

**Java Spring & AWS**

Sep 7, 2021 - Oct 8, 2021

Monday to Friday

9:30 AM ET - 4:30 PM ET

A photograph showing two women in an office environment. On the left, a woman with long blonde hair is seated at a desk, holding a phone to her ear with one hand while resting her chin on her other hand. On the right, another woman with short red hair is standing at a desk, looking down at a laptop screen. The desk is white and features a small potted plant, a keyboard, and some papers. In the background, there are shelves with books and other office equipment. The right side of the image has a large blue diagonal graphic overlay with the words "Database" and "Int" partially visible.

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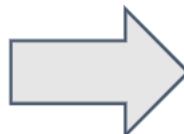
**Summitworks Technologies Inc.**

# MySQL – Day 1 Training Plan

## Agenda: Day 1: Introduction to MySQL

- Introduction and MySQL concepts
  - Why to use Database?
  - What is ER (Entity-relationship) – Modeling?
  - Normalization
  - Keys in SQL
  - Database Constraints
- MySQL Installation
- Data types
- Sub Languages in MySQL
  - Data Definition Language (DDL)
    - Create, Alter, Drop
  - Data Manipulation Language (DML)
    - Insert, Update, Delete
  - Data Query Language (DQL)
    - Select, Show, Help
  - Data Control Language (DCL)
    - Grant and Revoke
- Basic SQL
  - Conditional Statement
  - Comparison Operators
- Joins
  - Inner
  - Outer Join
  - Left Join
  - Right Join
  - Cross Join





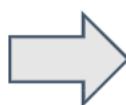
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2	1	Andrew Chang	37	1/20/2012	53000	
3	2	Alex Chang	39	1/20/2012	60000	
4	3	Peter Brown	37	1/20/2012	50000	
5	4	Peter Parker	50	1/20/2012	150000	
6	5	Rachel Red	23	1/20/2012	53000	
7	6	Joey Green	37	1/20/2012	52000	
8	7	Andrew Chang	37	1/20/2012	53000	
9	8	Alex Chang	39	1/20/2012	60000	
10	9	Peter Brown	37	1/20/2012	50000	
11	10	Peter Parker	50	1/20/2012	150000	
12	11	Rachel Red	23	1/20/2012	53000	
13	12	Joey Green	37	1/20/2012	52000	
14	13	Andrew Chang	37	1/20/2012	53000	
15	14	Alex Chang	39	1/20/2012	60000	
16	15	Peter Brown	37	1/20/2012	50000	
17	16	Peter Parker	50	1/20/2012	150000	
18	17	Rachel Red	23	1/20/2012	53000	
19	18	Joey Green	37	1/20/2012	52000	
20						

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ted, age: 23, Start date: 01/20/2012, salary: 530000  
en, age: 37, Start date: 01/20/2012, salary: 520000



ID	Name	Age
ID	Name	Age
1	Andrew Ch	22
2	Alex Chang	23
3	Peter Brow	24
4	Peter Parke	25
5	Rachel Red	26
6	Joey Green	27
7	Andrew Ch	28
8	Alex Chang	29
9	Peter Brow	30
10	Peter Parke	31
11	Rachel Red	32
12	Joey Green	33
13	Andrew Ch	34

# Introduction to MySQL concepts

## Why to use databases?

- A database is a collection of information that is organized so that it can easily be accessed, managed, and updated.
- Benefits of using database:
  - To eliminate or reduce the data Redundancy
  - To remove or reduce the data Inconsistency
  - For data Standardization
  - Secure all the data in one shell. Performed Role based security
  - To make sure that the Integrity of the data is maintained

# Introduction to MySQL concepts (cont)

## What is ER (Entity-relationship) – Modeling?

- **ER Diagram** is a visual representation of data that describes how entities are related to each other.
- In ER Model, we disintegrate data into **entities**, **attributes** and **relationships** between entities, all this can be represented visually in an ER diagram.
- ER Diagrams are most often used to design or debug relational databases in the fields of software engineering.
- they use a defined set of symbols such as rectangles, diamonds and connecting lines to depict the interconnectedness of entities, relationships and their attributes.

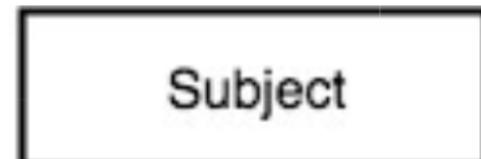
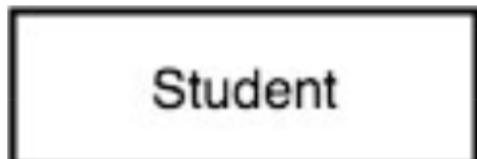
# Introduction to MySQL concepts (cont)

## Components of ER Diagram

- Entity, Attributes, Relationships etc form the components of ER Diagram and there are symbols and shapes to represent each one of them.
- Let's see how we can represent these in our ER Diagram.

### Entity

Simple rectangular box represents an Entity.

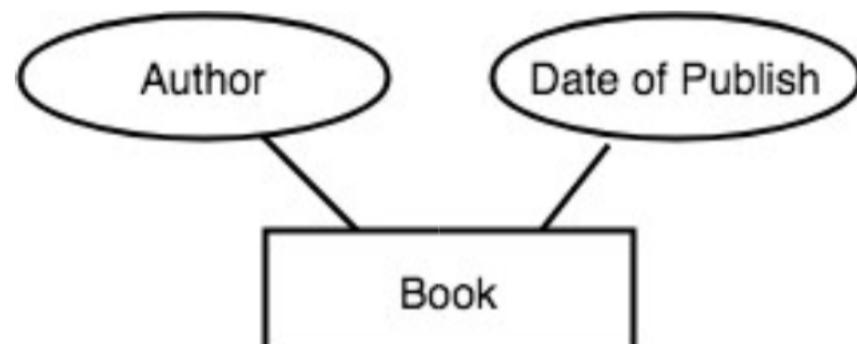


# Introduction to MySQL concepts (cont)

## Components of ER Diagram

### Attributes for any Entity

Ellipse is used to represent attributes of any entity. It is connected to entity



# Introduction to MySQL concepts (cont)

## Diagram: Relationship

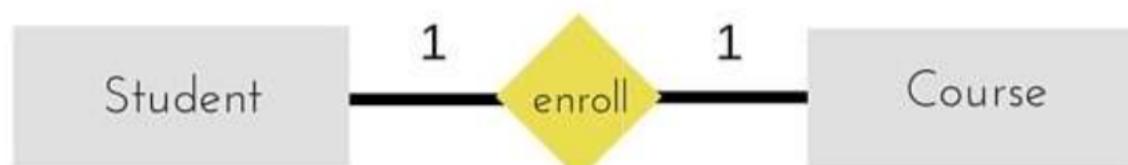
Relationship describes relation between entities. Relationship is represented by diamonds or rhombus.



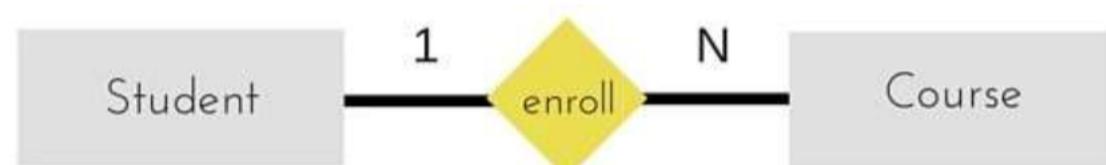
# Introduction to MySQL concepts (cont)

**Diagram: Binary Relationship** Binary Relationship means relation between two entities. This is further divided into three types.

**One to One Relationship:** This type of relationship is rarely seen in real life.



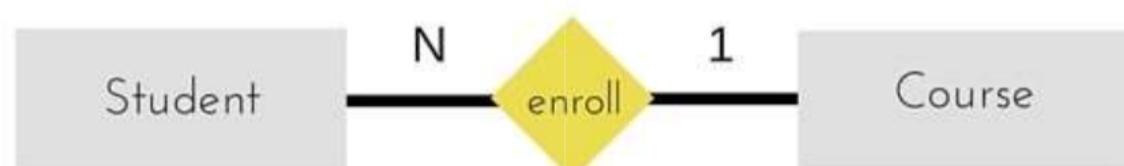
**One to Many Relationship:** The below example showcases this relationship. It means that 1 student can opt for many courses, but a course can only be opted by 1 student. Sounds weird! This is how it is.



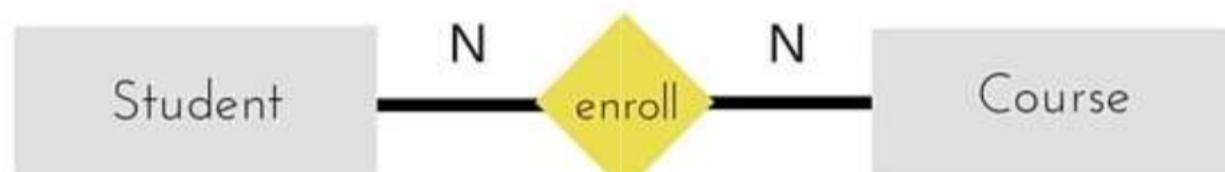
# Introduction to MySQL concepts (cont)

## Diagram: Binary Relationship

**any to One Relationship:** It reflects business rule that many entities associated with just one entity. For example, Student enrolls for only one Course but it a Course can have many Students.



**any to One Relationship:** The below diagram represents that one student can enroll for more than one courses. And a course can have more than 1 student enrolled in it



# Keys

**Keys** are important part of the arrangement of a table. Keys make uniquely identify a table's each part or record of a field or combin fields.

- Type of keys:
  - Primary key
  - Natural Key
  - Surrogate/Artificial key
  - Candidate keys
  - Secondary or Alternative key
  - Composite Key
  - Foreign Key



# Keys (cont.)

**Primary key:** The candidate key which is very suitable to be the main key of table.

The primary keys are compulsory in every table.

The properties of a primary key are:

- Model stability
- Occurrence of minimum fields
- Defining value for every record i.e. being definitive
- Feature of accessibility

Student Id	First name of student	Last name of student	Course Id
123456	Jasmine	Shaik	001
123457	Rose	Mary	002
123458	Lily	Holmes	003

↓  
Primary key

# Keys (cont.)

**Natural Key:** It is a key that is naturally declared as the Primary key. Natural keys are sometimes called as business or domain keys because these keys are based on the observation. So it is a key whose attributes or values exist in the real world. They have logical relationship with the table.

- For Example: Social Security Number (SSN) is a natural key that can be declared as primary key.

**Surrogate/Artificial key :** Surrogate key is artificially generated key and it may not be the primary key of table. Artificial keys do not have meaning to the table. The properties of surrogate or artificial keys.

- They are unique because they are just created when you don't have any natural key.
- They are integer values. One cannot find the meaning of surrogate keys in the real world.
- End users cannot find surrogate key. Surrogate keys are allowed when no proper parameter of primary key.
- The primary key is huge and complex.
- Example: Table which has the details of the student has primary key but it is complex. The addition of row id column to it is the DBA's decision, where the row id is the primary key.

# Keys (cont.)

**Candidate keys** are the set of fields; primary key can be selected from these properties or attributes acts as a primary key for a table. Every table must have candidate key or several candidate keys.

- For example: The fields of a candidate key uniquely identify a student. It has like – Being unique and Parameter of irreducibility.

Student Id	First name of student	Last name of student	Course Id
123456	Jasmine	Shaik	001
123457	Rose	Mary	002
123458	Lily	Holmes	003



Candidate keys

# Keys (cont.)

**Secondary or Alternative key:** The rejected candidate keys as primary keys are secondary or alternative keys.

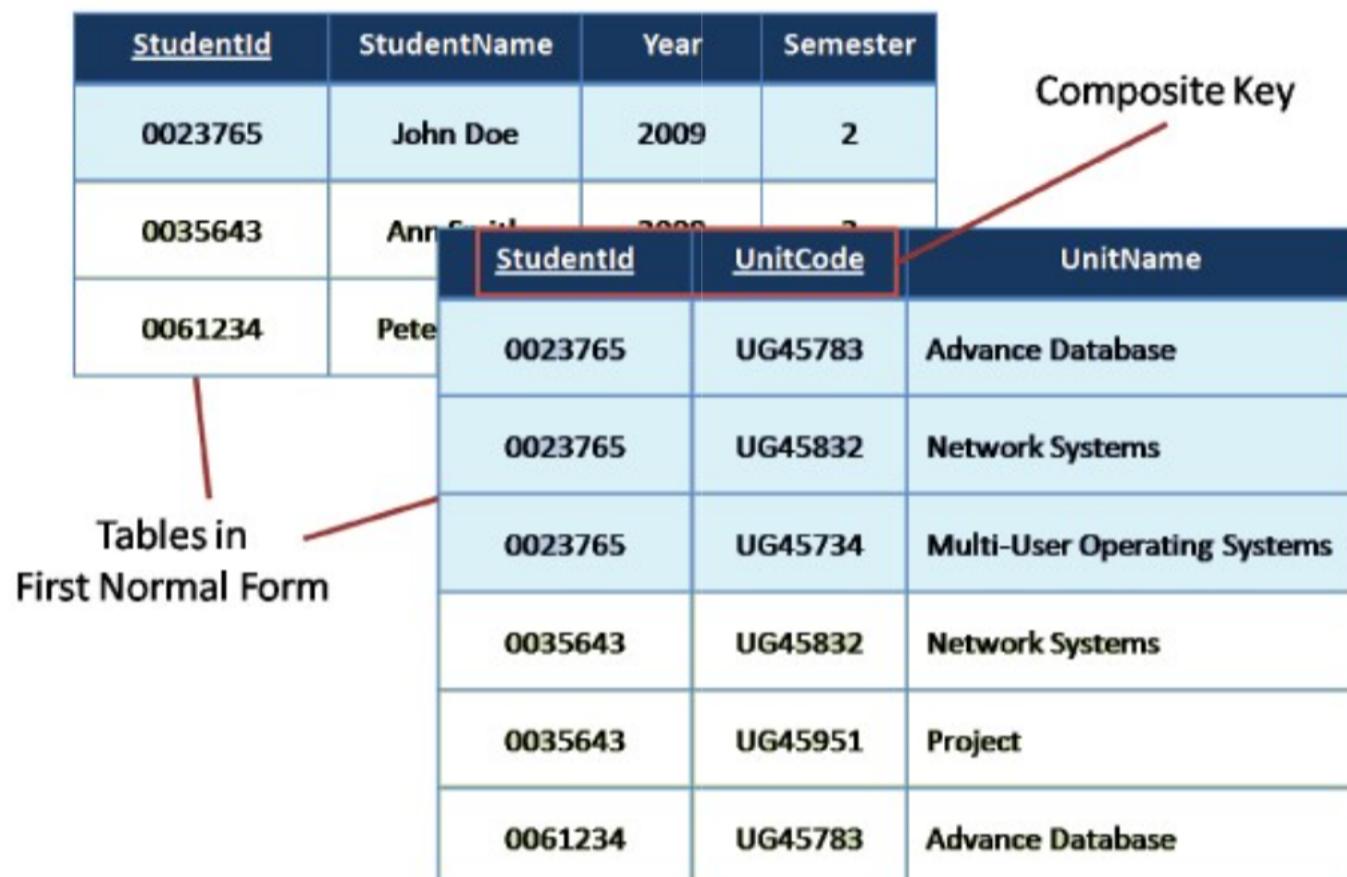
Student Id	First name of student	Last name of student	Course Id
123456	Jasmine	Shaik	001
123457	Rose	Mary	002
123458	Lily	Holmes	003



Secondary or Alternative keys

# Keys (cont.)

**Composite Key** has two or more properties which specially identifies the occur entity.



<u>StudentId</u>	<u>StudentName</u>	<u>Year</u>	<u>Semester</u>
0023765	John Doe	2009	2
0035643	Ann Smith	2009	2
0061234	Pete		

<u>StudentId</u>	<u>UnitCode</u>	<u>UnitName</u>
0023765	UG45783	Advance Database
0023765	UG45832	Network Systems
0023765	UG45734	Multi-User Operating Systems
0035643	UG45832	Network Systems
0035643	UG45951	Project
0061234	UG45783	Advance Database

# Keys (cont.)

- Foreign key creates a link between tables. It references the primary key of another table and links it.
- A foreign key can be a common key in two database table

Student		id	Fullname	Course_id	Phone_number
▶	1	Rachel Green	1	62998047	
	2	Monica Geller	1	1234567	
	3	Phoebe Buffay	2	6399136220	
	4	Joey Tribbiani	3	4595165911	
	5	Chandler Bing	2	2778421170	
	6	Ross Geller	4	8106608394	
	7	Brad Pitt	3	4197778741	

Foreign key

Primary key

Course		id	Title
1	Python	1	Python
2	Machine Learning	2	Machine Learning
3	Django	3	Django
4	AWS	4	AWS

# What is Normalization? 1NF, 2NF, 3NF and BCN

base normalization (or normalization) is the process of organizing attributes and tables (relations) of a relational database to minimize data redundancy and inconsistency.

UNF	1NF	2NF	3NF
All the attributes of the database are simply listed, without any sense of order or grouping.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>• It has an identifying key</li><li>• Each table cell should contain a single value.</li></ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>• It is in 1NF</li><li>• All non-key attributes are functionally dependent on the whole key (not part of the key)</li></ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>• It is in 2NF</li><li>• All non-key attributes are functionally dependent on a single attribute (candidate key)</li></ul>

# Normalization(Example)

## Normalised Form

Object Code	Project Title	Project Manager	Project Budget	Employee No.	Employee Name	Department No.	De Na
010	Pensions System	M Phillips	24500	S10001	A Smith	L004	
010	Pensions System	M Phillips	24500	S10030	L Jones	L023	
010	Pensions System	M Phillips	24500	S21010	P Lewis	L004	
045	Salaries System	H Martin	17400	S10010	B Jones	L004	
045	Salaries System	H Martin	17400	S10001	A Smith	L004	
045	Salaries System	H Martin	17400	S31002	T Gilbert	L028	
045	Salaries System	H Martin	17400	S13210	W Richards	L008	
064	HR System	K Lewis	12250	S31002	T Gilbert	L028	
064	HR System	K Lewis	12250	S21010	P Lewis	L004	
064	HR System	K Lewis	12250	S10034	B James	L009	
010	Pensions System	M Phillips	24500	S10001	A Smith	L004	
				S10030	L Jones	L023	
				S21010	P Lewis	L004	
045	Salaries System	H Martin	17400	S10010	B Jones	L004	
				S10001	A Smith	L004	
				S31002	T Gilbert	L028	
				S13210	W Richards	L008	
064	HR System	K Lewis	12250	S31002	T Gilbert	L028	
				S21010	P Lewis	L004	
				S10034	B James	L009	

# Normalization(Example)

## First Normal Form(1NF)

- > The rule is: remove any repeating attributes to a new table. The process is as follows:

Project Code	Project Title	Project Manager	Project Budget
PC010	Pensions System	M Phillips	24500
PC045	Salaries System	H Martin	17400
PC064	HR System	K Lewis	12250

Project Code	Employee No.	Employee Name	Department No.	Department Name	Hourly Rate
PC010	S10001	A Smith	L004	IT	22.0
PC010	S10030	L Jones	L023	Pensions	18.5
PC010	S21010	P Lewis	L004	IT	21.0
PC045	S10010	B Jones	L004	IT	21.7
PC045	S10001	A Smith	L004	IT	18.0
PC045	S31002	T Gilbert	L028	Database	25.5
PC045	S13210	W Richards	L008	Salary	17.0
PC064	S31002	T Gilbert	L028	Database	23.2
PC064	S21010	P Lewis	L004	IT	17.5
PC064	S10034	B James	L009	HR	16.5

Key

Depends on part of the key

# Normalization(Example)

## Second Normal Form(2NF)

- The rule is: remove any non-key attributes that only depend on part of the table.
- A transitive functional dependency is when changing a non-key column, might affect other non-key columns to change

	Project Title	Project Manager	Project Budget
	Pensions System	M Phillips	24500
	Salaries System	H Martin	17400
	HR System	K Lewis	12250

	Employee No.	Hourly Rate	Employee No.	Employee Name	Department No.	Department Name
	S10001	22.00	S10001	A Smith	L004	IT
	S10030	18.50	S10030	L Jones	L023	Pensions
	S21010	21.00	S21010	P Lewis	L004	IT
	S10010	21.75	S10010	B Jones	L004	IT
	S10001	18.00	S31002	T Gilbert	L028	Database
	S31002	25.50	S13210	W Richards	L008	Salary
	S13210	17.00	S10034	B James	L009	HR
	S31002	23.25				
	S21010	17.50				
	S10034	16.50				

(1) Change in Employee Name may change in Department Name

It is a transitive functional dependency

(2) Change  
Department

# Normalization(Example)

## Third Normal Form(3NF)

- The rule is: remove to a new table any non-key attributes that are more dependent on key attributes than the table key

**Project**

Project Code	Project Title	Project Manager	Project Budget
PC010	Pensions System	M Phillips	24500
PC045	Salaries System	H Martin	17400
PC064	HR System	K Lewis	12250

**Project Team**

Project Code	Employee No.	Hourly Rate
PC010	S10001	22.00
PC010	S10030	18.50
PC010	S21010	21.00
PC045	S10010	21.75
PC045	S10001	18.00
PC045	S31002	25.50
PC045	S13210	17.00
PC064	S31002	23.25
PC064	S21010	17.50
PC064	S10034	16.50

**Employee**

Employee No.	Employee Name	Department No. *
S10001	A Smith	L004
S10030	L Jones	L023
S21010	P Lewis	L004
S10010	B Jones	L004
S31002	T Gilbert	L023
S13210	W Richards	L008
S10034	B James	L000

Department No.	Department Name
L004	IT
L023	Pensions
L028	Database
L008	Salary
L009	HR

**Department**

**3NF: Non-Key Dependencies Removed**

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## BCNF (3.5)

BCNF (Boyce-Codd Normal Form) does **not allow dependencies attributes that belong to candidate keys**.

BCNF is a refinement of the third normal form in which it drops the key attribute from the 3rd normal form.

Example: following is 3NF but not BCNF, since

*Subject* column is a prime attribute and *professor* is a non-prime attribute, *Subject* is dependent on *professor* (since one professor teaches only one subject, but one subject may have two different professors.)

Primary key

student_id	subject
101	Java
101	C++
102	Java
103	C#
104	Java

# BCNF

For Example: From 3NF to BCNF.

	subject	professor
	Java	P.Java
	C++	P.Cpp
	Java	P.Java2
	C#	P.Chash
	Java	P.Java

**Student Table**

student\_id

101

101

and so on...



**Professor Table**

p\_id professor

1 P.Java

2 P.Cpp

and so on...

# MySQL Installation (cont)

## MySQL Installation

### ➤ For Windows

Refer to installation guide:

MySQL all required features installation on Windows.pdf

### ➤ For Macs

Refer to installation guide:

MySQL Server installation on MacOS.pdf

MySQL Workbench (UI) installation on MacOS.pdf

Or

Follow the instruction here:

<https://dev.mysql.com/doc/refman/8.0/en/osx-installation-pkg.html>

# Database Constraints

**SQL constraints** are used to specify rules for the data in a table. If there is any violation between the constraint and the data action, the action fails.

Constraints can be specified when the table is created (inside the CREATE TABLE statement) or after the table is created (inside the ALTER TABLE statement).

## Constraints can be defined in two ways

- o 1. The constraints can be specified immediately after the column definition (column-level definition).
- o 2. The constraints can be specified after all the columns are defined. This is called table-level definition.

## Types of constraints

- o A NOT NULL constraint
- o A unique key constraint (A unique constraint)
- o A primary key constraint
- o A foreign key constraint (referential constraint or a referential integrity constraint)

# Introduction to MySQL concepts (cont)

Example of constraints:

```
create table Student (
    id int PRIMARY KEY,
    Fullname varchar(5) NOT NULL,
    course_id int not null,
    phone_number CHAR(2) UNIQUE,
    FOREIGN KEY(course_id) REFERENCES course(:)
);
```

# Data types

Properly defining the fields in a table is important to the overall operation of your database. You use only the type and size of field you really need.

MySQL uses many different data types broken into three categories:

- **Numeric:** INT , FLOAT
- **Date and Time:** DATE , DATETIME
- **String Types:** CHAR, VARCHAR() , VARCHAR2, BLOB or TEXT

# Data types (cont.)

## Numeric

- **INT** – A normal-sized integer that can be signed or unsigned. If signed, the range is from -2147483648 to 2147483647. If unsigned, the allowable range is from 0 to 4294967295. You can specify a width of up to 11 digits.
- **FLOAT(M,D)** – A floating-point number that cannot be unsigned. You can define the display length (M) and the number of decimals (D). This is not required and can default to 10,2, where 2 is the number of decimals and 10 is the total number of digits (10 digits before the decimal point and 2 digits after the decimal point). Decimal precision can go to 24 places for a FLOAT.
- Ex: if you insert 999.00009 into a FLOAT(7,4) column, the approximate result is 999.0001.
- **DOUBLE(M,D)** – A double precision floating-point number that cannot be unsigned. You can define the display length (M) and the number of decimals (D). This is not required and will default to 16,4, where 4 is the number of decimals. Decimal precision can go to 17 places for a DOUBLE. REAL is a synonym for DOUBLE.
- **DECIMAL(M,D)** – An unpacked floating-point number that cannot be unsigned. It has packed and unpacked decimals, each decimal corresponds to one byte. Defining the display length (M) and the number of decimals (D) is required. NUMERIC is a synonym for DECIMAL.

# Data types (cont.)

## Date and Time

- **DATE** – A date in YYYY-MM-DD format, between 1000-01-01 and 9999-12-31. December 30th, 1973 would be stored as 1973-12-30.
- **DATETIME** – A date and time combination in YYYY-MM-DD HH:MM:SS format, between 1000-01-01 00:00:00 and 9999-12-31 23:59:59. For example, 3:30 in the afternoon on December 30th, 1973 would be stored as 1973-12-30 15:30:00.



# Data types (cont.)

## String types

- **CHAR(M)** – A fixed-length string between 1 and 255 characters in length (for example, CHAR(5)), right-padded with spaces to the specified length when stored. D is not required, but the default is 1.
- **VARCHAR(M)** – A variable-length string between 1 and 255 characters in length (for example, VARCHAR(25)). You must define a length when creating a VARCHAR/



# Sub Languages in MySQL

**DDL (Data Definition Language):** statements are used to define the database structure or schema

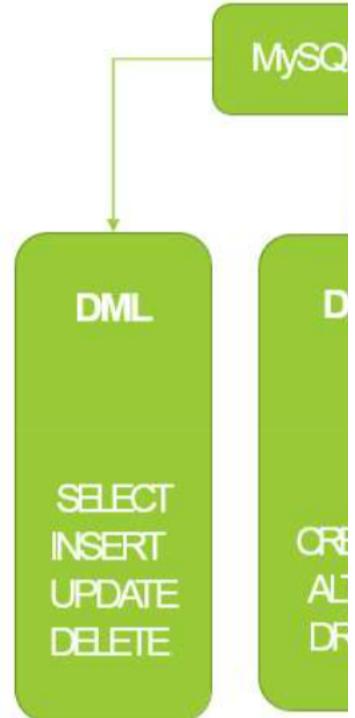
**DML (Data Manipulation Language):** statements are used for managing data within schema objects DML deals with data manipulation,

**DCL (Data Control Language):** DCL statements control the level of access that users have on database objects.

- **GRANT** – allows users to read/write on certain database objects
- **REVOKE** – keeps users from read/write permission on database objects

**TCL (Transaction Control Language):** statements allow you to control and manage transactions to maintain the integrity of data.

- **BEGIN Transaction** – opens a transaction
- **COMMIT Transaction** – commits a transaction
- **ROLLBACK Transaction** – ROLLBACK a transaction in case of any error



# DDL Queries

Data Definition Language (DDL) is a vocabulary used to define data structure

Data Definition Language understanding with database schemas and describes what should consist in the database, therefore language statements like [CREATE TABLE](#)

# DDL Queries - Create

```
CREATE DATABASE database_name
```

```
create database mySchool;
```

```
CREATE TABLE table_name  
(  
    column_name1 data_type(size),  
    column_name2 data_type(size),  
    column_name3 data_type(size),  
    ....  
)
```

```
create table student(  
    id int primary key,  
    fullname varchar(5) not null,  
    course_id int not null,  
    phone_number char(9) unique  
)
```

# DDL Queries - Alter

-TER statements are used to modify the definition of existing

ER {DATABASE | SCHEMA} [db\_name]  
EFAULT] CHARACTER SET [=] charset\_name  
EFAULT] COLLATE [=] collation\_name

ALTER TABLE table\_name  
MODIFY COLUMN column\_name da

```
:fault MySQL character set and collation
latin1, latin1_swedish_ci)
TER DATABASE mySchool
RACTER SET utf8
.LATE utf8_general_ci;
```

```
ALTER TABLE student
MODIFY COLUMN phone_number
```

# DDL Queries – Drop

use DROP statements to remove existing entities.

DROP DATABASE database\_name

DROP TABLE database\_name

DROP DATABASE mySchool;

DROP TABLE student;

# DDL Queries - Truncate

ate table

**ves all rows from a table** or specified  
ons of a table, without logging the  
ual row deletions. The TRUNCATE  
command is used to delete complete  
om an existing table.

TRUNCATE [TABLE] tbl\_

REMOVED FROM LOGFILE

**TRUNCATE TABLE**

an also use DROP TABLE command to  
complete table but it would remove  
ete table structure form the database  
ou would need to re-create this table  
again if you wish you store some data.

# Data Manipulation Language (DML) Statement

- statements are used to work with the data IN tables.
- statements affect records in a table:
  - > Selecting a few records from a table
  - > Inserting new records,
  - > Deleting unnecessary records,
  - > Updating/modifying existing records.

**SELECT** – Access data in database (limited form of DML not changing data)

**INSERT** – insert new records

**UPDATE** – update/Modify existing records

**DELETE** – delete existing records

# Data Manipulation Language (DML) Statement

Add one or more rows to a table or a view in database

**INSERT INTO** table\_name **VALUES** (value1, value2, value3...)

**INSERT INTO** table\_name (column2, column5,column6) **VALUES** (value1, value2, value3...)

**For example:**

**INSERT INTO** TraineeList **VALUES** (1, ‘John’ , ‘Smith’)

**INSERT INTO** TraineeList (FirstName,LastName) **VALUES** (‘Sara’ , ‘Wilson’)

# Data Manipulation Language (DML) Statement

**te:**

ges existing data in a table or view

```
UPDATE table_name SET  
column_name1 = new_value1,  
column_name2 = new value2  
WHERE some_column = some_value  
(condition)
```

**ple:**

```
UPDATE TraineeList SET FirstName = 'Philip' WHERE Trainee_ID = '
```

# Data Manipulation Language (DML) Statement

**DELETE** : Removes one or more rows from a table or view

- **DELETE \* FROM table\_name**
- **DELETE FROM table\_name WHERE some\_column = some\_value** (

Example:

- **DELETE FROM TraineeList WHERE FirstName = 'sara'**

# Differences between Truncate and Delete Statement

TRUNCATE	DELETE
is a <b>DDL command</b>	<b>DELETE</b> is a <b>DML command</b>
is executed using a table lock and <b>whole table is removed</b> . It removes all records.	DELETE is executed using a row lock, <b>each deletion</b> .
Rollback after performing Truncate.	We can Rollback after performing DELETE
removes all rows from a table. (We cannot use it with TRUNCATE.)	The DELETE command is used to <b>remove WHERE condition.</b> ( We can use where clause to delete specific records.)
ing in transaction log, so it is performance wise faster.	It maintains the log, so it is slower than TRUNCATE
TABLE removes the data by deallocated the data pages to store the table data and records only the page numbers in the transaction log.	The DELETE statement removes rows one by one in the transaction log for each deleted row.
Identity column is reset to its seed value if table contains any identity column.	Identity of column keep DELETE retain the value.
To use Delete you need ALTER permission on a table.	To use Delete you need DELETE permission on a table.
uses less transaction space than Delete statement. It cannot be used with indexed views	Delete uses more transaction space than TRUNCATE. Delete can be used with indexed views.
<b>TABLE can't activate a trigger</b> because the command does not log individual row deletions. When we run command to remove all rows of table then it actually removes any row, rather it deallocated the data pages. In fact triggers will not be fired because no modification has been made. We have just deallocated the data pages not deleted them.	<b>Delete activates a trigger</b> because the operation present. Delete is a DML command and it operates on basis of a table. Which means delete is fired from the table. Triggers are fired when a DML operation is performed on a table. So trigger will be fired in case of Delete.

# Basic query Statements

**SELECT :**

selects rows from the database and enables the selection of one or many rows from one or many tables in MySQL. The full syntax of the SELECT statement is as follows:

**SELECT** select\_list (\* | column\_name)

| table\_name

**FROM** search\_condition **GROUP BY** group\_by\_expression **HAVING** search\_condition  
**ORDER BY** order\_expression **ASC** | **DESC**

```
SELECT * FROM student;
```

# Query statements: Show, Help

: used to get more details about databases and tables.

Description	Command
List all databases on the sql server.	show databases;
To see all the tables in the db.	show tables;
Returns the columns and column information pertaining to the designated table.	show columns from [table name]

: The HELP statement returns online information from the MySQL Reference Manual.

Description	Command
Contents to retrieve a list of the top-level help categories	HELP ?
list of topics in a given help category, such as Data Types, use the category name:	HELP ?
Topic on a specific help topic, such as the ASCII() function or the CREATE TABLE statement, use the associated keyword or keywords:	HELP ?

# Data Control Language (DCL)

**GRANT:** Used to provide any user access privileges or other privileges for the

**SQL :** Data Control Language(DCL) is used to control privileges in Data  
ion in the database, such as for creating tables, sequences or views, a use

Create a user, then you can try to create new connection with this user and p

**CREATE USER 'thien'@'localhost' IDENTIFIED BY 'password';**

Examples of GRANT permission:

**GRANT ALL ON db1.\* TO 'thien'@'localhost';**

**GRANT SELECT, INSERT, DELETE, UPDATE ON student TO 'thien'@'1**

# Data Control Language (DCL)

**EVOKE:** Used to take back permissions from any user.

**DKE ALL PRIVILEGES, GRANT OPTION FROM user\_or\_role [, user\_or\_role]**  
**DKE 'role1', 'role2' FROM 'user1'@'localhost', 'user2'@'localhost';**

**xample:**

**DKE ALL PRIVILEGES, GRANT OPTION FROM 'thien'@'localhost';**

```
2 18:18:14 select *from student LIMIT 0, 1000
```

```
Code: 1142. SELECT command denied to user 'thien'@'localhost' for table 'student'
```

# Basic SQL – Where Clause

## Conditional Statements: WHERE Clause

It statements:

**WHERE Clause:** Specify an actual value as condition to filter the SELECT statement.

SELECT columnName FROM tableName WHERE condition;

Example:

	COUNTRY_ID	COUNTRY_NAME	REGION_ID
▶	C1	United State	1001
	C2	Canada	1002
	C3	Australia	1002

SELECT COUNTRY\_NAME FROM Countries WHERE REGION\_ID=1001;

	COUNTRY_NAME
▶	United State

# Basic SQL - Sorting

ing: When you select rows, the MySQL server is free to return them in any order it otherwise by saying how to sort the result.

**SELECT field1, field2,...fieldN table\_name1, table\_name2...**

**ORDER BY field1, [field2...]**

**[DESC]]**

- You can sort the returned result on any field, if that field is being listed.
- You can sort the result on more than one field.
- You can use the keyword ASC or DESC to get result in ascending or descending order, default, it's the ascending order.
- You can use the WHERE...LIKE clause in the usual way to put a condition on the result.

# Basic SQL: ORDER BY Example

	COUNTRY_ID	COUNTRY_NAME	REGION_ID
▶	C1	United State	1001
	C2	Canada	1002
	C3	Australia	1002

```
SELECT * FROM Countries ORDER BY COUNTRY_NAME;
```

COUNTRY_ID	COUNTRY_NAME	REGION_ID
C3	Australia	1002
C2	Canada	1002
C1	United State	1001

```
SELECT * FROM Countries ORDER BY COUNTRY_NAME DESC;
```

COUNTRY_ID	COUNTRY_NAME	REGION_ID
C1	United State	1001
C2	Canada	1002
C3	Australia	1002

# Basic SQL: Group BY Example

	COUNTRY_ID	COUNTRY_NAME	REGION_ID
▶	C1	United State	1001
	C4	Vietnam	NULL
	C5	Indonesia	NULL
	C2	England	1002
	C6	Brazil	1003
	C3	Netherland	1002
	C7	Poland	1004
	C8	Cananda	1001

```
select region_id, count(*) from countries group by region_id;
```

	region_id	count(*)
▶	1001	2
	NULL	2
	1002	2
	1003	1
	1004	1

# Logical Operators

SQL supports the following logical operations :

- AND(&&) Operator
- OR(||) Operator
- NOT(!) Operator

**SQL AND(&&) Operator :** The logical AND(&&) operator indicates whether the condition is true or false. Lets see a statement using AND operator.

```
mysql> select studid, name from student where marks > 80  
and marks < 100;  
                                              (or)  
mysql> select studid, name from student where marks > 80  
&& marks < 100;  
+-----+-----+  
| studid | name  |  
+-----+-----+  
|      4 | jack   |  
|      8 | mille  |  
+-----+-----+  
2 rows in set (0.00 sec)
```

In the above example it will list the studid and name of the student who have secured marks between 80 and less than 100.

# Logical Operators

## Logical OR(||) Operator :

Logical OR(||) operator indicates whether either operand is true. Lets see a simple example.

```
mysql> select name, marks, address from student where
name like 'a%' or name like 's%';
                                                     (or)
mysql> select name, marks, address from student where
name like 'a%' || name like 's%';
+-----+-----+-----+
| name | marks | address        |
+-----+-----+-----+
| steve |    100 | 5th cross street |
| anne  |    100 | downing street   |
| steve |     75 | downing street   |
| anne  |     80 | edinburgh        |
+-----+-----+-----+
4 rows in set (0.00 sec)
```

above statement it will list the name, marks and address of the student who has the letter A and S.

# Logical Operators

**NOT(!) Operator :** The logical NOT(!) operator have only one operand and it negates the value.

```
mysql> select * from student where not (studid=1);
          (or)
mysql> select * from student where ! (studid=1);
+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+
| studid | name  | marks | address        | phone   |
+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+
|      2 | david |    100 | welling street | 547896  |
|      4 | jack   |     82 | welling street | 2436821 |
|      5 | anne   |    100 | downing street | 2634821 |
|      6 | steve  |     75 | downing street | 2874698 |
|      7 | anne   |     80 | edinburgh      | 2569843 |
|      8 | mille  |     98 | victoria street| 1236547 |
+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+
6 rows in set (0.00 sec)
```

List all the student details except the studid 1.

# Comparison Operators

on operators are used in the WHERE clause to determine which records to select. Here that you can use in MySQL:

Comparison Operator	Description
=	Equal
<=>	Equal (Safe to compare NULL va
<>	Not Equal
!=	Not Equal
>	Greater Than
>=	Greater Than or Equal
<	Less Than
<=	Less Than or Equal
<a href="#"><u>IN ()</u></a>	Matches a value in a list
<a href="#"><u>NOT</u></a>	Negates a condition
<a href="#"><u>BETWEEN</u></a>	Within a range (inclusive)
<a href="#"><u>IS NULL</u></a>	NULL value
<a href="#"><u>IS NOT NULL</u></a>	Non-NULL value
<a href="#"><u>LIKE</u></a>	Pattern matching with % and _

# Comparison Operators: Equality Operator

In MySQL, you can use the = operator to test for equality in a query. The = operator compares equality with values that are not NULL.

**example:**

COUNTRY_ID	COUNTRY_NAME	REGION_ID
C1	United State	1001
C4	Vietnam	NULL
C5	Indonesia	NULL
C2	England	1002
C3	Germany	1002

```
SELECT * FROM Countries WHERE region_id = 1002;
```

COUNTRY_ID	COUNTRY_NAME	REGION_ID
C2	England	1002
C3	Germany	1002

# Comparison Operators: Inequality Operator

In SQL, you can use the `<>` or `!=` operators to test for inequality in a query. For example, we could test for inequality using the `<>` operator, as follows:

COUNTRY_ID	COUNTRY_NAME	REGION_ID
C1	United State	1001
C4	Vietnam	NULL
C5	Indonesia	NULL
C2	England	1002
C3	Germany	1002

```
* FROM Countries WHERE COUNTRY_NAME != 'England';
* FROM Countries WHERE COUNTRY_NAME <> 'England';
```

COUNTRY_ID	COUNTRY_NAME	REGION_ID
C1	United State	1001
C4	Vietnam	NULL
C5	Indonesia	NULL
C3	Germany	1002

Both of these queries would return the same results.

# Comparison Operators: Comparison Operator

can use the < operator in MySQL to test for an expression less than.

COUNTRY_ID	COUNTRY_NAME	REGION_ID
C1	United State	1001
C4	Vietnam	NULL
C5	Indonesia	NULL
C2	England	1002
C3	Germany	1002

```
SELECT * FROM Countries WHERE region_id < 1002;
```

COUNTRY_ID	COUNTRY_NAME	REGION_ID
C1	United State	1001

# Comparison Operators: IN Condition

SQL IN condition is used to help reduce the need to use multiple OR conditions in a WHERE clause. It can be used in SELECT, INSERT, UPDATE, or DELETE statement.

:

**expression IN (value1, value2, .... value\_n);**

**expression:** The value to test.

**value2, ... or value\_n:** These are the values to test against expression. If any one of the values matches expression, then the IN condition will evaluate to true. This is a query that returns all rows where any one of the values matches expression.

COUNTRY_ID	COUNTRY_NAME	REGION_ID
United State	1001	
Vietnam	NULL	
Indonesia	NULL	
England	1002	
Germany	1002	

SELECT * FROM Countries WHERE country_name in ('England', 'Germany')			
	COUNTRY_ID	COUNTRY_NAME	REGION_ID
▶	C5	Indonesia	NULL
	C2	England	1002
	C3	Germany	1002

SQL IN condition example would return all rows from the countries table where country name is either England, Germany or United State

# Comparison Operators: NOT

SQL NOT Condition (also called the NOT Operator) is used to negate a condition in a WHERE clause, INSERT, UPDATE, or DELETE statement.

## NOT condition

Example:

COUNTRY_ID	COUNTRY_NAME	REGION_ID
	United State	1001
	Vietnam	NULL
	Indonesia	NULL
	England	1002
	Germany	1002

```
SELECT * FROM Countries WHERE country_name NOT IN ('Eng')
```

	COUNTRY_ID	COUNTRY_NAME	REGION_ID
▶	C1	United State	1001
	C4	Vietnam	NULL

This SQL NOT example would return all rows from the country table where the country name is not Andrew, or Brad.

# Comparison Operators: BETWEEN Condition

SQL BETWEEN Condition is used to retrieve values within a range in a SELECT, UPDATE, or DELETE statement.

**expression BETWEEN value1 AND value2;**

**expression:** A column or calculation.

**value1 and value2:** These values create an inclusive range that expression is compared against.

**Example:**

COUNTRY_ID	COUNTRY_NAME	REGION_ID
United State	1001	
Vietnam		NONE
Indonesia		NONE
England	1002	
Germany	1002	
Brazil	1003	
France	1004	

SELECT \* FROM Countries WHERE region\_id BETWEEN 1002 AND 1003

	COUNTRY_ID	COUNTRY_NAME	REGION_ID
▶	C2	England	1002
	C3	Germany	1002
	C6	Brazil	1003

This SQL BETWEEN example would return all rows from the contacts table where id is between 1002 and 1003 (inclusive)

# Comparison Operators: IS NULL Condition

SQL IS NULL Condition is used to test for a NULL value in a SELECT, INSERT, or DELETE statement.

## expression IS NULL

**sion:** The value to test if it is a NULL value.

Look at an example of how to use MySQL IS NULL in a SELECT statement:

COUNTRY_ID	COUNTRY_NAME	REGION_ID
	United State	1001
	Vietnam	NULL
	Indonesia	NULL
	England	1002
	Germany	1002
	Brazil	1003
	France	1004

```
SELECT * FROM Countries WHERE r
```

	COUNTRY_ID	COUNTRY_NAME	REGION_ID
▶	C4	Vietnam	NULL
	C5	Indonesia	NULL

This SQL IS NULL example will return all records from the contacts table where address is a NULL value.

# Comparison Operators: IS NOT NULL

SQL IS NOT NULL condition is used to test for a NOT NULL value in a SELECT, or DELETE statement.

## expression IS NOT NULL

**sion:**The value to test if it is a not NULL value.

e - With SELECT Statement

an example of how to use the MySQL IS NOT NULL condition in a SELECT

COUNTRY_ID	COUNTRY_NAME	REGION_ID
	United State	1001
	Vietnam	NULL
	Indonesia	NULL
	England	1002
	Germany	1002
	Brazil	1003
	France	1004

```
SELECT * FROM Countries WHERE region_id
```

	COUNTRY_ID	COUNTRY_NAME	REGION_ID
▶	C1	United State	1001
	C2	England	1002
	C3	Germany	1002
	C6	Brazil	1003
	C7	France	1004

SQL IS NOT NULL example will return all records from the countries table id does not contain a null value.

# Comparison Operators: LIKE Condition

SQL LIKE operator is used in a WHERE clause to search for a specified pattern.

There are two wildcards often used in conjunction with the LIKE operator:

Wildcard	Explanation
%	Allows you to match any string of any length (including zero length)
_	Allows you to match on a single character

# Comparison Operators: LIKE Condition

examples of using like operator

Operator	Description
RE CustomerName LIKE 'a%'	Finds any values that start with "a"
RE CustomerName LIKE '%a'	Finds any values that end with "a"
RE CustomerName LIKE '%or%'	Finds any values that have "or" in any position
RE CustomerName LIKE '_r%'	Finds any values that have "r" in the second position
RE CustomerName LIKE 'a_%_%'	Finds any values that start with "a" and are at least 3 characters long
RE ContactName LIKE 'a%oo'	Finds any values that start with "a" and ends with "o"

# Comparison Operators: LIKE Condition

Example: Display all country names that ends with land

COUNTRY_ID	COUNTRY_NAME	REGION_ID
C1	United State	1001
C4	Vietnam	NULL
C5	Indonesia	NULL
C2	England	1002
C6	Brazil	1003
C3	Netherland	1002
C7	Poland	1004

```
SELECT * FROM Countries WHERE country_name LIKE '%land'
```

	COUNTRY_ID	COUNTRY_NAME	REGION_ID
▶	C2	England	1002
	C3	Netherland	1002
	C7	Poland	1004

# Joins

SQL joins are used to combine columns from two or more tables based on a common field between them.

## Types of Joins:

Inner join

Outer join

- Left outer join
- Right outer join
- Full outer join

Cross join

Self join

# Joins - Types of Joins:

1

INNER JOIN keyword selects all rows from both tables as long as there is a match between the columns in both tables.

Left join

Left outer join: LEFT JOIN keyword returns all rows from the left table (table1), with the matching rows in the right table (table2). The result is NULL in the right side when there is no match.

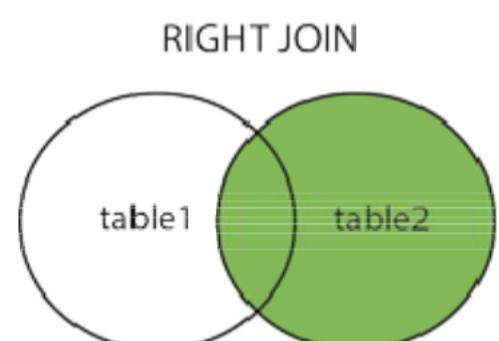
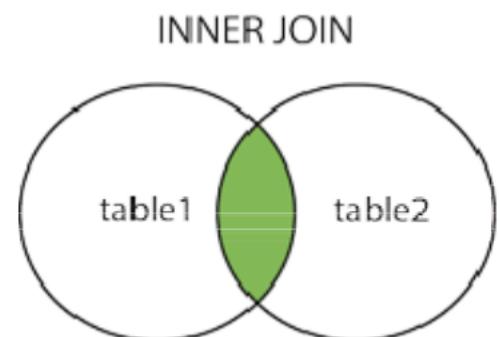
Right outer join: RIGHT JOIN keyword returns all rows from the right table (table2), with the matching rows in the left table (table1). The result is NULL in the left side when there is no match.

Full outer join : The FULL OUTER JOIN keyword returns all rows from the left table (table1) and from the right table (table2).

The FULL OUTER JOIN keyword combines the result of LEFT and RIGHT joins

Join

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# Joins - Sample Table

**Employee table**

Last Name	Department ID
Hardy	31
Sawyer	33
Wennergren	33
Sanson	34
Wicks	34
Wams	NULL

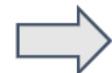
**Department table**

Department ID	Department Name
31	Sales
33	Engineering
34	Customer Service
35	Marketing

# Joins - Inner Join

table

Name	DepartmentID
	31
	33
	33
	34
	34
	NULL



```
SELECT E.Lastname, E.DepartmentID, D.DepartmentName  
FROM employee E  
INNER JOIN department D  
ON E.DepartmentID = D.DepartmentID;
```



table

DepartmentID	DepartmentName
	Sales
	Engineering
	Clerical
	Marketing

Employee.LastName	Employee.DepartmentID	DepartmentName
Robinson	34	Clerical
Jones	33	Engineering
Smith	34	Clerical
Heisenberg	33	Engineering
Rafferty	31	Sales

# Joins - Left Outer Join

Employee table

LastName	DepartmentID
Jones	31
Rafferty	33
Robinson	33
Smith	34
Williams	34
Heisenberg	NULL



```
SELECT * FROM employee E
LEFT OUTER JOIN Department D
ON E.DepartmentID = D.DepartmentID;
```



Department table

DepartmentID	DepartmentName
Sales	Sales
Engineering	Engineering
Clerical	Clerical
Marketing	Marketing

Employee.LastName	Employee.DepartmentID	Department
Jones	33	Engineering
Rafferty	31	Sales
Robinson	34	Clerical
Smith	34	Clerical
Williams	NULL	NULL
Heisenberg	33	Engineering

# Joins - Right Outer Join

table

Name	DepartmentID
	31
	33
	33
	34
	34
	NULL



```
SELECT *
FROM employee
RIGHT OUTER JOIN department
ON employee.DepartmentID = department.DepartmentID
```



table

DepartmentID	DepartmentName
	Sales
	Engineering
	Clerical
	Marketing

Employee.LastName	Employee.DepartmentID	Department.DepName
Smith	34	Clerical
Jones	33	Engineering
Robinson	34	Clerical
Heisenberg	33	Engineering
Rafferty	31	Sales
NULL	NULL	Marketing

# Joins - Full Outer Join

table

Name	DepartmentID
	31
	33
	33
	34
	34
	NULL



#Only work on SQL (use union left and right joins in MySQL)

**SELECT \* FROM employee  
FULL OUTER JOIN department  
ON employee.DepartmentID = department.DepartmentID**



table

DepartmentID	DepartmentName
	Sales
	Engineering
	Clerical
	Marketing

Employee.LastName	Employee.DepartmentID	Department.DepartmentName
Smith	34	Clerical
Jones	33	Engineering
Robinson	34	Clerical
Williams	NULL	NULL
Heisenberg	33	Engineering
Rafferty	31	Sales
NULL	NULL	Marketing

# Joins - CROSS JOIN

Is the Cartesian product of rows from tables join. In other words, it produce rows which combine each row from the first table with each row from second table

**SELECT \* FROM employee  
CROSS JOIN department;**

Employee.LastName	Employee.DepartmentID	Department.DName
Rafferty	31	Sales
Jones	33	Sales
Heisenberg	33	Sales
Smith	34	Sales
Robinson	34	Sales
Williams	NULL	Sales
Rafferty	31	Engineering
Jones	33	Engineering
Heisenberg	33	Engineering
Smith	34	Engineering
Robinson	34	Engineering
Williams	NULL	Engineering
Rafferty	31	Clerical
Jones	33	Clerical
Heisenberg	33	Clerical
Smith	34	Clerical
Robinson	34	Clerical
Williams	NULL	Clerical
Rafferty	31	Marketing
Jones	33	Marketing
Heisenberg	33	Marketing
Smith	34	Marketing
Robinson	34	Marketing
Williams	NULL	Marketing

# Joins - Self Join

Self-join is joining a table to itself

fullname	date of join	supervisor
Nick Fury	2008-05-02	NULL
Tony Stark	2008-05-02	1
Bruce Banner	2008-06-13	1
Peter Parker	2017-07-07	2
Steve Rogers	2012-05-04	1
Bucky Barnes	2012-05-04	5
Sam Wilson	2014-04-04	5

```
select A.id,A.fullname,B.id as Supervisor_ID
from employee2 A, employee2 B
where A.supervisor = B.id;
```



id	fullname	Supervisor_ID	fullname
2	Tony Stark	1	Nick Fury
3	Bruce Banner	1	Nick Fury
5	Steve Rogers	1	Nick Fury
4	Peter Parker	2	Tony Stark
6	Bucky Barnes	5	Steve Rogers
7	Sam Wilson	5	Steve Rogers

# Q&A

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