# 1 Stored Procedures in PL/SQL

Many modern databases support a more procedural approach to databases—they allow you to write procedural code to work with data. Usually, it takes the form of SQL interweaved with the more familiar IF statements, etc.

Note that this has nothing to do with *accessing* the database. You can access any database from virtually any language. What we're talking about is the code that is executed by the database server.

While there are many various 'database' languages, we will only talk about the primary two: T-SQL, which is supported by SQL Server and Sybase, and PL/SQL, which is supported by Oracle.

Many other languages may be supported. For example, Oracle allows you to write stored procedures and triggers in Java, etc.

# 2 PL/SQL

Besides plain vanilla SQL, Oracle supports PL/SQL. The PL stands for Procedural Language, which means you can have things like IF statements, loops, variables, and other procedural things along with declarative SQL statements. PL/SQL

## 2.1 Variables

Just as most procedural languages, PL/SQL has some sort of variables. The types of variables are plain SQL column types that you're all used to. You can also refer to a type of a particular column explicitly by specifying the fully qualified column name (tablename.columname) followed by %TYPE. For example: PRODUCT.PRICE%TYPE.

Similarly, we can refer to a particular row as a single type. Again, you declare it by referring to a database table directly: PRODUCT%ROWTYPE. This would refer to a single record stored in the PRODUCT table.

Along with the above mentioned, some common types are: BOOLEAN, DATE, NUMBER, CHAR, and VARCHAR2.

We declare variables of these types similarly to specifying columns in tables. First, we list the name of the variable, then the type we want it to have. For example, to declare a price variable of a fixed point NUMBER, we might do something like this:

PRICE NUMBER(6,2);

# 2.2 PL/SQL Program Blocks

PL/SQL programs are structured in blocks and have the following format:

```
DECLARE
variable_declarations
BEGIN
procedural_code
```

# EXCEPTION error\_handling END;

#### 2.2.1 Declare

The declare part is where variable declaration goes. All used variables must be declared in this section. This is also the place where other more exotic variable types are declared, like cursors and exceptions.

## 2.2.2 Begin

This is the part we're most interested in. This is where the bulk of your programs shall be placed. Here, you can have IF statements, loops, etc.

## 2.2.3 Exceptions

The exception section is where we place error handling code. We will talk about it more depth in subsequent lessons.

#### 2.2.4 End

The end signifies the end of this program block.

# 2.3 Operators

PL/SQL supports several operators to do various things. Table 1 lists some of the more common operators.

# 2.4 Hello World and a bit Beyond...

Well, let's start with the PL/SQL hello world example. Before we write it however, there are a couple of things that need to be setup. First, start "SQL\*Plus" (Oracle), login, and type:

#### SET SERVEROUTPUT ON

What this does is enable you to view output in SQL\*Plus window whenever your programs attempts to write some output to the screen.

Now, let's get on with the show. Type the following into the SQL\*Plus window as is:

#### **BEGIN**

```
DBMS_OUTPUT.PUT_LINE('Hello World');
END;
```

You'll notice that it doesn't run as an average SQL statement. To make it run, you must type the '/' character on a line by itself. And you'll notice:

```
SQL> BEGIN
2     DBMS_OUTPUT.PUT_LINE('Hello World');
3     END;
4     /
Hello World
```

PL/SQL procedure successfully completed.

You can think of DBMS\_OUTPUT.PUT\_LINE() as sort of a printf() in C language. It writes output to the console; but it only works for strings (or data that can be implicitly converted to a string).

You can also do more complicated things, like access global variables like SYSDATE. For example:

```
SQL> BEGIN
2     DBMS_OUTPUT.PUT_LINE('The time now is: ');
3     DBMS_OUTPUT.PUT_LINE(SYSDATE);
4     END;
5     /
The time now is:
31-JUL-02
```

We're not done with this simple example yet. We can also modify the DATE format:

**	Exponentiation	
*	Multiplication	
/	Division	
+	Addition	
_	Subtraction	
_	Negation	
:=	Assignment	
=	Equals Comparison	
<>	Not Equals Comparison	
! =	Not Equals Comparison	
>	Greater Than Comparison	
<	Less Than Comparison	
>=	Greater Than or Equal Comparison	
<=	Less Than or Equal Comparison	
AND	The obvious AND operation	
OR	The obvious OR operation	
:=	Assignment	
	String Concatenation	

Table 1: PL/SQL Operators

```
SQL> BEGIN

2 DBMS_OUTPUT.PUT_LINE('The time now is: ');

3 DBMS_OUTPUT.PUT_LINE(TO_CHAR(SYSDATE,'MM/DD/YYYY'));

4 END;

5 /
The time now is:

07/31/2002
```

## 2.5 Type Conversion Functions

From the previous example, you can see we've used the TO\_CHAR function to format the date. Table 2 lists some of these useful functions.

TO_DATE	Converts a string to a date.
TO_NUMBER	Converts a character string to a number.
TO_CHAR	Converts numbers or dates to character strings.

Table 2: Some PL/SQL Functions

## 2.6 Character String Functions

There are a number of functions for handling character string data in PL/SQL, these include the easy to use string catenation operator. For example, we could have written our time now is example as:

```
SQL> BEGIN
2     DBMS_OUTPUT.PUT_LINE('The time now is: ' || SYSDATE);
3     END;
4  /
The time now is: 31-JUL-02
```

Note that  $| \cdot |$  was used to concatenate the string 'The time is now: ' with the SYSDATE. Some of the more useful PL/SQL are listed in Table 3.

RTRIM(STR)	Removes blank spaces from right side of string.
LENGTH(STR)	Returns the length of the string.
UPPER(STR)	Converts the string to upper case.
LOWER(STR)	Converts the string to lower case.
INSTR(STR1,STR2)	Looks for STR2 in STR1.
SUBSTR(STR,START,END)	Returns a substring that starts at START.

Table 3: More PL/SQL Functions

Substring example follows:

```
SQL> SELECT SUBSTR('HELLO',2,4) FROM DUAL;

SUBS
---
ELLO
```

## 2.7 PL/SQL IF Statement

PL/SQL, being a procedural language naturally has lots of flow control constructs, from IF statements to WHILE loops.

Remember to type: SET SERVEROUTPUT ON in SQL\*Plus before running any programs, so that you can see the output.

## 2.8 IF - THEN Structure

The general format of an IF statement is:

```
IF condition THEN
    program_statements
END IF;
```

Assuming we all know how to program, and know what IF statements are, I'm not going to spend too much time on the obvious.

An example program that uses an IF statement is:

```
DECLARE
    A NUMBER(6);
    B NUMBER(6);

BEGIN
    A := 23;
    B := A * 5;
    IF A < B THEN
        DBMS_OUTPUT.PUT_LINE('Ans: ' || A || ' is less than ' || B);
    END IF;
END;</pre>
```

Which produces the expected output of:

```
Ans: 23 is less than 115
```

## 2.9 IF - ELSE Structure

Just as in any programming language that has an IF statement, there is also the ELSE clause to the IF statement. The full structure of an IF statement is thus:

```
IF condition THEN
    if_condition_is_true_code
ELSE
    if_condition_is_false_code
END IF;
  Let's modify our simple example to:
DECLARE
    A NUMBER(6);
    B NUMBER(6);
BEGIN
    A := 23;
    B := A / 5;
    IF A < B THEN
        DBMS_OUTPUT.PUT_LINE('Ans: ' || A || ' is less than ' || B);
    ELSE
        DBMS_OUTPUT.PUT_LINE('Ans: ' | A | | ' is greater than ' | B);
    END IF;
END;
```

Note that we've also modified the B := A \* 5 to B := A / 5 in order to test the ELSE condition.

# 2.10 IF Statement nesting

We can also put IF statements inside other IF statements. Here, again, let's jump right into an example:

```
DECLARE
    A NUMBER(6);
    B NUMBER(6);
    C NUMBER(6);
    ABCMAX NUMBER(6);
BEGIN
    A := 23;
    B := A / 5;
    C := B * 7;
    IF A > B THEN
        IF A > C THEN
            ABCMAX := A;
        ELSE
            ABCMAX := C;
        END IF;
    ELSE
        IF B > C THEN
```

```
ABCMAX := B;

ELSE

ABCMAX := C;

END IF;

END IF;

DBMS_OUTPUT_PUT_LINE('Max of: ' || A || ', ' || B ||

', and ' || C || ' is ' || ABCMAX);

END;
```

The code above finds the maximum value (ABCMAX) of three variables (A, B, and C). The code looks self explanatory; so we won't spend much time on it.

## 2.11 IF ELSIF Structure

When IF and ELSE are not enough, we can resort to using ELSIF. This is an else if equivalent in C (and in Perl it is actually named elsif).

Let's say we wanted to calculate the letter grade given a number grade, we may write a program such as:

```
DECLARE
    NGRADE NUMBER;
    LGRADE CHAR(2);
BEGIN
    NGRADE := 82.5;
    IF NGRADE > 95 THEN
        LGRADE := 'A+';
    ELSIF NGRADE > 90 THEN
        LGRADE := 'A';
    ELSIF NGRADE > 85 THEN
        LGRADE := 'B+';
    ELSIF NGRADE > 80 THEN
        LGRADE := 'B';
    ELSIF NGRADE > 75 THEN
        LGRADE := 'C+';
    ELSIF NGRADE > 70 THEN
        LGRADE := 'C';
    ELSIF NGRADE > 65 THEN
        LGRADE := 'D+';
    ELSIF NGRADE > 60 THEN
        LGRADE := 'D';
    ELSE
        LGRADE := 'F';
    END IF;
```

```
DBMS_OUTPUT.PUT_LINE('Grade ' || NGRADE || ' is ' || LGRADE);
END;
```

Which for our particular example number grade produces output:

Grade 82.5 is B

## 2.12 PL/SQL - SQL

Apparently, we can run SQL statements inside PL/SQL! Isn't that amazing?

We can't use all of SQL though, we can only use DML (Data Manipulation Language) which includes statements like SELECT, INSERT, UPDATE, and DELETE, and transaction control statements, like COMMIT, ROLLBACK, SAVEPOINT.

The only limitation seems to be are DDL statements, which are used to CREATE, ALTER, and DROP tables, and GRANT privileges, just to name a few.

#### 2.12.1 Simple Example

For right now, here's a simple example. We'll do more as we learn PL/SQL. In this example, we'll insert a new PRODUCT into a simple database.

```
DECLARE
    PID NUMBER(6);
BEGIN
    PID := 20;
    INSERT INTO product VALUES (PID,'tv',32,199.99);
    PID := PID + 1;
    INSERT INTO product VALUES (PID,'vcr',16,799.98);
    COMMIT;
END;
```

We can now run a SELECT statement to retrieve the values we've inserted:

```
SELECT * FROM PRODUCT WHERE PRODUCT_ID >= 20;
```

Which produces the expected results:

Notice that in our example, we used a variable named PID inside our INSERT statement. That's the real power of PL/SQL, where we can use procedural language constructs and variables to drive our database SQL code. PL/SQL Loops

Just as with IF statements, PL/SQL also has loops. Loops are used to repeat some action multiple times, until some condition is met.

PL/SQL has five looping structures, and we shall talk about each one in more depth as we move along. So without further interruption, I present to you...

# 2.13 LOOP ... EXIT Loop

The general format of such a loop is:

```
LOOP

various_statements

IF condition THEN

EXIT;

END IF;

various_statements

END LOOP;
```

This loop is very similar to an infinite loop in C/C++, where you use break; to terminate the loop; in this case, the EXIT; command takes the form of break.

Note that we can place various program statements before the exiting IF statement and after, which gives us great flexibility about when and how the condition is evaluated.

An example of such a loop would be:

```
DECLARE
    I NUMBER(6);
BEGIN
    I := 1;
    LOOP
        DBMS_OUTPUT.PUT_LINE('aI: ' || I);
        I := I + 1;
        IF I > 5 THEN
            EXIT;
        END IF;
        DBMS_OUTPUT.PUT_LINE('bI: ' || I);
    END LOOP;
END;
   With the expected output of:
aI: 1
bI: 2
aI: 2
bI: 3
aI: 3
bI: 4
aI: 4
bI: 5
aI: 5
```

Note that you should SET SERVEROUTPUT ON; in order to see the output in SQL\*Plus screen.

Also, it would be *very* helpful if you trace the above program to ensure that you understand how the loop functions and why the results look as they do. I shall not provide the output for the following code, and expect you to run it yourself.

# 2.14 LOOP ... EXIT WHEN Loop

To simplify our writing our the IF statement, there is a simpler form, the EXIT WHEN loop. The general format of such a loop is:

```
LOOP
various_statements
EXIT WHEN condition;
various_statements
END LOOP;
```

An example usage of such a loop would be something like this:

You should run this code yourself. It would actually be more helpful if you write out the output first, and then compare it to the actual results.

# 2.15 WHILE ... LOOP Loop

Our next loop is the all familiar WHILE loop, except now it is in PL/SQL and not in C/C++. It works nearly identically though. The idea is that you have a condition which is tested each time through the loop, and if it's false, the loop terminates.

The general format of such a loop is:

```
WHILE condition
LOOP
various_statements
END LOOP;
```

Our typical (as in typical for these class notes) would be:

```
DECLARE
    I NUMBER(6);
BEGIN
    I := 1;
    WHILE I <= 5
    LOOP
        DBMS_OUTPUT.PUT_LINE('aI: ' || I);
        I := I + 1;
        DBMS_OUTPUT.PUT_LINE('bI: ' || I);
    END LOOP;
END;</pre>
```

Just as with the previous code, you should try to figure out what the output is, and then run it to see if your trace was correct. Tracing questions such as these are fair game for quizzes and tests.

## 2.16 FOR Loop

There is also the traditional numeric FOR loop that's commonly found in most procedural languages. The general format of such a loop is:

```
FOR countervariable IN startvalue .. endvalue LOOP various_statements END LOOP;
```

The start and end values must be integers, and are always incremented by one. An example of such a loop would be:

```
BEGIN
    FOR I IN 1..5
    LOOP
        DBMS_OUTPUT.PUT_LINE('I: ' || I);
    END LOOP;
END;
```

Notice that we never actually directly initialize I, or even declare it! It is done implicitly for us by the FOR loop. You should run this code to ensure you understand it.

You can also use other variables to loop on. For example, to loop from J to K, you'd do something like:

```
DECLARE
```

```
J NUMBER(6);
K NUMBER(6);
```

```
BEGIN
    J := 7;
    K := 2;
    FOR I IN K..J
    LOOP
        DBMS_OUTPUT.PUT_LINE('I: ' || I);
    END LOOP;
END;
```

Again, notice that we never actually initialize nor declare I. In fact, the I in the loop is a totally different variable. Even if you have an I variable declared, the loop will still use its own version. You can verify that by running this code:

Which interestingly enough, prints out:

```
BEFORE LOOP I: 7
IN LOOP I: 1
IN LOOP I: 2
IN LOOP I: 3
IN LOOP I: 4
IN LOOP I: 5
AFTER LOOP I: 7
```

Which illustrates that the value of our declared variable I is unchanged by the loop (and that the loop internally has I declared which is different from our explicitly declared I).

#### 2.17 Cursors

Before we move on with our discussion of the next and last loop construct, we must cover the concept of Cursors.

Oracle has two major different types of cursors. One is implicit and the other one is explicit.

## 2.18 Implicit Cursor

Implicit cursors can be generated every time you do a SELECT statement in PL/SQL. The general format goes something like this:

```
SELECT selectfields INTO declared_variables FROM table_list WHERE search_criteria;
```

The only catch is that the search criteria must return one and only one result. If it returns zero, or more than one, an error is generated.

For example, lets say we wanted to get the name and price of some specific product (identified by PRODUCT\_ID):

```
DECLARE
```

```
NAME PRODUCT.DESCRIPTION%TYPE;

AMOUNT PRODUCT.PRICE%TYPE;

BEGIN

SELECT DESCRIPTION,PRICE INTO NAME, AMOUNT

FROM PRODUCT WHERE PRODUCT_ID = 4;

DBMS_OUTPUT.PUT_LINE('PRICE OF ' || NAME || ' IS ' || AMOUNT);

END;
```

Which faithfully displays out:

```
PRICE OF keyboard IS 19.95
```

Assuming the "keyboard" is in the database and has PRODUCT\_ID = 4 (and has that price).

Note that we used the table's types, which brings up another issue: Now is a pretty good time to illustrate the ROWTYPE type. Let's rewrite the above using that.

```
DECLARE
```

```
P PRODUCT%ROWTYPE;
BEGIN
    SELECT * INTO P FROM PRODUCT WHERE PRODUCT_ID = 4;
    DBMS_OUTPUT.PUT_LINE('PRICE OF ' || P.DESCRIPTION || ' IS ' || P.PRICE);
END:
```

Notice that the code got a lot smaller since we don't have to worry about defining every single variable for retrieval purposes. We retrieve a whole row of data at a time. The output of the above code is exactly the same as the previous.

# 2.19 Explicit Cursor

Explicit Cursors are cursors that you have to explicitly declare, and which give you a lot more flexibility than the implicit ones.

To declare an explicit cursor, you have to do it in the DECLARE section. The format looks something like:

```
CURSOR cursorname IS SELECT_statement;
```

Where SELECT\_statement is any select statement (except a more exotic one which contains a UNION or MINUS.

# 3 Opening an Explicit Cursor

In order to use an explicit cursor, you must open it. You do that with a simple:

OPEN cursorname;

(obviously you have to do that inside the code section, between BEGIN and END).

## 3.1 Fetching Data into an Explicit Cursor

Besides opening the cursor, we also have to grab the results of the SELECT statement one by one. We do that with a FETCH. For example:

FETCH cursorname INTO recordvariables;

We shall do some examples when we learn our cursor loops, so hang on...

## 3.2 Closing a Cursor

Closing a cursor is just as easy as opening it. We just say:

CLOSE cursorname;

Cursors will be closed automatically once your code exits, but it's still a good idea to close them explicitly.

# 3.3 LOOP ... EXIT WHEN Loop (Again)

We can use our standard loops in order to go loop through the results returned by the cursor. So, let's move on to our example:

```
DECLARE
```

```
P PRODUCT%ROWTYPE;
CURSOR PRODUCTCURSOR IS
SELECT * FROM PRODUCT;

BEGIN
OPEN PRODUCTCURSOR;
LOOP
FETCH PRODUCTCURSOR INTO P;
EXIT WHEN PRODUCTCURSOR%NOTFOUND;
DBMS_OUTPUT.PUT_LINE('PRICE OF ' || P.DESCRIPTION || ' IS ' || P.PRICE);
END LOOP;
CLOSE PRODUCTCURSOR;

END;
```

Go through the code line by line. First, we declare our P variable which is a ROWTYPE from table PRODUCT. We then declare our CURSOR, which simply selects everything from the PRODUCT table.

Our code then proceeds to OPEN the cursor. We then fall into our standard loop (which we learned about earlier), and FETCH results from the CURSOR. We EXIT the loop if we got no more results (the PRODUCTCURSOR%NOTFOUND condition). If we did not exit the loop, we output product description and product price.

In the end, we just CLOSE the cursor. Depending on what you have in your PRODUCT table, the results of the code may look similar to this:

```
PRICE OF mice IS 26.99
PRICE OF keyboard IS 19.95
PRICE OF monitor IS 399.99
PRICE OF speakers IS 9.99
PRICE OF stapler IS 14.99
PRICE OF calculator IS 7.99
PRICE OF quickcam IS 99.98
PRICE OF harddrive IS 199.99
PRICE OF tv IS 199.99
PRICE OF vcr IS 799.98
```

You should go through the code, trace it, run it, and make sure you understand it.

## 3.4 Cursor Attributes

We've already seen one of the more important cursor attributes, the %NOTFOUND. There are also these:

%NOTFOUND: Evaluates to TRUE when cursor has no more rows to read. FALSE otherwise. %FOUND: Evaluates to TRUE if last FETCH was successful and FALSE otherwise.

**%ROWCOUNT**: Returns the number of rows that the cursor has already fetched from the database.

%ISOPEN: Returns TRUE if this cursor is already open, and FALSE otherwise.

# 3.5 Cursor FOR ... IN ... LOOP Loop

There is also a special loop structure made specifically for working with cursors. It allows for easier cursor handling; it opens and closes the cursor for us, and we don't have to explicitly check for the end.

It is a for loop that has the general format:

```
FOR variable(s) IN cursorname LOOP
   various_program_statements
END LOOP;
```

Let us rewrite our example program (presented earlier) to use this new type of loop:

```
DECLARE
    P PRODUCT%ROWTYPE;
    CURSOR PRODUCTCURSOR IS
         SELECT * FROM PRODUCT;

BEGIN
    FOR P IN PRODUCTCURSOR LOOP
        DBMS_OUTPUT.PUT_LINE('PRICE OF ' || P.DESCRIPTION || ' IS ' || P.PRICE);
    END LOOP;

END;
```

Notice that the code got quite a bit simpler, with lots of cursor handling code gone; which is now being handled by the loop itself.

If you're really into optimization, you might want to improve the above code not to return the whole **%ROWTYPE** but individual fields which we're displaying, for example:

```
DECLARE
    CURSOR PRODUCTCURSOR IS
        SELECT DESCRIPTION, PRICE FROM PRODUCT;

BEGIN
    FOR P IN PRODUCTCURSOR LOOP
        DBMS_OUTPUT.PUT_LINE('PRICE OF ' || P.DESCRIPTION || ' IS ' || P.PRICE);
    END LOOP;

END;
```

Notice several things about the code: that we no longer declare P which is used for loop purposes. Also notice that our cursor is no longer returning everything, but just two individual fields which we're displaying.

## 3.6 Introduction to Stored Procedures

Just like any other procedural language, PL/SQL has code fragments that are called PROCEDURES.

You can call these PROCEDURES from other code fragments, or directly from SQL\*Plus (or some other client program).

Before you begin to write procedures though, you need to verify that you have enough privileges to do that. If you don't (which probably means you're using a plain user account), then you need to login as administrator (or ask the administrator) to grant you access. To grant such priviledge yourself (in case you're the administrator - running Oracle on your own machine) you can do:

#### GRANT CREATE PROCEDURE TO someusername;

From that point on, the user someusername will be allowed to create, drop, and replace procedures and functions.

## 3.7 PROCEDURES

Procedures are code fragments that don't normally return a value, but may have some outside effects (like updating tables). The general format of a procedure is:

```
PROCEDURE procedure_name IS
BEGIN
    procedure_body
END;
```

Of course, you'll usually be either creating or replacing the procedure, so you'd want to add on CREATE (OR REPLACE) to the declaration. For example, to create (or replace) a HELLO procedure, you might do something like this:

```
CREATE OR REPLACE
PROCEDURE HELLO IS
BEGIN
    DBMS_OUTPUT.PUT_LINE('Hello World');
END;
```

The above declares a HELLO procedure that just displays 'Hello World'. You can run it as part of a code fragment, or inside other procedures (or functions). For example:

```
BEGIN
    HELLO();
END;
Or you can simply execute it in SQL*Plus by typing:
CALL HELLO();
```

## 3.8 General Format

The general format of a create procedure statement is this:

```
CREATE OR REPLACE
PROCEDURE procedure_name ( parameters ) IS
BEGIN
    procedure_body
END;
```

Where procedure\_name can be any valid SQL name, parameters is a list of parameters to this procedure (we'll discuss them later), and procedure\_body is various PL/SQL statements that make up the logic of the procedure.

#### 3.8.1 Parameters

The parameters (or arguments) are optional. You don't have to specify anything (not even the parenthesis). For example, a sample procedure, which you no doubt have already seen:

```
CREATE OR REPLACE
PROCEDURE HELLOWORLD IS
BEGIN
DBMS_OUTPUT.PUT_LINE('Hello World!');
END;
```

Never actually defines any parameters. What's the use of a procedure that doesn't take any parameters and doesn't return anything? Well, you may be interested in the procedure's side effects, like in our case, we're interested in our procedure displaying 'Hello World!' and nothing else. There may be many instances where you may want to just do something to the database, without any particular parameters, and without returning anything.

Anyway, this section is about parameters so let's talk about parameters.

Parameters are defined in a similar way as in a CREATE TABLE statement, which is similar to how variables are declared. You first specify the name of the variable, and then the type. For example:

```
(N INT)
```

Would setup some procedure to accept an INT variable named N. Writing a simple procedure to display a variable name, you can come up with something like this:

```
CREATE OR REPLACE
PROCEDURE DISPN (N INT) IS
BEGIN

DBMS_OUTPUT.PUT_LINE('N is ' || N);
END;

Which if you call, will promptly display:

SQL> CALL DISPN(1234567891);
N is 1234567891
```

You can also have multiple parameters. For example, you can accept A and B and display their sum and product.

```
CREATE OR REPLACE
PROCEDURE DISP_AB (A INT, B INT) IS
BEGIN
    DBMS_OUTPUT.PUT_LINE('A + B = ' || (A + B));
    DBMS_OUTPUT.PUT_LINE('A * B = ' || (A * B));
END;
```

Which when ran, displays something like (depending on the values you provide):

```
SQL> CALL DISP_AB(17,23);
A + B = 40
A * B = 391
```

Btw, it should be noted that you can use any PL/SQL type as an argument. For example, VARCHAR and others are perfectly acceptable. For example:

```
CREATE OR REPLACE
PROCEDURE DISP_NAME (NAME VARCHAR) IS
BEGIN

DBMS_OUTPUT.PUT_LINE('Hi ' || NAME || '!');
END;

Which when called displays:

SQL> CALL DISP_NAME('John Doe');
Hi John Doe!
```

## 3.9 IN, OUT, IN OUT

There are various different parameter varieties (not types). For example, for the time being, we've only been giving the procedure data via parameters. This is the default (IN).

What we could also do is get data from the procedure, via an OUT parameter. To do that, we simply specify OUT in between the parameter name and its type. For example:

```
CREATE OR REPLACE

PROCEDURE SUM_AB (A INT, B INT, C OUT INT) IS

BEGIN

C := A + B;

END;
```

Notice that the above code does not display the resulting sum, it just changes the value of the C parameter. Also notice the word OUT right after the declaration of C parameter name.

Anyway, we will use a code fragment to call the procedure:

```
DECLARE
    R INT;
BEGIN
    SUM_AB(23,29,R);
    DBMS_OUTPUT.PUT_LINE('SUM IS: ' || R);
END;
```

Which when ran, displays:

#### SUM IS: 52

Notice how we called the procedure with an argument to eventually retrieve the OUT result.

There is also the other special way of passing parameters: IN OUT. What that means is that we first can read the parameter, then we can change it. For example, we can write a procedure that doubles a number:

```
CREATE OR REPLACE
PROCEDURE DOUBLEN (N IN OUT INT) IS
BEGIN
    N := N * 2;
END;
   To run it, we also create a small code fragment:
DECLARE
    R INT;
BEGIN
    R := 7;
    DBMS_OUTPUT.PUT_LINE('BEFORE CALL R IS: ' | | R);
    DOUBLEN(R);
    DBMS_OUTPUT.PUT_LINE('AFTER CALL R IS: ' | | R);
END;
   Which when ran displays:
BEFORE CALL R IS: 7
AFTER CALL R IS: 14
```

Notice how this particular call first grabbed the value of a parameter, then set it in order to return the double of the value.

You can generally intermix these various ways of passing parameters (along with various types). You can use these to setup return values from procedures, etc.

# 3.10 Dropping Procedures

If you're interested in getting rid of a procedure totally, you can DROP it. The general format of a DROP is:

```
DROP PROCEDURE procedure_name;
```

That's all there is to stored procedures. We will do some practice exercises and more experimentation, but overall, that's all there is to them.

## 3.11 Functions

Functions are special types of procedures that have the capability to return a value.

It is a very shady question of when to use what, either functions or procedures. A good rule of thumb is: if you're interested in the "results" of the code, then you use a function, and return those results. If you're interested in the "side effects" (like table updates, etc.) and not about the "result" when you should use a procedure. Usually it doesn't affect your code all that much if you use a procedure or a function.

### 3.12 General Format

The general format of a function is very similar to the general format of a procedure:

```
CREATE OR REPLACE
FUNCTION function_name (function_params) RETURN return_type IS
BEGIN
    function_body
    RETURN something_of_return_type;
END;
```

For example, to write a function that computes the sum of two numbers, you might do something like this:

```
CREATE OR REPLACE
FUNCTION ADD_TWO (A INT,B INT) RETURN INT IS
BEGIN
RETURN (A + B);
END;
```

To run it, we'll write a small piece of code that calls this:

```
BEGIN
```

```
DBMS_OUTPUT.PUT_LINE('RESULT IS: ' || ADD_TWO(12,34));
END;
```

Which procudes the output:

```
RESULT IS: 46
```

All of a sudden, we know how to make functions (since we already know how to crate procedures). That's really all there is to it.

# 3.13 Dropping Functions

To drop a function, you do it in a similar way to a procedure. You simply say:

```
DROP FUNCTION function_name;
```

Oh, btw, to display the list of procedures/functions or plain general user objects that you have you can run a query:

```
SELECT OBJECT_NAME
FROM USER_OBJECTS
WHERE OBJECT_TYPE = 'FUNCTION';
```

You can do a similar thing for procedures.