cloud**: like AWS or Azure.
- **Hybrid cloud**: private cloud that use public services when needed.

4.2.1.3 Service models

- **SaaS**: clients rent finished applications.
- **PaaS**: clients rent hardware resources and base software.
- **IaaS**: clients rent only hardware resources.

4.2.2 Hadoop and MapReduce

- **HDFS**: distributed filesystem developed in Java.
  - Uses TCP/IP for communication.
  - Files are fragmented in separate nodes and are replicated.
  - The main node is called **NameNode**, others are called **workers**.
- **MapReduce**: parallel computation model.
  - **Jobs** are handled by a **job tracker**.
  - Jobs assign **tasks**, which are handled by a **task tracker**.

4.2.3 Apache Pig and Pig Latin

- Query system based on Hadoop.
- Data model is similar to OODBMSs, but does not support inheritance.
  - Data is organized in relationships.
  - Relations can contain duplicated elements *(tuple bags)*.
  - There is no explicit primary key.
- Example query: `FOREACH table GENERATE attribute0 attribute1;`.

4.2.4 Apache Hive and Hive QL

- Similar to Pig, but closer to SQL.

Chapter 5

Cloud computing

TODO: merge previous chapter into this one or viceversa?

TODO: add cloud federations to cloud models

5.1 Definitions

- **Cloud computing** describes a class of network-based computing:
  - A collection/group of networked hardware, software and infrastructure *(platform)*.
  - Uses the Internet for communication/transport, providing hardware and software services to client.
- The complexity of the platforms is hidden behind simple **APIs**.
- Characteristics:
  - **Remotely hosted**.
  - **Ubiquitous**: services/data available from anywhere.
  - **Commodified**: pay for what you want/need.
  - Common characteristics:
    * Massive scale.
    * Resilient computing.
    * Homogeneity.
    * Geographic distribution.
    * Virtualization.
    * Service-orientation.
    * Low-cost.
    * Security.

- Essential characteristics:
  * On-demand self-service.
  * Broad network access.
  * Elasticity.
  * Resource pooling.
  * Measured service.

5.2 Service models

5.2.1 Layers

- From application-focused to infrastructure-focused:
  1. Services.
  2. Application.
  3. Development.
  4. Platform.
  5. Storage.
  6. Hosting.

5.2.2 IaaS

- Provides hardware.

5.2.2.1 Virtualization

- The basis of IaaS.
- **Virtual workspaces**: abstraction over the execution environment.
  - Has specific resource quota and software configuration.
- Implemented on **VMs** *(virtual machines)*.
  - Abstraction of the physical host.
  - Advantages:
    * OS flexibility. Easier deployment.
    * Versioning/backups/migrations.
- A **VMM** *(virtual machine monitor, or hypervisor)* is used to manage multiple VMs on a single machine.

5.2.3 PaaS

- Deploys user-created applications.
- Highly-scalable architecture.

5.2.4 SaaS

- Provides applications.
- *Examples:* Facebook apps, Google apps.

5.2.4.1 Maturity model

- **Level 1**: ad-hoc/custom. One instance per customer.
- **Level 2**: configurable per customer.
- **Level 3**: configurable and multi-tenant-efficient.
- **Level 4**: scalable *(uses load balancer)* level 3.

Chapter 6

SQL vs NoSQL

6.1 SQL characteristics

- Data is stored in columns and tables.
- Relationships represented by data.
- DML and DDL.
- Transactions.
  - ACID properties.
- Abstraction from physical layer.
  - Declarative language.
  - Query optimization engine.

6.2 Big data

- Extremely large datasets.
- Challenges:
  - Analysis, capture, searching, storage, transfer, visualization, querying, security.
- Characteristics: **volume**, **velocity** and **variety**.
- Big data **analytics**: capture and analysis processes aiming to find patterns and correlations in huge heterogeneous datasets.

6.2.1 3-layer processing architecture

1. Online processing:
   - Real-time data capture/processing.

- Deals with **velocity**:
    - Algorithms need to be simple and fast.

2. Nearline processing:
    - Database-oriented.
    - Handles data storage and some processing *(slightly more complex than online processing)*.
3. Offline processing:
    - Batch heavy-procesing of data.

6.2.2 Lambda architecture

- Principles:
    1. **Human fault-tolerance**: data needs to survive human errors and hardware faults.
    2. **Data immutability**: no updates/deletes.
    3. **Recomputation**: recomputing previous results must always be possible.
- Levels:
    1. **Batch layer**: stores the master dataset and computes **views** *(pre-computing)* using MapReduce algorithms.
    2. **Speed layer**: computes **real-time** views only with new data, not total data. Uses an **incremental model**.
    3. **Serving layer**: output of the batch layer. Handles view indexing and provides views to the query system.
        - The query system uses both batch and speed views.

6.3 NoSQL

- Class of non-relational data storage systems.
    - Types:
        * Document store. *Example:* **MongoDB**.
        * Column based. *Example:* **Cassandra**.
        * Graph. *Example:* **Neo4j**.
        * Key-value.
- Usually do not require fixed schema and do not use joins.
    - Can be distributed.

- One or more ACID properties are relaxed.
  - **BASE** transactions:
    * Basically available.
    * Soft state.
    * Eventually consistent.
  - Brewer's **CAP** theorem: a distributed system can support only two of the following:
    * Consistency.
    * Availability.
    * Partition tolerance.
- Compared to SQL: higher scalability and flexibility.

Chapter 7

Oracle and PL/SQL

7.1 Oracle RDMBS

TODO: ?

Chapter 8

PL/SQL

- Also known as **Embedded SQL**.
- More powerful than pure **SQL**:
  - Has **iteration**, **branching**, **cursors**, **blocks**, **stored procedures**, and more.

8.1 Basic structure

```
DECLARE
    -- ...
BEGIN
    -- ...
EXCEPTION
    -- ...
END;
```

8.1.1 Server output

- Execute `set serveroutput on` before running.

```
BEGIN
    DBMS_OUTPUT.PUT_LINE('Hello world!');
END;
```

8.1.2 Example

```
DECLARE
    v_id INTEGER;
    v_empno NUMBER;
```

```
BEGIN
    v_id := 1234567;
    SELECT EMPNO
    INTO v_empno
    FROM EMP
    WHERE empno = v_id;
    DBMS_OUTPUT.PUT_LINE('Value is ' || v_empno);

EXCEPTION
    WHEN NO_DATA_FOUND THEN
    DBMS_OUTPUT.PUT_LINE('No record exists');

END;
```

8.2 Variables

- Common data types:
  - NUMBER.
  - DATE.
  - INTEGER.
  - VARCHAR2.
  - CHAR.
  - BOOLEAN.

8.3 SELECT INTO example

```
DECLARE
    v_job emp.job%TYPE;
    v_sal emp.sal%TYPE;
    v_empno emp.empno%TYPE;

BEGIN
    v_empno := 1234567;
    SELECT job, sal
    INTO v_job,v_sal
    FROM emp
    WHERE empno = v_empno;

END;
```

8.4 IF example

```
DECLARE
    -- ...

BEGIN
    -- ...
    IF v_dept = 10 THEN
        v_commision := 5000;
    ELSIF v_dept = 20 THEN
        v_commison := 5500;
    ELSIF v_dept = 30 THEN
        v_commison := 6200;
    ELSE
        v_commision := 7500;
    END IF;
    -- ...

END;
```

8.5 Loops

- LOOP, EXIT WHEN, END LOOP.
- FOR, IN, LOOP, END LOOP.
- WHILE, LOOP, END LOOP.

8.5.1 LOOP example

```
LOOP
    INSERT INTO dept(deptno)
    VALUES(v_deptno);
    v_counter := v_counter + 1;
    v_deptno := v_deptno + 10;
    EXIT WHEN v_counter > 5;
END LOOP;
```

8.5.2 FOR example

```
FOR v_counter IN 1..5 LOOP
    INSERT INTO dept(deptno)
    VALUES(v_deptno);
```

```
    v_deptno := v_deptno + 10;
END LOOP;
```

8.5.3 WHILE example

```
v_counter := 1;
WHILE v_counter <= 5 LOOP
    INSERT INTO dept(deptno)
    VALUES(v_deptno);
    v_deptno := v_deptno + 10;
END LOOP;
```

8.6 Procedures

8.6.1 Syntax

```
CREATE OR REPLACE PROCEDURE /*name*/(/*parameters*/) IS
    -- local variables

BEGIN
    -- ...

EXCEPTION
    -- ...

END;
```

- Parameters can be IN, OUT or IN OUT.

8.6.2 Example

```
CREATE OR REPLACE PROCEDURE proc_test(p_empno IN VARCHAR2) IS
    v_job EMP.job%TYPE;
    v_sal EMP.sal%TYPE;

BEGIN
    SELECT job, sal
    INTO v_job,v_sal
    FROM emp
        WHERE empno = p_empno;
    DBMS_OUTPUT.PUT_LINE('job is '||v_job);

EXCEPTION
```

```
    WHEN OTHERS THEN
    DBMS_OUTPUT.PUT_LINE('ERROR...');

END;
```

8.7 Functions

8.7.1 Syntax

```
CREATE OR REPLACE FUNCTION /*name*/(/*parameters*/)
RETURN /*datatype*/ IS
    -- local variables

BEGIN
    -- ...

EXCEPTION
    -- ...

END;
```

- Paremeters can only be IN.
- Returns a single value.

8.8 Packages

8.8.1 Specification example

```
CREATE OR REPLACE PACKAGE emp_info IS

    v_count INTEGER;

    PROCEDURE insert_record(  p_empno IN NUMBER
                            , p_ename IN VARCHAR2
                            , p_job IN VARCHAR2
                            , p_sal IN NUMBER
                            , p_comm IN NUMBER
                            , p_deptno IN VARCHAR2);

    PROCEDURE delete_record(p_empno IN NUMBER);

    FUNCTION sum_dept_sal( p_deptno IN dept.deptno%TYPE) RETURN is dept.sal%TYPE;
```

```
END emp_info;
```

8.8.2 Body definition syntax

```
CREATE OR REPLACE PACKAGE BODY emp_info IS

    -- define declared procedures and functions

END emp_info;
```

8.9 Triggers

8.9.1 Syntax example

```
CREATE OR REPLACE TRIGGER del_emp( p_empno emp.empno%TYPE)
BEFORE DELETE ON emp
FOR EACH ROW
BEGIN
    INSERT INTO emp_audit
    VALUES(p_empno, USER, sysdate);

END;
```

8.10 Cursors

- A **cursor** is a pointer to a row.

8.10.1 Syntax example

```
DECLARE
    CURSOR c_emp IS
    SELECT empno, ename, job
    FROM emp
    WHERE deptno = 20;

BEGIN
    FOR v_c IN c_emp LOOP
        DBMS_OUTPUT.PUT_LINE(v_c.ename);
    END LOOP;
```

```
END;
```

8.11 Dynamic SQL

```
BEGIN
    EXECUTE IMMEDIATE 'CREATE TABLE tt(id NUMBER(3)'
END;
```