

Introduction to SQL

ECE 356
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SQL Basics

- DML syntax and semantics
 - Selection, projection, Cartesian product and joins, renaming
 - set operations
 - aggregation and grouping
 - ordering results
 - nested subqueries
- DDL syntax and semantics
 - SQL data types
 - creating tables, constraints, views
 - insert, update, and delete rows
 - auto-increment attributes
 - stored procedures, cursors, and triggers



Brief History of SQL

- SEQUEL (Structured English Query Language) developed for System R project at IBM San Jose Research Lab in early 1970s. Later shortened to SQL (Structured Query Language).
- Standardized by ANSI (since 1986) and ISO (since 1987):
 - SQL-86 (first cut)
 - SQL-89 (added integrity constraints)
 - SQL-92 (DATE and VARCHAR types, NATURAL JOIN)
 - SQL:1999 (regular expressions, recursive queries, triggers)
 - SQL:2003 (XML support, auto-generated values)
 - SQL:2008 (revisions to cursors and triggers)
 - SQL:2011 (support for temporal databases)
- Commercial systems offer most, if not all, SQL-92 features, plus varying feature sets from later standards and special proprietary features.



SQL DDL, DML, DCL, TCL

- The SQL **Data Definition Language (DDL)** provides the ability to specify schema includes domains and integrity constraints.
 - *e.g.*, creating tables and declaring foreign keys
- The SQL Data Manipulation Language (DML) provides the ability to query data, as well as insert/delete/update tuples.
 - *e.g.*, SELECT statement
- The SQL Data Control Language (DCL) provides the ability to grant access privileges to users and to revoke such privileges.
- The SQL **Transaction Control Language (TCL)** provides the ability to control the execution of transactions.
- We will cover SQL DML and DDL.



Schema for Running Example

- instructor (ID, name, dept_name, salary)
- teaches (ID, course_id, sec_id, semester, year)
- section (course_id, sec_id, semester, year, building, room_no, time_slot_id)
- course (course_id, title, dept_name, credits)

instructor

ID	name	dept_name	salary
10101	Srinivasan	Comp. Sci.	65000
12121	Wu	Finance	90000
15151	Mozart	Music	40000
22222	Einstein	Physics	95000
32343	El Said	History	60000
20457	0.11	T)1 ·	07000

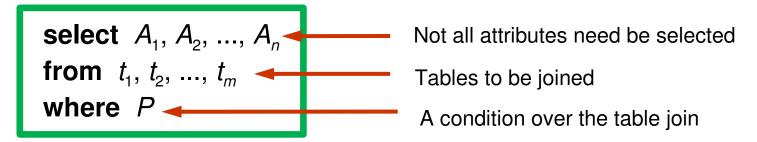
teaches

ID	course_id	sec_id	semester	year
10101	CS-101	1	Fall	2009
10101	CS-315	1	Spring	2010
10101	CS-347	1	Fall	2009
12121	FIN-201	1	Spring	2010
15151	MU-199	1	Spring	2010
22222	PHY-101	1	Fall	2009



Basic Query Structure

A simple SQL query has the form:



- A_i represents an attribute
- \bullet t_i represents a table
- P is a predicate over the joined tables
- The result of an SQL query is a multi-set relation.



What is $t_1, t_2, ..., t_m$?

- The most basic form of joining two tables t_1 and t_2 is selecting all rows from t_2 and appending them to each row of t_1 .
- You may think of this as the following:

```
for each row r_1 in t_1
for each row r_2 in t_2
output r_1, r_2
```

 There are better ways of joining tables than this, so do not think of this as ideal.



The select Clause

- The select clause lists the requested attributes in the result of a query.
- Example: find the names of all instructors:

select name from instructor

- In general relation names are case-sensitive but attribute names are not.
 - (Some exceptions, like MySQL running on Windows.)



The select Clause (Cont.)

- The keyword distinct eliminates duplicates. The keyword all keeps duplicates. In MySQL, the default is all.
- Example: find the names of all departments with at least one instructor, and remove duplicates.

select distinct *dept_name* **from** *instructor*

Example: find the names of all departments with at least one instructor, and keep duplicates.

select all dept_name **from** instructor



The select Clause (Cont.)

An asterisk in the select clause denotes "all attributes":

select * **from** *instructor*

- The select clause can contain arithmetic expressions involving the operators +, -, *, and /, and operating on constants or attributes of tuples.
- The query

select *ID, name, salary/*12 **from** *instructor*

would return a relation that is the same as the *instructor* relation, except that the value of the attribute *salary* is divided by 12 (and renamed "salary/12").



The where Clause

- The **where** clause specifies conditions that the result must satisfy.
- Example: find all instructors in Physics with salary > 80000.
 select name
 from instructor
 where dept_name = 'Physics' and salary > 80000
- Comparison results can be combined using the logical connectives and, or, and not.
- Comparisons can be applied to results of arithmetic expressions.



String Pattern Matching

- SQL includes a string matching operator for comparisons on character strings. The operator like uses patterns that are described using two special characters (wildcards):
 - percent (%): matches any substring
 - underscore (_): matches any one character
 - Example: Find the names of all instructors whose name includes the substring "ar".

select name **from** instructor **where** name **like** '%ar%'

Example: Match the string "100 %".

like '100 \%' escape '\'

Note: Patterns are case-sensitive.



The from Clause

The **from** clause lists the relations involved in the query.

Example: find the Cartesian product instructor x teaches:

select *
from instructor, teaches

- This query generates every possible instructor-teaches pair,
- with all attributes from both relations.

Warning: the result set of a Cartesian product can be very large!



Cartesian Product: *instructor X teaches*

instructor

teaches

ID	name	dept_name	salary
10101	Srinivasan	Comp. Sci.	65000
12121	Wu	Finance	90000
15151	Mozart	Music	40000
22222	Einstein	Physics	95000
32343	El Said	History	60000
20456	L a 11	T31	07000

ID	course_id	sec_id	semester	year
10101	CS-101	1	Fall	2009
10101	CS-315	1	Spring	2010
10101	CS-347	1	Fall	2009
12121	FIN-201	1	Spring	2010
15151	MU-199	1	Spring	2010
22222	PHY-101	1	Fall	2009

inst.ID	пате	dept_name	salary	teaches.ID	course_id	sec_id	semester	year
10101	Srinivasan	Comp. Sci.	65000	10101	CS-101	1	Fall	2009
10101	Srinivasan	Comp. Sci.	65000	10101	CS-315	1	Spring	2010
10101	Srinivasan	Comp. Sci.	65000	10101	CS-347	1	Fall	2009
10101	Srinivasan	Comp. Sci.	65000	12121	FIN-201	1	Spring	2010
10101	Srinivasan	Comp. Sci.	65000	15151	MU-199	1	Spring	2010
10101		Comp. Sci.		22222	PHY-101	1	Fall	2009
12121	Wu	Finance	90000	10101	CS-101	1	Fall	2009
12121	Wu	Finance	90000	10101	CS-315	1	Spring	2010
12121	Wu	Finance	90000	10101	CS-347	1	Fall	2009
12121	Wu	Finance	90000	12121	FIN-201	1	Spring	2010
12121	Wu	Finance	90000	15151	MU-199	1	Spring	2010
12121	Wu	Finance	90000	22222	PHY-101	1	Fall	2009
				•••				
								.



Natural Join

- Natural join matches tuples with the same values for all common attributes, and retains only one copy of each common attribute.
- Example: **select** * **from** *instructor* **natural join** *teaches*

ID	name	dept_name	salary	course_id	sec_id	semester	year
10101	Srinivasan	Comp. Sci.	65000	CS-101	1	Fall	2009
10101	Srinivasan	Comp. Sci.	65000	CS-315	1	Spring	2010
10101	Srinivasan	Comp. Sci.	65000	CS-347	1	Fall	2009
12121	Wu	Finance	90000	FIN-201	1	Spring	2010
15151	Mozart	Music	40000	MU-199	1	Spring	2010
22222	Einstein	Physics	95000	PHY-101	1	Fall	2009
32343	El Said	History	60000	HIS-351	1	Spring	2010
45565	Katz	Comp. Sci.	75000	CS-101	1	Spring	2010
45565	Katz	Comp. Sci.	75000	CS-319	1	Spring	2010
76766	Crick	Biology	72000	BIO-101	1	Summer	2009
76766	Crick	Biology	72000	BIO-301	1	Summerl	2010



Natural Join (Cont.)

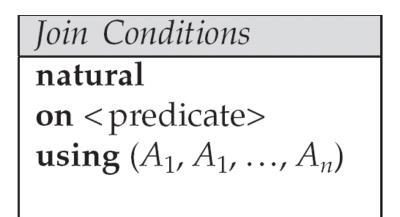
- Danger in natural join: beware of unrelated attributes with same name that get equated incorrectly.
- Example: list the names of instructors along with the titles of courses that they teach.
 - Incorrect solution (makes course.dept_name = instructor.dept_name):
 select name, title
 from instructor natural join teaches natural join course
 - Correct solution:
 select name, title
 from instructor natural join teaches, course
 where teaches.course id = course.course id
 - Another correct solution:
 select name, title
 from (instructor natural join teaches)
 inner join course using (course_id)



More Joins

- **Join operations** take two relations and return another relation as a result.
- **Join condition:** defines which tuples in the two relations match, and what attributes are present in the result of the join.
- **Join type:** defines how tuples in each relation that do not match any tuple in the other relation (based on the join condition) are treated.

Join types	
inner join	
left outer join	
right outer join	
full outer join	





More Joins (Cont.)

Relation course

course_id	title	dept_name	credits
BIO-301	Genetics	Biology	4
CS-190	Game Design	Comp. Sci.	4
CS-315	Robotics	Comp. Sci.	3

Relation prereq

course_id	prereq_id
BIO-301	BIO-101
CS-190	CS-101
CS-347	CS-101

Observe that prereq information is missing for CS-315 and course information is missing for CS-437



Inner and Outer Joins

select * from course inner join prereq on
 course.course_id = prereq.course_id

course_id	title	dept_name	credits	prereg_id	course_id
BIO-301	Genetics	Biology	4	BIO-101	BIO-301
CS-190	Game Design	Comp. Sci.	4	CS-101	CS-190

Note: some databases allow you to omit the keyword "inner".

select * from course left outer join prereq on

course.course_id = prereq.course_id

course_id	title	dept_name	credits	prereq_id	course_id
BIO-301		Biology		BIO-101	
CS-190	Game Design	Comp. Sci.	4	CS-101	CS-190
CS-315	Robotics	Comp. Sci.	3	null	null



Outer Joins

select * from course right outer join prereq using (course_id);

course_id	title	dept_name	credits	prere_id
BIO-301	Genetics	Biology	4	BIO-101
CS-190	Game Design	Comp. Sci.	4	CS-101
CS-347	null	null	null	CS-101

select * from course full outer join prereq using (course_id)

course_id	title	dept_name	credits	prereg_id
BIO-301	Genetics	Biology	4	BIO-101
CS-190	Game Design	Comp. Sci.	4	CS-101
CS-315	Robotics	Comp. Sci.	3	null
CS-347	null	null	null	CS-101

Note: full outer join is not supported in MySQL 5.0.



Theta Join

- A Theta join is obtained using an **inner join** with the **on** clause.
- Example: find the course ID, semester, year and title of each course offered in the Physics department.



The Rename Operation

- SQL allows renaming relations and attributes using the as clause: old-name as new-name
- Example: select ID, name, salary/12 as monthly_salary from instructor
- Find the names of all instructors who have a higher salary than some instructor in 'Physics'.

select distinct T.name
from instructor as T, instructor as S
where T.salary > S.salary and S.dept_name = 'Physics'

Keyword **as** is optional and may be omitted instructor **as** $T \equiv instructor T$

(Note: keyword as must be omitted in Oracle)



Set Operations

Find courses offered in Fall 2009 or in Spring 2010

```
(select course_id from section where semester = 'Fall' and year = 2009)
union
(select course_id from section where semester = 'Spring' and year = 2010)
```

Find courses offered in Fall 2009 and in Spring 2010 (select course_id from section where semester = 'Fall' and year = 2009) intersect (select course_id from section where semester = 'Spring' and year = 2010)

Find courses offered in Fall 2009 but not in Spring 2010 (select course_id from section where semester = 'Fall' and year = 2009) except (select course_id from section where semester = 'Spring' and year = 2010)

Note: MySQL does not support **intersect** or **except.** Remedy?



Set Operations

- Set operations union, intersect, and except automatically eliminate duplicates.
- To retain all duplicates use the corresponding multiset versions union all, intersect all and except all.
- Suppose a tuple occurs m times in r and n times in s, then, it occurs:
 - m + n times in r union all s
 - min(m, n) times in r intersect all s
 - $\max(0, m-n)$ times in r except all s



Aggregate Functions

These functions operate on the multiset of values of a column of a relation, and return a value

avg: average value

min: minimum value

max: maximum value

sum: sum of values

count: number of values

Use the keyword **distinct** to eliminate duplicates.

Example: ... count(distinct ID) ...



Aggregate Functions (Cont.)

Example: find the average salary of instructors in the Physics department.

```
select avg(salary)
from instructor
where dept_name= 'Physics'
```

Example: find the total number of instructors who teach a course in the Spring 2010 semester.

```
select count(distinct ID)
from teaches
where semester = 'Spring' and year = 2010
```

Example: find the number of tuples in the course relation. select count(*) from course

Note: avoid spaces between the aggregate function and (



Aggregation with Grouping

- Find the average salary of instructors in each department select dept_name, avg(salary) from instructor group by dept_name
- Note: departments with no instructor will not appear in result

ID	пате	dept_name	salary
76766	Crick	Biology	72000
45565	Katz	Comp. Sci.	75000
10101	Srinivasan	Comp. Sci.	65000
83821	Brandt	Comp. Sci.	92000
98345	Kim	Elec. Eng.	80000
12121	Wu	Finance	90000
76543	Singh	Finance	80000
32343	El Said	History	60000
58583	Califieri	History	62000
15151	Mozart	Music	40000
33456	Gold	Physics	87000
22222	Einstein	Physics	95000

dept_name	avg_salary
Biology	72000
Comp. Sci.	77333
Elec. Eng.	80000
Finance	85000
History	61000
Music	40000
Physics	91000



Aggregation (Cont.)

- Attributes in **select** clause outside of aggregate functions must appear in the **group by** list:
- The following has undefined results:

select dept_name, name, avg(salary)
from instructor
group by dept_name

Returns a group for each distinct *dept_name* in relation *instructor*.

Note: MySQL 5.5 does accept the above syntax. For each department

group it will return one instructor name from that group.

Note: MySQL 5.7 does **not** accept the above syntax.



Aggregation with "Having" Clause

Find the names and average salaries of all departments whose average salary is greater than 42000.

```
select dept_name, avg(salary)
from instructor
group by dept_name
having avg(salary) > 42000
```

Note: predicates in the **having** clause are applied after the formation of groups whereas predicates in the **where** clause are applied before forming groups.



Ordering the Display of Tuples

Example: list in alphabetical order the names of all instructors.

select distinct name from instructor order by name

- Specify desc for descending order or asc for ascending order, for each attribute. Ascending order is the default.
 - example: **order by** *name* **desc**
- Possible to sort on multiple attributes.
- example:

select distinct dept_name, name
from instructor
order by dept_name asc, name desc



Nested Subqueries

- SQL provides a mechanism for the nesting of subqueries.
- A subquery is a select-from-where expression that is nested within another query.
- Common uses of subqueries including performing tests for set membership (e.g., a value is in the set or not) and set cardinality (e.g., set is empty or not), as well as performing set operations (e.g., union, intersect, difference).
- The **in** construct is used for testing set membership. It returns **true** if the value on the left is an element of the relation generated by a subquery on the right.

```
select ... from ... where value in (subquery) select ... from ... where value not in (subquery)
```



Testing for Set Membership

Example: find courses offered in Fall 2009 and in Spring 2010.

Example: find courses offered in Fall 2009 but not in Spring 2010.



Testing for Empty Relations

- The **exists** construct returns the value **true** if the argument subquery is nonempty.
 - exists $r \Leftrightarrow r \neq \emptyset$
 - not exists $r \Leftrightarrow r = \emptyset$
- Example: find all courses taught in both the Fall 2009 semester and in the Spring 2010 semester.

Correlated subquery: uses values from outer query in where clause.



Test for Empty Relations (Cont.)

Example: find all students who have taken all courses offered in the Biology department.



Scalar Subquery

- Scalar subquery is one that yields a single value.
- **Example:**

```
select dept_name,
  (select count(*)
  from instructor
  where department.dept_name = instructor.dept_name)
  as num_instructors
  from department
```

Example:

```
select name
from instructor
where salary * 10 >
    (select budget from department
        where department.dept_name = instructor.dept_name)
```

■ Note: An error occurs if the subquery returns more than one result tuple.



Modifying Relations – Insertion

- Example: Add a new tuple to course. insert into course values ('ECE-656', 'Databases', 'ECE', 0.5)
- Example: Add a new tuple to course with credits set to null. insert into course values ('ECE-656', 'Databases', 'ECE', null)



Modifying Relations – Updates

Example: Give a 3% salary increase to all instructors whose salary is below \$80,000.

update instructor
set salary = salary * 1.03
where salary < 80000</pre>



Modifying Relations – Deletion

Example: Delete all instructors.
delete from instructor

Example: Delete all instructors from the Math department.

delete from instructor

where dept_name= 'Math'

Example: Delete all instructors whose departments are in the EIT building.



Data Definition Language

The SQL data-definition language (DDL) is used to specify of information about relations, including:

- the schema for each relation
- the domain of values associated with each attribute
- integrity constraints
- the set of indexes to be maintained for each relation
- the physical storage structure of each relation
- \blacksquare (e.g., choice of InnoDB vs. MyISAM storage engine in MySQL)



Domain Types in SQL

- **char(n).** Fixed length character string, with user-specified length n.
- **varchar(n).** Variable length character string, with user-specified maximum length *n*.
- **int.** Integer (a machine-dependent finite subset of the integers).
- **smallint.** Small integer (a machine-dependent subset of int).
- **numeric(p,d).** Fixed point number, with user-specified precision of p significant digits, with d digits to the right of decimal point.
- **real, double precision.** Floating point and double-precision floating point numbers, with machine-dependent precision.
- **float(n).** Floating point number, with user-specified precision of at least *n* digits.
- **date, time**. Calendar date (YYYY-MM-DD format), and time of day (hh:mm:ss format).



Create Table Construct

An SQL relation is defined using the **create table** command: **create table** r (A_1 D_1 ,

```
...,
A<sub>n</sub> D<sub>n</sub>,
(integrity-constraint<sub>1</sub>),
...,
(integrity-constraint<sub>k</sub>)
);
```

- [Note: r is a relation, A_i is an attribute, and D_i is the domain of A_i]
- Example:



Views

- In some cases, it is not desirable for all users to see all the relations stored in a database instance.
- Consider a person who needs to know an instructor's name and department, but not the salary. This person should see a relation described in SQL by the following query:

select *ID*, *name*, *dept_name* **from** *instructor*

- A view provides a mechanism to hide certain data from the view of certain users.
- Any relation that is not part of the conceptual model but is made visible to a user as a "virtual relation" is called a view.



View Definition

A view is defined using the create view statement, which follows the form

create view view_name as < query expression >

- where <query expression> is any legal SQL query.
- Once a view is defined, the view name can be used to refer to the virtual relation.
- A view need not be defined over a single table. It can be defined over the result set of a join or group by query.
- Note: Views are dynamic. In other words, changing the data in the relations referenced by a view causes analogous changes in the virtual relation corresponding to the view.



Example Views

A view of instructors without their salary create view faculty as select ID, name, dept_name from instructor

Find all instructors in the Biology department select name from faculty where dept_name = 'Biology'

Create a view of department salary totals

create view departments_total_salary(dept_name, total_salary) as

select dept_name, sum(salary)

from instructor

group by dept_name

select * **from** *departments_total_salary*



Drop and Alter Table Constructs

- drop table student
 - Deletes the table and its contents. Assumes table exists.
- drop table if exists student
 - Deletes the table and its contents if table exists.
- delete from student
 - Deletes all tuples from table, but retains table.
- alter table
 - alter table r add A D
 - Adds attribute with name A and domain D to relation r. All existing tuples in the relation are assigned null as the value for the new attribute.
 - \bullet alter table r drop A
 - Drops attribute A from relation r. Not supported by many databases.



Declaring Integrity Constraints

- not null: disallows null values
- **primary key** $(A_1, ..., A_n)$: ensures uniqueness
- **unique** $(A_1, ..., A_n)$: ensures uniqueness (think superkey)
- foreign key $(A_m, ..., A_n)$ references $r(A'_m, ..., A'_n)$:
- defines a foreign key in the child (referencing) table that points to a referenced key in a parent (referenced) table r
- default V: makes V the default value for an attribute
- Example:



Primary Keys and Superkeys

Example of **primary key** and **unique** constraints in SQL:

```
create table customer (
          customer_id int,
          social_insurance_num numeric(9,0),
          first_name varchar(20),
          last_name varchar(20),
          primary key (customer_id),
          unique (social_insurance_num)
);
```

- Note 1: primary key and unique both identify superkeys.
- You can use **primary key** at most once per table but you can use **unique** more than once.
- Note 2: A primary key attribute cannot be null. The primary key constraint on an attribute implies the not null constraint.
- Note 3: For a **unique** attribute, the number of tuples that may have a *null* value is system-dependent (zero, one, or many).



Foreign Keys

Example of a **foreign key** (a.k.a. **referential integrity**) constraint:

```
create table instructor (
    ID char(5) primary key,
    name varchar(20) not null,
    dept_name varchar(20),
    salary numeric(8,2),
    foreign key (dept_name) references department(dept_name)
);
create table department (
    dept_name varchar(20) primary key,
    building varchar(20) not null,
    budget int
```

Note: In MySQL the referenced key (in this case dept_name) must be a superkey of the referenced table, or a prefix of a multi-attribute primary key of the referenced table.



Referential Actions

- Referential actions define the behavior of the DB in cases when an update or deletion on the parent (*i.e.*, referenced) table SQL statement affects a value referenced by a child (*i.e.*, referencing) table.
- SQL 92 defines four actions:
 - cascade: automatically update or delete foreign key in matching rows of child table.
 - set null: set foreign key columns to null in matching rows of child table. (Assumes foreign key is nullable.)
 - set default: set foreign key columns to the default value in matching rows of child table.
 - no action: reject operation and generate error.
 - (Also known as restrict in MySQL.)



Referential Actions (Cont.)

Example: cascade on update, set null on delete

```
create table instructor (
    ID char(5) primary key,
    name varchar(20) not null,
    dept_name varchar(20),
    salary numeric(8,2),
    foreign key (dept_name) references department(dept_name)
    on update cascade on delete set null
);
```



Foreign Key Caveats in MySQL 5.0

- MySQL will enforce foreign key constraints only in some cases:
 - The storage engine for the parent and child tables must support foreign keys (e.g., InnoDB).
 - Corresponding attributes in parent and child table must have "similar internal data types".
 - (e.g., integers of the same size and sign, or strings of possibly different lengths.)
 - Foreign key and referenced key must be indexed.
- Note: we will discuss storage engines and indexing later on in the course.
- For further information consult the MySQL reference manual:
- http://dev.mysql.com/doc/refman/5.0/en/innodb-foreign-key-constraints.html



Check Constraints

In SQL 92, constraints can be expressed using predicates and declared using the **check** clause.

■ (Not supported in MySQL 5.7.)

Note: "The CHECK clause is parsed but ignored by all storage engines."

Example: ensure that salaries observe institutional limits.

```
create table instructor (
    ID     char(5)     primary key,
    name     varchar(20)     not null,
    dept_name     varchar(20),
    salary     numeric(8,2),
    foreign key (dept_name) references department(dept_name),
        check (salary > 50000 and salary < 150000 )
);</pre>
```



Auto-increment Attributes

- Auto-increment attributes can be used to automatically generate primary key values.
- Example:

```
create table instructor_auto (
    ID int auto increment primary key,
    name varchar(20),
    dept_name varchar(20),
    salary numeric(8,2)
)

insert into instructor_auto (name, dept_name, salary)
values ('Watson', 'Biology', 90210)

select * from instructor_auto
```

Note: ID = 1 should be assigned automatically to the first tuple.



Stored Procedures

- A **stored procedure** is a subroutine that consolidates and centralizes logic that would otherwise be implemented in database applications. Using stored procedures reduces redundant SQL code in applications.
- Example:

```
CREATE PROCEDURE ProcTopSalary
(IN dept_name VARCHAR(20))
BEGIN

SELECT max(salary) FROM instructor
WHERE instructor.dept_name = dept_name;
END @@
DELIMITER;
CALL ProcTopSalary('Physics');
```

Stored procedures are generally long-lived, similarly to tables. A stored procedure can be deleted using the drop keyword:

DROP PROCEDURE ProcTopSalary;



Cursors

- A database **cursor** is a control structure that enables traversal of records in a database. Cursors are similar to iterators in Java, and are used inside stored procedures.
- Example: assign every instructor in Biology department to teach 'BIO-101', one instructor per year, consecutive years starting at 2016.

DELIMITER @@
CREATE PROCEDURE CursorDemo()
BEGIN

DECLARE year INT DEFAULT 2016;
DECLARE my_id VARCHAR(5);
DECLARE my_dept_name VARCHAR(20);
DECLARE done INT DEFAULT 0;
DECLARE cur CURSOR FOR

SELECT ID, dept_name from instructor; **DECLARE CONTINUE HANDLER FOR**

NOT FOUND SET done = 1;

< continued on next slide >



Cursors (Cont.)

```
OPEN cur;
my_loop: LOOP
    FETCH cur INTO my_id, my_dept_name;
    IF done = 1 \text{ THEN}
        LEAVE my loop;
    END IF;
    IF my dept name = 'Biology' THEN
        INSERT INTO teaches
        VALUES (my id, 'BIO-101', 1, 'Summer', year);
    END IF;
    SET year = year + 1;
END LOOP my_loop;
CLOSE cur;
END @@
DELIMITER;
CALL CursorDemo();
```



Triggers

- A **trigger** is procedural code that is automatically executed in response to certain events on a particular table or view in a database.
- MySQL supports three types of trigger events: insert, update, and delete. A trigger can be executed either before or after an event.
- Example of using triggers for validation:

```
DELIMITER @@
CREATE TRIGGER SalaryTrigger
BEFORE UPDATE ON instructor FOR EACH ROW
BFGIN
   IF NEW.salary > OLD.salary * 1.10 THEN
       SIGNAL SQLSTATE '45000'
       SET MESSAGE_TEXT = 'increase higher than 10%';
   END IF;
END; @@
DELIMITER;
UPDATE instructor SET salary = salary * 3.14
WHERE salary < 80000;
```