

Cloudera Runtime 1.0.0

Using Apache Hive

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CLOUDERA

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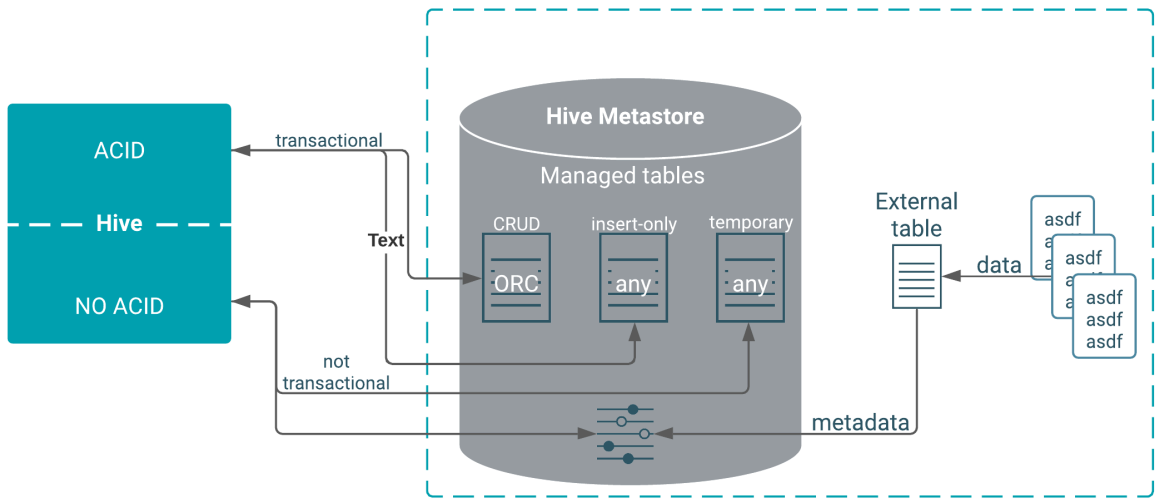
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Apache Hive 3 tables

Table type definitions and a diagram of the relationship of table types to ACID properties clarifies Hive tables. The location of a table depends on the table type. You might choose a table type based on its supported storage format.

You can create ACID (atomic, consistent, isolated, and durable) tables for unlimited transactions or for insert-only transactions. These tables are Hive managed tables. Alternatively, you can create an external table for non-transactional use. Because Hive control of the external table is weak, the table is not ACID compliant.

The following diagram depicts the Hive table types.



The following matrix includes the types of tables you can create using Hive, whether or not ACID properties are supported, required storage format, and key SQL operations.

Table Type	ACID	File Format	INSERT	UPDATE/DELETE
Managed: CRUD transactional	Yes	ORC	Yes	Yes
Managed: Insert-only transactional	Yes	Any	Yes	No
Managed: Temporary	No	Any	Yes	No
External	No	Any	Yes	No

Although you cannot use the SQL UPDATE or DELETE statements to delete data in some types of tables, you can use DROP PARTITION on any table type to delete the data.

Table storage formats

The data in CRUD tables must be in ORC format. Implementing a storage handler that supports AcidInputFormat and AcidOutputFormat is equivalent to specifying ORC storage.

Insert-only tables support all file formats.

The managed table storage type is Optimized Row Column (ORC) by default. If you accept the default by not specifying any storage during table creation, or if you specify ORC storage, you get an ACID table with insert, update, and delete (CRUD) capabilities. If you specify any other storage type, such as text, CSV, AVRO, or JSON, you get an insert-only ACID table. You cannot update or delete columns in the insert-only table.

Transactional tables

Transactional tables are ACID tables that reside in the Hive warehouse. To achieve ACID compliance, Hive has to manage the table, including access to the table data. Only through Hive can you access and change the data in managed tables. Because Hive has full control of managed tables, Hive can optimize these tables extensively.

Hive is designed to support a relatively low rate of transactions, as opposed to serving as an online analytical processing (OLAP) system. You can use the `SHOW TRANSACTIONS` command to list open and aborted transactions.

Transactional tables in Hive 3 are on a par with non-ACID tables. No bucketing or sorting is required in Hive 3 transactional tables. Bucketing does not affect performance. These tables are compatible with native cloud storage.

Hive supports one statement per transaction, which can include any number of rows, partitions, or tables.

External tables

External table data is not owned or controlled by Hive. You typically use an external table when you want to access data directly at the file level, using a tool other than Hive.

Hive 3 does not support the following capabilities for external tables:

- Query cache
- Materialized views, except in a limited way
- Automatic runtime filtering
- File merging after insert
- `ARCHIVE`, `UNARCHIVE`, `TRUNCATE`, `MERGE`, and `CONCATENATE`. These statements only work for Hive Managed tables.

When you run `DROP TABLE` on an external table, by default Hive drops only the metadata (schema). If you want the `DROP TABLE` command to also remove the actual data in the external table, as `DROP TABLE` does on a managed table, you need to set the `external.table.purge` property to true as described later.

Refer to a table using dot notation

Hive 3.1 changes to table references using dot notation might require changes to your Hive scripts.

About this task

Hive 3.1 in CDP includes SQL compatibility (Hive-16907), which rejects ``db.table`` in SQL queries. The dot (.) is not allowed in table names. To reference the database and table in a table name, enclosed both in backticks as follows:

```
`db`.`table`
```

Creating a CRUD transactional table

You create a CRUD transactional table having ACID (atomic, consistent, isolated, and durable) properties when you need a managed table that you can update, delete, and merge. You learn by example how to determine the table type.

About this task

In this task, you create a CRUD transactional table. You cannot sort this type of table. To create a CRUD transactional table, you must accept the default ORC format by not specifying any storage during table creation, or by specifying ORC storage explicitly.

Procedure

1. Start Hive.

For example, start Hive from a JDBC client:

```
beeline -u jdbc:hive2://myhiveserver.com:10000 -n hive -p
```

2. Enter your user name and password.

The Hive 3 connection message, followed by the Hive prompt for entering SQL queries on the command line, appears.

3. Create a CRUD transactional table named T having two integer columns, a and b:

```
CREATE TABLE T(a int, b int);
```

4. Confirm that you created a managed, ACID table.

```
DESCRIBE FORMATTED T;
```

The table type says MANAGED_TABLE and transactional = true.

Related Information

[HMS storage](#)

Creating an insert-only transactional table

You can create a transactional table using any storage format if you do not require update and delete capability. This type of table has ACID properties, is a managed table, and accepts insert operations only. The storage format of an insert-only table is not restricted to ORC.

About this task

In this task, you create an insert-only transactional table for storing text. In the CREATE TABLE statement, specifying a storage type other than ORC, such as text, CSV, AVRO, or JSON, results in an insert-only ACID table. You can explicitly specify insert-only in the table properties clause.

Procedure

1. Start Hive.

For example, start Hive from a JDBC client:

```
beeline -u jdbc:hive2://myhiveserver.com:10000 -n hive -p
```

2. Enter your user name and password.

The Hive 3 connection message, followed by the Hive prompt for entering SQL queries on the command line, appears.

3. Create a insert-only transactional table named T2 having two integer columns, a and b:

```
CREATE TABLE T2(a int, b int)
  STORED AS ORC
  TBLPROPERTIES ('transactional'='true',
    'transactional_properties'='insert_only');
```

The 'transactional_properties'='insert_only' is required; otherwise, a CRUD table results. The STORED AS ORC clause is optional (default = ORC).

4. Create an insert-only transactional table for text data.

```
CREATE TABLE T3(a int, b int)
```

```
STORED AS TEXTFILE;
```

The 'transactional_properties'='insert_only' is not required because the storage format is other than ORC.

Related Information

[HMS storage](#)

Converting a managed non-transactional table to external

You can easily convert a managed table, if it is not an ACID (transactional) table, to external using the ALTER TABLE statement. You might have a non-ACID, managed table after an upgrade from Hive 1 or 2.

About this task

The following pseudo-code changes a managed table, if it is not transactional, to external. The data and metadata is dropped when the table is dropped.

```
ALTER TABLE ... SET TBLPROPERTIES( 'EXTERNAL'='TRUE', 'external.table.purge'='true' )
```

Related Information

[Before and After Upgrading Table Type Comparison](#)

External tables based on a non-default schema

If you define a schema for external tables, you need to know how to create the table using the hive.sql.schema table property to prevent problems with client connections to the tables. Examples for widely-used databases show you how to create such tables.

The handling of schema differs from DBMS to DBMS. In this task, you follow examples to create external tables that the following databases can understand.

- MariaDB
- MS SQL
- Oracle
- PostgreSQL

Using your schema in MariaDB

You follow an example of how to create an external table in MariaDB using your own schema.

Before you begin

```
GRANT INSERT ANY TABLE TO bob;
```

```
GRANT INSERT ANY TABLE TO alice;
```

Procedure

Using MariaDB, create an external table based on a user-defined schema.

```
CREATE SCHEMA bob;
CREATE TABLE bob.country
(
    id    int,
    name  varchar(20)
);
insert into bob.country
```



```
values (1, 'India');
insert into bob.country
values (2, 'Russia');
insert into bob.country
values (3, 'USA');

CREATE SCHEMA alice;
CREATE TABLE alice.country
(
    id    int,
    name  varchar(20)
);
insert into alice.country
values (4, 'Italy');
insert into alice.country
values (5, 'Greece');
insert into alice.country
values (6, 'China');
insert into alice.country
values (7, 'Japan');
```

Using your schema in MS SQL

You follow an example of how to create an external table in MS SQL using your own schema.

Procedure

1. Using MS SQL, create an external table based on a user-defined schema.

```
CREATE DATABASE world;
USE world;

CREATE SCHEMA bob;
CREATE TABLE bob.country
(
    id    int,
    name  varchar(20)
);

insert into bob.country
values (1, 'India');
insert into bob.country
values (2, 'Russia');
insert into bob.country
values (3, 'USA');

CREATE SCHEMA alice;
CREATE TABLE alice.country
(
    id    int,
    name  varchar(20)
);

insert into alice.country
values (4, 'Italy');
insert into alice.country
values (5, 'Greece');
insert into alice.country
values (6, 'China');
insert into alice.country
values (7, 'Japan');
```

2. In MS SQL, create a user and associate them with a default schema.

```
CREATE LOGIN greg WITH PASSWORD = 'GregPass123!$';  
CREATE USER greg FOR LOGIN greg WITH DEFAULT_SCHEMA=bob;
```

3. Allow the user to connect to the database and run queries. For example:

```
GRANT CONNECT, SELECT TO greg;
```

Using your schema in Oracle

You follow an example of how to create an external table in Oracle using your own schema.

About this task

In Oracle, dividing the tables into different namespaces/schemas is achieved through different users. The CREATE SCHEMA statement exists in Oracle, but has different semantics from those defined by SQL Standard and those adopted in other DBMS.

To create "local" users in Oracle you need to be connected to the Pluggable Database (PDB), not to the Container Database (CDB). The following example was tested in Oracle XE edition, using only PDB -- XEPDB1.

Procedure

1. Using Oracle XE edition, connect to the PDB.

```
ALTER SESSION SET CONTAINER = XEPDB1;
```

2. Create the bob schema/user and give appropriate connections to be able to connect to the database.

```
CREATE USER bob IDENTIFIED BY bobpass;  
ALTER USER bob QUOTA UNLIMITED ON users;  
GRANT CREATE SESSION TO bob;  
  
CREATE USER bob IDENTIFIED BY bobpass;  
ALTER USER bob QUOTA UNLIMITED ON users;  
GRANT CREATE SESSION TO bob;
```

3. Create the alice schema/user, give appropriate connections to be able to connect to the database, and create an external table.

```
CREATE USER alice IDENTIFIED BY alicepass;  
ALTER USER alice QUOTA UNLIMITED ON users;  
  
GRANT CREATE SESSION TO alice;  
  
CREATE TABLE alice.country  
(  
    id    int,  
    name  varchar(20)  
);  
  
insert into alice.country  
values (4, 'Italy');  
insert into alice.country  
values (5, 'Greece');  
insert into alice.country  
values (6, 'China');  
insert into alice.country  
values (7, 'Japan');
```

4. Grant the SELECT ANY privilege to client users.

Without the SELECT ANY privilege, a user cannot see the tables/views of another user. When a user connects to the database using a specific user and schema it is not possible to refer to tables in another user/schema -- namespace.

```
GRANT SELECT ANY TABLE TO bob;
GRANT SELECT ANY TABLE TO alice;
```

5. Allow the users to perform inserts on any table/view in the database, not only those present on their own schema.

```
GRANT INSERT ANY TABLE TO bob;
GRANT INSERT ANY TABLE TO alice;
```

Using your schema in PostgreSQL

You follow an example of how to create an external table in PostgreSQL using your own schema.

Procedure

1. Using Postgres, create external tables based on a user-defined schema.

```
CREATE SCHEMA bob;
CREATE TABLE bob.country
(
    id    int,
    name  varchar(20)
);
insert into bob.country
values (1, 'India');
insert into bob.country
values (2, 'Russia');
insert into bob.country
values (3, 'USA');

CREATE SCHEMA alice;
CREATE TABLE alice.country
(
    id    int,
    name  varchar(20)
);
insert into alice.country
values (4, 'Italy');
insert into alice.country
values (5, 'Greece');
insert into alice.country
values (6, 'China');
insert into alice.country
values (7, 'Japan');
```

2. Create a user and associate them with a default schema `<=>` search_path.

```
CREATE ROLE greg WITH LOGIN PASSWORD 'GregPass123!$';
ALTER ROLE greg SET search_path TO bob;
```

3. Grant the necessary permissions to be able to access the schema.

```
GRANT USAGE ON SCHEMA bob TO greg;
GRANT SELECT ON ALL TABLES IN SCHEMA bob TO greg;
```

Using constraints

You can use SQL constraints to enforce data integrity and improve performance. Using constraints, the optimizer can simplify queries. Constraints can make data predictable and easy to locate. Using constraints and supported modifiers, you can follow examples to constrain queries to unique or not null values, for example.

Hive enforces DEFAULT, NOT NULL and CHECK only, not PRIMARY KEY, FOREIGN KEY, and UNIQUE.

You can use the constraints listed below in your queries. Hive enforces DEFAULT, NOT NULL and CHECK only, not PRIMARY KEY, FOREIGN KEY, and UNIQUE. DEFAULT even if enforced, does not support complex types (array,map,struct). Constraint enforcement is limited to the metadata level. This limitation aids integration with third party tools and optimization of constraints declarations, such as materialized view rewriting.

CHECK

Limits the range of values you can place in a column.

DEFAULT

Ensures a value exists, which is useful in offloading data from a data warehouse.

PRIMARY KEY

Identifies each row in a table using a unique identifier.

FOREIGN KEY

Identifies a row in another table using a unique identifier.

UNIQUE KEY

Checks that values stored in a column are different.

NOT NULL

Ensures that a column cannot be set to NULL.

Supported modifiers

You can use the following optional modifiers:

ENABLE

Ensures that all incoming data conforms to the constraint.

DISABLE

Does not ensure that all incoming data conforms to the constraint.

VALIDATE

Checks that all existing data in the table conforms to the constraint.

NOVALIDATE

Does not check that all existing data in the table conforms to the constraint.

ENFORCED

Maps to ENABLE NOVALIDATE.

NOT ENFORCED

Maps to DISABLE NOVALIDATE.

RELY

Specifies abiding by a constraint; used by the optimizer to apply further optimizations.

NORELY

Specifies not abiding by a constraint.

You use modifiers as shown in the following syntax:

```
( ( ( (ENABLE | DISABLE) (VALIDATE | NOVALIDATE) ) | ( ENFORCED | NOT ENFORCED ) ) (RELY | NORELY) )
```



Note: For external tables, the RELY constraint is the only supported constraint.

Default modifiers

The following default modifiers are in place:

- The default modifier for ENABLE is NOVALIDATE RELY.
- The default modifier for DISABLE is NOVALIDATE NORELY.
- If you do not specify a modifier when you declare a constraint, the default is ENABLE NOVALIDATE RELY. The following constraints do not support ENABLE:

- PRIMARY KEY
- FOREIGN KEY
- UNIQUE KEY

To prevent an error, specify a modifier when using these constraints to override the default.

Constraints examples

The optimizer uses the constraint information to make smart decisions. The following examples show the use of constraints.

The following example shows how to create a table that declares the NOT NULL in-line constraint to constrain a column.

```
CREATE TABLE t(a TINYINT, b SMALLINT NOT NULL ENABLE, c INT);
```

The constrained column b accepts a SMALLINT value as shown in the first INSERT statement.

```
INSERT INTO t values(2,45,5667);
...
-----
1 row affected ...
```

The constrained column b will not accept a NULL value.

```
INSERT INTO t values(2,NULL,5667);
Error: Error running query: org.apache.hadoop.hive ql.exec.errors.DataConstraintViolationError: /
Either CHECK or NOT NULL constraint violated! (state=,code=0)
```

The following examples shows how to declare the FOREIGN KEY constraint out of line. You can specify a constraint name, in this case fk, in an out-of-line constraint

```
CREATE TABLE Persons (
  ID INT NOT NULL,
  Name STRING NOT NULL,
  Age INT,
  Creator STRING DEFAULT CURRENT_USER(),
  CreateDate DATE DEFAULT CURRENT_DATE(),
  PRIMARY KEY (ID) DISABLE NOVALIDATE);

CREATE TABLE BusinessUnit (
```

```

    ID INT NOT NULL,
    Head INT NOT NULL,
    Creator STRING DEFAULT CURRENT_USER(),
    CreateDate DATE DEFAULT CURRENT_DATE(),
    PRIMARY KEY (ID) DISABLE NOVALIDATE,
    CONSTRAINT fk FOREIGN KEY (Head) REFERENCES Persons(ID) DISABLE NOVA
LIDATE
);

```

Determining the table type

You can determine the type of a Hive table, whether it has ACID properties, the storage format, such as ORC, and other information. Knowing the table type is important for a number of reasons, such as understanding how to store data in the table or to completely remove data from the cluster.

Procedure

1. In the Hive shell, get an extended description of the table.
For example: `DESCRIBE EXTENDED mydatabase.mytable;`
2. Scroll to the bottom of the command output to see the table type.
The following output says the table type is managed. `transaction=true` indicates that the table has ACID properties:

```

...
| Detailed Table Information | Table(tableName:t2, dbName:mydatabase, o
wner:hdfs, createTime:1538152187, lastAccessTime:0, retention:0, sd:Stor
ageDescriptor(cols:[FieldSchema(name:a, type:int, comment:null), FieldSc
hema(name:b, type:int, comment:null)], ...

```

Related Information

[HMS storage](#)

Apache Hive 3 ACID transactions

Hive 3 achieves atomicity and isolation of operations on transactional tables by using techniques in write, read, insert, create, delete, and update operations that involve delta files. You can obtain query status information from these files and use the files to troubleshoot query problems.

Write and read operations

Hive 3 write and read operations improve the ACID qualities and performance of transactional tables. Transactional tables perform as well as other tables. Hive supports all TPC Benchmark DS (TPC-DS) queries.

Hive 3 and later extends atomic operations from simple writes and inserts to support the following operations:

- Writing to multiple partitions
- Using multiple insert clauses in a single `SELECT` statement

A single statement can write to multiple partitions or multiple tables. If the operation fails, partial writes or inserts are not visible to users. Operations remain fast even if data changes often, such as one percent per hour. Hive 3 and later does not overwrite the entire partition to perform update or delete operations.

Hive compacts ACID transaction files automatically without impacting concurrent queries. Automatic compaction improves query performance and the metadata footprint when you query many small, partitioned files.

Read semantics consist of snapshot isolation. Hive logically locks in the state of the warehouse when a read operation starts. A read operation is not affected by changes that occur during the operation.

Atomicity and isolation in insert-only tables

When an insert-only transaction begins, the transaction manager gets a transaction ID. For every write, the transaction manager allocates a write ID. This ID determines a path to which data is actually written. The following code shows an example of a statement that creates insert-only transactional table:

```
CREATE TABLE tm (a int, b int) TBLPROPERTIES
('transactional'='true', 'transactional_properties'='insert_only')
```

Assume that three insert operations occur, and the second one fails:

```
INSERT INTO tm VALUES(1,1);
INSERT INTO tm VALUES(2,2); // Fails
INSERT INTO tm VALUES(3,3);
```

For every write operation, Hive creates a delta directory to which the transaction manager writes data files. Hive writes all data to delta files, designated by write IDs, and mapped to a transaction ID that represents an atomic operation. If a failure occurs, the transaction is marked aborted, but it is atomic:

```
tm
___ delta_00000001_00000001_0000
### 000000_0
___ delta_00000002_00000002_0000      //Fails
### 000000_0
___ delta_00000003_00000003_0000
### 000000_0
```

During the read process, the transaction manager maintains the state of every transaction. When the reader starts, it asks for the snapshot information, represented by a high watermark. The watermark identifies the highest transaction ID in the system followed by a list of exceptions that represent transactions that are still running or are aborted.

The reader looks at deltas and filters out, or skips, any IDs of transactions that are aborted or still running. The reader uses this technique with any number of partitions or tables that participate in the transaction to achieve atomicity and isolation of operations on transactional tables.

Atomicity and isolation in CRUD tables

You create a full CRUD (create, retrieve, update, delete) transactional table using the following SQL statement:

```
CREATE TABLE acidtbl (a INT, b STRING);
```

Running `SHOW CREATE TABLE acidtbl` provides information about the defaults: transactional (ACID) and the ORC data storage format:

```
+-----+
| createtab_stmt |
+-----+
| CREATE TABLE `acidtbl` ( |
|   `a` int, |
|   `b` string) |
| ROW FORMAT SERDE |
|   'org.apache.hadoop.hive.ql.io.orc.OrcSerde' |
| STORED AS INPUTFORMAT |
|   'org.apache.hadoop.hive.ql.io.orc.OrcInputFormat' |
| OUTPUTFORMAT |
|   'org.apache.hadoop.hive.ql.io.orc.OrcOutputFormat' |
| LOCATION |
|   's3://myserver.com:8020/warehouse/tablespace/managed/hive/acidtb |
1' |
| TBLPROPERTIES ( |
+-----+
```

```
'bucketing_version'='2',
'transactional'='true',
'transactional_properties'='default',
'transient_lastDdlTime'='1555090610')
```

Tables that support updates and deletions require a slightly different technique to achieve atomicity and isolation. Hive runs in append-only mode, which means Hive does not perform in-place updates or deletions. Isolation of readers and writers cannot occur in the presence of in-place updates or deletions. In this situation, a lock manager or some other mechanism, is required for isolation. These mechanisms create a problem for long-running queries.

Instead of in-place updates, Hive decorates every row with a row ID. The row ID is a struct that consists of the following information:

- The write ID that maps to the transaction that created the row
- The bucket ID, a bit-backed integer with several bits of information, of the physical writer that created the row
- The row ID, which numbers rows as they were written to a data file

Metadata Columns	original_write_id bucket_id row_id current_write_id	} ROW_ID
User Columns	col_1: a : INT col_2: b : STRING	

Instead of in-place deletions, Hive appends changes to the table when a deletion occurs. The deleted data becomes unavailable and the compaction process takes care of the garbage collection later.

Create operation

The following example inserts several rows of data into a full CRUD transactional table, creates a delta file, and adds row IDs to a data file.

```
INSERT INTO acidtbl (a,b) VALUES (100, "oranges"), (200, "apples"), (300, "bananas");
```

This operation generates a directory and file, delta_00001_00001/bucket_0000, that have the following data:

ROW_ID	a	b
{1,0,0}	100	"oranges"
{1,0,1}	200	"apples"
{1,0,2}	300	"bananas"

Delete operation

A delete statement that matches a single row also creates a delta file, called the delete-delta. The file stores a set of row IDs for the rows that match your query. At read time, the reader looks at this information. When it finds a delete

event that matches a row, it skips the row and that row is not included in the operator pipeline. The following example deletes data from a transactional table:

```
DELETE FROM acidTbl where a = 200;
```

This operation generates a directory and file, `delete_delta_00002_00002/bucket_0000` that have the following data:

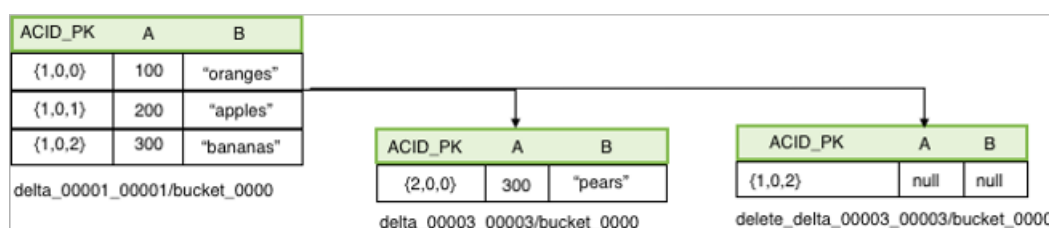
ROW_ID	a	b
{1,0,1}	null	null

Update operation

An update combines the deletion and insertion of new data. The following example updates a transactional table:

```
UPDATE acidTbl SET b = "pears" where a = 300;
```

One delta file contains the delete event, and the other, the insert event:



The reader, which requires the `AcidInputFormat`, applies all the insert events and encapsulates all the logic to handle delete events. A read operation first gets snapshot information from the transaction manager based on which it selects files that are relevant to that read operation. Next, the process splits each data file into the number of pieces that each process has to work on. Relevant delete events are localized to each processing task. Delete events are stored in a sorted ORC file. The compressed, stored data is minimal, which is a significant advantage of Hive 3. You no longer need to worry about saturating the network with insert events in delta files.

Apache Hive query basics

Using Apache Hive, you can query distributed data storage. You need to know ANSI SQL to view, maintain, or analyze Hive data. Examples of the basics, such as how to insert, update, and delete data from a table, helps you get started with Hive.

Hive supports ANSI SQL and atomic, consistent, isolated, and durable (ACID) transactions. For updating data, you can use the `MERGE` statement, which meets ACID standards. Materialized views optimize queries based on access patterns. Hive supports tables up to 300PB in Optimized Row Columnar (ORC) format. Other file formats are also supported. You can create tables that resemble those in a traditional relational database. You use familiar insert, update, delete, and merge SQL statements to query table data. The insert statement writes data to tables. Update and delete statements modify and delete values already written to Hive. The merge statement streamlines updates, deletes, and changes data capture operations by drawing on co-existing tables. These statements support auto-commit that treats each statement as a separate transaction and commits it after the SQL statement is executed.

Related Information

[ORC Language Manual on the Apache wiki](#)

Querying the information_schema database

Hive supports the ANSI-standard `information_schema` database, which you can query for information about tables, views, columns, and your Hive privileges. The `information_schema` data reveals the state of the system, similar to

sys database data, but in a user-friendly, read-only way. You can use joins, aggregates, filters, and projections in information_schema queries.

About this task

One of the following steps involves changing the time interval for synchronization between HiveServer and the policy. HiveServer responds to any policy changes within this time interval. You can query the information_schema database for only your own privilege information.

Procedure

1. Open Ranger Access Manager, and check that the preloaded default database tables columns and information_schema database policies are enabled for group public.

Policy ID	Policy Name	Policy Labels	Status	Audit Logging	Roles	Groups	Users
7	all - global	--	Enabled	Enabled	--	--	hive beacon dpprofiler hue + More..
8	all - database, table, column	--	Enabled	Enabled	--	--	hive beacon dpprofiler hue + More..
9	all - database, table	--	Enabled	Enabled	--	--	hive beacon dpprofiler hue + More..
10	all - database	--	Enabled	Enabled	--	public	hive beacon dpprofiler hue + More..
11	all - hiveservice	--	Enabled	Enabled	--	--	hive beacon dpprofiler hue + More..
12	all - database, udf	--	Enabled	Enabled	--	--	hive beacon dpprofiler hue + More..
13	all - url	--	Enabled	Enabled	--	--	hive beacon dpprofiler hue + More..
14	default database tables columns	--	Enabled	Enabled	--	public	--
15	Information_schema database ...	--	Enabled	Enabled	--	public	--

The information schema database is synchronized every half hour by default.

2. From the Beeline shell, start Hive, and check for the information_schema database:

```
SHOW DATABASES;
...
+-----+
| database_name |
+-----+
| default      |
| information_schema |
| sys         |
+-----+
```

3. Use the information_schema database to list tables in the database.

```
USE information_schema;
...
SHOW TABLES;
...
+-----+
| tab_name |
+-----+
```

```

column_privileges
columns
schemata
table_privileges
tables
views
+-----+

```

4. Query the information_schema database to see, for example, information about tables into which you can insert values.

```

SELECT * FROM information_schema.tables WHERE is_insertable_into='YES' limit 2;
...
+-----+-----+-----+
| tables.table_catalog | tables.table_schema | tables.table_name |
+-----+-----+-----+
| default             | default             | students2         |
| default             | default             | t3                |

```

Inserting data into a table

To insert data into a table you use a familiar ANSI SQL statement. A simple example shows you have to accomplish this basic task.

About this task

To insert data into an ACID table, use the Optimized Row Columnar (ORC) storage format. To insert data into a non-ACID table, you can use other supported formats. You can specify partitioning as shown in the following syntax:

```
INSERT INTO TABLE tablename [PARTITION (partcol1=val1, partcol2=val2 ...)] VALUES values_row [, values_row...]
```

where

values_row is (value [, value]) .

A value can be NULL or any SQL literal.

Procedure

1. Create an ACID table to contain student information.
CREATE TABLE students (name VARCHAR(64), age INT, gpa DECIMAL(3,2));
2. Insert name, age, and gpa values for a few students into the table.
INSERT INTO TABLE students VALUES ('fred flintstone', 35, 1.28), ('barney rubble', 32, 2.32);
3. Create a table called pageviews and assign null values to columns you do not want to assign a value.

```

CREATE TABLE pageviews (userid VARCHAR(64), link STRING, from STRING) PARTITIONED BY (datestamp STRING) CLUSTERED BY (userid) INTO 256 BUCKETS;
INSERT INTO TABLE pageviews PARTITION (datestamp = '2014-09-23') VALUES ('jsmith', 'mail.com', 'sports.com'), ('jdoe', 'mail.com', null);
INSERT INTO TABLE pageviews PARTITION (datestamp) VALUES ('tjohnson', 'sports.com', 'finance.com', '2014-09-23'), ('tlee', 'finance.com', null, '2014-09-21');

```

The ACID data resides in the warehouse.

Updating data in a table

The syntax describes the UPDATE statement you use to modify data already stored in a table. An example shows how to apply the syntax.

About this task

You construct an UPDATE statement using the following syntax:

```
UPDATE tablename SET column = value [, column = value ...] [WHERE expression];
```

Depending on the condition specified in the optional WHERE clause, an UPDATE statement might affect every row in a table. The expression in the WHERE clause must be an expression supported by a SELECT clause. Subqueries are not allowed on the right side of the SET statement. Partition columns cannot be updated.

Before you begin

You must have SELECT and UPDATE privileges to use the UPDATE statement.

Procedure

Create a statement that changes the values in the name column of all rows where the gpa column has the value of 1.0.

```
UPDATE students SET name = null WHERE gpa <= 1.0;
```

Merging data in tables

A sample statement shows how you can conditionally insert existing data in Hive tables using the ACID MERGE statement. Additional merge operations are mentioned.

About this task

The MERGE statement is based on ANSI-standard SQL.

Procedure

1. Construct a query to update the customers' names and states in customer table to match the names and states of customers having the same IDs in the new_customer_stage table.
2. Enhance the query to insert data from new_customer_stage table into the customer table if none already exists. Update or delete data using MERGE in a similar manner.

```
MERGE INTO customer USING (SELECT * FROM new_customer_stage) sub ON sub.id
= customer.id
WHEN MATCHED THEN UPDATE SET name = sub.name, state = sub.new_state
WHEN NOT MATCHED THEN INSERT VALUES (sub.id, sub.name, sub.state);
```

Related Information

[Merge documentation on the Apache wiki](#)

Deleting data from a table

You use the DELETE statement to delete data already written to an ACID table.

About this task

Use the following syntax to delete data from a Hive table. DELETE FROM tablename [WHERE expression];

Procedure

Delete any rows of data from the students table if the gpa column has a value of 1 or 0.

```
DELETE FROM students WHERE gpa <= 1,0;
```

Using a subquery

Hive supports subqueries in FROM clauses and WHERE clauses that you can use for many Apache Hive operations, such as filtering data from one table based on contents of another table.

About this task

A subquery is a SQL expression in an inner query that returns a result set to the outer query. From the result set, the outer query is evaluated. The outer query is the main query that contains the inner subquery. A subquery in a WHERE clause includes a query predicate and predicate operator. A predicate is a condition that evaluates to a Boolean value. The predicate in a subquery must also contain a predicate operator. The predicate operator specifies the relationship tested in a predicate query.

Procedure

Select all the state and net_payments values from the transfer_payments table if the value of the year column in the table matches a year in the us_census table.

```
SELECT state, net_payments
FROM transfer_payments
WHERE transfer_payments.year IN (SELECT year FROM us_census);
```

The predicate starts with the first WHERE keyword. The predicate operator is the IN keyword.

The predicate returns true for a row in the transfer_payments table if the year value in at least one row of the us_census table matches a year value in the transfer_payments table.

Subquery restrictions

To construct queries efficiently, you must understand the restrictions of subqueries in WHERE clauses.

- Subqueries must appear on the right side of an expression.
- Nested subqueries are not supported.
- A single query can have only one subquery expression.
- Subquery predicates must appear as top-level conjuncts.
- Subqueries support four logical operators in query predicates: IN, NOT IN, EXISTS, and NOT EXISTS.
- The IN and NOT IN logical operators may select only one column in a WHERE clause subquery.
- The EXISTS and NOT EXISTS operators must have at least one correlated predicate.
- The left side of a subquery must qualify all references to table columns.
- References to columns in the parent query are allowed only in the WHERE clause of the subquery.
- Subquery predicates that reference a column in a parent query must use the equals (=) predicate operator.
- Subquery predicates may not refer only to columns in the parent query.
- Correlated subqueries with an implied GROUP BY statement may return only one row.
- All unqualified references to columns in a subquery must resolve to tables in the subquery.
- Correlated subqueries cannot contain windowing clauses.

Use wildcards with SHOW DATABASES

In a SHOW DATABASES LIKE statement, you can use wildcards, and in this release of Hive, specify any character or a single character.

About this task

SHOW DATABASES or SHOW SCHEMAS lists all of the databases defined in Hive metastore. You can use the following wildcards:

%

Matches any single character or multiple characters

-

Matches any single character

|

Matches either the part of the pattern on the left or the right side of the pipe.

For example, 'students', 'stu%', 'stu_ents' match the database named students.

Aggregating and grouping data

You use AVG, SUM, or MAX functions to aggregate data, and the GROUP BY clause to group data query results in one or more table columns..

About this task

The GROUP BY clause explicitly groups data. Hive supports implicit grouping, which occurs when aggregating the table in full.

Procedure

1. Construct a query that returns the average salary of all employees in the engineering department grouped by year.

```
SELECT year, AVG(salary)
FROM Employees
WHERE Department = 'engineering' GROUP BY year;
```

2. Construct an implicit grouping query to get the highest paid employee.

```
SELECT MAX(salary) as highest_pay,
AVG(salary) as average_pay
FROM Employees
WHERE Department = 'engineering';
```

Querying correlated data

You can query one table relative to the data in another table.

About this task

A correlated query contains a query predicate with the equals (=) operator. One side of the operator must reference at least one column from the parent query and the other side must reference at least one column from the subquery. An uncorrelated query does not reference any columns in the parent query.

Procedure

Select all state and net_payments values from the transfer_payments table for years during which the value of the state column in the transfer_payments table matches the value of the state column in the us_census table.

```
SELECT state, net_payments
FROM transfer_payments
WHERE EXISTS
  (SELECT year
```

```
FROM us_census
WHERE transfer_payments.state = us_census.state);
```

This query is correlated because one side of the equals predicate operator in the subquery references the state column in the transfer_payments table in the parent query and the other side of the operator references the state column in the us_census table.

This statement includes a conjunct in the WHERE clause.

A conjunct is equivalent to the AND condition, while a disjunct is the equivalent of the OR condition. The following subquery contains a conjunct:

```
... WHERE transfer_payments.year = "2018" AND us_census.state = "california"
```

The following subquery contains a disjunct:

```
... WHERE transfer_payments.year = "2018" OR us_census.state = "california"
```

Using common table expressions

Using common table expression (CTE), you can create a temporary view that repeatedly references a subquery.

A CTE is a set of query results obtained from a simple query specified within a WITH clause that immediately precedes a SELECT or INSERT keyword. A CTE exists only within the scope of a single SQL statement and not stored in the metastore. You can include one or more CTEs in the following SQL statements:

- SELECT
- INSERT
- CREATE TABLE AS SELECT
- CREATE VIEW AS SELECT

Recursive queries are not supported and the WITH clause is not supported within subquery blocks.

Use a CTE in a query

You can use a common table expression (CTE) to simplify creating a view or table, selecting data, or inserting data.

Procedure

1. Use a CTE to create a table based on another table that you select using the CREATE TABLE AS SELECT (CTAS) clause.

```
CREATE TABLE s2 AS WITH q1 AS (SELECT key FROM src WHERE key = '4') SELECT
* FROM q1;
```

2. Use a CTE to create a view.

```
CREATE VIEW v1 AS WITH q1 AS (SELECT key FROM src WHERE key='5') SELECT *
from q1;
```

3. Use a CTE to select data.

```
WITH q1 AS (SELECT key from src where key = '5')
SELECT * from q1;
```

4. Use a CTE to insert data.

```
CREATE TABLE s1 LIKE src;
WITH q1 AS (SELECT key, value FROM src WHERE key = '5') FROM q1 INSERT OV
ERWRITE TABLE s1 SELECT *;
```

Comparing tables using ANY/SOME/ALL

You learn how to use quantified comparison predicates (ANY/SOME/ALL) in non-correlated subqueries according to the SQL standard. SOME is any alias for ANY.

About this task

You can use one of the following operators with a comparison predicate:

- >
- <
- >=
- <=
- <>
- =

ALL:

- If the table is empty, or the comparison is true for every row in subquery table, the predicate is true for that predicand.
- If the comparison is false for at least one row, the predicate is false.

SOME or ANY:

- If the comparison is true for at least one row in the subquery table, the predicate is true for that predicand.
- If the table is empty or the comparison is false for each row in subquery table, the predicate is false.

If the comparison is neither true nor false, the result is undefined.

For example, you run the following query to match any value in c2 of tbl equal to any value in c1 from the same tbl:

```
select c1 from tbl where c1 = ANY (select c2 from tbl);
```

You run the following query to match all values in c1 of tbl not equal to any value in c2 from the same tbl.

```
select c1 from tbl where c1 <> ALL (select c2 from tbl);
```

Escaping an invalid identifier

When you need to use reserved words, special characters, or a space in a column or partition name, enclose it in backticks (`).

About this task

An identifier in SQL is a sequence of alphanumeric and underscore (_) characters enclosed in backtick characters. In Hive, these identifiers are called quoted identifiers and are case-insensitive. You can use the identifier instead of a column or table partition name.

Before you begin

You have set the following parameter to column in the hive-site.xml file to enable quoted identifiers:

Set the hive.support.quoted.identifiers configuration parameter to column in the hive-site.xml file to enable quoted identifiers in column names. Valid values are none and column. For example, in Hive execute the following command: SET hive.support.quoted.identifiers = column.

Procedure

1. Create a table named test that has two columns of strings specified by quoted identifiers:
CREATE TABLE test (`x+y` String, `a?b` String);
2. Create a table that defines a partition using a quoted identifier and a region number:
CREATE TABLE partition_date-1 (key string, value string) PARTITIONED BY (`dt+x` date, region int);
3. Create a table that defines clustering using a quoted identifier:
CREATE TABLE bucket_test(`key?1` string, value string) CLUSTERED BY (`key?1`) into 5 buckets;

CHAR data type support

Knowing how Hive supports the CHAR data type compared to other databases is critical during migration.

Table 1: Trailing Whitespace Characters on Various Databases

Data Type	Hive	Oracle	SQL Server	MySQL	Teradata
CHAR	Ignore	Ignore	Ignore	Ignore	Ignore
VARCHAR	Compare	Compare	Configurable	Ignore	Ignore
STRING	Compare	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A

ORC vs Parquet formats

The differences between Optimized Row Columnar (ORC) file format for storing data in SQL engines are important to understand. Query performance improves when you use the appropriate format for your application.

ORC and Parquet capabilities comparison

The following table compares SQL engine support for ORC and Parquet.

Table 2:

Capability	Data Warehouse	ORC	Parquet	SQL Engine
Read non-transactional data	Apache Hive	#	#	Hive
Read non-transactional data	Apache Impala	#	#	Impala
Read/Write Full ACID tables	Apache Hive	#		Hive
Read Full ACID tables	Apache Impala	#		Impala & HMS
Read Insert-only managed tables	Apache Impala	#	#	Impala & HMS
Column index	Apache Hive	#	#	Hive & HMS
Column index	Apache Impala		#	Impala & HMS
CBO uses column metadata	Apache Hive	#		Hive & HMS
Recommended format	Apache Hive	#		Hive & HMS
Recommended format	Apache Impala		#	Impala & HMS
Vectorized reader	Apache Hive	#	#	Hive & HMS
Read complex types	Apache Impala	#	#	Impala & HMS

Capability	Data Warehouse	ORC	Parquet	SQL Engine
Read/write complex types	Apache Hive	#	#	Hive & HMS

Creating a default directory for managed tables

You can specify a top-level directory for managed tables when creating a Hive database.

About this task

Create a default directory for managed tables only after limiting CREATE DATABASE and ALTER DATABASE statements to users having the Admin role, which has hive service user permissions. Permissions to the managed directory must be limited to the hive service user. In addition to restricting permissions to the hive user, you can further secure managed tables using Ranger fine-grained permissions, such as row-level filtering and column masking.

As Admin, you specify a managed location within the default location specified by the `hive.metastore.warehouse.dir` configuration property to give managed tables a common location for governance policies. The managed location designates a single root directory for all tenant tables, managed and external.

Use the following syntax to create a database that specifies a location for managed tables:

```
CREATE (DATABASE|SCHEMA) [IF NOT EXISTS] database_name
  [COMMENT database_comment]
  [LOCATION external_table_path]
  [MANAGEDLOCATION managed_table_directory_path]
  [WITH DBPROPERTIES (property_name=property_value, ...)];
```

Do not set LOCATION and MANAGEDLOCATION to the same file system path.

Use the following syntax to set or change a location for managed tables.

```
ALTER (DATABASE|SCHEMA) database_name SET MANAGEDLOCATION [managed_table_directory_path];
```

Procedure

1. Create a database mydatabase that specifies a top level directory named sales for managed tables.

```
CREATE DATABASE mydatabase MANAGEDLOCATION '/warehouse/tablespace/managed/hive/sales';
```

2. Change the abc_sales database location to the same location as mydatabase.

```
ALTER DATABASE abc_sales SET MANAGEDLOCATION '/warehouse/tablespace/managed/hive/sales';
```

Generating surrogate keys

You can use the built-in SURROGATE_KEY user-defined function (UDF) to automatically generate numerical Ids for rows as you enter data into a table. The generated surrogate keys can replace wide, multiple composite keys.

Before you begin

Hive supports the surrogate keys on ACID tables only, as described in the following matrix of table types:

Table Type	ACID	Surrogate Keys	File Format	INSERT	UPDATE/DELETE
Managed: CRUD transactional	Yes	Yes	ORC	Yes	Yes
Managed: Insert-only transactional	Yes	Yes	Any	Yes	No
Managed: Temporary	No	No	Any	Yes	No
External	No	No	Any	Yes	No

The table you want to join using surrogate keys cannot have column types that need casting. These data types must be primitives, such as INT or STRING.

About this task

Joins using the generated keys are faster than joins using strings. Using generated keys does not force data into a single node by a row number. You can generate keys as abstractions of natural keys. Surrogate keys have an advantage over UUIDs, which are slower and probabilistic.

The SURROGATE_KEY UDF generates a unique Id for every row that you insert into a table. It generates keys based on the execution environment in a distributed system, which includes a number of factors, such as internal data structures, the state of a table, and the last transaction id. Surrogate key generation does not require any coordination between compute tasks.

The UDF takes either no arguments or two arguments:

- Write Id bits
- Task Id bits

Procedure

1. Create a students table in the default ORC format that has ACID properties.

```
CREATE TABLE students (row_id INT, name VARCHAR(64), dorm INT);
```

2. Insert data into the table. For example:

```
INSERT INTO TABLE students VALUES (1, 'fred flintstone', 100), (2, 'barney rubble', 200);
```

3. Create a version of the students table using the SURROGATE_KEY UDF.

```
CREATE TABLE students_v2
(`ID` BIGINT DEFAULT SURROGATE_KEY(),
 row_id INT,
 name VARCHAR(64),
 dorm INT,
 PRIMARY KEY (ID) DISABLE NOVALIDATE);
```

4. Insert data, which automatically generates surrogate keys for the primary keys.

```
INSERT INTO students_v2 (row_id, name, dorm) SELECT * FROM students;
```

5. Take a look at the surrogate keys.

```
SELECT * FROM students_v2;
```

```
+-----+-----+-----+-----+
+-----+
| students_v2.id | students_v2.row_id | students_v2.name | students_v2.dorm |
```

```

+-----+-----+-----+-----+
| 1099511627776 | 1 | fred flintstone | 100 |
| 1099511627777 | 2 | barney rubble   | 200 |
+-----+-----+-----+-----+

```

6. Add the surrogate keys as a foreign key to another table, such as a `student_grades` table, to speed up subsequent joins of the tables.

```

ALTER TABLE student_grades ADD COLUMNS (gen_id BIGINT);

MERGE INTO student_grades g USING students_v2 s ON g.row_id = s.row_id
WHEN MATCHED THEN UPDATE SET gen_id = s.id;

```

Now you can achieve fast joins on the surrogate keys.

Partitions and performance

A brief description of partitions and the performance benefits includes characters you must avoid when creating a partition. Examples of creating a partition and inserting data in a partition introduce basic partition syntax. Best practices for partitioning are mentioned.

A table you create without partitioning puts the data in a single directory. Partitioning divides the data into multiple directories. Queries of one or more columns based on the directories can run faster. Lengthy full table scans are avoided. Only data in the relevant directory is scanned. For example, a `school_records` table partitioned on a year column, segregates values by year into separate directories. A `WHERE` condition such as `YEAR=2020`, `YEAR IN (2020,2019)`, or `YEAR BETWEEN 2001 AND 2010` scans only the data in the appropriate directory to resolve the query. Using partitions typically improves query performance.

In a SQL query, you define the partition as shown in the following example:

```

CREATE TABLE sale(id in, amount decimal) PARTITIONED BY (xdate string, state
string);

```

To insert data into this table, you specify the partition key for fast loading:

```

INSERT INTO sale (xdate='2016-03-08', state='CA') SELECT * FROM staging_table
WHERE xdate='2016-03-08' AND state='CA';

```

You do not need to specify dynamic partition columns. Hive generates a partition specification if you enable dynamic partitions.

Examples of a query on partitioned data

```

INSERT INTO sale (xdate, state)
SELECT * FROM staging_table;

```

Follow these best practices when you partition tables and query partitioned tables:

- Never partition on a unique ID.
- Size partitions to greater than or equal to 1 GB on average.
- Design queries to process not more than 1000 partitions.

Invalid Characters in a Partition Name

When you create a partition, do not use the following characters in a partition name:

- colon
- question mark
- percent

If you use these characters in a partition name, your directories will be named using the URL encoding of these characters, as described in "Why some special characters should not be used in a partition name in Hive/Impala."

Related Information

[Why some special characters should not be used in a partition name in Hive/Impala](#)

Repairing partitions manually using MSCK repair

The MSCK REPAIR TABLE command was designed to manually add partitions that are added to or removed from the file system, but are not present in the Hive metastore.

About this task

This task assumes you created a partitioned external table named `emp_part` that stores partitions outside the warehouse. You remove one of the partition directories on the file system. This action renders the metastore inconsistent with the file system. You repair the discrepancy manually to synchronize the metastore with the file system.

Procedure

1. Remove the `dept=sales` object from the file system.
2. From the Hive command line, look at the `emp_part` table partitions.

```
SHOW PARTITIONS emp_part;
```

The list of partitions is stale; it still includes the `dept=sales` directory.

```
+-----+
| partition |
+-----+
| dept=finance |
| dept=sales   |
| dept=service |
+-----+
```

3. Repair the partition manually.

```
MSCK REPAIR TABLE emp_part DROP PARTITIONS;
```

Query scheduling

Apache Hive scheduled queries is a simple, secure way to create, manage, and monitor scheduled jobs. You can replace OS-level schedulers like cron, Apache Oozie, or Apache Airflow with scheduled queries.

Using SQL statements, you can schedule Hive queries to run on a recurring basis, monitor query progress, and optionally disable a query schedule. You can run queries to ingest data periodically, refresh materialized views, replicate data, and perform other repetitive tasks. For example, you can insert data from a stream into a transactional table every 10 minutes, refresh a materialized view used for BI reporting every hour, and replicate data from one cluster to another on a daily basis.

A Hive scheduled query consists of the following parts:

- A unique name for the schedule
- The SQL statement to be executed
- The execution schedule defined by a Quartz cron expression.

Quartz cron expressions are expressive and flexible. For instance, expressions can describe simple schedules such as every 10 minutes, but also an execution happening at 10 AM on the first Sunday of the month in January, February in 2021, 2022. You can describe common schedules in an easily comprehensible format, for example every 20 minutes or every day at '3:25:00'.

Operation

A scheduled query belongs to a namespace, which is a collection of HiveServer (HS2) instances that are responsible for executing the query. Scheduled queries are stored in the Hive metastore. The metastore stores scheduled queries, the status of ongoing and previously executed statements, and other information. HiveServer periodically polls the metastore to retrieve scheduled queries that are due to be executed. If you run multiple HiveServer roles, the metastore guarantees that only one of them executes a certain scheduled query at any given time.

You create, alter, and drop scheduled queries using dedicated SQL statements.

Related Information

[Apache Hive Language Manual--Scheduled Queries](#)

Enabling scheduled queries

You need to know how to enable and disable scheduled queries and understand how the default state can prevent you from running a query unintentionally.

About this task

Scheduled queries are created in disabled mode by default in CDP. This default helps prevent you from running new scheduled queries inadvertently. You must explicitly enable new scheduled queries. A scheduled query can keep the cluster awake at the wrong time. To enable a particular schedule, for example `schedule1`, you run the `ALTER SCHEDULED QUERY` statement:

```
ALTER SCHEDULED QUERY schedule1 ENABLE;
```

To disable this schedule: `ALTER SCHEDULED QUERY schedule1 DISABLE;`

Related Information

[Apache Hive Language Manual--Scheduled Queries](#)

Periodically rebuilding a materialized view

Using materialized views can enhance query performance. You need to refresh materialized view contents when new data is added to the underlying table. Instead of rebuilding the materialized view manually, you can schedule this task. Rebuilding occurs periodically and transparently to users.

About this task

This task assumes you created the following schemas for storing employee and departmental information:

```
CREATE TABLE emps (  
  empid INTEGER,  
  deptno INTEGER,  
  name VARCHAR(256),  
  salary FLOAT,
```

```
hire_date TIMESTAMP);
```

```
CREATE TABLE depts (
deptno INTEGER,
deptname VARCHAR(256),
locationid INTEGER);
```

Imagine that you add data for a number of employees to the table. Assume many users of your database issue queries to access to data about the employees hired during last year including the department they belong to.

You perform the steps below to create a materialized view of the table to address these queries. Imagine new employees are hired and you add their records to the table. These changes render the materialized view contents outdated. You need to refresh its contents. You create a scheduled query to perform this task. The scheduled rebuilding will not occur unless there are changes to the input tables. You test the scheduled query by bypassing the schedule and executing the schedule immediately. Finally, you change the schedule to rebuild less often.

Procedure

1. To handle many queries to access recently hired employee and departmental data, create a materialized view.

```
CREATE MATERIALIZED VIEW mv_recently_hired AS
SELECT empid, name, deptname, hire_date FROM emps
JOIN depts ON (emps.deptno = depts.deptno)
WHERE hire_date >= '2020-01-01 00:00:00';
```

2. Use the materialized view by querying the employee data.

```
SELECT empid, name FROM emps
JOIN depts ON (emps.deptno = depts.deptno)
WHERE hire_date >= '2020-03-01 00:00:00' AND deptname = 'finance';
```

3. Assuming new hiring occurred and you added new records to the emps table, rebuild the materialized view.

```
ALTER MATERIALIZED VIEW mv_recently_hired REBUILD;
```

The rebuilding refreshes the contents of the materialized view.

4. Create a scheduled query to invoke the rebuild statement every 10 minutes.

```
CREATE SCHEDULED QUERY scheduled_rebuild
EVERY 10 MINUTES AS
ALTER MATERIALIZED VIEW mv_recently_hired REBUILD;
```

A rebuild executes every 10 minutes, assuming changes to the emp table occur within that period. If a materialized view can be rebuilt incrementally, the scheduled rebuild does not occur unless there are changes to the input tables.

5. To test the schedule, run a scheduled query immediately.

```
ALTER SCHEDULED QUERY scheduled_rebuild EXECUTE;
```

6. Change the frequency of the rebuilding.

```
ALTER SCHEDULED QUERY scheduled_rebuild EVERY 20 MINUTES;
```

Related Information

[Apache Hive Language Manual--Scheduled Queries](#)

Getting scheduled query information and monitor the query

After you create a scheduled query you can access information about it in the `scheduled_queries` table of the Hive information schema. You can also use the information schema to monitor scheduled query execution.

Procedure

1. Query the information schema to get information about a schedule.

```
SELECT *  
FROM information_schema.scheduled_queries  
WHERE schedule_name = 'scheduled_rebuild';
```

The following information appears about the scheduled query:

scheduled_query_id

Unique numeric identifier for a scheduled query.

schedule_name

Name of the scheduled query.

enabled

Whether the scheduled query is currently enabled or not.

cluster_namespace

Namespace that the scheduled query belongs to.

schedule

Schedule described as a Quartz cron expression.

user

Owner of the scheduled query.

query

SQL query to be executed.

next_execution

When the next execution of this scheduled query is due.

2. Monitor the most recent scheduled query execution.

```
SELECT *
```



```
FROM information_schema.scheduled_executions;
```

You can configure the retention period for this information in the Hive metastore.

scheduled_execution_id

Unique numeric identifier for a scheduled query execution.

schedule_name

Name of the scheduled query associated with this execution.

executor_query_id

Query ID assigned to the execution by HiveServer (HS2).

state

One of the following phases of execution.

- **STARTED.** A scheduled query is due and a HiveServer instance has retrieved its information.
- **EXECUTING.** HiveServer is executing the query and reporting progress in configurable intervals.
- **FAILED.** The query execution was stopped due to an error or exception.
- **FINISHED.** The query execution was successful.
- **TIMED_OUT.** HiveServer did not provide an update on the query status for more than a configurable timeout.

start_time

Start time of execution.

end_time

End time of execution.

elapsed

Difference between start and end time.

error_message

If the scheduled query failed, it contains the error message associated with its failure.

last_update_time

Time of the last update of the query status by HiveServer.

Related Information

[Apache Hive Language Manual--Scheduled Queries](#)

Materialized views

A materialized view is a Hive-managed database object that holds a query result you can use to speed up the execution of a query workload. If your queries are repetitive, you can reduce latency and resource consumption by using materialized views. You create materialized views to optimize your queries automatically.

Using a materialized view, the optimizer can compare old and new tables, rewrite queries to accelerate processing, and manage maintenance of the materialized view when data updates occur. The optimizer can use a materialized view to fully or partially rewrite projections, filters, joins, and aggregations.

In Unified Analytics, you can perform the following materialized view operations in either Hive or Impala:

- Create a materialized view of queries or subqueries
- Drop a materialized view
- Show materialized views
- Describe a materialized view

- Enable or disable query rewriting based on a materialized view
- Globally enable or disable rewriting based on any materialized view
- Use partitioning to improve the performance of materialized views

When you enable BI mode to use Apache DataSketches approximations, a materialized view automatically calls DataSketches for some types of operations.

Related Information

[Materialized view commands](#)

Creating and using a materialized view

You can create a materialized view of a query to calculate and store results of an expensive operation, such as a particular join, on a managed, ACID table that you repeatedly run. When you issue queries specified by that materialized view, the optimizer rewrites the query based on it. This action saves reprocessing. Query performance improves.

About this task

In the tasks that follow, first you create, or use an existing, Hive Virtual Warehouse. You create and populate example tables. The tables are managed tables. You cannot create a materialized view of an external table. You create a materialized view of a join of the tables. Subsequently, you run a query to join the tables, and the query plan takes advantage of the precomputed join to accelerate processing. These over-simplified tasks show the syntax and output of a materialized view, and do not demonstrate accelerated processing that occurs in a real-world task, processing a large amount of data.

Before you begin

- You have access to an existing Hive Virtual Warehouse, or you created a new one.
-

Related Information

[Materialized view commands](#)

Creating the tables and view

You see how to create simple tables, insert the data, and join the tables using a materialized view. You run the query, and the optimizer takes advantage of the precomputation performed by the materialized view to speed response time.

Procedure

1. Create two ACID tables:

```
CREATE TABLE emps (  
  empid INT,  
  deptno INT,  
  name VARCHAR(256),  
  salary FLOAT,  
  hire_date TIMESTAMP);  
  
CREATE TABLE depts (  
  deptno INT,  
  deptname VARCHAR(256),  
  locationid INT);
```

2. Insert some data into the tables for example purposes:

```
INSERT INTO TABLE emps VALUES (10001,101,'jane doe',250000,'2018-01-10');
```

```

INSERT INTO TABLE emps VALUES (10002,100,'somporn klailee',210000,'2017-12-25');
INSERT INTO TABLE emps VALUES (10003,200,'jeiranan thongnopneua',175000,'2018-05-05');

INSERT INTO TABLE depts VALUES (100,'HR',10);
INSERT INTO TABLE depts VALUES (101,'Eng',11);
INSERT INTO TABLE depts VALUES (200,'Sup',20);

```

Tables must be ACID (managed) tables.

3. Create a materialized view to join the tables:

```

CREATE MATERIALIZED VIEW mv1
AS SELECT empid, deptname, hire_date
FROM emps JOIN depts
ON (emps.deptno = depts.deptno)
WHERE hire_date >= '2017-01-01';

```

4. Run a query that takes advantage of the precomputation performed by the materialized view:

```

SELECT empid, deptname
FROM emps
JOIN depts
ON (emps.deptno = depts.deptno)
WHERE hire_date >= '2017-01-01'
AND hire_date <= '2019-01-01';

```

Output is:

```

+-----+-----+
| empid | deptname |
+-----+-----+
| 10003 | Sup      |
| 10002 | HR       |
| 10001 | Eng      |
+-----+-----+

```

Using optimizations from a subquery

You can create a query having a subquery that the optimizer rewrites based on a materialized view. You create a materialized view, and then run a query that uses the materialized view.

About this task

In this task, you create a materialized view and use it in a subquery to return the number of destination-origin pairs. Suppose the data resides in a table named `flights_data` that has the following columns:

c_id	dest	origin
1	Chicago	Hyderabad
2	London	Moscow
...		

Procedure

1. Create a table schema definition named `flights_data` for destination and origin data.

```

CREATE TABLE flights_data(
  c_id INT,
  dest VARCHAR(256),

```

```
origin VARCHAR(256));
```

2. Create a materialized view that counts destinations and origins.

```
CREATE MATERIALIZED VIEW mv1
AS
  SELECT dest, origin, count(*)
  FROM flights_data
  GROUP BY dest, origin;
```

3. Take advantage of the materialized view to speed your queries when you have to count destinations and origins again.

For example, use a subquery to select the number of destination-origin pairs like the materialized view.

```
SELECT count(*)/2
FROM(
  SELECT dest, origin, count(*)
  FROM flights_data
  GROUP BY dest, origin
) AS t;
```

Transparently, the SQL engine uses the work already in place since creation of the materialized view instead of reprocessing.

Related Information

[Materialized view commands](#)

Dropping a materialized view

You must understand when to drop a materialized view to successfully drop related tables.

About this task

Drop a materialized view before performing a DROP TABLE operation on a related table. You cannot drop a table that has a relationship with a materialized view.

In this task, you drop a materialized view named mv1 from the database named default.

Procedure

Drop a materialized view in my_database named mv1 .
DROP MATERIALIZED VIEW default.mv;

Showing materialized views

You can list all materialized views in the current database or in another database. You can filter a list of materialized views in a specified database using regular expression wildcards.

About this task

You can use regular expression wildcards to filter the list of materialized views you want to see. The following wildcards are supported:

- Asterisk (*)
Represents one or more characters.
- Pipe symbol (|)
Represents a choice.

For example, mv_q* and *mv|q1* match the materialized view mv_q1. Finding no match does not cause an error.

Procedure

1. List materialized views in the current database.
SHOW MATERIALIZED VIEWS;
2. List materialized views in a particular database.
SHOW MATERIALIZED VIEWS IN another_database;

Describing a materialized view

You can get summary, detailed, and formatted information about a materialized view.

About this task

This task builds on the task that creates a materialized view named mv1.

Procedure

1. Get summary information about the materialized view named mv1.

```
DESCRIBE mv1;
```

col_name	data_type	comment
empid	int	
deptname	varchar(256)	
hire_date	timestamp	

2. Get detailed information about the materialized view named mv1.

```
DESCRIBE EXTENDED mv1;
```

```
+-----+-----+
| col_name | data_type |
+-----+-----+
| empid    | int       |
| deptname | varchar(256) |
| hire_date | timestamp |
+-----+-----+

Detailed Table Information Table(tableName:mv1, dbName:default, owner:hive, createTime:1532466307, lastAccessTime:0, retention:0, sd:StorageDescriptor(cols:[FieldSchema(name:empid, type:int, comment:null), FieldSchema(name:deptname, type:varchar(256), comment:null), FieldSchema(name:hire_date, type:timestamp, comment:null)], location:hdfs://myserver.com:8020/warehouse/tablespace/managed/hive/mv1, inputFormat:org.apache.hadoop.hive.ql.io.orc.OrcInputFormat, outputFormat:org.apache.hadoop.hive.ql.io.orc.OrcOutputFormat, compressed:false, numBuckets:-1, serdeInfo:SerDeInfo(name:null, serializationLib:org.apache.hadoop.hive.ql.io.orc.OrcSerde, parameters:{}), bucketCols:[], sortCols:[], parameters:{}, skewedInfo:SkewedInfo(skewedColNames:[], skewedColValues:[], skewedColValueLocationMaps:{}), storedAsSubDirectories:false), partitionKeys:[], parameters:{totalSize=488, numRows=4, rawDataSize=520, COLUMN_STATS_ACCURATE={"BASIC_STATS":true}, numFiles=1, transient_lastDdlTime=1532466307, bucketing_version=2}, viewOriginalText:SELECT empid, deptname, hire_date\nFROM emps2 JOIN depts\nON (emps2.deptno = depts.deptno)\nWHERE hire_date >= '2017-01-17', viewExpandedText:SELECT `emps2`.`empid`, `depts`.`deptname`, `emps2`.`hire_date`\nFROM `default`.`emps2` JOIN `default`.`depts`\nON (`emps2`.`deptno` = `depts`.`deptno`)\nWHERE `emps2`.`hire_date` >= '2017-01-17', tableType:MATERIALIZED_VIEW, rewriteEnabled:true, creationMetadata:CreationMetadata(catName:hive, dbName:default, tblName:mv1, tables
```

```
Used:[default.depts, default.emps2], validTxnList:53$default.depts:2:922
3372036854775807::,$default.emps2:4:9223372036854775807::, materializatio
nTime:1532466307861), catName:hive, ownerType:USER)
```

3. Get formatting details about the materialized view named mv1.

```
DESCRIBE FORMATTED mv1;
```

col_name	data_type
# col_name	data_type
empid	int
deptname	varchar(256)
hire_date	timestamp
	NULL
# Detailed Table Information	NULL
Database:	default
OwnerType:	USER
Owner:	hive
CreateTime:	Tue Jul 24 21:05:07 UTC 2019
LastAccessTime:	UNKNOWN
Retention:	0
Location:	hdfs://myserver...
Table Type:	MATERIALIZED_VIEW
Table Parameters:	NULL
	COLUMN_STATS_ACCURATE
	bucketing_version
	numFiles
	numRows
	rawDataSize
	totalSize
	transient_lastDdlTime
	NULL
# Storage Information	NULL
SerDe Library:	org.apache.hadoop.hive ql.io.or...
InputFormat:	org.apache.hadoop.hive ql.io.or...
OutputFormat:	org.apache.hadoop.hive ql.io.or...
Compressed:	No
Num Buckets:	-1
Bucket Columns:	[]
Sort Columns:	[]
# View Information	NULL
View Original Text:	SELECT empid, deptname, hire_da...
View Expanded Text:	SELECT `emps2`.`empid`, `depts`...
View Rewrite Enabled:	Yes

Related Information

[Materialized view commands](#)

Managing query rewrites

After changes to base tables, the data in a materialized view is stale. You need to know how to prevent the SQL optimizer from rewriting queries in this situation. If you want a query executed without regard to a materialized view, for example to measure the execution time difference, you can disable rewriting and then enable it again.

About this task

As administrator, you can globally enable or disable all query rewrites based on materialized views. By default, the optimizer rewrites a query based on a materialized view.

Procedure

1. Disable rewriting of a query based on a materialized view named mv1 in the default database.

```
ALTER MATERIALIZED VIEW default.mv1 DISABLE REWRITE;
```

2. Enable rewriting of a query based on materialized view mv1.

```
ALTER MATERIALIZED VIEW default.mv1 ENABLE REWRITE;
```

3. Globally enable rewriting of queries based on materialized views by setting a global property.

```
SET hive.materializedview.rewriting=true;
```

Related Information

[Materialized view commands](#)

Purposely using a stale materialized view

A rewrite of a query based on a stale materialized view does not occur automatically. If you want a rewrite of a stale or possibly stale materialized view, you can force a rewrite.

About this task

For example, you might want to use the contents of a materialized view of a non-transactional table because the freshness of such a table is unknown. The optimizer cannot determine the data freshness if you use external tables. You can purposely rewrite a query based on a stale materialized views using these techniques:

- Schedule the materialized view for rebuilding. For example, schedule a rebuild to occur every x minutes.
- Adjust the rewriting time window to use stale or possibly stale data for a period of time. For example, schedule the window within which to use stale data for x + y minutes.

Procedure

1. Create a scheduled query to invoke the rebuild statement every 10 minutes.

```
CREATE SCHEDULED QUERY scheduled_rebuild  
EVERY 10 MINUTES AS  
ALTER MATERIALIZED VIEW mv_recently_hired REBUILD;
```

2. Define the window of time for using stale data.

```
SET hive.materializedview.rewriting.time.window=10min;
```

Creating and using a partitioned materialized view

When creating a materialized view, you can partition selected columns to improve performance. Partitioning separates the view of a table into parts, which often improves query rewrites of partition-wise joins of materialized views with tables or other materialized views.

About this task

This task assumes you created a materialized view of the emps and depts tables and assumes you created these tables. The emps table contains the following data:

empid	deptno	name	salary	hire_date
10001	101	jane doe	250000	2018-01-10
10005	100	somporn klailee	210000	2017-12-25
10006	200	jeiranan thongnopneua	175000	2018-05-05

The depts table contains the following data:

deptno	deptname	locationid
100	HR	10
101	Eng	11
200	Sup	20

In this task, you create two materialized views: one partitions data on department; the other partitions data on hire date. You select data, filtered by department, from the original table, not from either one of the materialized views. The explain plan shows that Hive rewrites your query for efficiency to select data from the materialized view that partitions data by department. In this task, you also see the effects of rebuilding a materialized view.

Procedure

1. Create a materialized view of the emps table that partitions data into departments.

```
CREATE MATERIALIZED VIEW partition_mv_1 PARTITIONED ON (deptno)
AS SELECT hire_date, deptno FROM emps WHERE deptno > 100 AND deptno < 200;
```

2. Create a second materialized view that partitions the data on the hire date instead of the department number.

```
CREATE MATERIALIZED VIEW partition_mv_2 PARTITIONED ON (hire_date)
AS SELECT deptno, hire_date FROM emps where deptno > 100 AND deptno < 200;
```

3. Generate an extended explain plan by selecting data for department 101 directly from the emps table without using the materialized view.

```
EXPLAIN EXTENDED SELECT deptno, hire_date FROM emps where deptno = 101;
```

The explain plan shows that Hive rewrites your query for efficiency, using the better of the two materialized views for the job: partition_mv_1.

```
+-----+
| Explain |
+-----+
| OPTIMIZED SQL: SELECT CAST(101 AS INTEGER) AS `deptno`, `hire_date` |
| FROM `default`.`partition_mv_1` |
| WHERE 101 = `deptno` |
| STAGE DEPENDENCIES: |
|   Stage-0 is a root stage |
+-----+
```


...

- Correct Jane Doe's hire date to February 12, 2018, rebuild one of the materialized views, but not the other, and compare contents of both materialized views.

```
INSERT INTO emps VALUES (10001,101,'jane doe',250000,'2018-02-12');
ALTER MATERIALIZED VIEW partition_mv_1 REBUILD;
SELECT * FROM partition_mv_1 where deptno = 101;
SELECT * FROM partition_mv_2 where deptno = 101;
```

The output of selecting the rebuilt partition_mv_1 includes the original row and newly inserted row because INSERT does not perform in-place updates (overwrites).

partition_mv_1.hire_date	partition_mv_1.deptno
2018-01-10 00:00:00.0	101
2018-02-12 00:00:00.0	101

The output from the other partition is stale because you did not rebuild it:

partition_mv_2.deptno	partition_mv_2.hire_date
101	2018-01-10 00:00:00.0

- Create a second employees table and a materialized view of the tables joined on the department number.

```
CREATE TABLE emps2 AS SELECT * FROM emps;

CREATE MATERIALIZED VIEW partition_mv_3 PARTITIONED ON (deptno) AS
  SELECT emps.hire_date, emps.deptno FROM emps, emps2
  WHERE emps.deptno = emps2.deptno
  AND emps.deptno > 100 AND emps.deptno < 200;
```

- Generate an explain plan that joins tables emps and emps2 on department number using a query that omits the partitioned materialized view.

```
EXPLAIN EXTENDED SELECT emps.hire_date, emps.deptno FROM emps, emps2
  WHERE emps.deptno = emps2.deptno
  AND emps.deptno > 100 AND emps.deptno < 200;
```

The output shows that Hive rewrites the query to use the partitioned materialized view partition_mv_3 even though your query omitted the materialized view.

- Verify that the partition_mv_3 sets up the partition for deptno=101 for partition_mv_3.

```
SHOW PARTITIONS partition_mv_3;
```

Output is:

partition
deptno=101

Related Information

[Creating and using a materialized view](#)

[Materialized view commands](#)

CDW stored procedures

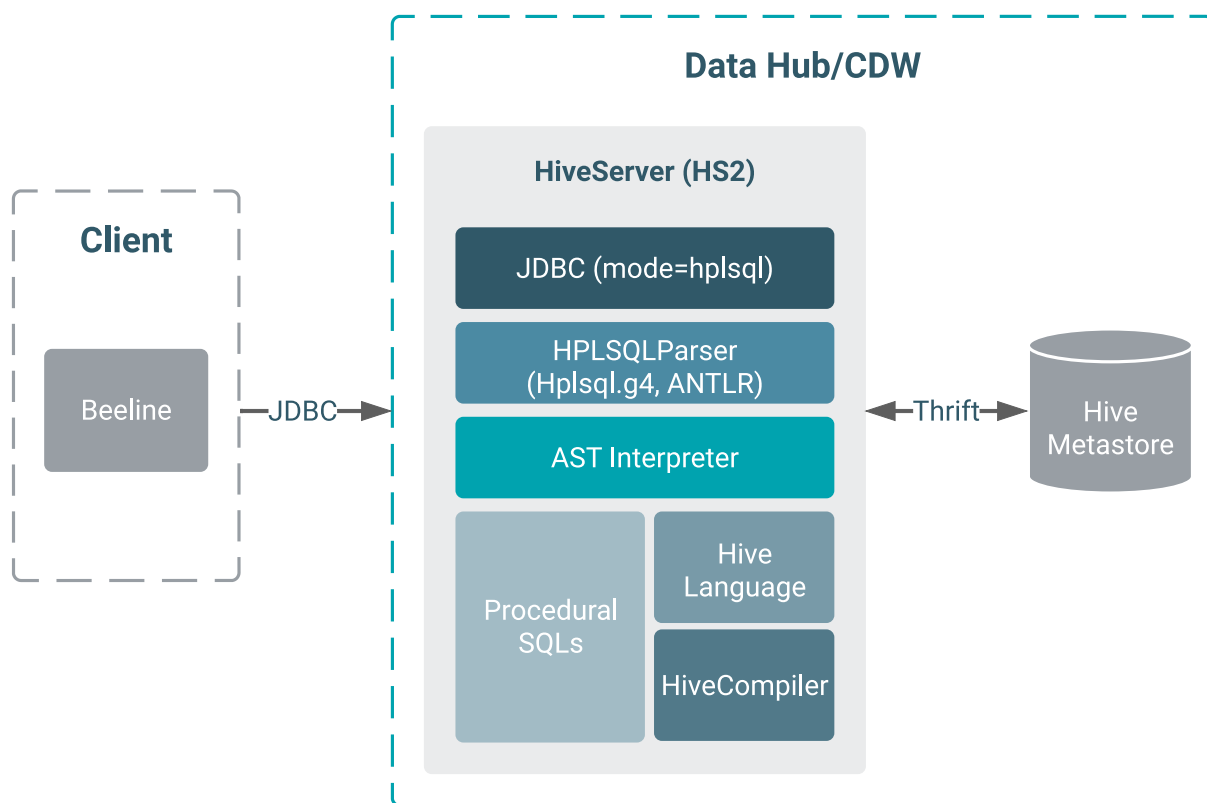
Cloudera Data Warehouse (CDW) supports Hive Hybrid Procedural SQL (HPL/SQL). HPL/SQL is an Apache open source procedural extension for SQL for Hive users. You connect over JDBC to CDW from a client to run HPL/SQL queries. You can also run stored procedures from Hue in CDW.

HPL/SQL includes imperative programming structures (variables, procedures, control flow, and exceptions), and is typically used for ETL. The HPL/SQL language understands the syntax and semantics of most procedural SQL dialects, such as Oracle PL/SQL.

HPL/SQL has its own grammar. For more information about the HPL/SQL language, see the [HPL/SQL Reference](#).

HPL/SQL architecture

HPL/SQL has been re-architected from a command line tool to an integrated part of HiveServer (HS2). From a JDBC client, such as Beeline, you connect to HiveServer through CDW in CDP Public Cloud. The interpreter executes the abstract syntax tree (AST) from the parser. Hive metastore securely stores the function and procedure code permanently. The procedure is loaded and cached on demand to the interpreter's memory when needed. You can close the session or restart Hive without losing the definitions.



You can enable and use HPL/SQL from any host or third-party tool that can make a JDBC connection to HiveServer. Beeline is a popular client for use with HPL/SQL because other third-party tools do not show you some of the error messages about syntax mistakes.

Enabling HPL/SQL in the beeline connection string

After setting up a client to connect to CDW, you append `mode=hplsql` to the JDBC URL that connects the client to CDW:

```
beeline -u "jdbc:hive2://<HiveServer host>:10000/default;mode=hplsql"
```

When the client connects to HiveServer in CDW configuring this mode, HPL/SQL is enabled; otherwise, HPL/SQL is disabled.

HPL/SQL key features

- Flow of Control Statements (FOR, WHILE, IF, CASE, LOOP, LEAVE, RETURN)
- Functions, procedures, and packages
- Built-in functions (string manipulations, datetime functions, conversions)
- Exception handling and conditions
- Constants and variable, assignment (DECLARE count INT := 1)
- Processing results using a CURSOR
- UDF to run HPL/SQL scripts from Hive queries

```
(SELECT hplsql('mycustomfunc(:1)', name) FROM users;)
```

- Bulk data processing with BULK COLLECT statement

HPL/SQL limitations

- Some of the Hive specific CREATE TABLE parameters are missing.
- No colon syntax to parametrize SQL strings.
- No quoted string literals.
- No GOTO and Label.
- EXECUTE does not have output parameters.
- Some complex data types, such as Arrays and Records are not supported.
- No object-oriented extension.
- Data Analytics Studio (DAS) does not support HPL/SQL.

Related Information

[HPL/SQL Reference](#)

Setting up a CDW client

As a Hive user who connects to CDW from a client, you need to know how to set up the client for using HPL/SQL.

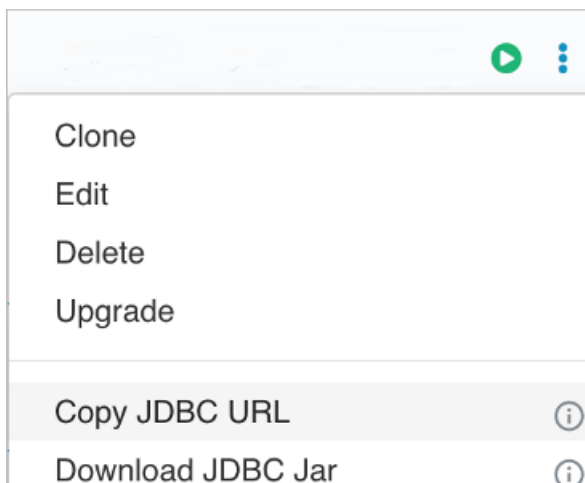
Before you begin

- You have created a Database Catalog that is populated with data.
You can select an option to load sample airline data when you create the catalog.
- You have an existing Hive Virtual Warehouse, or you added a new one, that is configured to connect to the Database Catalog with data.

Procedure

1. On the client end, download the latest version of the Hive JDBC driver from [Cloudera Downloads page](#).
2. Install the driver on the client end.
Typically, you add the JAR file to the Libraries folder.
3. Log into the CDP web interface and navigate to the Data Warehouse service.

4. In the Data Warehouse service, click Virtual Warehouse in the left navigation panel.
5. On the Virtual Warehouses page, click the options menu of the Hive VW you want to connect to, and select Copy JDBC URL.



6. Paste the copied JDBC URL into a text file.

```
jdbc:hive2://<your-virtual-warehouse>.<your-environment>.<dwx.company.com>/default;transportMode=http;httpPath=cliservice;ssl=true;retries=3
```

7. Append mode=hplsql to the end of the JDBC URL for connecting to CDW from the client.

```
jdbc:hive2://<your-virtual-warehouse>.<your-environment>.<dwx.company.com>/default;transportMode=http;httpPath=cliservice;ssl=true;retries=3;mode=hplsql
```

8. On the client end, use the URL in Beeline to connect to CDW and enable HPL/SQL.

```
beeline -n <csso_username> -p <password> -u "jdbc:hive2://<your-virtual-warehouse>.<your-environment>.<dwx.company.com>/default;transportMode=http;httpPath=cliservice;ssl=true;retries=3;mode=hplsql"
```

At the Hive prompt, you can run HPL/SQL. You can use the forward slash (/) as a statement delimiter because a HPL/SQL statement can have multiple rows consisting of multiple SQL statements.

Related Information

[HPL/SQL Reference](#)

[Adding a new Virtual Warehouse](#)

Creating a function

You need to know the syntax of HPL/SQL, which closely resembles Oracle's PL/SQL. An example of creating a function and calling it in a Hive SELECT statement demonstrates the HPL/SQL basics.

Procedure

1. Create a table and populate it with some numbers.

```
create table numbers (n int);

for i in 1..10 loop
  insert into numbers values(i);
end loop;
```

2. Create a function called fizzbuzz to return numbers.

```
create function fizzbuzz(n int) returns string
begin
  if mod(n, 15) == 0 then
    return 'FIZZBUZZ';
  elseif mod(n, 5) == 0 then
    return 'BUZZ';
  elseif mod(n, 3) == 0 then
    return 'FIZZ';
  else
    return n;
  end if;
end;
```

3. Call the function from a Hive select statement.

```
select fizzbuzz(n) from numbers;
```

Output looks something like this:

```
...
1
2
FIZZ
4
BUZZ
1
2
FIZZ
4
BUZZ
FIZZ
7
8
FIZZ
BUZZ
```

Related Information

[HPL/SQL Reference](#)

Using the cursor to return record sets

You use a cursor to return recordsets from stored procedures and functions. A cursor defines a set of rows and row-by-row operations on the set. You need to know how to open a cursor, fetch data into local variables row-by-row, and close a cursor.

About this task

A function called fizzbuzz2 calls another function fizzbuzz, created in the previous topic. The new function declares a cursor of type SYS_REFCURSOR to fetch the contents of the numbers table, also created in the previous topic.

Before you begin

- You created the fizzbuzz function.
- You created the numbers table.

Procedure

Use an OPEN-FOR statement to select the number in each row of the numbers table, iteratively FETCH the numerical content of the each row INTO cursor variable num, close the cursor, and print the results.

```
create function fizzbuzz2() returns string
begin
  declare num int = 0;
  declare result string = '';
  declare curs SYS_REFCURSOR;
  open curs for select n from numbers;
  fetch curs into num;
  while (SQLCODE = 0) do
    result = result || fizzbuzz(num) || ' ';
    fetch curs INTO num;
  end while;
  close curs;
  return result;
end;
print fizzbuzz2();
```

The output looks something like this:

```
...
1 2 FIZZ 4 BUZZ 1 2 FIZZ 4 BUZZ FIZZ 7 8 FIZZ BUZZ
No rows affected
```

Related Information

[HPL/SQL Reference](#)

[Creating a function](#)

Stored procedure examples

You see by example some of the frequently used and useful HPL/SQL code. HPL/SQL is an Apache open source procedural extension for SQL for Hive users.

Greeting function

The following example creates a function that takes the input of your name and returns "hello <name>":

```
CREATE PROCEDURE greet(name STRING)
BEGIN
  PRINT 'Hello ' || name;
END;
```

Pass a cursor to return records

This example of a procedure, called from another procedure, takes a cursor parameter declared OUT; an OPEN-FOR statement opens the cursor and executes the SELECT query. The query returns a subset of the records to the test_even procedure from the numbers table, created in a previous topic.

```
CREATE PROCEDURE even(cur OUT SYS_REFCURSOR)
BEGIN
  OPEN cur FOR
  SELECT n FROM numbers
  WHERE MOD(n, 2) == 0;
END;
```

The `test_even` procedure below calls the `even` procedure above, passing the cursor of type `SYS_REFCURSOR` to fetch each row containing an even number.

```
CREATE PROCEDURE test_even()
BEGIN
  DECLARE curs SYS_REFCURSOR;
  DECLARE n INT = 0;
  DECLARE result STRING = 'Even numbers are: ';
  even(curs);
  FETCH curs INTO n;
  WHILE (SQLCODE = 0) DO
    result = result || n || ' ';
    FETCH curs INTO n;
  END WHILE;
  CLOSE curs;
  PRINT result;
END;
```

Using table types to index fields in records

You can set up table types and reference fields in records using indexing. This example assumes you created the `emp` table.

```
-- CREATE TABLE emp (name string, age int);
TYPE emp_type IS TABLE OF emp%ROWTYPE INDEX BY BINARY_INTEGER;
TYPE emp_age_type IS TABLE OF emp.age%TYPE INDEX BY BINARY_INTEGER;
TYPE emp_name_type IS TABLE OF STRING INDEX BY BINARY_INTEGER;

DECLARE rows emp_type;
DECLARE ages emp_age_type;

SELECT * INTO rows(1) FROM emp WHERE name = 'alice';
PRINT 'name=' || rows(1).name || ' age=' || rows(1).age;

SELECT age INTO ages(1) FROM emp WHERE name = 'alice';
PRINT 'age=' || ages(1);
```

BULK COLLECT

Using `BULK COLLECT`, you can retrieve multiple rows in a single fetch quickly.

```
TYPE emp_type IS TABLE OF emp%ROWTYPE INDEX BY BINARY_INTEGER;
DECLARE rows emp_type;

SELECT * BULK COLLECT INTO rows FROM emp;

DECLARE idx INT = rows.FIRST;
WHILE idx IS NOT NULL LOOP
  PRINT rows(idx).name || ' = ' || rows(idx).age;
  idx = rows.NEXT(idx);
END LOOP;
```

Related Information

[HPL/SQL Reference](#)