



PostgreSQL Stored Procedures - Definition

- Stored procedures (and functions) are routines, written in a programming language but blended with SQL, that are compiled and executed by a DBMS and are stored within a database.
 - Note that a stored procedure is a more involved sequence of SQL constructs; i.e. it is more than firing a query and checking the response.
- Most DBMS offer control on when, where and who can execute these procedures and also attempt optimisation of performance by guiding their deployment for execution.
 - In a *client/server* computational framework there is also some control on where to execute the procedure: client, or server.

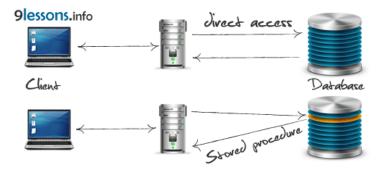
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PostgreSQL Stored Procedures - Context

 Strictly speaking many programming languages allow us to embed SQL when writing code; but the DBMS has little control over these and are only asked to service data related requests one at a time.



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Designes QL Why Stored Procedures?

- Make up for some of the SQL's query language missing facilities
 - lack of computational completeness (e.g. loops, decisions);
 - Perhaps less so with emerging SQL III.
 - difficult to express some simple (popular!?) business queries and rules in declarative constructs.
- *Reduce* the computational differences between the SQL's **set at a** time access and a single record type access found in programming languages.
- *Higher* productivity (reputed!)
 - Modular design aids in productivity;
 - Data dictionary has data on structures and their code.
 - Good and DBMS related error handling facilities;
 - Another level of data modelling constructs.

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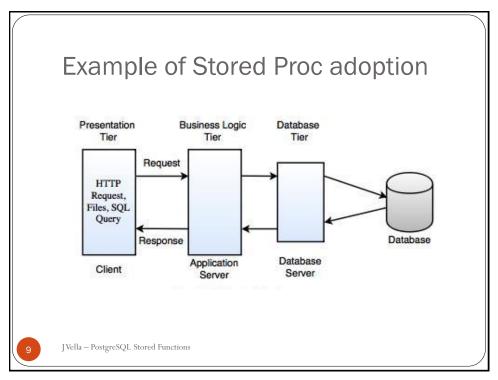
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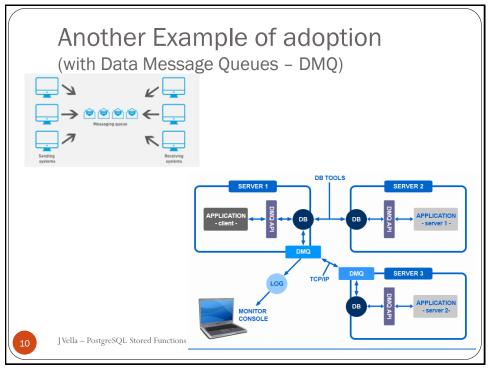


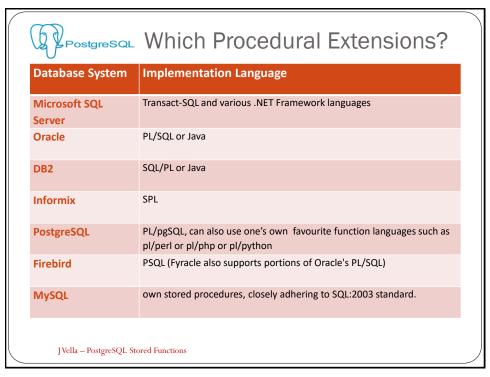
Designed Why Stored Procedures? (continued)

- *Better* performance (reputed!)
 - Stored procedures are deployable on the client or server;
 - The server requests could be divided between data and application.
 - Queries executed on server are optimised by DBMS.
- *Integration* e.g. use of language in form & report building tools
- Portability e.g. across operating systems
- Execution Autonomy the execution of a procedure becomes another level of security granularity.

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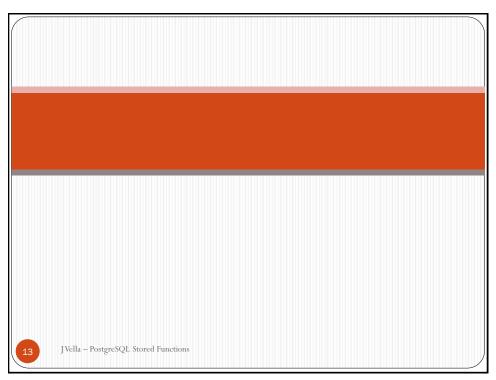






- Data Validation
- Access Control
- Implement Business Rules
 (e.g. Where simple integrity constraints are not adequate)
- Long & Winded Transaction (i.e. Changes to the database state)

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```
PostgreSQL Quick demo 1 ... plpgsql

SQL> CREATE FUNCTION getDeptEmp(deptID int) RETURNS int AS $$
DECLARE

deptCNT int; -- this is a remark

BEGIN

SELECT COUNT(*) INTO deptCNT

FROM emp

WHERE deptno = deptID;

RETURN deptCNT;

END;

$$ LANGUAGE plpgsql;

SQL> SELECT getDeptEmp(10)

3

SQL> SELECT getDeptEmp(50)

0

SQL> SELECT getDeptEmp(cast('20' as int))

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```

```
PostgreSQL Quick demo 2 ... plpgsql

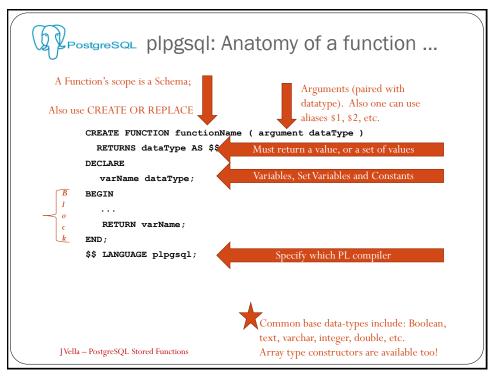
SQL > CREATE OR REPLACE FUNCTION GetEmployees()
RETURNS setof emp
AS 'select * from emp;'
LANGUAGE 'sql';

SQL > SELECT * FROM getemployees();

7369; "SMITH"; "CLERK"; 7902; "1980-12-17"; 800;;20
7499; "ALLEN"; "SALESMAN"; 7698; "1981-02-20";1600;300;30
7521; "WARD"; "SALESMAN"; 7698; "1981-02-22";1250;500;30
```



- More general use of function in a SQL Select statement:
 - In *select* list, in *from* list, in *where* list:





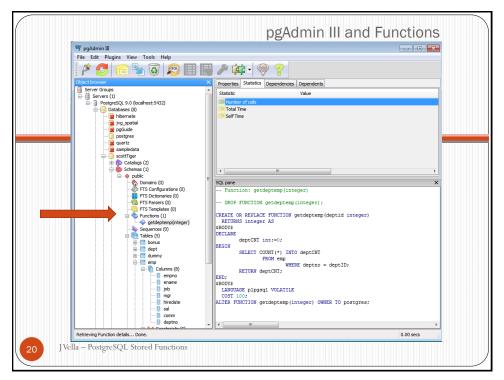
- Recall that PostgreSQL takes a number of languages!
 We need to tell the DBMS which language to load.
 - Invoke and log-on the *psql* CLI utility (i.e. at OS level and denoted by a \$ prompt) to add a language (plpgsql) to database (scottTiger):
 - \$ create -U postgres plpgsql scottTiger
 - To check which languages are loaded by a database follow the sequence of commands:

```
$ psql -d scottTiger
SQL> scottTiger=# SELECT * FROM pg_language;
```

• To withdraw a language from a database (and need to have *superuser* rights) use the following command:

```
SQL> scottTiger=# DROP LANGUAGE 'plpgsql';

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```





- The name of a function follows variable names rule.
 - Functions can be also qualified by a schema name.
 - Schema less function definitions are stored in the current schema.
- A function name (or schema qualified function names) can be overloaded. For example, the following is allowed:

```
SQL > CREATE OR REPLACE FUNCTION GetEmployees()
RETURNS setof emp
AS 'select * from emp;'
LANGUAGE 'sql';

SQL > CREATE OR REPLACE FUNCTION GetEmployees(integer)
RETURNS setof emp
AS 'select * from emp where deptno = $1;'
LANGUAGE 'sql';

SQL > SELECTC GetEmployees();
...

SQL > SELECT GetEmployees(10);
...

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```



Designes on plogs of a Function Arguments

- A plpgsql function can take zero, one or more arguments.
 - The number of arguments is fixed at compile time;
 - This is not true for functions that have polymorphic typing!?
 - Each argument has a data type expression.
 - Which is either base data type or record structure (row types).
- Each function returns a 'value' or a 'set of values':
 - These too require a data type declaration.
- One can *name* the arguments in the function declaration.

```
CREATE FUNCTION fmax(startt int4, endt int4) RETURNS int4 ...;
```

- Within a function's block it is possible to refer to the first argument as \$1. The second \$2, etc
 - Argument startt is \$1 and endt is \$2 for the above example.
- Remember we can give an argument an alias too (see variables slide). J Vella – PostgreSQL Stored Functions

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PostgreSQL plpgsql - Function Argument Modes

- The mode of an argument (i.e. intent of use rather than how):
 - IN, OUT, INOUT;
 - or VARIADIC (for polymorphic typing in arguments & arg. Types).
- If omitted, the default is IN.
- An input argument (ie **IN**) must be instantiated, such as an initialized variable or literal value.
 - An IN argument cannot be redefined or assigned to;
- An output argument (ie **OUT**) must an assignable variable, but it <u>need not</u> be initialized, any existing value is not accessible, and must be assigned a value;
- An input/output argument (ie INOUT) must be an initialized, assignable variable, and can optionally be assigned a value

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• Some programming praxis demand avoiding OUT (and INOUT) arguments. The following examples avoid using OUT arguments.

```
CREATE FUNCTION dup(in int, out f1 int, out f2 text)

AS $$ SELECT $1, CAST($1 AS text) || ' is text'

$$ LANGUAGE SQL;

$QL > SELECT * FROM dup(42);

TO

CREATE TYPE dup_result AS (f1 int, f2 text);

CREATE FUNCTION dup_v1(int) RETURNS dup_result

AS $$ SELECT $1, CAST($1 AS text) || ' IS TEXT'

$$ LANGUAGE SQL;

$QL > SELECT * FROM dup_v1(42);

Or

CREATE FUNCTION dup_v2(int) RETURNS TABLE(f1 int, f2 text)

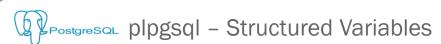
AS $$ SELECT $1, CAST($1 AS text) || ' IS TEXT'

$$ LANGUAGE SQL; -- returns a set of

$QL > SELECT * FROM dup_v2(42);

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```

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 Very common practice is to tie a variable type to a table row (%type) or table column (%rowtype):

```
dept_loc dept.loc%type;
dept_rec dept%rowtype;
```

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- The return type can be a base, composite, or domain type.
 - Some languages might also be allowed to pecify "pseudotypes" such as cstring.
- If the function is not supposed to return a value (i.e. a procedure), specify **VOID** as the return type.
- When there are OUT or INOUT parameters, the RETURNS clause can be omitted.
 - If present, it must agree with the result type implied by the output parameters: **RECORD** if there are multiple output parameters, or the same type as the single output parameter.
- The **SETOF** modifier indicates that the function will return a set of items, rather than a single item.

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```
PostgreSQL plpgsql - Function's Return - Examples
  CREATE FUNCTION EMPJOBS DEPT (DNUMBER INTEGER)
  RETURNS TABLE (JOBDESCRIPTION TEXT) AS
  $$ SELECT DISTINCT JOB FROM EMP WHERE DEPTNO = $1; $$
  LANGUAGE 'SQL';

    -- using the argument's OUT mode

  CREATE FUNCTION EMPX_DEPT(D INTEGER, OUT DN TEXT, OUT J TEXT)
  RETURNS SETOF RECORD AS
  $$ SELECT D.DNAME, E.JOB FROM EMP E, DEPT D
     WHERE E.DEPTNO=D.DEPTNO AND E.DEPTNO = $1; $$
  LANGUAGE 'SQL'

    -- using structured / composite types

  CREATE FUNCTION ALLEMPS JOB (JOBTITLE VARCHAR)
  RETURNS SETOF EMP AS
  $$ SELECT * FROM EMP WHERE JOB = $1; $$
  LANGUAGE 'SQL';
  SQL > SELECT * FROM ALLEMPS_JOB('MANAGER');
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```

```
Within the DECLARE section one can:
Declare unassigned variables:

empCNT integer;
Declare assigned variables:
empCNT integer:= 0;

Declare constant variables:

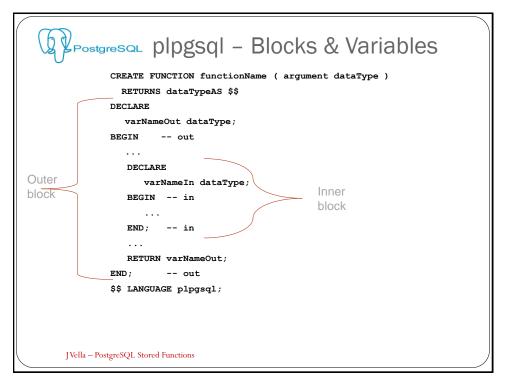
empCNT constant integer := 5;

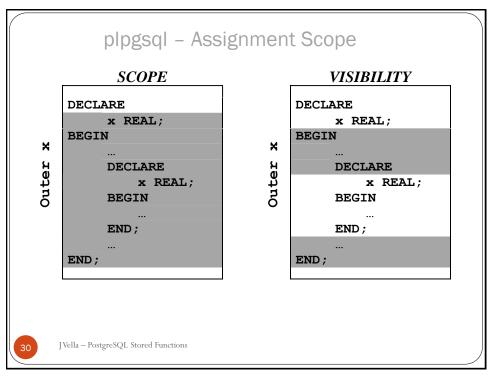
General syntax is:

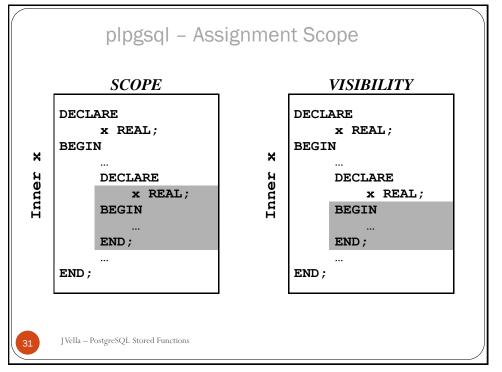
name [CONSTANT] type [NOT NULL] [{ DEFAULT | := } value];

It is useful to map function arguments to block variables (aliases):

firstArg ALIAS for $1;
```









• Various types:

```
targetVar := expression;
```

• Using the SELECT statement:

```
DECLARE deptRec dept%ROWTYPE;

BEGIN
...

SELECT * INTO deptRec FROM dept WHERE ...
```

• In loops (explained later in loops slide).

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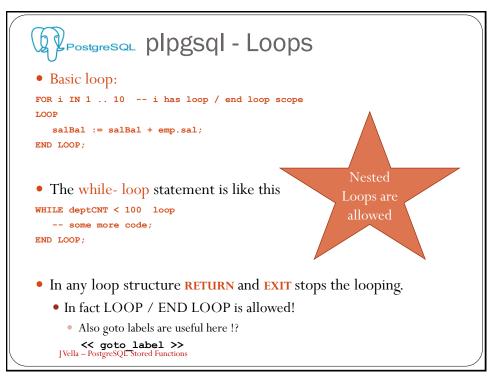
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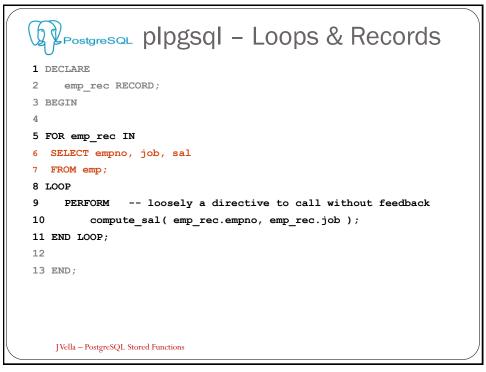


- Recall that arguments, return values, and variables are given a data type.
- One needs to ensure that an assignment does not break any typing requirements.
 - Type casting (PLPGSQL uses :: double colon or SQL function cast()) can help in some situations:
- Example here ensures calling of function **SQRT** is returning with the right types i.e. float8:

```
create function fmax(startt int4, endt int4)
  returns float8 as $$
  begin
      return (sqrt(startt*endt)::float8);
  end;
  $$ language plpgsql;
```

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IF statement

```
IF some condition THEN
    -- statements
END IF;
```

IF THEN ELSE statement

```
IF some condition THEN
   -- exec statements on true
ELSE
   -- exec statements on false
END IF;
```

- IF THEN ELSE ELSEIF also exists.
- Special test FOUND pseudo variable contains a Boolean flag denoting finding (or otherwise) tuples satisfying the last executed query.

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The three main error levels are (severe first):

- Raise exception
 - Transaction that owns the function call rollbacks
 - Written in DBMS audit log
 - Client process can see it
 - RAISE EXCEPTION 'This is it!?';
- Raise notice
 - Written in DBMS audit log
 - Client process can see it
 - RAISE NOTICE 'hey ... What's going on';
- Raise debug
 - Client process can see it
 - RAISE DEBUG 'Walk on ... never seem a dug! ... Walk on!?';

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```
PostgreSQL plpgsql - Dispaly Server Messages
CREATE OR REPLACE FUNCTION getDeptEmp(deptID int) RETURNS int AS $$
DECLARE
  deptCNT int:=0;
BEGIN
    IF deptID < 0 THEN
        RAISE NOTICE 'Surely no such deptno %', deptID;
        RETURN deptCNT;
    ELSE
        SELECT COUNT(*) INTO deptCNT
        FROM emp
        WHERE deptno = deptID;
        RETURN deptCNT;
    END IF;
END;
$$ LANGUAGE plpgsql;
SQL> select getDeptEmp(cast('-20' as int))
NOTICE: Surely no such deptno -20
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```



If a statements between BEGIN and EXCEPTION throws a connection error, plpgsql immediately jumps to its exception handler.

```
BEGIN ...

EXCEPTION

WHEN

connection_does_not_exist OR

connection_failure OR

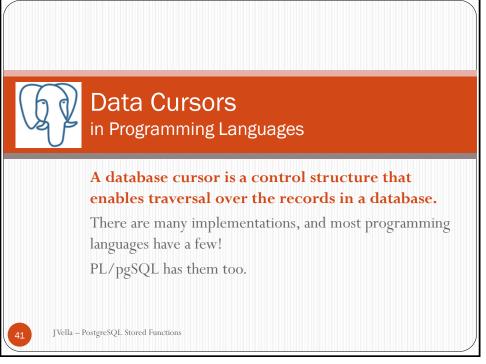
protocol_violation

RAISE ERROR 'Something is wrong with the server connection';

END;

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```

```
PostgresqL plpgsql - Recursion
CREATE OR REPLACE FUNCTION getFactorial (fn int) RETURNS int as $$
DECLARE
   product int;
   minus1 int;
BEGIN
    if (fn > 12) then
       RAISE EXCEPTION 'Error: getFactorial - argument too large %!',fn;
   end if;
   minus1 := fn - 1;
   if (minus1>0)
                                                      Escape condition
      product := fn * getFactorial(minus1);
      return product;
    end if;
   return fn;
END:
$$ language plpgsql;
SQL> select getFactorial(6)
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```





PostgreSQL What and For What Cursors?

- SQL processes table and the **result set** can have zero, one or many rows that satisfy a query.
 - Most programming languages handle data a row at a time:
 - Java, C#, C++, C, PHP
- Cursors bridge this gap.
 - Is a *data structure* that holds the rows returned by a query (sometimes referred to as the *active set*).
 - This gap is often called *impedance mismatch* between the back end and the front ends.
 - An example usage being:

Let us assume we want to increase the salary of all employees according to an agreed look-up table. Rather than having an update statement for each case we can browse all employees and match the relative increment for each and update. This is something procedural 3GLs are great at! Therefore, we need some mechanism that (e.g. an SQL pre-processor) accesses a database, issues an SQL query, and process the result (probably spawning its own SQL queries).

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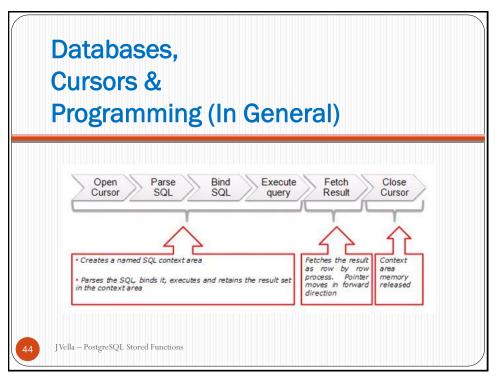


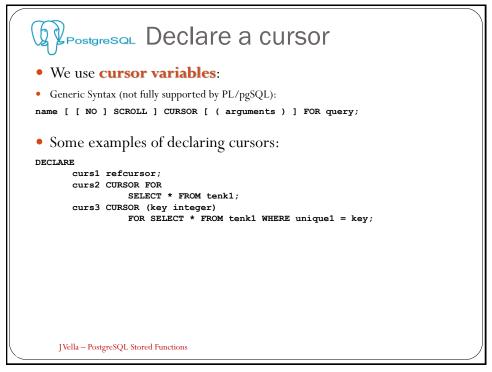
PostgreSQL Simple how cursors

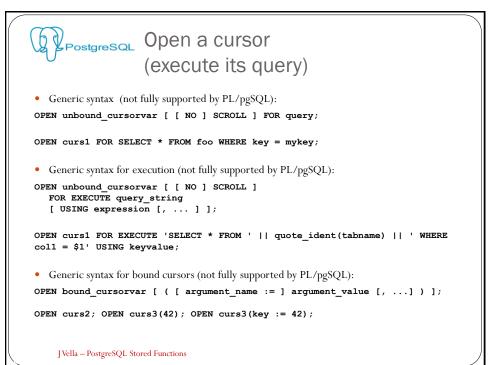
 The following are PL/pgSQL examples: http://etutorials.org/SQL/Postgresql/Part+II+Programming+with+PostgreSQL/Chapter+7.+PLpgSQL/Cursors/

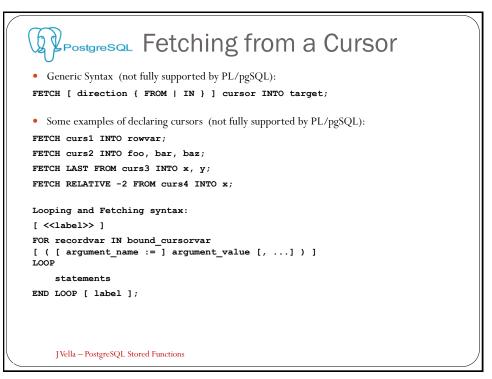
```
• DECLARE CURSOR c1 IS
    SELECT ename, sal, hiredate, deptno FROM emp;
    ...
BEGIN ...
    FOR emp_rec IN c1 LOOP ...
    sal_tot := sal_tot + emp_rec.sal;
    END LOOP;
END;
```

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- Do it!?
 - Cursors use resources!
- Generic Syntax:

CLOSE cursor;

• An example of declaring cursors:

CLOSE curs1;

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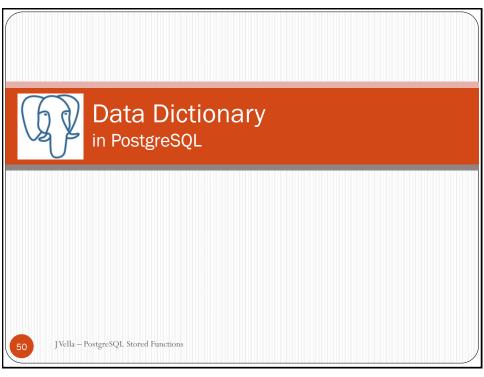
```
CREATE TABLE test (col text);
INSERT INTO test VALUES ('123');

CREATE FUNCTION reffunc (refcursor) RETURNS refcursor AS 'BEGIN

OPEN $1 FOR SELECT col FROM test;
RETURN $1;
END;
' LANGUAGE plpgsql;

BEGIN; -- need to be in a transaction to use cursors.

SELECT reffunc ('funccursor');
FETCH ALL IN funccursor;
COMMIT;
```





- Documentation of data and their relationships;
- Standardisation of definitions;
- Control of
 - *Change* impact analysis, to investigate the effect of proposed changes;
 - *Synonyms* giving two or more names for the same database item;
 - Redundancy multiple copies of same data;
 - *Physical* space and data structures required;

... continues

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- Aid to analysis and design;
- Generation of meta data for DBMS and 4GLs;
- Provision for <u>auditing</u> information/assistance;
- Aid to many important DBMS functionality
 - For example
 - Query Processor, Transaction Manager, Storage Manager, Security sub-system;
- Aid to all users
 - For example
 - DBA, System Analyst, Programmers, end users;

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PostgreSQL DBMS and Data Dictionary

- Is an integral part of a DBMS and it deserves a digression for its own!
- Data dictionaries store information about the database structure, integrity constraints, user profiles, ...
 - In reality a data dictionary is widen to include "physical" characteristics of the database implementation! — so it covers all of the three levels of ANSI/SPARC data architecture
- In PostgreSQL RDBMS the data dictionary is accessed through a large set of tables (i.e. that one can query; and change data) and views:

 $^{ extstyle e$

- SQL's DDL is the proper way to affect the data dictionary views.
- Actually PostgreSQL has to two schemas for a data dictionary:
 - ANSI Information Schema (mostly views) follow SQL II & III standard but excludes PostgreSQL features;
 - PostgreSQL pg_catalog implements all of PostgreSQL features but not cross DBMS compatible nor are these immune from future development.
- To find these open, for the current server, the Postgres database and open the Catalogs key.

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• If proisagg is true then pg_aggregate stores information about aggregate functions.

```
select distinct aggfnoid
from pg_aggregate

"pg_catalog.avg"
"bool_or"
"pg_catalog.max"
"regr_slope"
"pg_catalog.stddev_samp"
"pg_catalog.stddev_pop"
"pg_catalog.bit_or"
"pg_catalog.bit_or"
"pg_catalog.var_samp"
"pg_catalog.var_samp"
"pg_catalog.stddev_pop"
"pg_catalog.stddev_pop"
"pg_catalog.stdev_samp"
"pg_catalog.stddev_pop"
"pg_catalog.stddev_pop"
"pg_catalog.stddev_pop"
"pg_catalog.max"
...
```