Oracle Database 10*g*: SQL Fundamentals I

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Additional Practices: Table Descriptions and Data

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Preface

Profile

Before You Begin This Course

Before you begin this course, you should be able to use a graphical user interface (GUI). The prerequisite is a familiarity with data processing concepts and techniques.

How This Course Is Organized

Oracle Database 10g: SQL Fundamentals I is an instructor-led course featuring lectures and hands-on exercises. Online demonstrations and written practice sessions reinforce the concepts and skills that are introduced.

Related Publications

Oracle Publications

Title	Part Number
Oracle® Database Reference 10g Release 2 (10.2)	B14237-02
Oracle® Database SQL Reference 10g Release 2 (10.2)	B14200-02
Oracle® Database Concepts 10g Release 2 (10.2)	B14220-02
Oracle® Database Application Developer's Guide -	
Fundamentals 10g Release 2 (10.2)	B14251-01
SQL*Plus® User's Guide and Reference	B14357-01

Additional Publications

- System release bulletins
- Installation and user's guides
- read.me files
- International Oracle User's Group (IOUG) articles
- Oracle Magazine

Typographic Conventions

What follows are two lists of typographical conventions that are used specifically within text or within code.

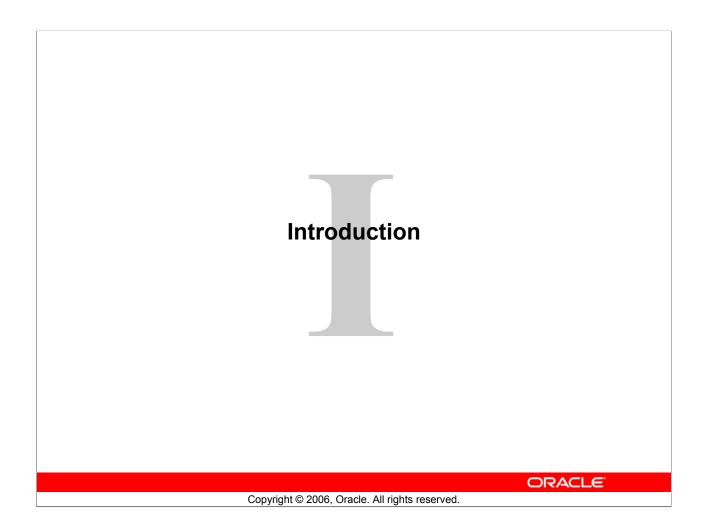
Typographic Conventions Within Text

Convention	Object or Term	Example	
Uppercase	Commands, functions, column names, table names, PL/SQL objects, schemas	Use the SELECT command to view information stored in the LAST_NAME column of the EMPLOYEES table.	
Lowercase, italic	Filenames, syntax variables, usernames, passwords	where: role is the name of the role to be created.	
Initial cap	Trigger and button names	Assign a When-Validate-Item trigger to the ORD block.	
		Choose Cancel.	
Italic	Books, names of courses and manuals, and emphasized	For more information on the subject see Oracle SQL Reference Manual	
	words or phrases	Do <i>not</i> save changes to the database.	
Quotation marks	Lesson module titles referenced within a course	This subject is covered in Lesson 3, "Working with Objects."	

Typographic Conventions (continued)

Typographic Conventions Within Code

Convention	Object or Term	Example
Uppercase	Commands, functions	<pre>SELECT employee_id FROM employees;</pre>
Lowercase, italic	Syntax variables	CREATE ROLE role;
Initial cap	Forms triggers	Form module: ORD Trigger level: S_ITEM.QUANTITY item Trigger name: When-Validate-Item
Lowercase	Column names, table names, filenames, PL/SQL objects	OG_ACTIVATE_LAYER (OG_GET_LAYER ('prod_pie_layer')) SELECT last_name FROM employees;
Bold	Text that must be entered by a user	CREATE USER scott



Lesson Objectives

After completing this lesson, you should be able to do the following:

- List the features of Oracle10g
- Discuss the theoretical and physical aspects of a relational database
- Describe the Oracle implementation of RDBMS and ORDBMS
- Understand the goals of the course

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Objectives

In this lesson, you gain an understanding of the relational database management system (RDBMS) and the object relational database management system (ORDBMS). You are also introduced to the following:

- SQL statements that are specific to Oracle
- *i*SQL*Plus, which is an environment used for executing SQL statements and for formatting and reporting purposes

Goals of the Course

After completing this course, you should be able to do the following:

- Identify the major structural components of Oracle Database 10g
- Retrieve row and column data from tables with the SELECT statement
- Create reports of sorted and restricted data
- Employ SQL functions to generate and retrieve customized data
- Run data manipulation language (DML) statements to update data in Oracle Database 10g
- Obtain metadata by querying the dictionary views

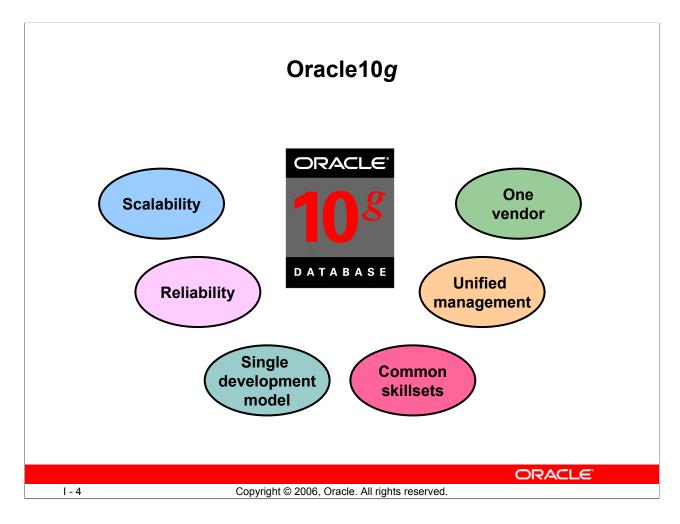
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Goals of the Course

This course offers you an introduction to Oracle Database 10g database technology. In this class, you learn the basic concepts of relational databases and the powerful SQL programming language. This course provides the essential SQL skills that enable you to write queries against single and multiple tables, manipulate data in tables, create database objects, and query metadata



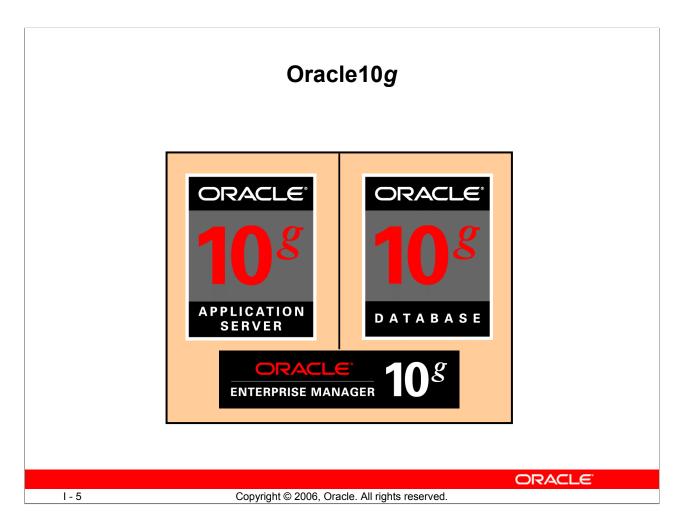
Oracle10g Features

The Oracle 10g release offers a comprehensive high-performance infrastructure, including:

- Scalability from departments to enterprise e-business sites
- Robust, reliable, available, and secure architecture
- One development model; easy deployment options
- Leverage an organization's current skillset throughout the Oracle platform (including SQL, PL/SQL, Java, and XML)
- One management interface for all applications
- Industry-standard technologies; no proprietary lock-in

In addition to providing the benefits listed above, the Oracle10g release contains the database for the grid. Grid computing can dramatically lower the cost of computing, extend the availability of computing resources, and deliver higher productivity and quality.

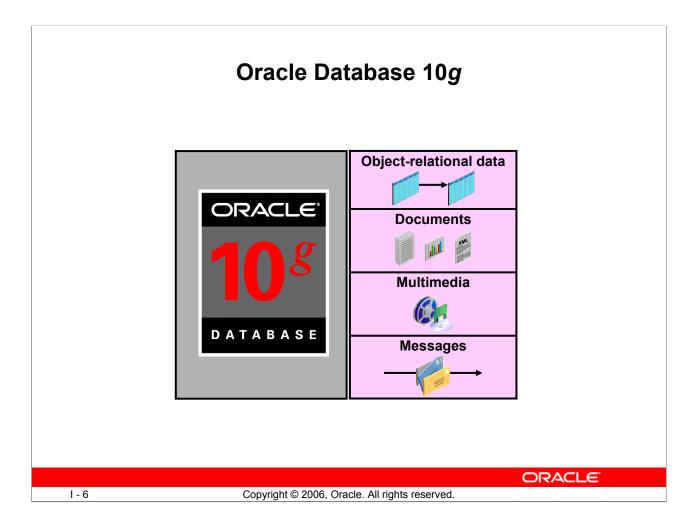
The basic idea of grid computing is the notion of computing as a utility, analogous to the electric power grid or the telephone network. As a client of the grid, you do not care where your data is or where your computation is done. You want to have your computation done and to have your information delivered to you when you want it. From the server side, grid is about virtualization and provisioning. You pool all your resources together and provision these resources dynamically based on the needs of your business, thus achieving better resource utilization at the same time.



Oracle10g

The three grid-infrastructure products of the Oracle10g release are:

- Oracle Database 10g
- Oracle Application Server 10g
- Oracle Enterprise Manager 10g Grid Control



Oracle Database 10g

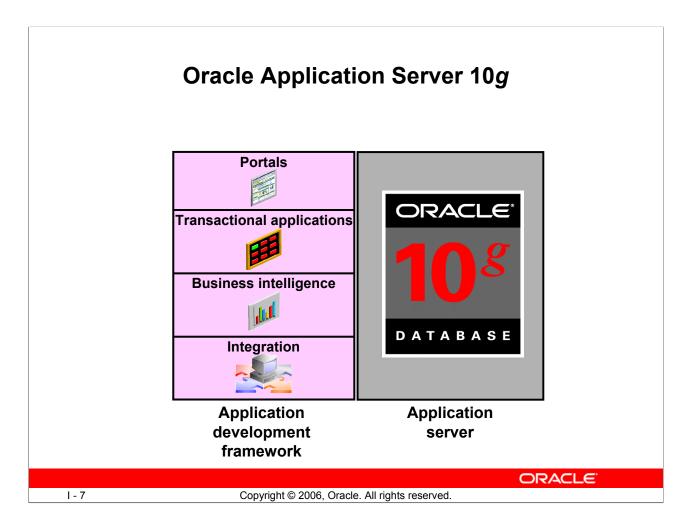
Oracle Database 10g is designed to store and manage enterprise information. Oracle Database 10g cuts management costs and provides a high quality of service. Reduced configuration and management requirements and automatic SQL tuning have significantly reduced the cost of maintaining the environment.

Oracle Database 10g contributes to the grid-infrastructure products of the Oracle 10g release. Grid computing is all about computing as a utility. If you are a client, you need not know where your data resides and which computer stores it. You should be able to request information or computation on your data and have it delivered to you.

Oracle Database 10g manages all your data. This is not just the object-relational data that you expect an enterprise database to manage. It can also be unstructured data such as:

- Spreadsheets
- Word documents
- PowerPoint presentations
- XML
- Multimedia data types like MP3, graphics, video, and more

The data does not even have to be in the database. Oracle Database 10g has services through which you can store metadata about information stored in file systems. You can use the database server to manage and serve information wherever it is located.



Oracle Application Server 10g

Oracle Application Server 10*g* provides a complete infrastructure platform for developing and deploying enterprise applications, integrating many functions including a J2EE and Web services run-time environment, an enterprise portal, an enterprise integration broker, business intelligence, Web caching, and identity management services.

Oracle Application Server 10g adds new grid computing features, building on the success of Oracle9i Application Server, which has hundreds of customers running production enterprise applications.

Oracle Application Server 10g is the only application server to include services for all the different server applications that you might want to run, including:

- Portals or Web sites
- Java transactional applications
- Business intelligence applications

It also provides integration among users, applications, and data throughout your organization.

Oracle Enterprise Manager 10*g*Grid Control

- Software provisioning
- Application service level monitoring



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Oracle Enterprise Manager 10g Grid Control

Oracle Enterprise Manager 10g Grid Control is the complete, integrated, central management console and underlying framework that automates administrative tasks across sets of systems in a grid environment. With Oracle Grid Control, you can group multiple hardware nodes, databases, application servers, and other targets into single logical entities. By executing jobs, enforcing standard policies, monitoring performance, and automating many other tasks across a group of targets instead of on many systems individually, Grid Control enables scaling with a growing grid.

Software Provisioning

With Grid Control, Oracle 10g automates installation, configuration, and cloning of Application Server 10g and Database 10g across multiples nodes. Oracle Enterprise Manager provides a common framework for software provisioning and management, enabling administrators to create, configure, deploy, and utilize new servers with new instances of the application server and database as they are needed.

Application Service Level Monitoring

Oracle Grid Control views the availability and performance of the grid infrastructure as a unified whole, as a user would experience it, rather than as isolated storage units, processing boxes, databases, and application servers.

Relational and Object Relational Database Management Systems

- Relational model and object relational model
- User-defined data types and objects
- Fully compatible with relational database
- Support of multimedia and large objects
- High-quality database server features

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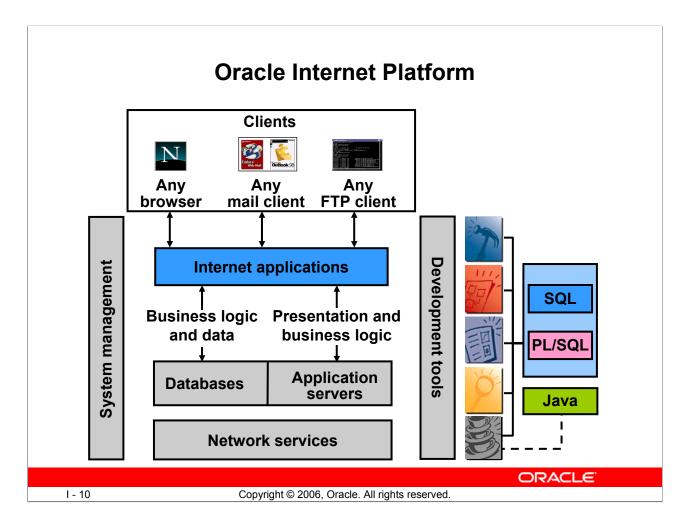
About the Oracle Server

The Oracle server supports both the relational and object relational models.

The Oracle server extends the data-modeling capabilities to support an object relational database model that brings object-oriented programming, complex data types, complex business objects, and full compatibility with the relational world.

It includes several features for improved performance and functionality of online transaction processing (OLTP) applications, such as better sharing of run-time data structures, larger buffer caches, and deferrable constraints. Data warehouse applications benefit from enhancements such as parallel execution of insert, update, and delete operations; partitioning; and parallel-aware query optimization. Operating within the Network Computing Architecture (NCA) framework, the Oracle model supports client/server and Web-based applications that are distributed and multitiered.

For more information about the relational and object relational model, see the *Database Concepts* manual.



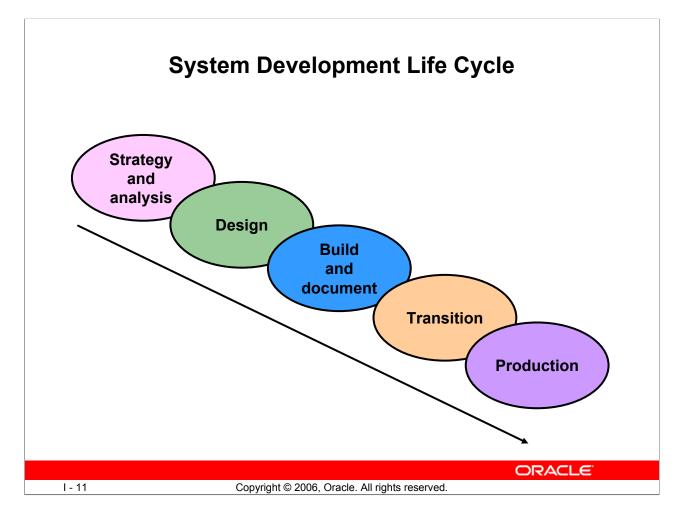
Oracle Internet Platform

To develop an e-commerce application, you need a product that can store and manage the data, a product that can provide a run-time environment for your applications implementing business logic, and a product that can monitor and diagnose the application after it is integrated. The Oracle 10g products provide all the necessary components to develop your application.

Oracle offers a comprehensive high-performance Internet platform for e-commerce and data warehousing. The integrated Oracle Internet Platform includes everything needed to develop, deploy, and manage Internet applications, including these three core pieces:

- Browser-based clients to process presentation
- Application servers to execute business logic and serve presentation logic to browser-based clients
- Databases to execute database-intensive business logic and serve data

Oracle offers a wide variety of the most advanced graphical user interface (GUI)—driven development tools to build business applications, as well as a large suite of software applications for many areas of business and industry. Oracle Developer Suite includes tools to develop forms and reports and to build data warehouses. Stored procedures, functions, and packages can be written using SQL, PL/SQL, or Java.



System Development Life Cycle

From concept to production, you can develop a database by using the system-development life cycle, which contains multiple stages of development. This top-down, systematic approach to database development transforms business information requirements into an operational database.

Strategy and Analysis Phase

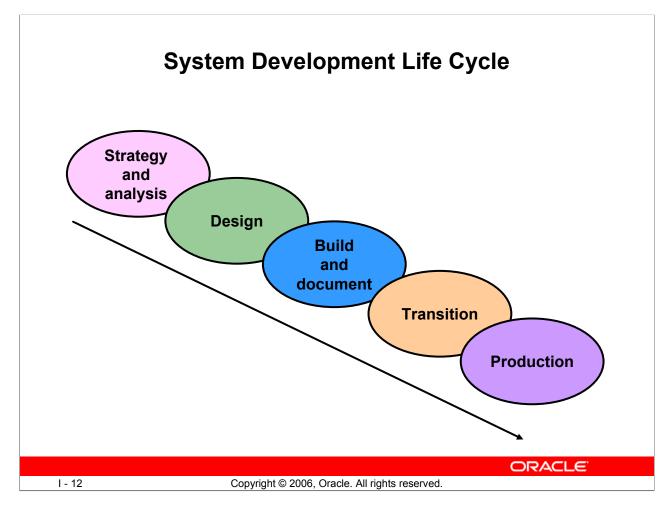
- Study and analyze the business requirements. Interview users and managers to identify the information requirements. Incorporate the enterprise and application mission statements as well as any future system specifications.
- Build models of the system. Transfer the business narrative into a graphical representation of business information needs and rules. Confirm and refine the model with the analysts and experts.

Design Phase

Design the database based on the model developed in the strategy and analysis phase.

Build and Documentation Phase

- Build the prototype system. Write and execute the commands to create the tables and supporting objects for the database.
- Develop user documentation, help text, and operations manuals to support the use and operation of the system.



System Development Life Cycle (continued)

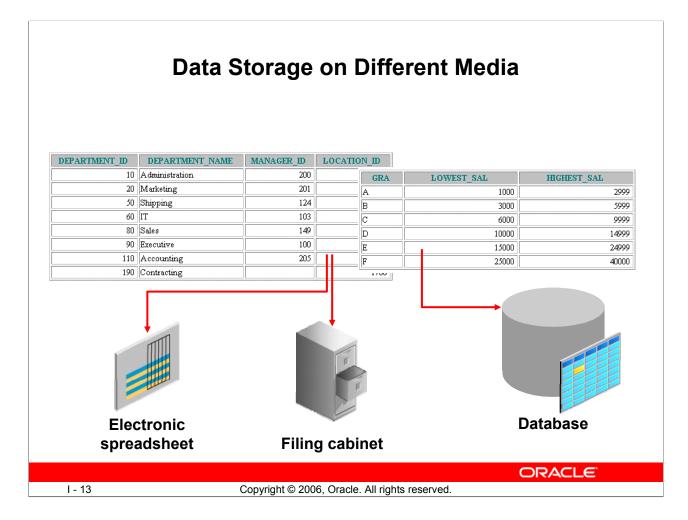
Transition Phase

Refine the prototype. Move an application into production with user-acceptance testing, conversion of existing data, and parallel operations. Make any modifications required.

Production Phase

Roll out the system to the users. Operate the production system. Monitor its performance, and enhance and refine the system.

Note: The various phases of the system development life cycle can be carried out iteratively. This course focuses on the Build phase of the system development life cycle.



Storing Information

Every organization has some information needs. A library keeps a list of members, books, due dates, and fines. A company needs to save information about employees, departments, and salaries. These pieces of information are called *data*.

Organizations can store data on various media and in different formats, such as a hard-copy document in a filing cabinet or data stored in electronic spreadsheets or in databases.

A *database* is an organized collection of information.

To manage databases, you need a database management system (DBMS). A DBMS is a program that stores, retrieves, and modifies data in databases on request. There are four main types of databases: *hierarchical*, *network*, *relational*, and (most recently) *object relational*.

Relational Database Concept

- Dr. E. F. Codd proposed the relational model for database systems in 1970.
- It is the basis for the relational database management system (RDBMS).
- The relational model consists of the following:
 - Collection of objects or relations
 - Set of operators to act on the relations
 - Data integrity for accuracy and consistency

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Relational Model

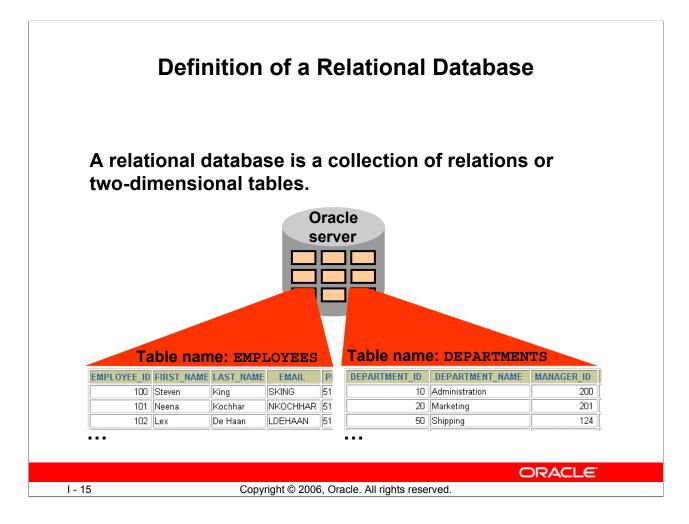
The principles of the relational model were first outlined by Dr. E. F. Codd in a June 1970 paper titled "A Relational Model of Data for Large Shared Data Banks." In this paper, Dr. Codd proposed the relational model for database systems.

The common models used at that time were hierarchical and network, or even simple flat-file data structures. Relational database management systems (RDBMS) soon became very popular, especially for their ease of use and flexibility in structure. In addition, a number of innovative vendors, such as Oracle, supplemented the RDBMS with a suite of powerful application development and user products, providing a total solution.

Components of the Relational Model

- Collections of objects or relations that store the data
- A set of operators that can act on the relations to produce other relations
- Data integrity for accuracy and consistency

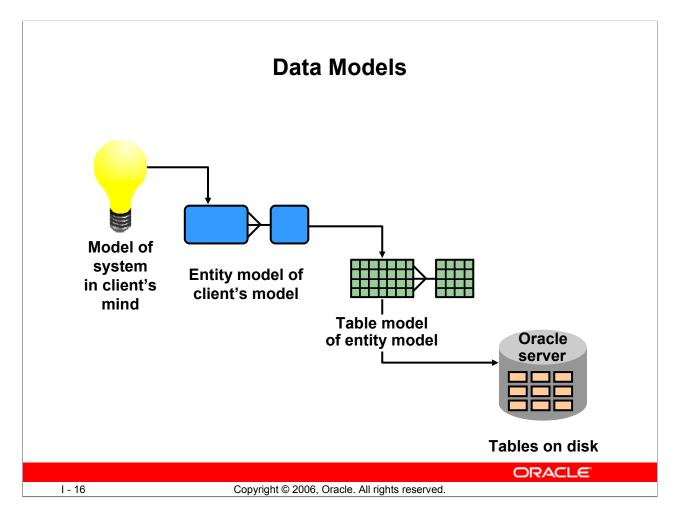
For more information, see *An Introduction to Database Systems, Eighth Edition* (Addison-Wesley: 2004), written by Chris Date.



Definition of a Relational Database

A relational database uses relations or two-dimensional tables to store information.

For example, you might want to store information about all the employees in your company. In a relational database, you create several tables to store different pieces of information about your employees, such as an employee table, a department table, and a salary table.



Data Models

Models are a cornerstone of design. Engineers build a model of a car to work out any details before putting it into production. In the same manner, system designers develop models to explore ideas and improve the understanding of database design.

Purpose of Models

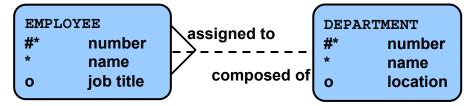
Models help communicate the concepts that are in people's minds. They can be used to do the following:

- Communicate
- Categorize
- Describe
- Specify
- Investigate
- Evolve
- Analyze
- Imitate

The objective is to produce a model that fits a multitude of these uses, can be understood by an end user, and contains sufficient detail for a developer to build a database system.

Entity Relationship Model

 Create an entity relationship diagram from business specifications or narratives:



- Scenario
 - "... Assign one or more employees to a department..."
 - "... Some departments do not yet have assigned employees..."

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ER Modeling

In an effective system, data is divided into discrete categories or entities. An entity relationship (ER) model is an illustration of various entities in a business and the relationships among them. An ER model is derived from business specifications or narratives and built during the analysis phase of the system development life cycle. ER models separate the information required by a business from the activities performed within a business. Although businesses can change their activities, the type of information tends to remain constant. Therefore, the data structures also tend to be constant.

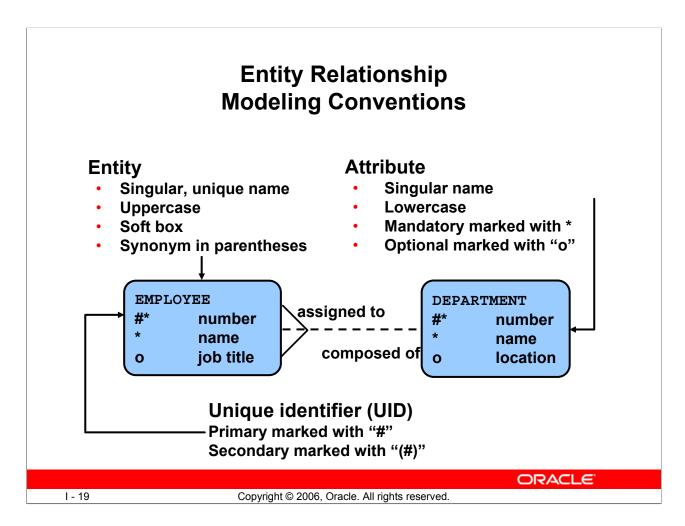
ER Modeling (continued)

Benefits of ER Modeling

- Documents information for the organization in a clear, precise format
- Provides a clear picture of the scope of the information requirement
- Provides an easily understood pictorial map for database design
- Offers an effective framework for integrating multiple applications

Key Components

- **Entity:** A thing of significance about which information needs to be known. Examples are departments, employees, and orders.
- **Attribute:** Something that describes or qualifies an entity. For example, for the employee entity, the attributes would be the employee number, name, job title, hire date, department number, and so on. Each of the attributes is either required or optional. This state is called *optionality*.
- **Relationship:** A named association between entities showing optionality and degree. Examples are employees and departments, and orders and items.



ER Modeling Conventions

Entities

To represent an entity in a model, use the following conventions:

- Singular, unique entity name
- Entity name in uppercase
- Soft box
- Optional synonym names in uppercase within parentheses: ()

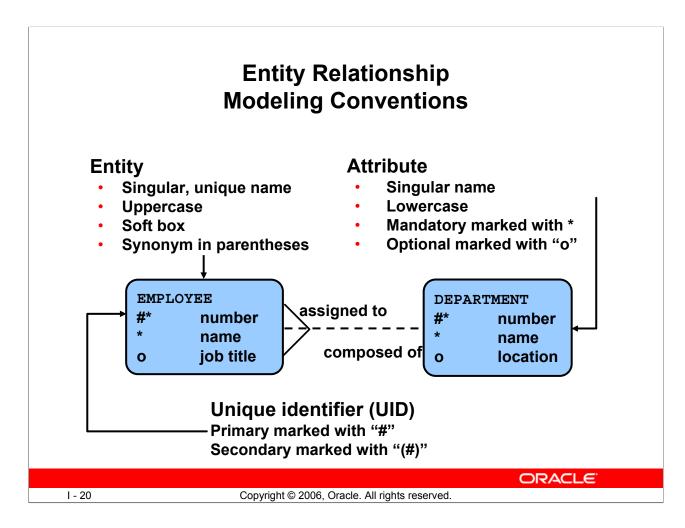
Attributes

To represent an attribute in a model, use the following conventions:

- Singular name in lowercase
- Asterisk (*) tag for mandatory attributes (that is, values that *must* be known)
- Letter "o" tag for optional attributes (that is, values that *may* be known)

Relationships

Symbol	Description
Dashed line	Optional element indicating "maybe"
Solid line	Mandatory element indicating "must be"
Crow's foot	Degree element indicating "one or more"
Single line	Degree element indicating "one and only one"



ER Modeling Conventions (continued)

Relationships

Each direction of the relationship contains:

- A label: for example, taught by or assigned to
- An optionality: either *must be* or *maybe*
- A degree: either one and only one or one or more

Note: The term *cardinality* is a synonym for the term *degree*.

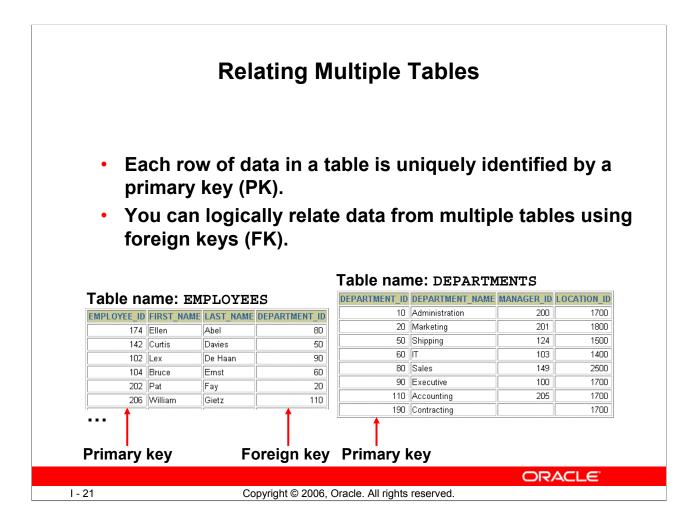
Each source entity {may be | must be} relationship name {one and only one | one or more} destination entity.

Note: The convention is to read clockwise.

Unique Identifiers

A unique identifier (UID) is any combination of attributes or relationships, or both, that serves to distinguish occurrences of an entity. Each entity occurrence must be uniquely identifiable.

- Tag each attribute that is part of the UID with a number sign: #
- Tag secondary UIDs with a number sign in parentheses: (#)



Relating Multiple Tables

Each table contains data that describes exactly one entity. For example, the EMPLOYEES table contains information about employees. Categories of data are listed across the top of each table, and individual cases are listed below. Using a table format, you can readily visualize, understand, and use information.

Because data about different entities is stored in different tables, you may need to combine two or more tables to answer a particular question. For example, you may want to know the location of the department where an employee works. In this scenario, you need information from the EMPLOYEES table (which contains data about employees) and the DEPARTMENTS table (which contains information about departments). With an RDBMS, you can relate the data in one table to the data in another by using the foreign keys. A foreign key is a column (or a set of columns) that refers to a primary key in the same table or another table.

You can use the ability to relate data in one table to data in another to organize information in separate, manageable units. Employee data can be kept logically distinct from department data by storing it in a separate table.

Relating Multiple Tables (continued)

Guidelines for Primary Keys and Foreign Keys

- You cannot use duplicate values in a primary key.
- Primary keys generally cannot be changed.
- Foreign keys are based on data values and are purely logical (not physical) pointers.
- A foreign key value must match an existing primary key value or unique key value, or else it must be null.
- A foreign key must reference either a primary key or a unique key column.

(2)	Rela	ationa	I Data	bas	e Termir	nology	
	EMPLOYEE_ID	LAST_NAME	FIRST_NAME	SALARY	COMMISSION_PCT	DEPARTMENT_ID	
	100	King	Steven	24000		90	
	101	Kochhar	Neena	17000		90	
	102	De Haan	Lex	17000		90	(5)
	103	Hunold	Alexander	9000		60	
	104	Ernst	Bruce	6000		60	
	107	Lorentz	Diana	4200	(6)	60	
	124	Mourgos	Kevin	5800		50	
	141	Rajs	Trenna	3500		50	
	142	Davies	Curtis	3100		50	
	143	Matos	Randall	2600		50	
	144	Vargas	Peter	2500		50	
	149	Zlotkey	Eleni	10500	.2	80	
		Abel	Ellen	11000	.3	80	
	176	Taylor	Jonathon	8600	.2	80	
		Grant	Kimberely	7000	.15		
	200	Whalen	Jennifer	4400		10	
(1)	201	Hartstein	Michael	13000		20	
	202	Fay	Pat	6000		20	
		Higgins	Shelley	12000		110	
	206	Gietz	William	8300		110	
						O	RACLE"
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Terminology Used in a Relational Database

A relational database can contain one or many tables. A *table* is the basic storage structure of an RDBMS. A table holds all the data necessary about something in the real world, such as employees, invoices, or customers.

The slide shows the contents of the EMPLOYEES *table* or *relation*. The numbers indicate the following:

- 1. A single *row* (or *tuple*) representing all data required for a particular employee. Each row in a table should be identified by a primary key, which permits no duplicate rows. The order of rows is insignificant; specify the row order when the data is retrieved.
- 2. A *column* or attribute containing the employee number. The employee number identifies a *unique* employee in the EMPLOYEES table. In this example, the employee number column is designated as the *primary key*. A primary key must contain a value, and the value must be unique.
- 3. A column that is not a key value. A column represents one kind of data in a table; in this example, the data is the salaries of all the employees. Column order is insignificant when storing data; specify the column order when the data is retrieved.

Terminology Used in a Relational Database (continued)

- 4. A column containing the department number, which is also a *foreign key*. A foreign key is a column that defines how tables relate to each other. A foreign key refers to a primary key or a unique key in the same table or in another table. In the example, DEPARTMENT_ID uniquely identifies a department in the DEPARTMENTS table.
- 5. A *field* can be found at the intersection of a row and a column. There can be only one value in it.
- 6. A field may have no value in it. This is called a null value. In the EMPLOYEES table, only those employees who have the role of sales representative have a value in the COMMISSION PCT (commission) field.

Relational Database Properties

A relational database:

- Can be accessed and modified by executing structured query language (SQL) statements
- Contains a collection of tables with no physical pointers
- Uses a set of operators

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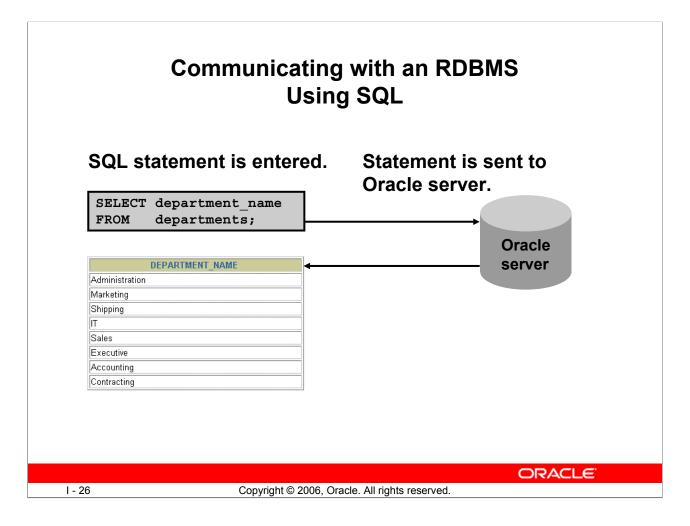
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Properties of a Relational Database

In a relational database, you do not specify the access route to the tables, and you do not need to know how the data is arranged physically.

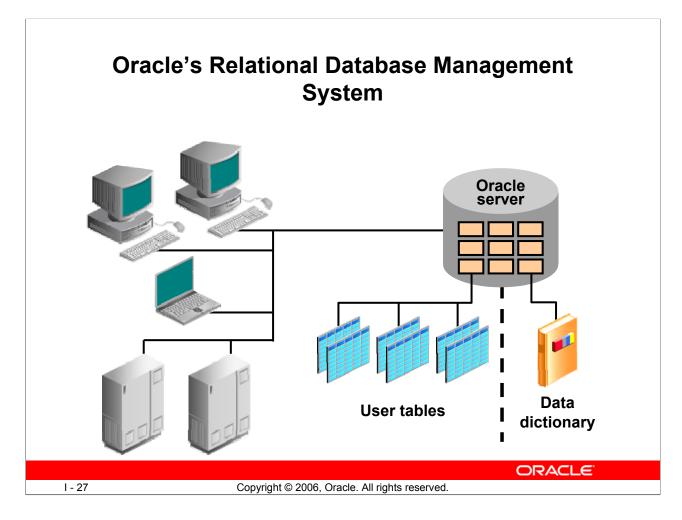
To access the database, you execute a structured query language (SQL) statement, which is the American National Standards Institute (ANSI) standard language for operating relational databases. The language contains a large set of operators for partitioning and combining relations. The database can be modified by using the SQL statements.



Structured Query Language

Using SQL, you can communicate with the Oracle server. SQL has the following advantages:

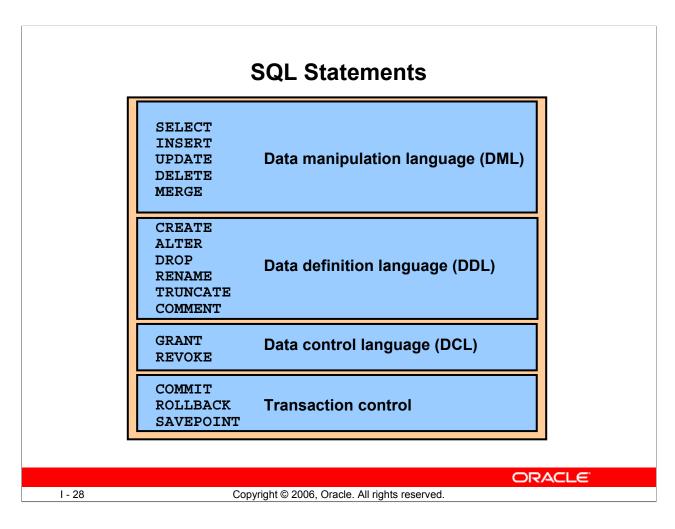
- Efficient
- Easy to learn and use
- Functionally complete (With SQL, you can define, retrieve, and manipulate data in the tables.)



Oracle's Relational Database Management System

Oracle provides a flexible RDBMS called Oracle Database 10g. Using its features, you can store and manage data with all the advantages of a relational structure plus PL/SQL, an engine that provides you with the ability to store and execute program units. Oracle Database 10g also supports Java and XML. The Oracle server offers the options of retrieving data based on optimization techniques. It includes security features that control how a database is accessed and used. Other features include consistency and protection of data through locking mechanisms.

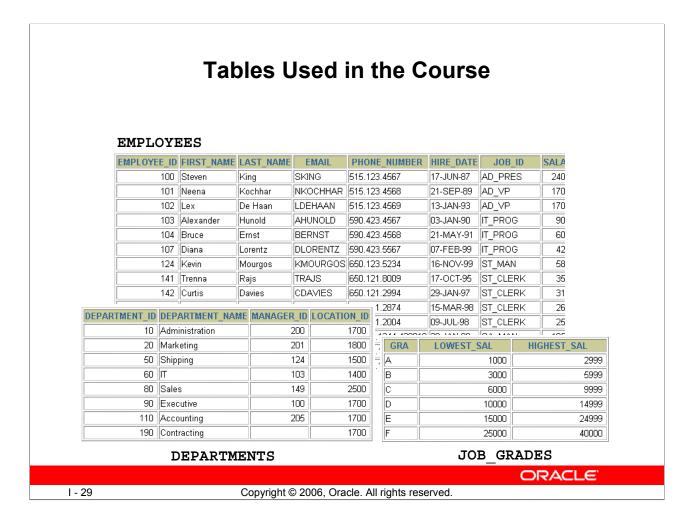
The Oracle 10g release provides an open, comprehensive, and integrated approach to information management. An Oracle server consists of an Oracle database and an Oracle server instance. Every time a database is started, a system global area (SGA) is allocated and Oracle background processes are started. The SGA is an area of memory that is used for database information shared by the database users. The combination of the background processes and memory buffers is called an Oracle *instance*.



SQL Statements

Oracle SQL complies with industry-accepted standards. Oracle Corporation ensures future compliance with evolving standards by actively involving key personnel in SQL standards committees. Industry-accepted committees are American National Standards Institute (ANSI) and International Standards Organization (ISO). Both ANSI and ISO have accepted SQL as the standard language for relational databases.

Statement	Description
SELECT INSERT UPDATE DELETE MERGE	Retrieves data from the database, enters new rows, changes existing rows, and removes unwanted rows from tables in the database, respectively. Collectively known as data manipulation language (DML).
CREATE ALTER DROP RENAME TRUNCATE COMMENT	Sets up, changes, and removes data structures from tables. Collectively known as data definition language (DDL).
GRANT REVOKE	Gives or removes access rights to both the Oracle database and the structures within it.
COMMIT ROLLBACK SAVEPOINT	Manages the changes made by DML statements. Changes to the data can be grouped together into logical transactions.



Tables Used in the Course

The following main tables are used in this course:

- EMPLOYEES table: Gives details of all the employees
- DEPARTMENTS table: Gives details of all the departments
- JOB GRADES table: Gives details of salaries for various grades

Note: The structure and data for all the tables are provided in Appendix B.

Summary

- Oracle Database 10g is the database for grid computing.
- The database is based on the object relational database management system.
- Relational databases are composed of relations, managed by relational operations, and governed by data integrity constraints.
- With the Oracle server, you can store and manage information by using the SQL language and PL/SQL engine.

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Summary

Relational database management systems are composed of objects or relations. They are managed by operations and governed by data integrity constraints.

Oracle Corporation produces products and services to meet your RDBMS needs. The main products are the following:

- Oracle Database 10g, with which you store and manage information by using SQL
- Oracle Application Server 10g, with which you run all of your applications
- Oracle Enterprise Manager 10g Grid Control, which you use to manage and automate administrative tasks across sets of systems in a grid environment

SQL

The Oracle server supports ANSI-standard SQL and contains extensions. SQL is the language that is used to communicate with the server to access, manipulate, and control data.

Retrieving Data Using the SQL SELECT Statement

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Objectives

After completing this lesson, you should be able to do the following:

- List the capabilities of SQL SELECT statements
- Execute a basic SELECT statement
- Differentiate between SQL statements and iSQL*Plus commands

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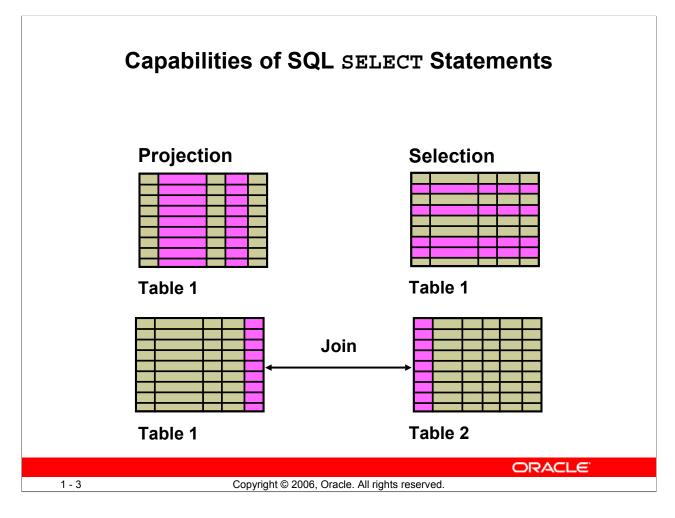
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Objectives

To extract data from the database, you need to use the structured query language (SQL) SELECT statement. You may need to restrict the columns that are displayed. This lesson describes all the SQL statements that are needed to perform these actions. You may want to create SELECT statements that can be used more than once.

This lesson also covers the *i*SQL*Plus environment in which you execute SQL statements.



Capabilities of SQL SELECT Statements

A SELECT statement retrieves information from the database. With a SELECT statement, you can use the following capabilities:

- **Projection:** Choose the columns in a table that are returned by a query. Choose as few or as many of the columns as needed.
- **Selection:** Choose the rows in a table that are returned by a query. Various criteria can be used to restrict the rows that are retrieved.
- **Joining:** Bring together data that is stored in different tables by specifying the link between them. SQL joins are covered in more detail in the lesson titled "Displaying Data from Multiple Tables."

Basic SELECT Statement

```
SELECT * |\{[DISTINCT] \ column | expression [alias], ...\}
FROM table;
```

- SELECT identifies the columns to be displayed.
- FROM identifies the table containing those columns.

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Basic SELECT Statement

In its simplest form, a SELECT statement must include the following:

- A SELECT clause, which specifies the columns to be displayed
- A FROM clause, which identifies the table containing the columns that are listed in the SELECT clause

In the syntax:

SELECTis a list of one or more columns*selects all columnsDISTINCTsuppresses duplicatescolumn/expressionselects the named column or the expressionaliasgives selected columns different headingsFROM tablespecifies the table containing the columns

Note: Throughout this course, the words *keyword*, *clause*, and *statement* are used as follows:

- A *keyword* refers to an individual SQL element. For example, SELECT and FROM are keywords.
- A *clause* is a part of a SQL statement. For example, SELECT employee id, last name, ... is a clause.
- A *statement* is a combination of two or more clauses. For example, SELECT * FROM employees is a SQL statement.

Selecting All Columns



DEPARTMENT_ID	DEPARTMENT_NAME	MANAGER_ID	LOCATION_ID
10	Administration	200	1700
20	Marketing	201	1800
50	Shipping	124	1500
60	IT	103	1400
80	Sales	149	2500
90	Executive	100	1700
110	Accounting	205	1700
190	Contracting		1700

⁸ rows selected.

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Selecting All Columns of All Rows

You can display all columns of data in a table by following the SELECT keyword with an asterisk (*). In the example in the slide, the department table contains four columns: DEPARTMENT_ID, DEPARTMENT_NAME, MANAGER_ID, and LOCATION_ID. The table contains seven rows, one for each department.

You can also display all columns in the table by listing all the columns after the SELECT keyword. For example, the following SQL statement (like the example in the slide) displays all columns and all rows of the DEPARTMENTS table:

SELECT department_id, department_name, manager_id, location_id
FROM departments;

Selecting Specific Columns

SELECT department_id, location_id FROM departments;

DEPARTMENT_ID	LOCATION_ID
10	1700
20	1800
50	1500
60	1400
80	2500
90	1700
110	1700
190	1700

8 rows selected.

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Selecting Specific Columns of All Rows

You can use the SELECT statement to display specific columns of the table by specifying the column names, separated by commas. The example in the slide displays all the department numbers and location numbers from the DEPARTMENTS table.

In the SELECT clause, specify the columns that you want, in the order in which you want them to appear in the output. For example, to display location before department number going from left to right, you use the following statement:

SELECT location_id, department_id
FROM departments;

LOCATION_ID	DEPARTMENT_ID
1700	10
1800	20
1500	50

8 rows selected.

Writing SQL Statements

- SQL statements are not case sensitive.
- SQL statements can be on one or more lines.
- Keywords cannot be abbreviated or split across lines.
- Clauses are usually placed on separate lines.
- Indents are used to enhance readability.
- In iSQL*Plus, SQL statements can optionally be terminated by a semicolon (;). Semicolons are required if you execute multiple SQL statements.
- In SQL*Plus, you are required to end each SQL statement with a semicolon (;).

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Writing SQL Statements

Using the following simple rules and guidelines, you can construct valid statements that are both easy to read and easy to edit:

- SQL statements are not case sensitive (unless indicated).
- SQL statements can be entered on one or many lines.
- Keywords cannot be split across lines or abbreviated.
- Clauses are usually placed on separate lines for readability and ease of editing.
- Indents should be used to make code more readable.
- Keywords typically are entered in uppercase; all other words, such as table names and columns, are entered in lowercase.

Executing SQL Statements

Using *i*SQL*Plus, click the Execute button to run the command or commands in the editing window.

Using SQL*Plus, terminate the SQL statement with a semicolon and then press the Enter key to run the command.

Column Heading Defaults

- iSQL*Plus:
 - Default heading alignment: Center
 - Default heading display: Uppercase
- SQL*Plus:
 - Character and Date column headings are left-aligned
 - Number column headings are right-aligned
 - Default heading display: Uppercase

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Column Heading Defaults

In iSQL*Plus, column headings are displayed in uppercase and centered.

SELECT last_name, hire_date, salary
FROM employees;

LAST_NAME	HIRE_DATE	SALARY
King	17-JUN-87	24000
Kochhar	21-SEP-89	17000
De Haan	13-JAN-93	17000
Hunold	03-JAN-90	9000
Ernst	21-MAY-91	6000

- - -

Higgins	07-JUN-94	12000
Gietz	07-JUN-94	8300

20 rows selected.

You can override the column heading display with an alias. Column aliases are covered later in this lesson.

Arithmetic Expressions

Create expressions with number and date data by using arithmetic operators.

Operator	Description
+	Add
-	Subtract
*	Multiply
1	Divide

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Arithmetic Expressions

You may need to modify the way in which data is displayed, or you may want to perform calculations or look at what-if scenarios. These are all possible using arithmetic expressions. An arithmetic expression can contain column names, constant numeric values, and the arithmetic operators.

Arithmetic Operators

The slide lists the arithmetic operators that are available in SQL. You can use arithmetic operators in any clause of a SQL statement (except the FROM clause).

Note: With the DATE and TIMESTAMP data types, you can use the addition and subtraction operators only.

Using Arithmetic Operators

SELECT last_name, salary, salary + 300 FROM employees;

LAST_NAME	SALARY	SALARY+300
King	24000	24300
Kochhar	17000	17300
De Haan	17000	17300
Hunold	9000	9300
Ernst	6000	6300

20 rows selected.

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Using Arithmetic Operators

The example in the slide uses the addition operator to calculate a salary increase of \$300 for all employees. The slide also displays a SALARY+300 column in the output.

Note that the resultant calculated column SALARY+300 is not a new column in the EMPLOYEES table; it is for display only. By default, the name of a new column comes from the calculation that generated it—in this case, salary+300.

Note: The Oracle server ignores blank spaces before and after the arithmetic operator.

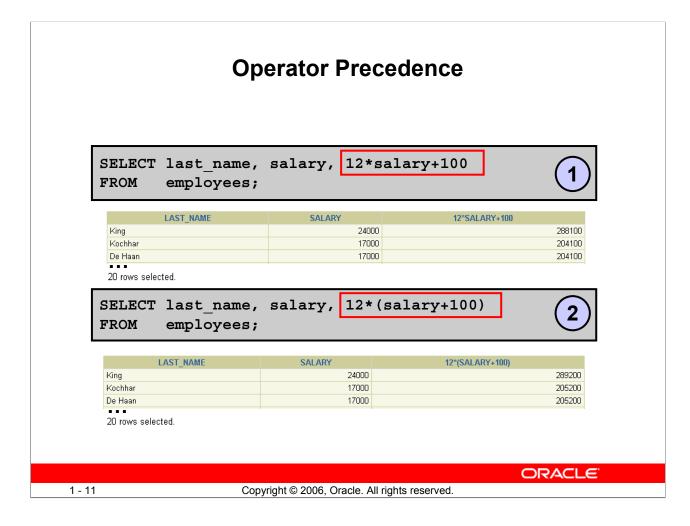
Operator Precedence

If an arithmetic expression contains more than one operator, multiplication and division are evaluated first. If operators in an expression are of the same priority, then evaluation is done from left to right.

You can use parentheses to force the expression that is enclosed by parentheses to be evaluated first.

Rules of Precedence:

- Multiplication and division occur before addition and subtraction.
- Operators of the same priority are evaluated from left to right.
- Parentheses are used to override the default precedence or to clarify the statement.



Operator Precedence (continued)

The first example in the slide displays the last name, salary, and annual compensation of employees. It calculates the annual compensation by multiplying the monthly salary by 12, plus a one-time bonus of \$100. Note that multiplication is performed before addition.

Note: Use parentheses to reinforce the standard order of precedence and to improve clarity. For example, the expression in the slide can be written as (12*salary) +100 with no change in the result.

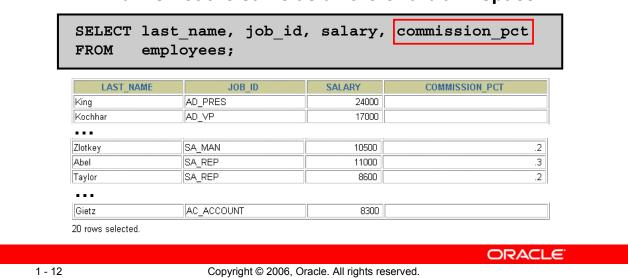
Using Parentheses

You can override the rules of precedence by using parentheses to specify the desired order in which operators are to be executed.

The second example in the slide displays the last name, salary, and annual compensation of employees. It calculates the annual compensation as follows: adding a monthly bonus of \$100 to the monthly salary, and then multiplying that subtotal by 12. Because of the parentheses, addition takes priority over multiplication.

Defining a Null Value

- A null is a value that is unavailable, unassigned, unknown, or inapplicable.
- A null is not the same as a zero or a blank space.



Null Values

If a row lacks a data value for a particular column, that value is said to be *null* or to contain a null.

A null is a value that is unavailable, unassigned, unknown, or inapplicable. A null is not the same as a zero or a space. Zero is a number, and a space is a character.

Columns of any data type can contain nulls. However, some constraints (NOT NULL and PRIMARY KEY) prevent nulls from being used in the column.

In the COMMISSION_PCT column in the EMPLOYEES table, notice that only a sales manager or sales representative can earn a commission. Other employees are not entitled to earn commissions. A null represents that fact.

Null Values in Arithmetic Expressions

Arithmetic expressions containing a null value evaluate to null.

	t_name, 12*salary*commission_pct loyees;
LAST_NAME	12*SALARY*COMMISSION_PCT
King	
Kochhar	
Zlotkey	25200
Abel	39600
Taylor	20640
• • •	
Gietz	

Null Values in Arithmetic Expressions

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If any column value in an arithmetic expression is null, the result is null. For example, if you attempt to perform division by zero, you get an error. However, if you divide a number by null, the result is a null or unknown.

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In the example in the slide, employee King does not get any commission. Because the COMMISSION_PCT column in the arithmetic expression is null, the result is null.

For more information, see "Basic Elements of SQL" in SQL Reference.

Defining a Column Alias

A column alias:

- Renames a column heading
- Is useful with calculations
- Immediately follows the column name (There can also be the optional AS keyword between the column name and alias.)
- Requires double quotation marks if it contains spaces or special characters or if it is case sensitive

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Column Aliases

When displaying the result of a query, *i*SQL*Plus normally uses the name of the selected column as the column heading. This heading may not be descriptive and, therefore, maybe difficult to understand. You can change a column heading by using a column alias.

Specify the alias after the column in the SELECT list using a space as a separator. By default, alias headings appear in uppercase. If the alias contains spaces or special characters (such as # or \$), or if it is case sensitive, enclose the alias in double quotation marks (" ").

	Usin	ıg Colur	nn Aliase	S	
SELECT	T last_name A	S name, o	commission_p	oct comm	
FROM	employees;		_		
	NAME			COMM	
King					
Kochhar					
De Haan					
• • •					
20 rows select	.ed.				
CET.ECT	last_name "	Name" (zalary*12 7	Annual Cal	271/1
		Name , s	sarary 12 2	iiiidai bai	ary
FROM	employees;				
	Name		Annual Salary		
					288000
King					204000
King Kochhar					
					204000
Kochhar					204000
Kochhar De Haan	ed.				204000

Column Aliases (continued)

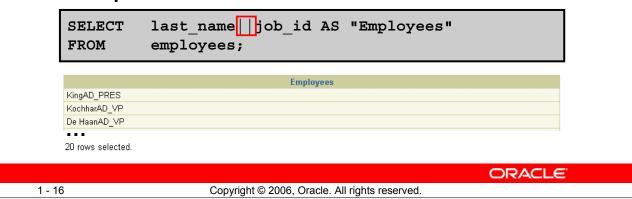
The first example displays the names and the commission percentages of all the employees. Notice that the optional AS keyword has been used before the column alias name. The result of the query is the same whether the AS keyword is used or not. Also notice that the SQL statement has the column aliases, name and comm, in lowercase, whereas the result of the query displays the column headings in uppercase. As mentioned in a previous slide, column headings appear in uppercase by default.

The second example displays the last names and annual salaries of all the employees. Because Annual Salary contains a space, it has been enclosed in double quotation marks. Notice that the column heading in the output is exactly the same as the column alias.

Concatenation Operator

A concatenation operator:

- Links columns or character strings to other columns
- Is represented by two vertical bars (||)
- Creates a resultant column that is a character expression



Concatenation Operator

You can link columns to other columns, arithmetic expressions, or constant values to create a character expression by using the *concatenation operator* (||). Columns on either side of the operator are combined to make a single output column.

In the example, LAST_NAME and JOB_ID are concatenated, and they are given the alias Employees. Notice that the employee last name and job code are combined to make a single output column.

The AS keyword before the alias name makes the SELECT clause easier to read.

Null Values with the Concatenation Operator

If you concatenate a null value with a character string, the result is a character string. LAST NAME | | NULL results in LAST NAME.

Literal Character Strings

- A literal is a character, a number, or a date that is included in the SELECT statement.
- Date and character literal values must be enclosed by single quotation marks.
- Each character string is output once for each row returned.

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Literal Character Strings

A literal is a character, a number, or a date that is included in the SELECT list and that is not a column name or a column alias. It is printed for each row returned. Literal strings of free-format text can be included in the query result and are treated the same as a column in the SELECT list.

Date and character literals *must* be enclosed by single quotation marks (' '); number literals need not be so enclosed.

Using Literal Character Strings SELECT last name 'is a ' |job id AS "Employee Details" FROM employees; **Employee Details** King is a AD PRES Kochhar is a AD_VP De Haan is a AD VP Hunold is a IT_PROG Ernst is a IT_PROG Lorentz is a IT PROG Mourgos is a ST_MAN Rajs is a ST CLERK 20 rows selected. ORACLE

Literal Character Strings (continued)

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The example in the slide displays last names and job codes of all employees. The column has the heading Employee Details. Notice the spaces between the single quotation marks in the SELECT statement. The spaces improve the readability of the output.

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In the following example, the last name and salary for each employee are concatenated with a literal to give the returned rows more meaning:

```
SELECT last_name ||': 1 Month salary = '||salary Monthly
FROM employees;
```

	MONTHLY
King: 1 Month salary = 24000	
Kochhar: 1 Month salary = 17000	
De Haan: 1 Month salary = 17000	
Hunold: 1 Month salary = 9000	
Ernst: 1 Month salary = 6000	
Lorentz: 1 Month salary = 4200	
Mourgos: 1 Month salary = 5800	
Rajs: 1 Month salary = 3500	

20 rows selected.

Alternative Quote (q) Operator

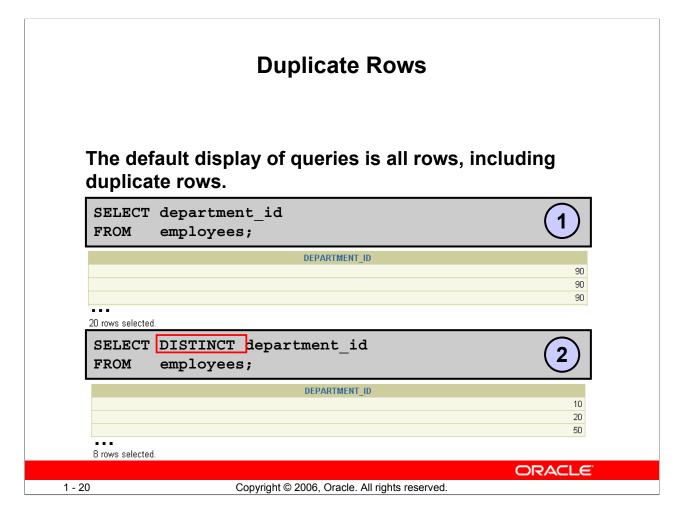
- Specify your own quotation mark delimiter
- Choose any delimiter
- Increase readability and usability

Alternative Quote (q) Operator

Many SQL statements use character literals in expressions or conditions. If the literal itself contains a single quotation mark, you can use the quote (q) operator and choose your own quotation mark delimiter.

You can choose any convenient delimiter, single-byte or multibyte, or any of the following character pairs: [], {}, (), or <>.

In the example shown, the string contains a single quotation mark, which is normally interpreted as a delimiter of a character string. By using the q operator, however, the brackets [] are used as the quotation mark delimiter. The string between the brackets delimiters is interpreted as a literal character string.



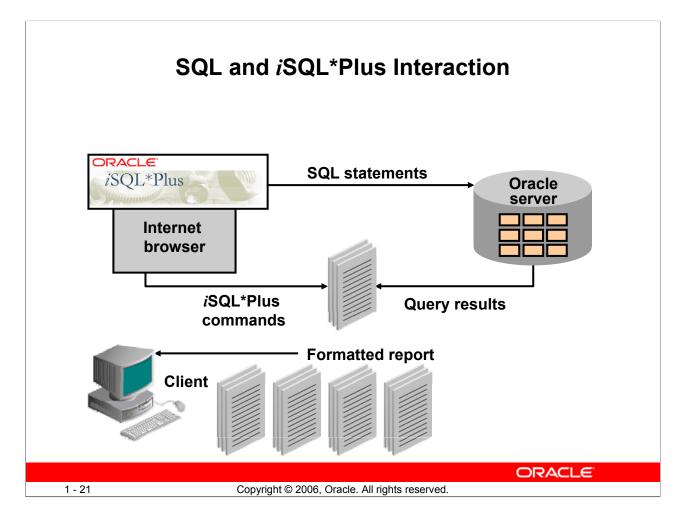
Duplicate Rows

Unless you indicate otherwise, *i*SQL*Plus displays the results of a query without eliminating duplicate rows. The first example in the slide displays all the department numbers from the EMPLOYEES table. Notice that the department numbers are repeated.

To eliminate duplicate rows in the result, include the DISTINCT keyword in the SELECT clause immediately after the SELECT keyword. In the second example in the slide, the EMPLOYEES table actually contains 20 rows, but there are only seven unique department numbers in the table.

You can specify multiple columns after the DISTINCT qualifier. The DISTINCT qualifier affects all the selected columns, and the result is every distinct combination of the columns.

```
SELECT DISTINCT department_id, job_id
FROM employees;
```



SQL and iSQL*Plus

SQL is a command language for communication with the Oracle server from any tool or application. Oracle SQL contains many extensions.

*iSQL*Plus* is an Oracle tool that recognizes and submits SQL statements to the Oracle server for execution and contains its own command language.

Features of SQL

- Can be used by a range of users, including those with little or no programming experience
- Is a nonprocedural language
- Is an English-like language

Features of iSQL*Plus

- Is accessed from a browser
- Accepts SOL statements
- Provides online editing for modifying SQL statements
- Controls environmental settings
- Formats query results into a basic report
- · Accesses local and remote databases

SQL Statements Versus iSQL*Plus Commands

SQL

- A language
- ANSI standard
- Keyword cannot be abbreviated
- Statements manipulate data and table definitions in the database

iSQL*Plus

- An environment
- Oracle-proprietary
- Keywords can be abbreviated
- Commands do not allow manipulation of values in the database
- Runs on a browser
- Centrally loaded; does not have to be implemented on each machine

*i*SQL*Plus commands

SQL statements

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SQL and iSQL*Plus (continued)

The following table compares SQL and iSQL*Plus:

SQL	iSQL*Plus
Is a language for communicating with the Oracle server to access data	Recognizes SQL statements and sends them to the server
Is based on American National Standards Institute (ANSI)–standard SQL	Is the Oracle-proprietary interface for executing SQL statements
Retrieves data; manipulates data and table definitions in the database	Does not allow manipulation of values in the database
Does not have a continuation character	Has a dash (–) as a continuation character if the command is longer than one line
Cannot be abbreviated	Can be abbreviated
Uses functions to perform some formatting	Uses commands to format data

Overview of iSQL*Plus

After you log in to iSQL*Plus, you can:

- Describe table structures
- Enter, execute, and edit SQL statements
- Save or append SQL statements to files
- Execute or edit statements that are stored in saved script files

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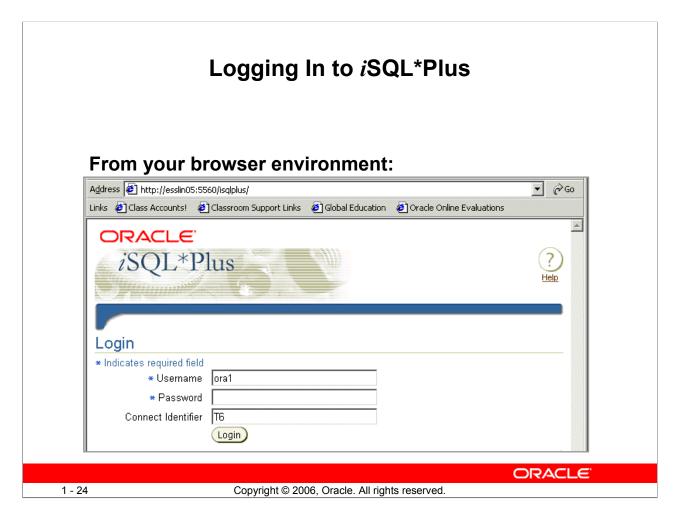
iSQL*Plus

iSQL*Plus is an environment in which you can do the following:

- Execute SQL statements to retrieve, modify, add, and remove data from the database
- Format, perform calculations on, store, and print query results in the form of reports
- Create script files to store SQL statements for repeated use in the future

*i*SQL*Plus commands can be divided into the following main categories:

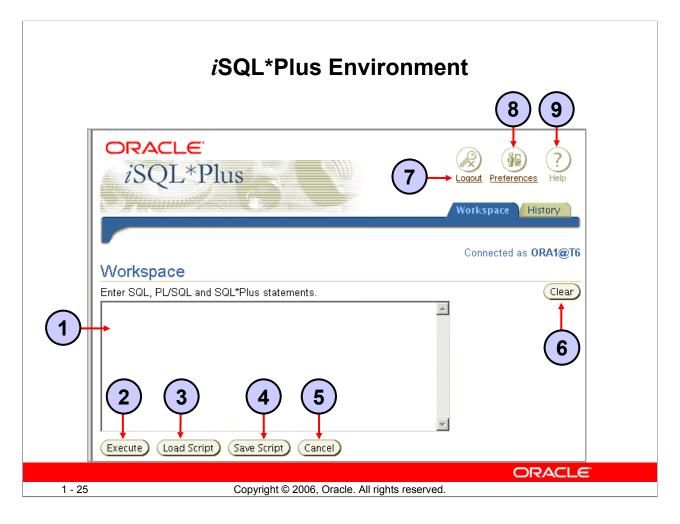
Category	Purpose
Environment	Affects the general behavior of SQL statements for the session
Format	Formats query results
File manipulation	Saves statements in text script files and runs statements from text script files
Execution	Sends SQL statements from the browser to the Oracle server
Edit	Modifies SQL statements in the Edit window
Interaction	Enables you to create and pass variables to SQL statements, print variable values, and print messages to the screen
Miscellaneous	Has various commands to connect to the database, manipulate the <i>i</i> SQL*Plus environment, and display column definitions



Logging In to iSQL*Plus

To log in from a browser environment:

- 1. Start the browser.
- 2. Enter the URL address of the *i*SQL*Plus environment.
- 3. On the Login page, enter appropriate values in the Username, Password, and Connect Identifier fields.



iSQL*Plus Environment

In the browser, the *i*SQL*Plus Workspace page has several key areas:

- 1. **Text box:** Area where you type the SQL statements and iSQL*Plus commands
- 2. Execute button: Click to execute the statements and commands in the text box
- 3. **Load Script button:** Brings up a form where you can identify a path and file name or a URL that contains SQL, PL/SQL, or SQL*Plus commands and load them into the text box
- 4. Save Script button: Saves the contents of the text box to a file
- 5. Cancel button: Stops the execution of the command in the text box
- 6. Clear Screen button: Click to clear text from the text box
- 7. **Logout icon:** Click to end the iSQL*Plus session and return to the iSQL*Plus Login page
- 8. **Preferences icon:** Click to change your interface configuration, system configuration, or password
- 9. **Help icon:** Provides access to *i*SQL*Plus help documentation

Displaying Table Structure

Use the *i*SQL*Plus DESCRIBE command to display the structure of a table:

DESC[RIBE] tablename

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Displaying the Table Structure

In *i*SQL*Plus, you can display the structure of a table by using the DESCRIBE command. The command displays the column names and data types, and it shows you whether a column *must* contain data (that is, whether the column has a NOT NULL constraint).

In the syntax, tablename is the name of any existing table, view, or synonym that is accessible to the user.

Displaying Table Structure

DESCRIBE employees

Name	Null?	Туре
EMPLOYEE_ID	NOT NULL	NUMBER(6)
FIRST_NAME		VARCHAR2(20)
LAST_NAME	NOT NULL	VARCHAR2(25)
EMAIL	NOT NULL	VARCHAR2(25)
PHONE_NUMBER		VARCHAR2(20)
HIRE_DATE	NOT NULL	DATE
JOB_ID	NOT NULL	VARCHAR2(10)
SALARY		NUMBER(8,2)
COMMISSION_PCT		NUMBER(2,2)
MANAGER_ID		NUMBER(6)
DEPARTMENT_ID		NUMBER(4)

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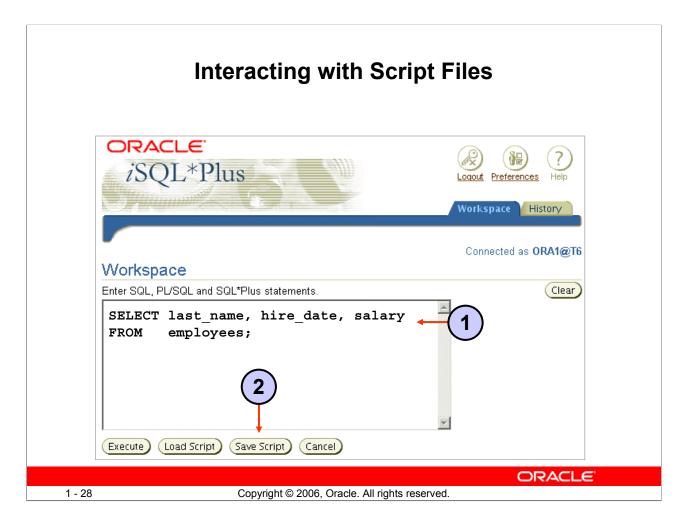
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Displaying the Table Structure (continued)

The example in the slide displays the information about the structure of the EMPLOYEES table. In the resulting display, *Null?* indicates that the values for this column maybe unknown. NOT NULL indicates that a column must contain data. *Type* displays the data type for a column.

The data types are described in the following table:

Data Type	Description
NUMBER (p,s)	Number value having a maximum number of digits p, with s digits to the right of the decimal point
VARCHAR2(s)	Variable-length character value of maximum size s
DATE	Date and time value between January 1, 4712 B.C., and December 31, A.D 9999.
CHAR(s)	Fixed-length character value of size s

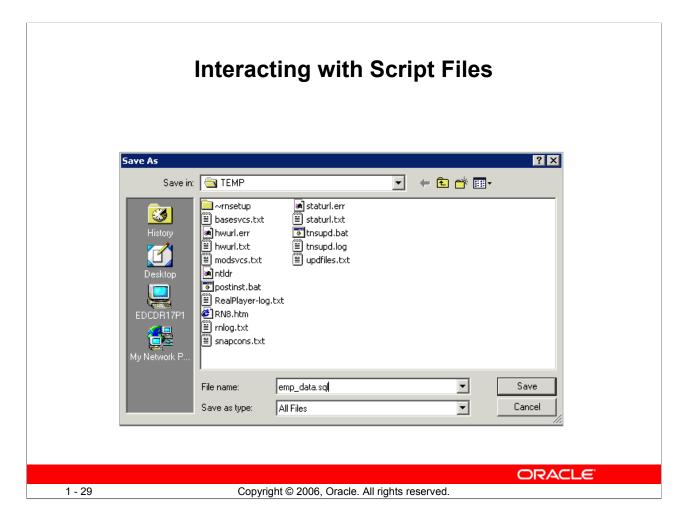


Interacting with Script Files

Placing Statements and Commands into a Text Script File

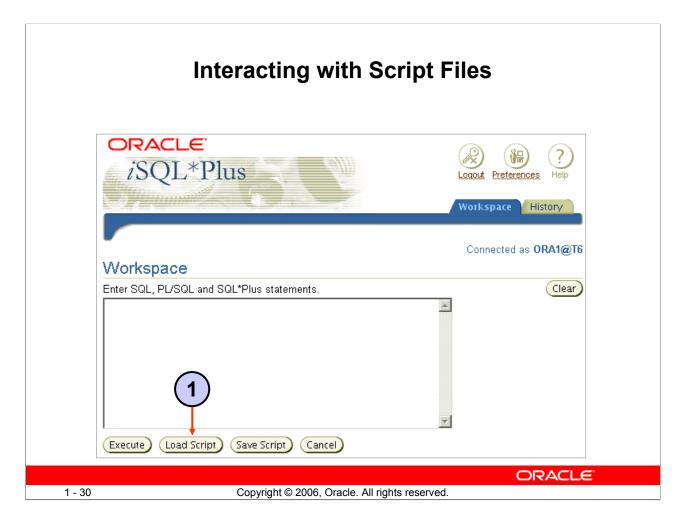
You can save commands and statements from the text box in iSQL*Plus to a text script file as follows:

- 1. Type the SQL statements in the text box in *i*SQL*Plus.
- 2. Click the Save Script button. This opens the Windows File Save dialog box. Identify the name of the file. Note that the file extension defaults to .sql. You can change the file type to a text file or save it as a .sql file.



Interacting with Script Files (continued)

In the example shown, the SQL SELECT statement typed in the text box is saved to a file named emp_data.sql. You can choose the type of the file, name of the file, and location of where you want to save the script file.

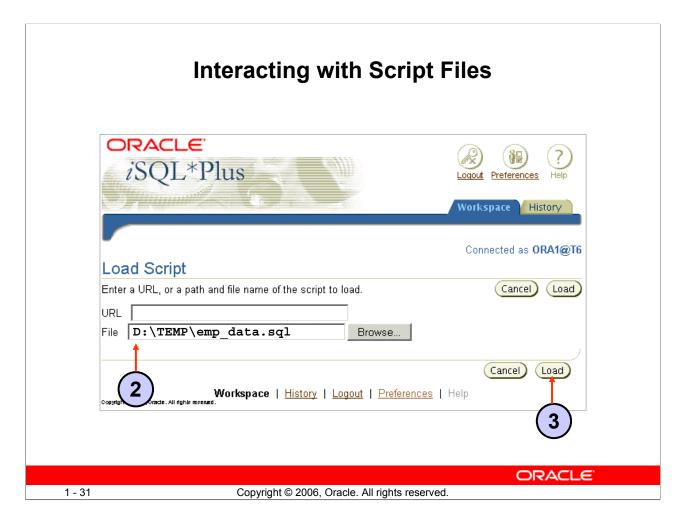


Interacting with Script Files (continued)

Using Statements and Commands from a Script File in iSQL*Plus

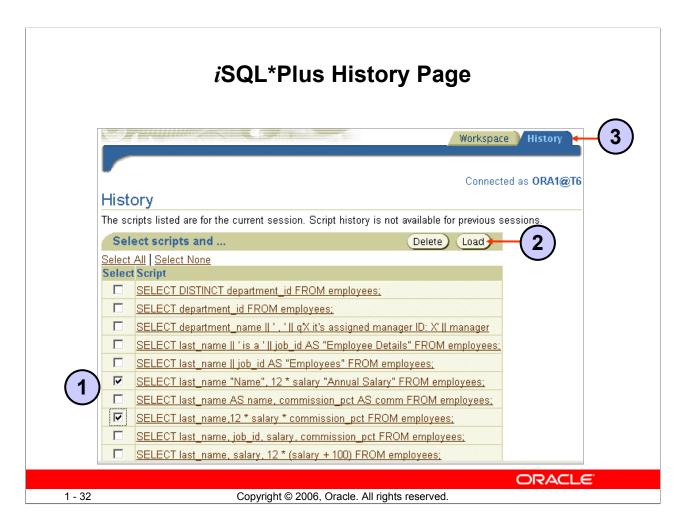
You can use previously saved commands and statements from a script file in *i*SQL*Plus as follows:

1. Click the Load Script button. This opens a form where you can enter the name of the file or a URL containing the SQL, PL/SQL, or SQL*Plus commands that you want to enter in the text box.



Interacting with Script Files (continued)

- 2. Enter the script name and path, or the URL location. Or you can click the Browse button to find the script name and location.
- 3. Click the Load button to bring the contents of the file or URL location into the text box.



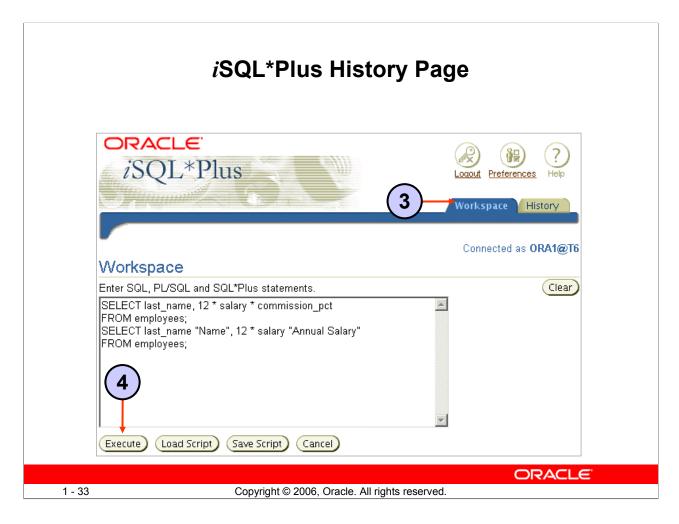
Running Previous Statements

The History page in *i*SQL*Plus lets you execute previously run statements in your session. The History page shows your most recently run SQL statements and *i*SQL*Plus commands. To rerun the statements:

- 1. Select the statement that you want to execute.
- 2 Click the Load button

Note

- You can control the number of statements that are shown on the History page with Preferences settings.
- You can choose to delete selected statements by clicking the Delete button.



Running Previous Statements (continued)

- 3. Return to the Workspace page.
- 4. Click the Execute button to run the commands that have been loaded into the text box.

	Setting iSQL*Plus Preferences
iS	ACLE' OQL*Plus Workspar History
Sys Co	Interface Configuration Configure settings that affect the iSQL*Plus user interface. Stem Configuration Script Formatting Script Execution Database Administration ange Password Input Area Size Set the size of the script input area. Width 70 Height 10 Output Location
1 - 34	Copyright © 2006, Oracle. All rights reserved.

iSQL*Plus Preferences

- 1. You can set preferences for your *i*SQL*Plus session by clicking the Preferences icon.
- 2. The preferences are divided into categories. You can set preferences for script formatting, script execution, and database administration, and you can change your password.
- 3. When you choose a preference category, a form is displayed that lets you set the preferences for that category.

	Setting the Output Location Preference	
	Interface Configuration System Configuration Script Formatting Script Execution Database Administration Change Password Input Area Size Set the size of the script input area. Width TO Height Output Location Set where script output is displayed. Below Input Area Save to HTML File Printable output in new browser window Printable output in same browser window Printable output in same browser window	
1 - 35	Copyright © 2006, Oracle. All rights reserved.	

Changing the Output Location

You can send the results that are generated by a SQL statement or *i*SQL*Plus command to the screen (the default), a file, or another browser window.

On the Preferences page:

- 1. Select an Output Location option.
- 2. Click the Apply button.

Summary

In this lesson, you should have learned how to:

- Write a SELECT statement that:
 - Returns all rows and columns from a table
 - Returns specified columns from a table
 - Uses column aliases to display more descriptive column headings
- Use the iSQL*Plus environment to write, save, and execute SQL statements and iSQL*Plus commands

```
SELECT *|{[DISTINCT] column/expression [alias],...}
FROM table;
```

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SELECT Statement

In this lesson, you should have learned how to retrieve data from a database table with the SELECT statement.

```
SELECT *|{[DISTINCT] column [alias],...}
FROM table;
```

In the syntax:

SELECT is a list of one or more columns

* selects all columns
DISTINCT suppresses duplicates

column/expressionselects the named column or the expressionaliasgives selected columns different headingsFROM tablespecifies the table containing the columns

iSQL*Plus

*i*SQL*Plus is an execution environment that you can use to send SQL statements to the database server and to edit and save SQL statements. Statements can be executed from the SQL prompt or from a script file.

Practice 1: Overview

This practice covers the following topics:

- Selecting all data from different tables
- Describing the structure of tables
- Performing arithmetic calculations and specifying column names
- Using iSQL*Plus

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Practice 1: Overview

This is the first of many practices in this course. The solutions (if you require them) can be found in Appendix A. Practices are intended to cover all topics that are presented in the corresponding lesson.

Note the following location for the lab files:

 $E: \labs\SQL1\labs$

If you are asked to save any lab files, save them at this location.

To start *i*SQL*Plus, start your browser. You need to enter a URL to access *i*SQL*Plus. The URL requires the host name, which your instructor will provide. Enter the following command, replacing the host name with the value that your instructor provides:

http://<HOSTNAME:5560>/isqlplus

In any practice, there maybe exercises that are prefaced with the phrases "If you have time" or "If you want an extra challenge." Work on these exercises only if you have completed all other exercises in the allocated time and would like a further challenge to your skills.

Perform the practices slowly and precisely. You can experiment with saving and running command files. If you have any questions at any time, ask your instructor.

Practice 1

Part 1

Test your knowledge:

- 1. Initiate an *i*SQL*Plus session using the user ID and password that are provided by the instructor.
- 2. iSQL*Plus commands access the database.

True/False

3. The following SELECT statement executes successfully:

```
SELECT last_name, job_id, salary AS Sal
FROM employees;
```

True/False

4. The following SELECT statement executes successfully:

```
SELECT *
FROM job grades;
```

True/False

5. There are four coding errors in the following statement. Can you identify them?

```
SELECT employee_id, last_name
sal x 12 ANNUAL SALARY
FROM employees;
```

Part 2

Note the following location for the lab files:

```
E: \labs\SQL1\labs
```

If you are asked to save any lab files, save them at this location.

To start iSQL*Plus, start your browser. You need to enter a URL to access iSQL*Plus. The URL requires the host name, which your instructor will provide. Enter the following command, replacing the host name with the value that your instructor provides:

```
http://<HOSTNAME:5560>/isqlplus
```

You have been hired as a SQL programmer for Acme Corporation. Your first task is to create some reports based on data from the Human Resources tables.

6. Your first task is to determine the structure of the DEPARTMENTS table and its contents.

Name	Null?	Туре
DEPARTMENT_ID	NOT NULL	NUMBER(4)
DEPARTMENT_NAME	NOT NULL	VARCHAR2(30)
MANAGER_ID		NUMBER(6)
LOCATION_ID		NUMBER(4)

DEPARTMENT_ID	DEPARTMENT_NAME	MANAGER_ID	LOCATION_ID
10	Administration	200	1700
20	Marketing	201	1800
50	Shipping	124	1500
60	IT	103	1400
80	Sales	149	2500
90	Executive	100	1700
110	Accounting	205	1700
190	Contracting		1700

8 rows selected.

7. You need to determine the structure of the EMPLOYEES table.

Name	Null?	Туре
EMPLOYEE_ID	NOT NULL	NUMBER(6)
FIRST_NAME		VARCHAR2(20)
LAST_NAME	NOT NULL	VARCHAR2(25)
EMAIL	NOT NULL	VARCHAR2(25)
PHONE_NUMBER		VARCHAR2(20)
HIRE_DATE	NOT NULL	DATE
JOB_ID	NOT NULL	VARCHAR2(10)
SALARY		NUMBER(8,2)
COMMISSION_PCT		NUMBER(2,2)
MANAGER_ID		NUMBER(6)
DEPARTMENT_ID		NUMBER(4)

The HR department wants a query to display the last name, job code, hire date, and employee number for each employee, with employee number appearing first. Provide an alias STARTDATE for the HIRE_DATE column. Save your SQL statement to a file named lab_01_07.sql so that you can dispatch this file to the HR department.

8. Test your query in the lab_01_07.sql file to ensure that it runs correctly.

EMPLOYEE_ID	LAST_NAME	JOB_ID	STARTDATE
100	King	AD_PRES	17-JUN-87
101	Kochhar	AD_VP	21-SEP-89
102	De Haan	AD_VP	13-JAN-93
103	Hunold	IT_PROG	03-JAN-90
104	Ernst	IT_PROG	21-MAY-91
107	Lorentz	IT_PROG	07-FEB-99
124	Mourgos	ST_MAN	16-NOV-99
141	Rajs	ST_CLERK	17-OCT-95
142	Davies	ST_CLERK	29-JAN-97
143	Matos	ST_CLERK	15-MAR-98
144	Vargas	ST_CLERK	09-JUL-98
149	Zlotkey	SA_MAN	29-JAN-00
174	Abel	SA_REP	11-MAY-96
176	Taylor	SA_REP	24-MAR-98
206	Gietz	AC_ACCOUNT	07-JUN-94

20 rows selected.

9. The HR department needs a query to display all unique job codes from the EMPLOYEES table.

JOB_ID
AC_ACCOUNT
AC_MGR
AD_ASST
AD_PRES
AD_VP
IT_PROG
MK_MAN
MK_REP
SA_MAN
SA_REP
ST_CLERK
ST_MAN

Part 3

If you have time, complete the following exercises:

10. The HR department wants more descriptive column headings for its report on employees. Copy the statement from lab_01_07.sql to the *i*SQL*Plus text box. Name the column headings Emp #, Employee, Job, and Hire Date, respectively. Then run your query again.

Emp#	Employee	Job	Hire Date
100	King	AD_PRES	17-JUN-87
101	Kochhar	AD_VP	21-SEP-89
102	De Haan	AD_VP	13-JAN-93
103	Hunold	IT_PROG	03-JAN-90
104	Ernst	IT_PROG	21-MAY-91
107	Lorentz	IT_PROG	07-FEB-99
124	Mourgos	ST_MAN	16-NOV-99
141	Rajs	ST_CLERK	17-OCT-95
142	Davies	ST_CLERK	29-JAN-97
143	Matos	ST_CLERK	15-MAR-98
144	Vargas	ST_CLERK	09-JUL-98
206	Gietz	AC_ACCOUNT	07-JUN-94

20 rows selected.

11. The HR department has requested a report of all employees and their job IDs. Display the last name concatenated with the job ID (separated by a comma and space) and name the column Employee and Title.

	Employee and Title
King, AD_PRES	
Kochhar, AD_VP	
De Haan, AD_VP	
Hunold, IT_PROG	
Ernst, IT_PROG	
Lorentz, IT_PROG	
Mourgos, ST_MAN	
Rajs, ST_CLERK	
Davies, ST_CLERK	
Gietz, AC ACCOUNT	

If you want an extra challenge, complete the following exercise:

12. To familiarize yourself with the data in the EMPLOYEES table, create a query to display all the data from that table. Separate each column output by a comma. Name the column title THE_OUTPUT.

THE_OUTPUT
100,Steven,King,SKING,515.123.4567,AD_PRES,,17-JUN-87,24000,,90
101 ,Neena ,Kochhar ,NKOCHHAR ,515.123.4568 ,AD_VP ,100 ,21-SEP-89 ,17000 ,.90
102,Lex,De Haan,LDEHAAN,515.123.4569,AD_VP,100,13-JAN-93,17000,,90
103,Alexander,Hunold,AHUNOLD,590.423.4567,IT_PROG,102,03-JAN-90,9000,,60
104,Bruce,Ernst,BERNST,590.423.4568,IT_PROG,103,21-MAY-91,6000,,60
107 ,Diana ,Lorentz ,DLORENTZ ,590 . 423 .5567 ,IT_PROG ,103 ,07-FEB-99 ,4200 , ,60
124,Kevin,Mourgos,KMOURGOS,650.123.5234,ST_MAN,100,16-NOV-99,5800,,50
141,Trenna,Rajs,TRAJS,650.121.8009,ST_CLERK,124,17-OCT-95,3500,,50
142,Curtis,Davies,CDAVIES,650.121.2994,ST_CLERK,124,29-JAN-97,3100,,50
143,Randall,Matos,RMATOS,650.121.2874,ST_CLERK,124,15-MAR-98,2600,,50
144,Peter,Vargas,PVARGAS,650.121.2004,ST_CLERK,124,09-JUL-98,2500,,50
206, William, Gietz, WGIETZ, 515.123.8181, AC_ACCOUNT, 205, 07-JUN-94, 8300, , 110

Restricting and Sorting Data

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Objectives

After completing this lesson, you should be able to do the following:

- Limit the rows that are retrieved by a query
- Sort the rows that are retrieved by a query
- Use ampersand substitution in iSQL*Plus to restrict and sort output at run time

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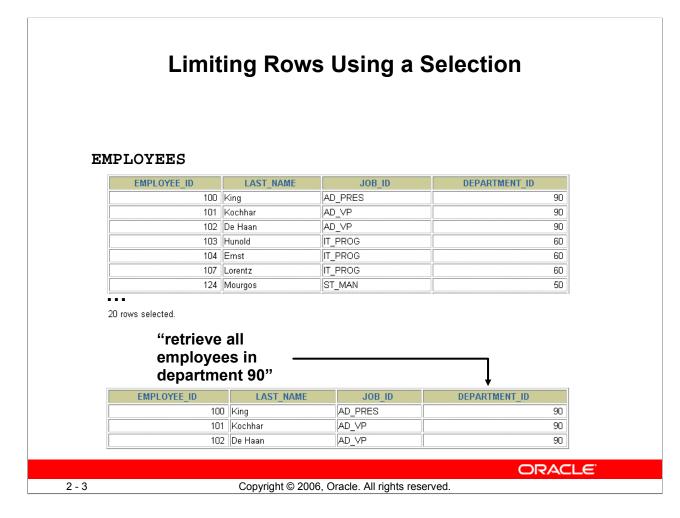
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Objectives

When retrieving data from the database, you may need to do the following:

- Restrict the rows of data that are displayed
- Specify the order in which the rows are displayed

This lesson explains the SQL statements that you use to perform these actions.



Limiting Rows Using a Selection

In the example in the slide, assume that you want to display all the employees in department 90. The rows with a value of 90 in the DEPARTMENT_ID column are the only ones that are returned. This method of restriction is the basis of the WHERE clause in SQL.

Limiting the Rows That Are Selected

 Restrict the rows that are returned by using the WHERE clause:

```
SELECT *|{[DISTINCT] column|expression [alias],...}
FROM table
[WHERE condition(s)];
```

The where clause follows the FROM clause.

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Limiting the Rows That Are Selected

You can restrict the rows that are returned from the query by using the WHERE clause. A WHERE clause contains a condition that must be met, and it directly follows the FROM clause. If the condition is true, the row meeting the condition is returned.

In the syntax:

WHERE restricts the query to rows that meet a condition is composed of column names, expressions, constants, and a comparison operator

The WHERE clause can compare values in columns, literal values, arithmetic expressions, or functions. It consists of three elements:

- Column name
- Comparison condition
- Column name, constant, or list of values

Using the WHERE Clause

SELECT employee_id, last_name, job_id, department_id
FROM employees
WHERE department_id = 90;

EMPLOYEE_ID	LAST_NAME	JOB_ID	DEPARTMENT_ID
100	King	AD_PRES	90
101	Kochhar	AD_VP	90
102	De Haan	AD_VP	90

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Using the WHERE Clause

In the example, the SELECT statement retrieves the employee ID, name, job ID, and department number of all employees who are in department 90.

Character Strings and Dates

- Character strings and date values are enclosed in single quotation marks.
- Character values are case sensitive, and date values are format sensitive.
- The default date format is DD-MON-RR.

```
SELECT last_name, job_id, department_id
FROM employees
WHERE last_name = 'Whalen';
```

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Character Strings and Dates

Character strings and dates in the WHERE clause must be enclosed in single quotation marks (''). Number constants, however, should not be enclosed in single quotation marks.

All character searches are case sensitive. In the following example, no rows are returned because the EMPLOYEES table stores all the last names in mixed case:

```
SELECT last_name, job_id, department_id
FROM employees
WHERE last name = 'WHALEN';
```

Oracle databases store dates in an internal numeric format, representing the century, year, month, day, hours, minutes, and seconds. The default date display is DD-MON-RR.

Note: For details about the RR format and about changing the default date format, see the lesson titled "Using Single-Row Functions to Customize Output."

Comparison Conditions

Operator	Meaning
=	Equal to
>	Greater than
>=	Greater than or equal to
<	Less than
<=	Less than or equal to
<>	Not equal to
BETWEENAND	Between two values (inclusive)
IN(set)	Match any of a list of values
LIKE	Match a character pattern
IS NULL	Is a null value

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Comparison Conditions

Comparison conditions are used in conditions that compare one expression to another value or expression. They are used in the WHERE clause in the following format:

Syntax

```
... WHERE expr operator value
```

Example

```
... WHERE hire_date = '01-JAN-95'
... WHERE salary >= 6000
... WHERE last name = 'Smith'
```

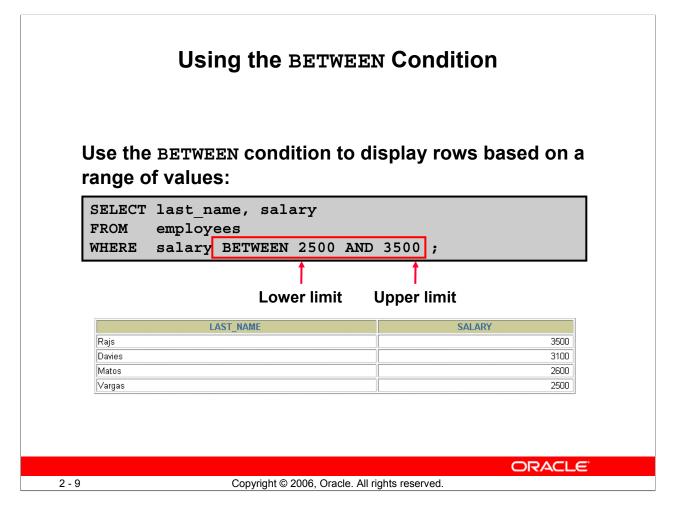
An alias cannot be used in the WHERE clause.

Note: The symbols != and ^= can also represent the *not equal to* condition.

Using Comparison Conditions SELECT last name, salary FROM employees salary <= 3000 WHERE LAST NAME SALARY Matos 2600 2500 Vargas ORACLE 2 - 8 Copyright © 2006, Oracle. All rights reserved.

Using Comparison Conditions

In the example, the SELECT statement retrieves the last name and salary from the EMPLOYEES table for any employee whose salary is less than or equal to \$3,000. Note that there is an explicit value supplied to the WHERE clause. The explicit value of 3000 is compared to the salary value in the SALARY column of the EMPLOYEES table.



Using the BETWEEN Condition

You can display rows based on a range of values using the BETWEEN range condition. The range that you specify contains a lower limit and an upper limit.

The SELECT statement in the slide returns rows from the EMPLOYEES table for any employee whose salary is between \$2,500 and \$3,500.

Values that are specified with the BETWEEN condition are inclusive. You must specify the lower limit first.

You can also use the BETWEEN condition on character values:

```
SELECT last_name
FROM employees
WHERE last_name BETWEEN 'King' AND 'Smith';
```

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Using the IN Condition

Use the IN membership condition to test for values in a list:

```
SELECT employee_id, last_name, salary, manager_id FROM employees
WHERE manager_id IN (100, 101, 201);
```

EMPLOYEE_ID	LAST_NAME	SALARY	MANAGER_ID
202	Fay	6000	201
200	Whalen	4400	101
205	Higgins	12000	101
101	Kochhar	17000	100
102	De Haan	17000	100
124	Mourgos	5800	100
149	Zlotkey	10500	100
201	Hartstein	13000	100

8 rows selected.

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Using the IN Condition

To test for values in a specified set of values, use the IN condition. The IN condition is also known as the *membership condition*.

The slide example displays employee numbers, last names, salaries, and manager's employee numbers for all the employees whose manager's employee number is 100, 101, or 201.

The IN condition can be used with any data type. The following example returns a row from the EMPLOYEES table for any employee whose last name is included in the list of names in the WHERE clause:

```
SELECT employee_id, manager_id, department_id
FROM employees
WHERE last name IN ('Hartstein', 'Vargas');
```

If characters or dates are used in the list, they must be enclosed in single quotation marks ('').

Using the LIKE Condition

- Use the LIKE condition to perform wildcard searches of valid search string values.
- Search conditions can contain either literal characters or numbers:
 - % denotes zero or many characters.
 - denotes one character.

```
SELECT first_name
FROM employees
WHERE first_name LIKE 'S%';
```

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Using the LIKE Condition

You may not always know the exact value to search for. You can select rows that match a character pattern by using the LIKE condition. The character pattern—matching operation is referred to as a *wildcard* search. Two symbols can be used to construct the search string.

Symbol	Description
%	Represents any sequence of zero or more characters
_	Represents any single character

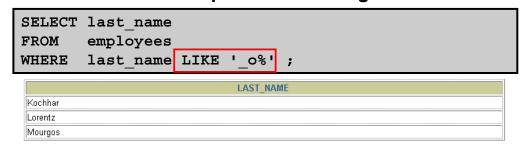
The SELECT statement in the slide returns the employee first name from the EMPLOYEES table for any employee whose first name begins with the letter *S*. Note the uppercase *S*. Names beginning with an *s* are not returned.

The LIKE condition can be used as a shortcut for some BETWEEN comparisons. The following example displays the last names and hire dates of all employees who joined between January 1995 and December 1995:

```
SELECT last_name, hire_date
FROM employees
WHERE hire date LIKE '%95';
```

Using the LIKE Condition

You can combine pattern-matching characters:



 You can use the ESCAPE identifier to search for the actual % and _ symbols.

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Combining Wildcard Characters

The % and _ symbols can be used in any combination with literal characters. The example in the slide displays the names of all employees whose last names have the letter o as the second character.

ESCAPE Option

When you need to have an exact match for the actual % and _ characters, use the ESCAPE option. This option specifies what the escape character is. If you want to search for strings that contain SA_, you can use the following SQL statement:

```
SELECT employee_id, last_name, job_id
FROM employees WHERE job id LIKE '%SA\ %' ESCAPE '\';
```

EMPLOYEE_ID	LAST_NAME	JOB_ID
149	Zlotkey	SA_MAN
174	Abel	SA_REP
176	Taylor	SA_REP
178	Grant	SA_REP

The ESCAPE option identifies the backslash (\) as the escape character. In the pattern, the escape character precedes the underscore (_). This causes the Oracle Server to interpret the underscore literally.

Using the NULL Conditions Test for nulls with the IS NULL operator. SELECT last_name, manager_id FROM employees WHERE manager_id IS NULL; LAST_NAME MANAGER_ID CRACLE

Using the NULL Conditions

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The NULL conditions include the IS NULL condition and the IS NOT NULL condition.

The IS NULL condition tests for nulls. A null value means the value is unavailable, unassigned, unknown, or inapplicable. Therefore, you cannot test with = because a null cannot be equal or unequal to any value. The slide example retrieves the last names and managers of all employees who do not have a manager.

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Here is another example: To display last name, job ID, and commission for all employees who are *not* entitled to receive a commission, use the following SQL statement:

```
SELECT last_name, job_id, commission_pct
FROM employees
WHERE commission pct IS NULL;
```

LAST_NAME	JOB_ID	COMMISSION_PCT
King	AD_PRES	
Kochhar	AD_VP	
Higgins	AC_MGR	
Gietz	AC_ACCOUNT	

Logical Conditions

Operator	Meaning
AND	Returns TRUE if <i>both</i> component conditions are true
OR	Returns TRUE if either component condition is true
NOT	Returns TRUE if the following condition is false

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Logical Conditions

A logical condition combines the result of two component conditions to produce a single result based on those conditions, or it inverts the result of a single condition. A row is returned only if the overall result of the condition is true.

Three logical operators are available in SQL:

- AND
- OR
- · NOT

All the examples so far have specified only one condition in the WHERE clause. You can use several conditions in one WHERE clause using the AND and OR operators.

Using the AND Operator

AND requires both conditions to be true:

SELECT	<pre>employee_id, last_name, job_id, salary</pre>
FROM	employees
	salary >=10000
AND	job_id LIKE '%MAN%' ;

EMPLOYEE_ID	LAST_NAME	JOB_ID	SALARY
149	Zlotkey	SA_MAN	10500
201	Hartstein	MK_MAN	13000

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Using the AND Operator

In the example, both conditions must be true for any record to be selected. Therefore, only employees who have a job title that contains the string 'MAN' *and* earn \$10,000 or more are selected.

All character searches are case sensitive. No rows are returned if 'MAN' is not uppercase. Character strings must be enclosed in quotation marks.

AND Truth Table

The following table shows the results of combining two expressions with AND:

AND	TRUE	FALSE	NULL
TRUE	TRUE	FALSE	NULL
FALSE	FALSE	FALSE	FALSE
NULL	NULL	FALSE	NULL

Using the OR Operator

OR requires either condition to be true:

SELECT	<pre>employee_id, last_name, job_id, salary</pre>
FROM	employees
WHERE	salary >= 10000 job id LIKE '%MAN%' ;
OR	job_id LIKE '%MAN%' ;

EMPLOYEE_ID	LAST_NAME	JOB_ID	SALARY
100	King	AD_PRES	24000
101	Kochhar	AD_VP	17000
102	De Haan	AD_VP	17000
124	Mourgos	ST_MAN	5800
149	Zlotkey	SA_MAN	10500
174	Abel	SA_REP	11000
201	Hartstein	MK_MAN	13000
205	Higgins	AC_MGR	12000

8 rows selected.

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Using the OR Operator

In the example, either condition can be true for any record to be selected. Therefore, any employee who has a job ID that contains the string 'MAN' *or* earns \$10,000 or more is selected.

OR Truth Table

The following table shows the results of combining two expressions with OR:

OR	TRUE	FALSE	NULL
TRUE	TRUE	TRUE	TRUE
FALSE	TRUE	FALSE	NULL
NULL	TRUE	NULL	NULL

Using the NOT Operator

```
SELECT last_name, job_id

FROM employees

WHERE job_id

NOT IN ('IT_PROG', 'ST_CLERK', 'SA_REP');
```

LAST_NAME	JOB_ID
King	AD_PRES
Kochhar	AD_VP
De Haan	AD_VP
Mourgos	ST_MAN
Zlotkey	SA_MAN
Whalen	AD_ASST
Hartstein	MK_MAN
Fay	MK_REP
Higgins	AC_MGR
Gietz	AC_ACCOUNT

¹⁰ rows selected.

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Using the NOT Operator

The slide example displays the last name and job ID of all employees whose job ID is not IT PROG, ST CLERK, or SA REP.

NOT Truth Table

The following table shows the result of applying the NOT operator to a condition:

NOT	TRUE	FALSE	NULL
	FALSE	TRUE	NULL

Note: The NOT operator can also be used with other SQL operators, such as BETWEEN, LIKE, and NULL.

```
... WHERE job_id NOT IN ('AC_ACCOUNT', 'AD_VP')
... WHERE salary NOT BETWEEN 10000 AND 15000
... WHERE last_name NOT LIKE '%A%'
... WHERE commission pct IS NOT NULL
```

Rules of Precedence

Operator	Meaning
1	Arithmetic operators
2	Concatenation operator
3	Comparison conditions
4	IS [NOT] NULL, LIKE, [NOT] IN
5	[NOT] BETWEEN
6	Not equal to
7	NOT logical condition
8	AND logical condition
9	OR logical condition

You can use parentheses to override rules of precedence.

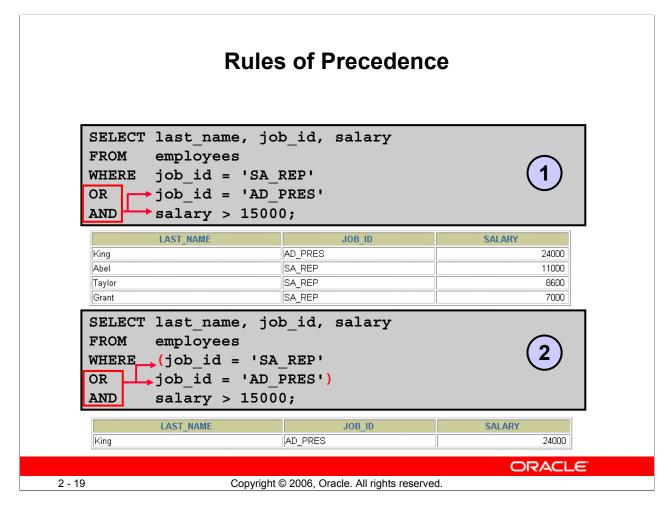
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Rules of Precedence

The rules of precedence determine the order in which expressions are evaluated and calculated. The table lists the default order of precedence. You can override the default order by using parentheses around the expressions that you want to calculate first.



Rules of Precedence (continued)

1. Example of the Precedence of the AND Operator

In this example, there are two conditions:

- The first condition is that the job ID is AD PRES and the salary is greater than \$15,000.
- The second condition is that the job ID is SA REP.

Therefore, the SELECT statement reads as follows:

"Select the row if an employee is a president *and* earns more than \$15,000, *or* if the employee is a sales representative."

2. Example of Using Parentheses

In this example, there are two conditions:

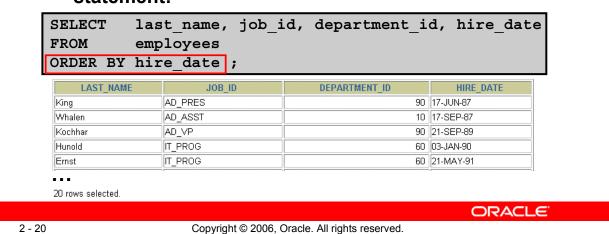
- The first condition is that the job ID is AD PRES or SA REP.
- The second condition is that salary is greater than \$15,000.

Therefore, the SELECT statement reads as follows:

"Select the row if an employee is a president *or* a sales representative, *and* if the employee earns more than \$15,000."

Using the ORDER BY Clause

- Sort retrieved rows with the ORDER BY clause:
 - ASC: ascending order, default
 - DESC: descending order
- The ORDER BY clause comes last in the SELECT statement:



Using the ORDER BY Clause

The order of rows that are returned in a query result is undefined. The ORDER BY clause can be used to sort the rows. If you use the ORDER BY clause, it must be the last clause of the SQL statement. You can specify an expression, an alias, or a column position as the sort condition.

Syntax

SELECT expr
FROM table
[WHERE condition(s)]

[ORDER BY {column, expr, numeric position} [ASC DESC]];

In the syntax:

ORDER BY specifies the order in which the retrieved rows are displayed orders the rows in ascending order (this is the default order)

DESC orders the rows in descending order

If the ORDER BY clause is not used, the sort order is undefined, and the Oracle server may not fetch rows in the same order for the same query twice. Use the ORDER BY clause to display the rows in a specific order.

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Sorting

Sorting in descending order:

```
SELECT last_name, job_id, department_id, hire_date FROM employees ORDER BY hire_date DESC;
```

Sorting by column alias:

```
SELECT employee_id, last_name, salary*12 annsal FROM employees ORDER BY annsal;
```

Sorting by multiple columns:

```
SELECT last_name, department_id, salary
FROM employees

ORDER BY department_id, salary DESC;
```

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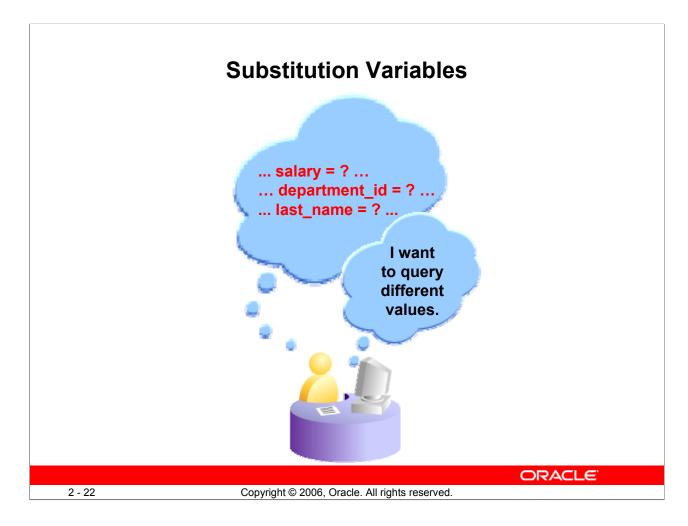
Default Ordering of Data

The default sort order is ascending:

- Numeric values are displayed with the lowest values first (for example, 1 to 999).
- Date values are displayed with the earliest value first (for example, 01-JAN-92 before 01-JAN-95).
- Character values are displayed in alphabetical order (for example, A first and Z last).
- Null values are displayed last for ascending sequences and first for descending sequences.
- You can sort by a column that is not in the SELECT list.

Examples

- 1. To reverse the order in which rows are displayed, specify the DESC keyword after the column name in the ORDER BY clause. The slide example sorts the result by the most recently hired employee.
- 2. You can use a column alias in the ORDER BY clause. The slide example sorts the data by annual salary.
- 3. You can sort query results by more than one column. The sort limit is the number of columns in the given table. In the ORDER BY clause, specify the columns and separate the column names using commas. If you want to reverse the order of a column, specify DESC after its name.



Substitution Variables

The examples so far have been hard-coded. In a finished application, the user would trigger the report, and the report would run without further prompting. The range of data would be predetermined by the fixed WHERE clause in the *i*SQL*Plus script file.

Using *i*SQL*Plus, you can create reports that prompt users to supply their own values to restrict the range of data returned by using substitution variables. You can embed *substitution variables* in a command file or in a single SQL statement. A variable can be thought of as a container in which the values are temporarily stored. When the statement is run, the value is substituted.

Substitution Variables

- Use iSQL*Plus substitution variables to:
 - Temporarily store values with single-ampersand (&) and double-ampersand (&&) substitution
- Use substitution variables to supplement the following:
 - WHERE conditions
 - ORDER BY clauses
 - Column expressions
 - Table names
 - Entire SELECT statements

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Substitution Variables (continued)

In *i*SQL*Plus, you can use single-ampersand (&) substitution variables to temporarily store values.

You can predefine variables in *i*SQL*Plus by using the DEFINE command. DEFINE creates and assigns a value to a variable.

Examples of Restricted Ranges of Data

- Reporting figures only for the current quarter or specified date range
- Reporting on data relevant only to the user requesting the report
- Displaying personnel only within a given department

Other Interactive Effects

Interactive effects are not restricted to direct user interaction with the WHERE clause. The same principles can be used to achieve other goals, such as:

- Obtaining input values from a file rather than from a person
- Passing values from one SQL statement to another

iSQL*Plus does not support validation checks (except for data type) on user input.

Use a v	ariable pre	fixed with an a	ampersa	nd (&) to prom
the use	er for a valu	ie:		
SELECT FROM WHERE	employees	id, last_name, id = &employee		department_id
				Connected as ORA1@T6
(i) Inp	out Required			
				Cancel Continue
	for employee_num:			

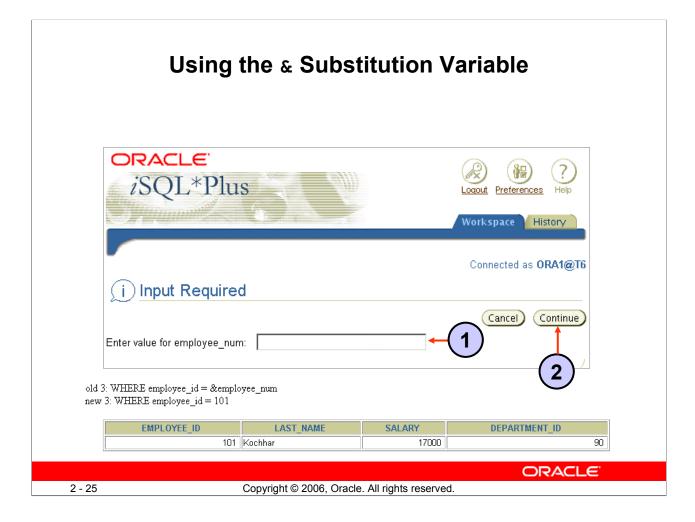
Single-Ampersand Substitution Variable

When running a report, users often want to restrict the data that is returned dynamically. *i*SQL*Plus provides this flexibility with user variables. Use an ampersand (&) to identify each variable in your SQL statement. You do not need to define the value of each variable.

Notation	Description
&user_variable	Indicates a variable in a SQL statement; if the variable does not exist, <i>i</i> SQL*Plus prompts the user for a value (<i>i</i> SQL*Plus discards a new variable after it is used.)

The example in the slide creates an *i*SQL*Plus substitution variable for an employee number. When the statement is executed, *i*SQL*Plus prompts the user for an employee number and then displays the employee number, last name, salary, and department number for that employee.

With the single ampersand, the user is prompted every time the command is executed, if the variable does not exist.



Single-Ampersand Substitution Variable (continued)

When *i*SQL*Plus detects that the SQL statement contains an ampersand, you are prompted to enter a value for the substitution variable that is named in the SQL statement.

After you enter a value and click the Continue button, the results are displayed in the output area of your *i*SQL*Plus session.

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Character and Date Values with Substitution Variables Use single quotation marks for date and character values: SELECT last name, department id, salary*12 employees job id = '&job title' (i) Input Required Cancel Continue Enter value for job_title: | IT_PROG|

LAST_NAME DEPARTMENT ID SALARY*12 Hunold 60 108000 Ernst 60 72000 Lorentz 60 50400

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FROM

WHERE

Specifying Character and Date Values with Substitution Variables

In a WHERE clause, date and character values must be enclosed in single quotation marks. The same rule applies to the substitution variables.

Enclose the variable in single quotation marks within the SQL statement itself.

The slide shows a query to retrieve the employee names, department numbers, and annual salaries of all employees based on the job title value of the iSQL*Plus substitution variable.

Specifying Column Names, Expressions, and Text SELECT employee id, last name, job id, &column name FROM employees WHERE &condition ORDER BY &order column ; (i) Input Required Cancel Continue Enter value for column_name: | salary Cancel) Continue Enter value for condition: salary > 15000 Cancel) (Continue) Enter value for order_column: last name ORACLE 2 - 27 Copyright © 2006, Oracle. All rights reserved.

Specifying Column Names, Expressions, and Text

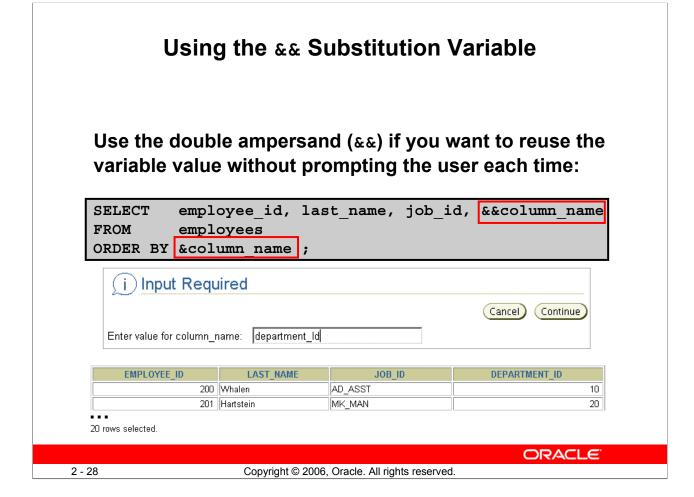
Not only can you use the substitution variables in the WHERE clause of a SQL statement, but these variables can also be used to substitute for column names, expressions, or text.

Example

The slide example displays the employee number, name, job title, and any other column that is specified by the user at run time, from the EMPLOYEES table. For each substitution variable in the SELECT statement, you are prompted to enter a value, and you then click the Continue button to proceed.

If you do not enter a value for the substitution variable, you get an error when you execute the preceding statement.

Note: A substitution variable can be used anywhere in the SELECT statement, except as the first word entered at the command prompt.



Double-Ampersand Substitution Variable

You can use the double-ampersand (&&) substitution variable if you want to reuse the variable value without prompting the user each time. The user sees the prompt for the value only once. In the example in the slide, the user is asked to give the value for variable column_name only once. The value that is supplied by the user (department_id) is used for both display and ordering of data.

*i*SQL*Plus stores the value that is supplied by using the DEFINE command; it uses it again whenever you reference the variable name. After a user variable is in place, you need to use the UNDEFINE command to delete it as follows:

UNDEFINE column name

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Using the iSQL*Plus DEFINE Command

- Use the iSQL*Plus DEFINE command to create and assign a value to a variable.
- Use the iSQL*Plus UNDEFINE command to remove a variable.

```
DEFINE employee_num = 200

SELECT employee_id, last_name, salary, department_id
FROM employees
WHERE employee_id = &employee_num;
UNDEFINE employee_num
```

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Using the *i*SQL*Plus DEFINE Command

The example shown creates an *i*SQL*Plus substitution variable for an employee number by using the DEFINE command. At run time, this displays the employee number, name, salary, and department number for that employee.

Because the variable is created using the *i*SQL*Plus DEFINE command, the user is not prompted to enter a value for the employee number. Instead, the defined variable value is automatically substituted in the SELECT statement.

The EMPLOYEE_NUM substitution variable is present in the session until the user undefines it or exits the *i*SQL*Plus session.

Using the **VERIFY** Command

Use the VERIFY command to toggle the display of the substitution variable, both before and after *i*SQL*Plus replaces substitution variables with values:

```
SET VERIFY ON
    SELECT employee id, last name, salary, department id
    FROM
            employees
    WHERE
            employee id = &employee num;
   "employee_num" 200
    old
              WHERE
                       employee id = &employee num
   new
           3: WHERE
                       employee id = 200
                                                         ORACLE
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```

Using the VERIFY Command

To confirm the changes in the SQL statement, use the *i*SQL*Plus VERIFY command. Setting SET VERIFY ON forces *i*SQL*Plus to display the text of a command before and after it replaces substitution variables with values.

The example in the slide displays the old as well as the new value of the EMPLOYEE_ID column.

iSQL*Plus System Variables

*i*SQL*Plus uses various system variables that control the working environment. One of those variables is VERIFY. To obtain a complete list of all system variables, you can issue the SHOW ALL command.

Summary

In this lesson, you should have learned how to:

- Use the WHERE clause to restrict rows of output:
 - Use the comparison conditions
 - Use the BETWEEN, IN, LIKE, and NULL conditions
 - Apply the logical AND, OR, and NOT operators
- Use the ORDER BY clause to sort rows of output:

```
SELECT * | \{ [DISTINCT] \ column | expression [alias], ... \}
FROM table

[WHERE condition(s)]
[ORDER BY \{ column, expr, alias \} [ASC|DESC]];
```

 Use ampersand substitution in iSQL*Plus to restrict and sort output at run time

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Summary

In this lesson, you should have learned about restricting and sorting rows that are returned by the SELECT statement. You should also have learned how to implement various operators and conditions.

By using the *i*SQL*Plus substitution variables, you can add flexibility to your SQL statements. You can query users at run time and enable them to specify criteria.

Practice 2: Overview

This practice covers the following topics:

- Selecting data and changing the order of the rows that are displayed
- Restricting rows by using the WHERE clause
- Sorting rows by using the ORDER BY clause
- Using substitution variables to add flexibility to your SQL SELECT statements

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Practice 2: Overview

In this practice, you build more reports, including statements that use the WHERE clause and the ORDER BY clause. You make the SQL statements more reusable and generic by including ampersand substitution.

Practice 2

The HR department needs your assistance with creating some queries.

1. Because of budget issues, the HR department needs a report that displays the last name and salary of employees who earn more than \$12,000. Place your SQL statement in a text file named lab 02 01.sql. Run your query.

LAST_NAME	SALARY
King	24000
Kochhar	17000
De Haan	17000
Hartstein	13000

2. Create a report that displays the last name and department number for employee number 176.

LAST_NAME	DEPARTMENT_ID
Taylor	80

3. The HR department needs to find high-salary and low-salary employees. Modify lab_02_01.sql to display the last name and salary for any employee whose salary is not in the range of \$5,000 to \$12,000. Place your SQL statement in a text file named lab_02_03.sql.

LAST_NAME	SALARY
King	24000
Kochhar	17000
De Haan	17000
Lorentz	4200
Rajs	3500
Davies	3100
Matos	2600
Vargas	2500
Whalen	4400
Hartstein	13000
10 rows selected.	

4. Create a report to display the last name, job ID, and start date for the employees with the last names of Matos and Taylor. Order the query in ascending order by start date.

LAST_NAME	JOB_ID	HIRE_DATE
Matos	ST_CLERK	15-MAR-98
Taylor	SA_REP	24-MAR-98

5. Display the last name and department number of all employees in departments 20 or 50 in ascending alphabetical order by name.

LAST_NAME	DEPARTMENT_ID
Davies	50
Fay	20
Hartstein	20
Matos	50
Mourgos	50
Rajs	50
Vargas	50
7 rows selected.	

6. Modify lab_02_03.sql to display the last name and salary of employees who earn between \$5,000 and \$12,000 and are in department 20 or 50. Label the columns Employee and Monthly Salary, respectively. Resave lab_02_03.sql as lab_02_06.sql. Run the statement in lab_02_06.sql.

Employee	Monthly Salary
Fay	6000
Mourgos	5800

7. The HR department needs a report that displays the last name and hire date for all employees who were hired in 1994.

LAST_NAME	HIRE_DATE
Higgins	07-JUN-94
Gietz	07-JUN-94

8. Create a report to display the last name and job title of all employees who do not have a manager.

LAST_NAME	JOB_ID
King	AD_PRES

9. Create a report to display the last name, salary, and commission of all employees who earn commissions. Sort data in descending order of salary and commissions.

LAST_NAME	SALARY	COMMISSION_PCT
Abel	11000	.3
Zlotkey	10500	.2
Taylor	8600	.2
Grant	7000	.15

10. Members of the HR department want to have more flexibility with the queries that you are writing. They would like a report that displays the last name and salary of employees who earn more than an amount that the user specifies after a prompt. (You can use the query that you created in practice exercise 1 and modify it.) Save this query to a file named lab_02_10.sql. If you enter 12000 when prompted, the report displays the following results:

LAST_NAME	SALARY
King	24000
Kochhar	17000
De Haan	17000
Hartstein	13000

11. The HR department wants to run reports based on a manager. Create a query that prompts the user for a manager ID and generates the employee ID, last name, salary, and department for that manager's employees. The HR department wants the ability to sort the report on a selected column. You can test the data with the following values:

manager ID = 103, sorted by employee last name:

EMPLOYEE_ID	LAST_NAME	SALARY	DEPARTMENT_ID
104	Ernst	6000	60
107	Lorentz	4200	60

manager ID = 201, sorted by salary:

EMPLOYEE_ID	LAST_NAME	SALARY	DEPARTMENT_ID
202	Fay	6000	20

manager ID = 124, sorted by employee ID:

EMPLOYEE_ID	LAST_NAME	SALARY	DEPARTMENT_ID
141	Rajs	3500	50
142	Davies	3100	50
143	Matos	2600	50
144	Vargas	2500	50

If you have time, complete the following exercises:

12. Display all employee last names in which the third letter of the name is a.

	LAST_NAME
Grant	
Whalen	

13. Display the last names of all employees who have both an a and an e in their last name.

Davies De Haan Hartstein Whalen		LAST_NAME	
Hartstein	Davies		
	De Haan		
Whalen	Hartstein		
	Whalen		

If you want an extra challenge, complete the following exercises:

14. Display the last name, job, and salary for all employees whose jobs are either sales representative or stock clerk and whose salaries are not equal to \$2,500, \$3,500, or \$7,000.

LAST_NAME	JOB_ID	SALARY
Abel	SA_REP	11000
Taylor	SA_REP	8600
Davies	ST_CLERK	3100
Matos	ST_CLERK	2600

15. Modify lab_02_06.sql to display the last name, salary, and commission for all employees whose commission amount is 20%. Resave lab_02_06.sql as lab_02_15.sql. Rerun the statement in lab_02_15.sql.

Employee	Monthly Salary	COMMISSION_PCT
Zlotkey	10500	.2
Taylor	8600	.2

Using Single-Row Functions to Customize Output

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Objectives

After completing this lesson, you should be able to do the following:

- Describe various types of functions that are available in SQL
- Use character, number, and date functions in SELECT statements
- Describe the use of conversion functions

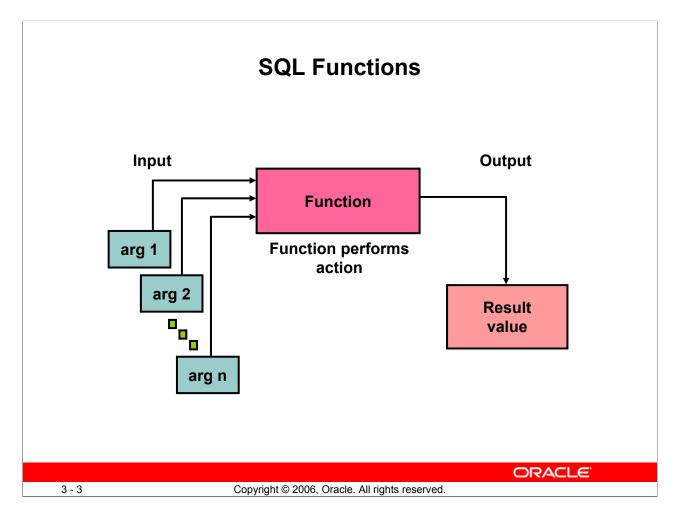
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Objectives

Functions make the basic query block more powerful, and they are used to manipulate data values. This is the first of two lessons that explore functions. It focuses on single-row character, number, and date functions, as well as those functions that convert data from one type to another (for example, conversion from character data to numeric data).



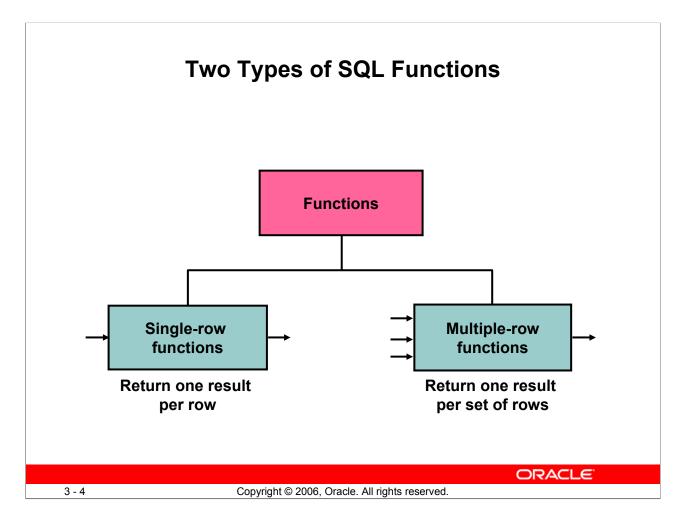
SQL Functions

Functions are a very powerful feature of SQL. They can be used to do the following:

- Perform calculations on data
- Modify individual data items
- Manipulate output for groups of rows
- Format dates and numbers for display
- Convert column data types

SQL functions sometimes take arguments and always return a value.

Note: Most of the functions that are described in this lesson are specific to the Oracle version of SQL.



SQL Functions (continued)

There are two types of functions:

- Single-row functions
- Multiple-row functions

Single-Row Functions

These functions operate on single rows only and return one result per row. There are different types of single-row functions. This lesson covers the following ones:

- Character
- Number
- Date
- Conversion
- General

Multiple-Row Functions

Functions can manipulate groups of rows to give one result per group of rows. These functions are also known as *group functions* (covered in lesson 4).

Note: For more information and a complete list of available functions and their syntax, see *Oracle SQL Reference*.

Single-Row Functions

Single-row functions:

- Manipulate data items
- Accept arguments and return one value
- Act on each row that is returned
- Return one result per row
- May modify the data type
- Can be nested
- Accept arguments that can be a column or an expression

```
function name [(arg1, arg2,...)]
```

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Single-Row Functions

Single-row functions are used to manipulate data items. They accept one or more arguments and return one value for each row that is returned by the query. An argument can be one of the following:

- User-supplied constant
- Variable value
- Column name
- Expression

Features of single-row functions include:

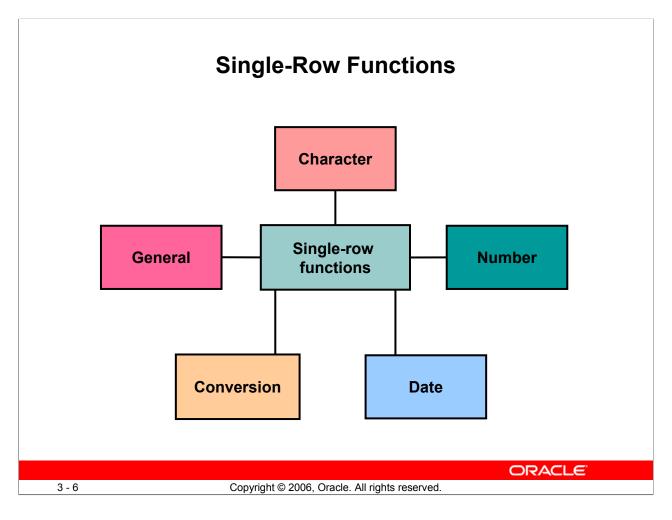
- Acting on each row that is returned in the query
- Returning one result per row
- Possibly returning a data value of a different type than the one that is referenced
- Possibly expecting one or more arguments
- Can be used in SELECT, WHERE, and ORDER BY clauses; can be nested

In the syntax:

function name is the name of the function

arg1, arg2 is any argument to be used by the function. This can be

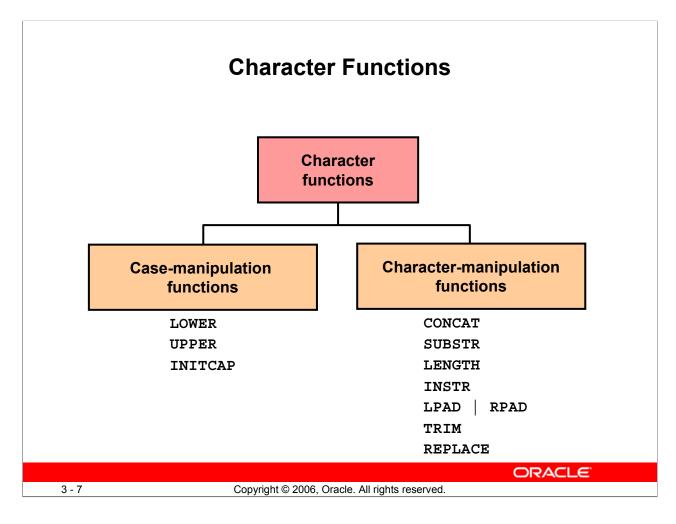
represented by a column name or expression.



Single-Row Functions (continued)

This lesson covers the following single-row functions:

- Character functions: Accept character input and can return both character and number values
- Number functions: Accept numeric input and return numeric values
- **Date functions:** Operate on values of the DATE data type (All date functions return a value of DATE data type except the MONTHS BETWEEN function, which returns a number.)
- Conversion functions: Convert a value from one data type to another
- General functions:
 - NVL
 - NVL2
 - NULLIF
 - COALESCE
 - CASE
 - DECODE



Character Functions

Single-row character functions accept character data as input and can return both character and numeric values. Character functions can be divided into the following:

- Case-manipulation functions
- Character-manipulation functions

Function	Purpose
LOWER (column expression)	Converts alpha character values to lowercase
UPPER(column/expression)	Converts alpha character values to uppercase
INITCAP(column expression)	Converts alpha character values to uppercase for the first letter of each word; all other letters in lowercase
CONCAT(column1 expression1, column2 expression2)	Concatenates the first character value to the second character value; equivalent to concatenation operator ()
SUBSTR(column expression,m[,n])	Returns specified characters from character value starting at character position <i>m</i> , <i>n</i> characters long (If <i>m</i> is negative, the count starts from the end of the character value. If <i>n</i> is omitted, all characters to the end of the string are returned.)

Note: The functions discussed in this lesson are only some of the available functions.

Character Functions (continued)

Function	Purpose
LENGTH (column expression)	Returns the number of characters in the expression
<pre>INSTR(column expression, 'string', [,m], [n])</pre>	Returns the numeric position of a named string. Optionally, you can provide a position m to start searching, and the occurrence n of the string. m and n default to 1, meaning start the search at the beginning of the search and report the first occurrence.
LPAD(column expression, n,	Pads the character value right-justified to a total width of n character positions Pads the character value left-justified to a total width of n character positions
TRIM(leading trailing both, trim_character FROM trim_source)	Enables you to trim heading or trailing characters (or both) from a character string. If trim_character or trim_source is a character literal, you must enclose it in single quotation marks. This is a feature that is available in Oracle8i and later versions.
REPLACE(text, search_string, replacement_string)	Searches a text expression for a character string and, if found, replaces it with a specified replacement string

Case-Manipulation Functions

These functions convert case for character strings:

Function	Result
LOWER('SQL Course')	sql course
UPPER('SQL Course')	SQL COURSE
INITCAP('SQL Course')	Sql Course

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Case-Manipulation Functions

LOWER, UPPER, and INITCAP are the three case-conversion functions.

- LOWER: Converts mixed-case or uppercase character strings to lowercase
- **UPPER:** Converts mixed-case or lowercase character strings to uppercase
- **INITCAP:** Converts the first letter of each word to uppercase and remaining letters to lowercase

```
SELECT 'The job id for '||UPPER(last_name)||' is '
||LOWER(job_id) AS "EMPLOYEE DETAILS"
FROM employees;
```

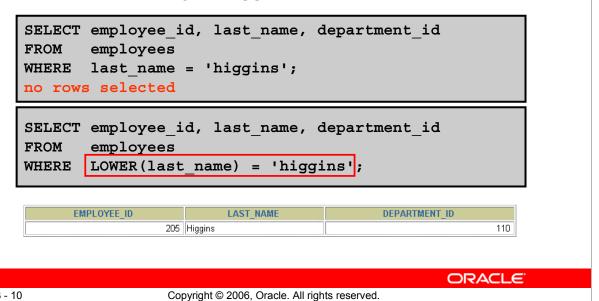
	EMPLOYEE DETAILS
The job id for KING is ad_pres	
The job id for KOCHHAR is ad_vp	
The job id for DE HAAN is ad_vp	

The job id for HIGGINS is ac_mgr
The job id for GIETZ is ac_account

20 rows selected.

Using Case-Manipulation Functions

Display the employee number, name, and department number for employee Higgins:



Using Case-Manipulation Functions

The slide example displays the employee number, name, and department number of employee Higgins.

The WHERE clause of the first SQL statement specifies the employee name as higgins. Because all the data in the EMPLOYEES table is stored in proper case, the name higgins does not find a match in the table, and no rows are selected.

The WHERE clause of the second SQL statement specifies that the employee name in the EMPLOYEES table is compared to higgins, converting the LAST_NAME column to lowercase for comparison purposes. Because both names are now lowercase, a match is found and one row is selected. The WHERE clause can be rewritten in the following manner to produce the same result:

```
...WHERE last name = 'Higgins'
```

The name in the output appears as it was stored in the database. To display the name in uppercase, use the UPPER function in the SELECT statement.

```
SELECT employee_id, UPPER(last_name), department_id
FROM employees
WHERE INITCAP(last_name) = 'Higgins';
```

Character-Manipulation Functions

These functions manipulate character strings:

Function	Result
CONCAT('Hello', 'World')	HelloWorld
SUBSTR('HelloWorld',1,5)	Hello
LENGTH('HelloWorld')	10
<pre>INSTR('HelloWorld', 'W')</pre>	6
LPAD(salary,10,'*')	****24000
RPAD(salary, 10, '*')	24000****
REPLACE ('JACK and JUE','J','BL')	BLACK and BLUE
TRIM('H' FROM 'HelloWorld')	elloWorld

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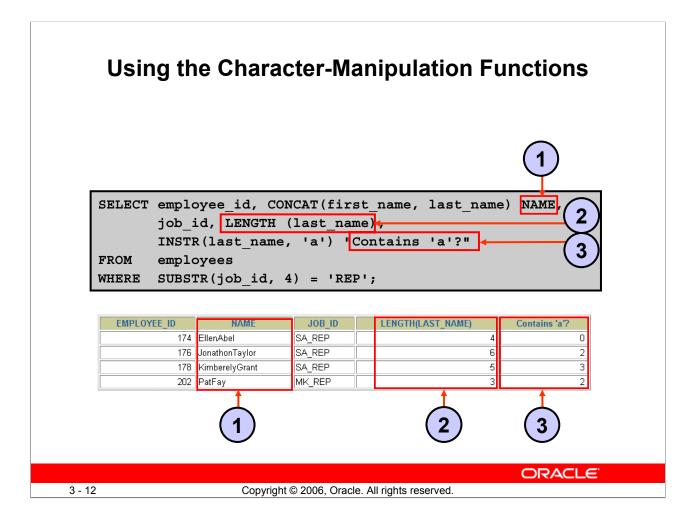
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Character-Manipulation Functions

CONCAT, SUBSTR, LENGTH, INSTR, LPAD, RPAD, and TRIM are the character-manipulation functions that are covered in this lesson.

- **CONCAT:** Joins values together (You are limited to using two parameters with CONCAT.)
- SUBSTR: Extracts a string of determined length
- **LENGTH:** Shows the length of a string as a numeric value
- **INSTR:** Finds the numeric position of a named character
- LPAD: Pads the character value right-justified
- RPAD: Pads the character value left-justified
- **TRIM:** Trims heading or trailing characters (or both) from a character string (If trim_character or trim_source is a character literal, you must enclose it in single quotation marks.)

Note: You can use functions such as UPPER and LOWER with ampersand substitution. For example, use UPPER ('&job_title') so that the user does not have to enter the job title in a specific case.



Using the Character-Manipulation Functions

The slide example displays employee first names and last names joined together, the length of the employee last name, and the numeric position of the letter a in the employee last name for all employees who have the string REP contained in the job ID starting at the fourth position of the job ID.

Example

Modify the SQL statement in the slide to display the data for those employees whose last names end with the letter n.

```
SELECT employee_id, CONCAT(first_name, last_name) NAME,
LENGTH (last_name), INSTR(last_name, 'a') "Contains 'a'?"
FROM employees
WHERE SUBSTR(last name, -1, 1) = 'n';
```

EMPLOYEE_ID	NAME	LENGTH(LAST_NAME)	Contains 'a'?
102	LexDe Haan	7	5
200	JenniferWhalen	6	3
201	MichaelHartstein	9	2

Number Functions

- ROUND: Rounds value to specified decimal
- TRUNC: Truncates value to specified decimal
- MOD: Returns remainder of division

Function	Result
ROUND(45.926, 2)	45.93
TRUNC(45.926, 2)	45.92
MOD(1600, 300)	100

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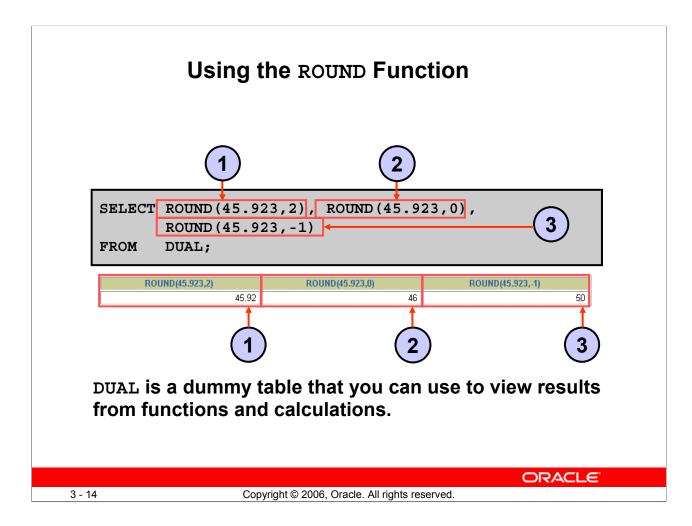
Number Functions

Number functions accept numeric input and return numeric values. This section describes some of the number functions.

Function	Purpose
ROUND(column expression, n)	Rounds the column, expression, or value to <i>n</i> decimal places or, if <i>n</i> is omitted, no decimal places (If <i>n</i> is negative, numbers to left of the decimal point are rounded.)
TRUNC(column expression, n)	Truncates the column, expression, or value to <i>n</i> decimal places or, if <i>n</i> is omitted, <i>n</i> defaults to zero
MOD (m, n)	Returns the remainder of <i>m</i> divided by <i>n</i>

Note: This list contains only some of the available number functions.

For more information, see "Number Functions" in Oracle SQL Reference.



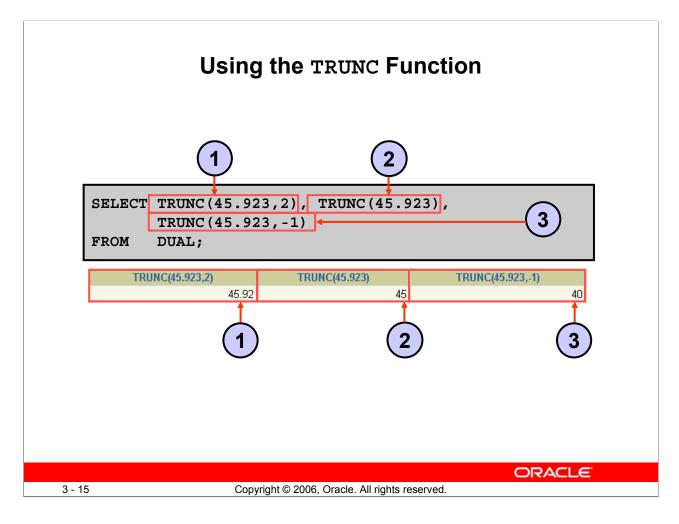
ROUND Function

The ROUND function rounds the column, expression, or value to n decimal places. If the second argument is 0 or is missing, the value is rounded to zero decimal places. If the second argument is 2, the value is rounded to two decimal places. Conversely, if the second argument is -2, the value is rounded to two decimal places to the left (rounded to the nearest unit of 10).

The ROUND function can also be used with date functions. You will see examples later in this lesson.

DUAL Table

The DUAL table is owned by the user SYS and can be accessed by all users. It contains one column, DUMMY, and one row with the value X. The DUAL table is useful when you want to return a value once only (for example, the value of a constant, pseudocolumn, or expression that is not derived from a table with user data). The DUAL table is generally used for SELECT clause syntax completeness, because both SELECT and FROM clauses are mandatory, and several calculations do not need to select from actual tables.



TRUNC Function

The TRUNC function truncates the column, expression, or value to n decimal places.

The TRUNC function works with arguments similar to those of the ROUND function. If the second argument is 0 or is missing, the value is truncated to zero decimal places. If the second argument is 2, the value is truncated to two decimal places. Conversely, if the second argument is -2, the value is truncated to two decimal places to the left. If the second argument is -1, the value is truncated to one decimal place to the left.

Like the ROUND function, the TRUNC function can be used with date functions.

Using the MOD Function

For all employees with job title of Sales Representative, calculate the remainder of the salary after it is divided by 5,000.

```
SELECT last_name, salary, MOD(salary, 5000)
FROM employees
WHERE job_id = 'SA_REP';
```

LAST_NAME	SALARY	MOD(SALARY,5000)
Abel	11000	1000
Taylor	8600	3600
Grant	7000	2000

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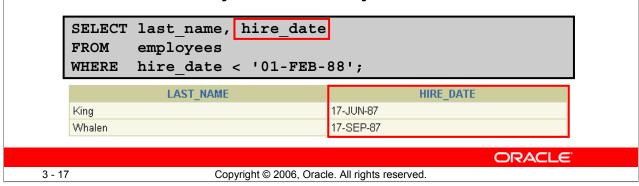
MOD Function

The MOD function finds the remainder of the first argument divided by the second argument. The slide example calculates the remainder of the salary after dividing it by 5,000 for all employees whose job ID is SA REP.

Note: The MOD function is often used to determine if a value is odd or even.

Working with Dates

- The Oracle database stores dates in an internal numeric format: century, year, month, day, hours, minutes, and seconds.
- The default date display format is DD-MON-RR.
 - Enables you to store 21st-century dates in the 20th century by specifying only the last two digits of the year
 - Enables you to store 20th-century dates in the 21st century in the same way



Oracle Date Format

The Oracle database stores dates in an internal numeric format, representing the century, year, month, day, hours, minutes, and seconds.

The default display and input format for any date is DD-MON-RR. Valid Oracle dates are between January 1, 4712 B.C., and December 31, 9999 A.D.

In the example in the slide, the HIRE_DATE column output is displayed in the default format DD-MON-RR. However, dates are not stored in the database in this format. All the components of the date and time are stored. So, although a HIRE_DATE such as 17-JUN-87 is displayed as day, month, and year, there is also *time* and *century* information associated with the date. The complete data might be June 17, 1987, 5:10:43 p.m.

Oracle Date Format (continued)

This data is stored internally as follows:

CENTURY	YEAR	MONTH	DAY	HOUR	MINUTE	SECOND
19	87	06	17	17	10	43

Centuries and the Year 2000

When a record with a date column is inserted into a table, the *century* information is picked up from the SYSDATE function. However, when the date column is displayed on the screen, the century component is not displayed (by default).

The DATE data type always stores year information as a four-digit number internally: two digits for the century and two digits for the year. For example, the Oracle database stores the year as 1987 or 2004, and not just as 87 or 04.

Working with Dates

SYSDATE is a function that returns:

- Date
- Time

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SYSDATE Function

SYSDATE is a date function that returns the current database server date and time. You can use SYSDATE just as you would use any other column name. For example, you can display the current date by selecting SYSDATE from a table. It is customary to select SYSDATE from a dummy table called DUAL.

Example

Display the current date using the DUAL table.

SELECT SYSDATE FROM DUAL;

SYSDATE

28-SEP-01

Arithmetic with Dates

- Add or subtract a number to or from a date for a resultant date value.
- Subtract two dates to find the number of days between those dates.
- Add hours to a date by dividing the number of hours by 24.

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Arithmetic with Dates

Because the database stores dates as numbers, you can perform calculations using arithmetic operators such as addition and subtraction. You can add and subtract number constants as well as dates.

You can perform the following operations:

Operation	Result	Description
date + number	Date	Adds a number of days to a date
date – number	Date	Subtracts a number of days from a date
date – date	Number of days	Subtracts one date from another
date + number/24	Date	Adds a number of hours to a date

Using Arithmetic Operators with Dates

SELECT	last_name,	(SYSDATE-hire_date)/7 AS WEEKS
FROM	employees	
WHERE	department_	_id = 90;

LAST_NAME	WEEKS
King	744.245395
Kochhar	626.102538
De Haan	453.245395

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Arithmetic with Dates (continued)

The example in the slide displays the last name and the number of weeks employed for all employees in department 90. It subtracts the date on which the employee was hired from the current date (SYSDATE) and divides the result by 7 to calculate the number of weeks that a worker has been employed.

Note: SYSDATE is a SQL function that returns the current date and time. Your results may differ from the example.

If a more current date is subtracted from an older date, the difference is a negative number.

Date Functions

Function	Result
MONTHS_BETWEEN	Number of months between two dates
ADD_MONTHS	Add calendar months to date
NEXT_DAY	Next day of the date specified
LAST_DAY	Last day of the month
ROUND	Round date
TRUNC	Truncate date

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Date Functions

Date functions operate on Oracle dates. All date functions return a value of DATE data type except MONTHS BETWEEN, which returns a numeric value.

- MONTHS_BETWEEN (date1, date2): Finds the number of months between date1 and date2. The result can be positive or negative. If date1 is later than date2, the result is positive; if date1 is earlier than date2, the result is negative. The noninteger part of the result represents a portion of the month.
- ADD_MONTHS (date, n): Adds n number of calendar months to date. The value of n must be an integer and can be negative.
- **NEXT_DAY** (date, 'char'): Finds the date of the next specified day of the week ('char') following date. The value of char may be a number representing a day or a character string.
- LAST DAY (date): Finds the date of the last day of the month that contains date
- ROUND (date[,'fmt']): Returns date rounded to the unit that is specified by the format model fmt. If the format model fmt is omitted, date is rounded to the nearest day.
- TRUNC (date[, 'fmt']): Returns date with the time portion of the day truncated to the unit that is specified by the format model fmt. If the format model fmt is omitted, date is truncated to the nearest day.

This list is a subset of the available date functions. The format models are covered later in this lesson. Examples of format models are month and year.

Using Date Functions

Function	Result
MONTHS_BETWEEN	19.6774194
('01-SEP-95','11-JAN-94')	
ADD_MONTHS ('11-JAN-94',6)	'11-JUL-94'
NEXT_DAY ('01-SEP-95','FRIDAY')	'08-SEP-95'
LAST_DAY ('01-FEB-95')	'28-FEB-95'

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Date Functions (continued)

For example, display the employee number, hire date, number of months employed, six-month review date, first Friday after hire date, and last day of the hire month for all employees who have been employed for fewer than 80 months.

```
SELECT employee_id, hire_date,

MONTHS_BETWEEN (SYSDATE, hire_date) TENURE,

ADD_MONTHS (hire_date, 6) REVIEW,

NEXT_DAY (hire_date, 'FRIDAY'), LAST_DAY(hire_date)

FROM employees

WHERE MONTHS_BETWEEN (SYSDATE, hire_date) < 80;
```

EMPLOYEE_ID	HIRE_DATE	TENURE	REVIEW	NEXT_DAY (HIRE_DATE	LAST_DAY (HIRE_DATE
124	16-NOV-99	76.7452677	16-MAY- 00	19-NOV-99	30-NOV-99
149	29-JAN-00	74.3259129	29-JUL- 00	04-FEB-00	31-JAN-00

Using Date Functions

Assume SYSDATE = '25-JUL-03':

Function	Result
ROUND (SYSDATE, 'MONTH')	01-AUG-03
ROUND (SYSDATE , 'YEAR')	01-JAN-04
TRUNC(SYSDATE ,'MONTH')	01-JUL-03
TRUNC(SYSDATE ,'YEAR')	01-JAN-03

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Date Functions (continued)

The ROUND and TRUNC functions can be used for number and date values. When used with dates, these functions round or truncate to the specified format model. Therefore, you can round dates to the nearest year or month.

Example

Compare the hire dates for all employees who started in 1997. Display the employee number, hire date, and start month using the ROUND and TRUNC functions.

```
SELECT employee_id, hire_date,
ROUND(hire_date, 'MONTH'), TRUNC(hire_date, 'MONTH')
FROM employees
WHERE hire date LIKE '%97';
```

EMPLOYEE_ID	HIRE_DATE	ROUND(HIR	TRUNC(HIR
142	29-JAN-97	01-FEB-97	01-JAN-97
202	17-AUG-97	01-SEP-97	01-AUG-97

Practice 3: Overview of Part 1

This practice covers the following topics:

- Writing a query that displays the current date
- Creating queries that require the use of numeric, character, and date functions
- Performing calculations of years and months of service for an employee

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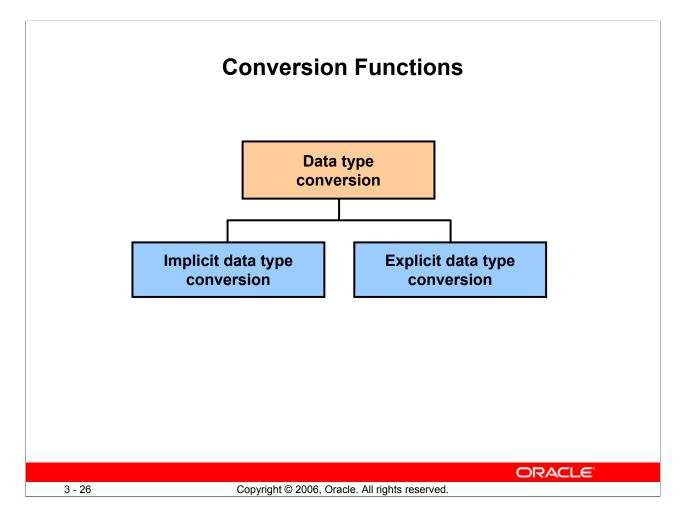
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Practice 3: Overview of Part 1

Part 1 of this lesson's practice provides a variety of exercises using different functions that are available for character, number, and date data types.

For Part 1, complete questions 1–6 at the end of this lesson.



Conversion Functions

In addition to Oracle data types, columns of tables in an Oracle database can be defined using ANSI, DB2, and SQL/DS data types. However, the Oracle server internally converts such data types to Oracle data types.

In some cases, the Oracle server uses data of one data type where it expects data of a different data type. When this happens, the Oracle server can automatically convert the data to the expected data type. This data type conversion can be done *implicitly* by the Oracle server or *explicitly* by the user.

Implicit data type conversions work according to the rules that are explained in the next two slides.

Explicit data type conversions are done by using the conversion functions. Conversion functions convert a value from one data type to another. Generally, the form of the function names follows the convention data type TO data type. The first data type is the input data type; the second data type is the output.

Note: Although implicit data type conversion is available, it is recommended that you do explicit data type conversion to ensure the reliability of your SQL statements.

Implicit Data Type Conversion

For assignments, the Oracle server can automatically convert the following:

From	То
VARCHAR2 or CHAR	NUMBER
VARCHAR2 or CHAR	DATE
NUMBER	VARCHAR2
DATE	VARCHAR2

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Implicit Data Type Conversion

The assignment succeeds if the Oracle server can convert the data type of the value used in the assignment to that of the assignment target.

For example, the expression hire_date > '01-JAN-90' results in the implicit conversion from the string '01-JAN-90' to a date.

Implicit Data Type Conversion

For expression evaluation, the Oracle Server can automatically convert the following:

From	То
VARCHAR2 or CHAR	NUMBER
VARCHAR2 or CHAR	DATE

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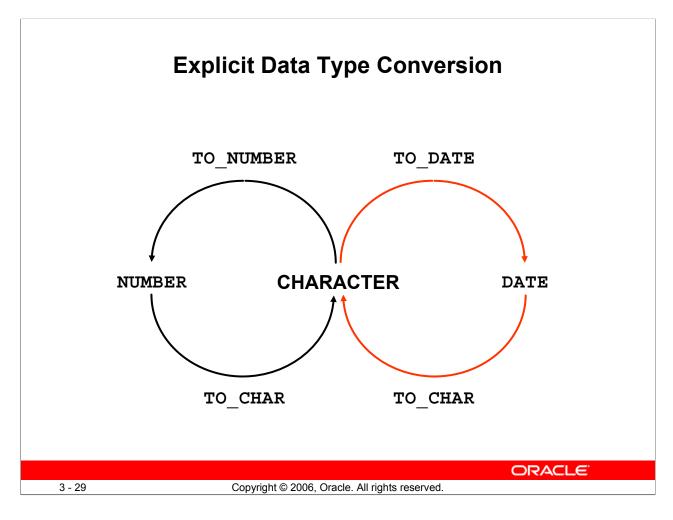
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Implicit Data Type Conversion (continued)

In general, the Oracle server uses the rule for expressions when a data type conversion is needed in places that are not covered by a rule for assignment conversions.

For example, the expression salary = '20000' results in the implicit conversion of the string '20000' to the number 20000.

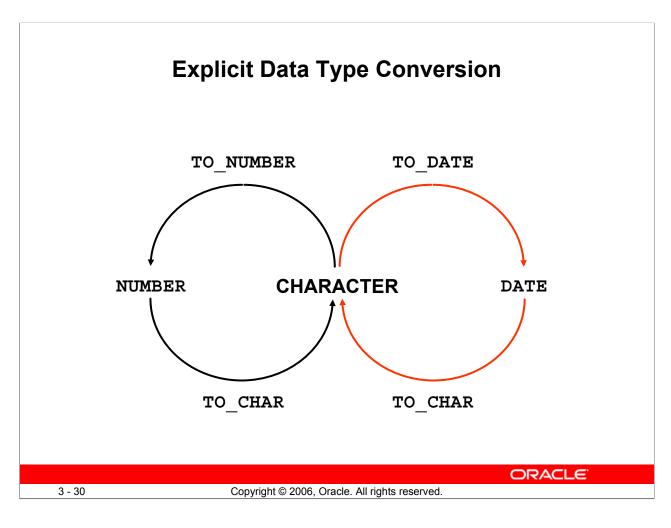
Note: CHAR to NUMBER conversions succeed only if the character string represents a valid number



Explicit Data Type Conversion

SQL provides three functions to convert a value from one data type to another:

Function	Purpose
TO_CHAR(number date,[fmt], [nlsparams])	Converts a number or date value to a VARCHAR2 character string with format model fmt
	Number conversion: The nlsparams parameter specifies the following characters, which are returned by number format elements:
	Decimal character
	Group separator
	Local currency symbol
	International currency symbol
	If nlsparams or any other parameter is omitted, this function uses the default parameter values for the session.



Explicit Data Type Conversion (continued)

Function	Purpose
TO_CHAR(number date,[fmt], [nlsparams])	Date conversion: The nlsparams parameter specifies the language in which month and day names and abbreviations are returned. If this parameter is omitted, this function uses the default date languages for the session.
TO_NUMBER(char,[fmt], [nlsparams])	Converts a character string containing digits to a number in the format specified by the optional format model fmt. The nlsparams parameter has the same purpose in this function as in the TO_CHAR function for number conversion.
TO_DATE(char,[fmt],[nlspara ms])	Converts a character string representing a date to a date value according to the fmt that is specified. If fmt is omitted, the format is DD-MON-YY. The nlsparams parameter has the same purpose in this function as in the TO_CHAR function for date conversion.

Explicit Data Type Conversion (continued)

Note: The list of functions mentioned in this lesson includes only some of the available conversion functions.

For more information, see "Conversion Functions" in Oracle SQL Reference.

Using the TO CHAR Function with Dates

```
TO_CHAR(date, 'format_model')
```

The format model:

- Must be enclosed by single quotation marks
- Is case sensitive
- Can include any valid date format element
- Has an fm element to remove padded blanks or suppress leading zeros
- Is separated from the date value by a comma

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Displaying a Date in a Specific Format

Previously, all Oracle date values were displayed in the DD-MON-YY format. You can use the TO_CHAR function to convert a date from this default format to one that you specify.

Guidelines

- The format model must be enclosed by single quotation marks and is case sensitive.
- The format model can include any valid date format element. Be sure to separate the date value from the format model by a comma.
- The names of days and months in the output are automatically padded with blanks.
- To remove padded blanks or to suppress leading zeros, use the fill mode fm element.
- You can format the resulting character field with the *i*SQL*Plus COLUMN command (covered in a later lesson).

```
SELECT employee_id, TO_CHAR(hire_date, 'MM/YY') Month_Hired
FROM employees
WHERE last name = 'Higgins';
```

EMPLOYEE_ID	MONTH
205 06	6/94

Elements of the Date Format Model

Element	Result
YYYY	Full year in numbers
YEAR	Year spelled out (in English)
MM	Two-digit value for month
MONTH	Full name of the month
MON	Three-letter abbreviation of the month
DY	Three-letter abbreviation of the day of the week
DAY	Full name of the day of the week
DD	Numeric day of the month

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Sample Format Elements of Valid Date Formats

Element	Description
SCC or CC	Century; server prefixes B.C. date with -
Years in dates YYYY or SYYYY	Year; server prefixes B.C. date with -
YYY or YY or Y	Last three, two, or one digits of year
Y,YYY	Year with comma in this position
IYYY, IYY, IY, I	Four-, three-, two-, or one-digit year based on the ISO standard
SYEAR or YEAR	Year spelled out; server prefixes B.C. date with -
BC or AD	Indicates B.C. or A.D. year
B.C. or A.D.	Indicates B.C. or A.D. year using periods
Q	Quarter of year
MM	Month: two-digit value
MONTH	Name of month padded with blanks to length of nine characters
MON	Name of month, three-letter abbreviation
RM	Roman numeral month
WW or W	Week of year or month
DDD or DD or D	Day of year, month, or week
DAY	Name of day padded with blanks to a length of nine characters
DY	Name of day; three-letter abbreviation
J	Julian day; the number of days since December 31, 4713 B.C.

Elements of the Date Format Model

Time elements format the time portion of the date:

HH24:MI:SS AM	15:45:32 PM
---------------	-------------

Add character strings by enclosing them in double quotation marks:

Number suffixes spell out numbers:

ddspth	fourteenth
--------	------------

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Date Format Elements: Time Formats

Use the formats that are listed in the following tables to display time information and literals and to change numerals to spelled numbers.

Element	Description
AM or PM	Meridian indicator
A.M. or P.M.	Meridian indicator with periods
HH or HH12 or HH24	Hour of day, or hour $(1-12)$, or hour $(0-23)$
MI	Minute (0–59)
SS	Second (0-59)
SSSSS	Seconds past midnight (0–86399)

Other Formats

Element	Description
/ . ,	Punctuation is reproduced in the result.
"of the"	Quoted string is reproduced in the result.

Specifying Suffixes to Influence Number Display

Element	Description
TH	Ordinal number (for example, DDTH for 4TH)
SP	Spelled-out number (for example, DDSP for FOUR)
SPTH or THSP	Spelled-out ordinal numbers (for example, DDSPTH for FOURTH)

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Using the TO CHAR Function with Dates



LAST_NAME	HIREDATE
King	17 June 1987
Kochhar	21 September 1989
De Haan	13 January 1993
Hunold	3 January 1990
Ernst	21 May 1991
Lorentz	7 February 1999
Mourgos	16 November 1999

20 rows selected.

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Using the TO CHAR Function with Dates

The SQL statement in the slide displays the last names and hire dates for all the employees. The hire date appears as 17 June 1987.

Example

Modify the slide example to display the dates in a format that appears as "Seventeenth of June 1987 12:00:00 AM."

```
SELECT last_name,
TO_CHAR(hire_date,
          'fmDdspth "of" Month YYYY fmHH:MI:SS AM')
HIREDATE
FROM employees;
```

LAST_NAME	HIREDATE
King	Seventeenth of June 1987 12:00:00 AM
Kochhar	Twenty-First of September 1989 12:00:00 AM

- - -

Notice that the month follows the format model specified; in other words, the first letter is capitalized and the rest are lowercase.

Using the TO CHAR Function with Numbers

TO_CHAR(number, 'format_model')

These are some of the format elements that you can use with the TO_CHAR function to display a number value as a character:

Element	Result
9	Represents a number
0	Forces a zero to be displayed
\$	Places a floating dollar sign
L	Uses the floating local currency symbol
•	Prints a decimal point
,	Prints a comma as thousands indicator

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Using the TO CHAR Function with Numbers

When working with number values such as character strings, you should convert those numbers to the character data type using the TO_CHAR function, which translates a value of NUMBER data type to VARCHAR2 data type. This technique is especially useful with concatenation.

Using the TO_CHAR Function with Numbers (continued)

Number Format Elements

If you are converting a number to the character data type, you can use the following format elements:

Element	Description	Example	Result
9	Numeric position (number of 9s determine display width)	999999	1234
0	Display leading zeros	099999	001234
\$	Floating dollar sign	\$999999	\$1234
L	Floating local currency symbol	L999999	FF1234
D	Returns in the specified position the decimal character. The default is a period (.).	99D99	99.99
	Decimal point in position specified	999999.99	1234.00
G	Returns the group separator in the specified position. You can specify multiple group separators in a number format model.	9,999	9G999
,	Comma in position specified	999,999	1,234
MI	Minus signs to right (negative values)	999999MI	1234-
PR	Parenthesize negative numbers	999999PR	<1234>
EEEE	Scientific notation (format must specify four Es)	99.999EEEE	1.234E+03
U	Returns in the specified position the "Euro" (or other) dual currency	U9999	€1234
V	Multiply by $10 n$ times ($n = \text{number of 9s after V}$)	9999V99	123400
S	Returns the negative or positive value	S9999	-1234 or +1234
В	Display zero values as blank, not 0	B9999.99	1234.00

Using the TO CHAR Function with Numbers

```
SELECT TO_CHAR(salary, '$99,999.00') SALARY
FROM employees
WHERE last_name = 'Ernst';
```

\$6,000.00

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Guidelines

- The Oracle server displays a string of number signs (#) in place of a whole number whose digits exceed the number of digits that is provided in the format model.
- The Oracle server rounds the stored decimal value to the number of decimal places that is provided in the format model.

Using the TO NUMBER and TO DATE Functions

 Convert a character string to a number format using the TO NUMBER function:

```
TO_NUMBER(char[, 'format_model'])
```

 Convert a character string to a date format using the TO DATE function:

```
TO_DATE(char[, 'format_model'])
```

 These functions have an fx modifier. This modifier specifies the exact matching for the character argument and date format model of a TO_DATE function.

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Using the TO NUMBER and TO DATE Functions

You may want to convert a character string to either a number or a date. To accomplish this task, use the TO_NUMBER or TO_DATE functions. The format model that you choose is based on the previously demonstrated format elements.

The fx modifier specifies exact matching for the character argument and date format model of a TO_DATE function:

- Punctuation and quoted text in the character argument must exactly match (except for case) the corresponding parts of the format model.
- The character argument cannot have extra blanks. Without fx, Oracle ignores extra blanks.
- Numeric data in the character argument must have the same number of digits as the corresponding element in the format model. Without fx, numbers in the character argument can omit leading zeros.

Using the TO NUMBER and TO DATE Functions (continued)

Example

Display the name and hire date for all employees who started on May 24, 1999. There are two spaces after the month *May* and the number 24 in the following example. Because the fx modifier is used, an exact match is required and the spaces after the word *May* are not recognized:

RR Date Format

Current Year	Specified Date	RR Format	YY Format
1995	27-OCT-95	1995	1995
1995	27-OCT-17	2017	1917
2001	27-OCT-17	2017	2017
2001	27-OCT-95	1995	2095

		If the specified two-digit year is:	
		0–49	50–99
If two digits of the current	0–49	The return date is in the current century	The return date is in the century before the current one
year are:	50–99	The return date is in the century after the current one	The return date is in the current century

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RR Date Format Element

The RR date format is similar to the YY element, but you can use it to specify different centuries. Use the RR date format element instead of YY so that the century of the return value varies according to the specified two-digit year and the last two digits of the current year. The table in the slide summarizes the behavior of the RR element.

Current Year	Given Date	Interpreted (RR)	Interpreted (YY)
1994	27-OCT-95	1995	1995
1994	27-OCT-17	2017	1917
2001	27-OCT-17	2017	2017

Example of RR Date Format

To find employees hired before 1990, use the RR date format, which produces the same results whether the command is run in 1999 or now:

```
SELECT last_name, TO_CHAR(hire_date, 'DD-Mon-YYYY')
FROM employees
WHERE hire_date < TO_DATE('01-Jan-90','DD-Mon-RR');</pre>
```

LAST_NAME	TO_CHAR(HIR
King	17-Jun-1987
Kochhar	21-Sep-1989
Whalen	17-Sep-1987

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Example of RR Date Format

To find employees who were hired before 1990, the RR format can be used. Because the current year is greater than 1999, the RR format interprets the year portion of the date from 1950 to 1999.

The following command, on the other hand, results in no rows being selected because the YY format interprets the year portion of the date in the current century (2090).

```
SELECT last_name, TO_CHAR(hire_date, 'DD-Mon-yyyy')
FROM employees
WHERE TO_DATE(hire_date, 'DD-Mon-yy') < '01-Jan-1990';
no rows selected</pre>
```

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Nesting Functions

- Single-row functions can be nested to any level.
- Nested functions are evaluated from the deepest level to the least deep level.

```
F3 (F2 (F1 (col, arg1), arg2), arg3)

Step 1 = Result 1

Step 2 = Result 2

Step 3 = Result 3
```

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Nesting Functions

Single-row functions can be nested to any depth. Nested functions are evaluated from the innermost level to the outermost level. Some examples follow to show you the flexibility of these functions.

Nesting Functions

```
SELECT last name,

UPPER(CONCAT(SUBSTR (LAST_NAME, 1, 8), '_US'))

FROM employees

WHERE department_id = 60;
```

LAST_NAME	UPPER(CONCAT(SUBSTR(LAST_NAME,1,8		
Hunold	HUNOLD_US		
Ernst	ERNST_US		
Lorentz	LORENTZ_US		

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Nesting Functions (continued)

The slide example displays the last names of employees in department 60. The evaluation of the SQL statement involves three steps:

1. The inner function retrieves the first eight characters of the last name.

```
Result1 = SUBSTR (LAST NAME, 1, 8)
```

2. The outer function concatenates the result with $_{\tt US}.$

```
Result2 = CONCAT(Result1, ' US')
```

3. The outermost function converts the results to uppercase.

The entire expression becomes the column heading because no column alias was given.

Example

Display the date of the next Friday that is six months from the hire date. The resulting date should appear as Friday, August 13th, 1999. Order the results by hire date.

General Functions

The following functions work with any data type and pertain to using nulls:

- NVL (expr1, expr2)
- NVL2 (expr1, expr2, expr3)
- NULLIF (expr1, expr2)
- COALESCE (expr1, expr2, ..., exprn)

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General Functions

These functions work with any data type and pertain to the use of null values in the expression list.

Function	Description
NVL	Converts a null value to an actual value
NVL2	If expr1 is not null, NVL2 returns expr2. If expr1 is null, NVL2 returns expr3. The argument expr1 can have any data type.
NULLIF	Compares two expressions and returns null if they are equal; returns the first expression if they are not equal
COALESCE	Returns the first non-null expression in the expression list

Note: For more information about the hundreds of functions available, see "Functions" in *Oracle SQL Reference*.

NVL Function

Converts a null value to an actual value:

- Data types that can be used are date, character, and number.
- Data types must match:
 - NVL(commission_pct,0)
 - NVL(hire date,'01-JAN-97')
 - NVL(job id,'No Job Yet')

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NVL Function

To convert a null value to an actual value, use the NVL function.

Syntax

NVL (expr1, expr2)

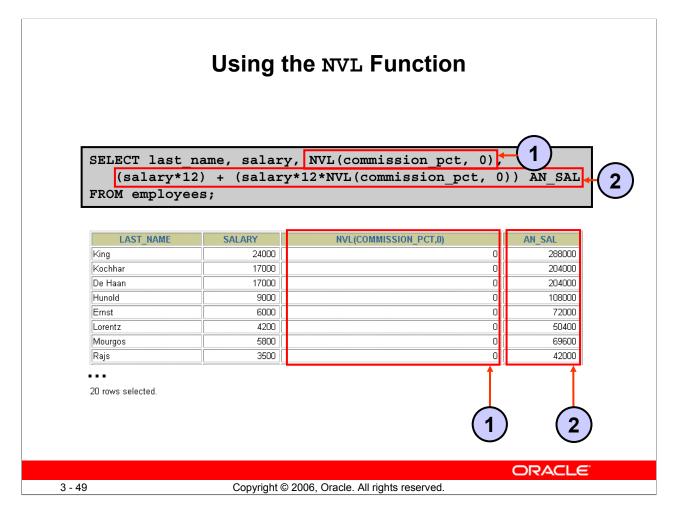
In the syntax:

- expr1 is the source value or expression that may contain a null
- expr2 is the target value for converting the null

You can use the NVL function to convert any data type, but the return value is always the same as the data type of *expr1*.

NVL Conversions for Various Data Types

Data Type	Conversion Example	
NUMBER	NVL(number_column,9)	
DATE NVL(date_column, '01-JAN-95')		
CHAR or VARCHAR2	<pre>NVL(character_column, 'Unavailable')</pre>	



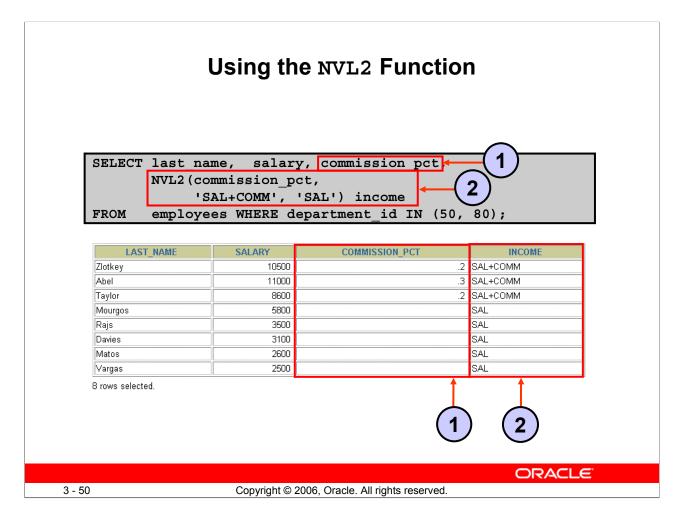
Using the NVL Function

To calculate the annual compensation of all employees, you need to multiply the monthly salary by 12 and then add the commission percentage to the result:

SELECT last_name, salary, commission_pct,
 (salary*12) + (salary*12*commission_pct) AN_SAL
FROM employees;

LAST_NAME	SALARY	COMMISSION_PCT	AN_SAL
Vargas	2500		
Zlotkey	10500	.2	151200
Abel	11000	.3	171600
Taylor	8600	.2	123840

Notice that the annual compensation is calculated for only those employees who earn a commission. If any column value in an expression is null, the result is null. To calculate values for all employees, you must convert the null value to a number before applying the arithmetic operator. In the example in the slide, the NVL function is used to convert null values to zero.



Using the NVL2 Function

The NVL2 function examines the first expression. If the first expression is not null, then the NVL2 function returns the second expression. If the first expression is null, then the third expression is returned.

Syntax

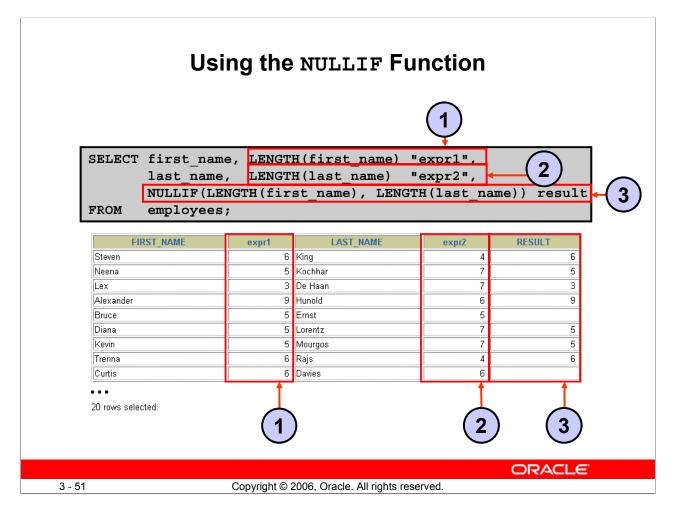
NVL2(expr1, expr2, expr3)

In the syntax:

- expr1 is the source value or expression that may contain null
- expr2 is the value that is returned if expr1 is not null
- expr3 is the value that is returned if expr1 is null

In the example shown in the slide, the COMMISSION_PCT column is examined. If a value is detected, the second expression of SAL+COMM is returned. If the COMMISSION_PCT column holds a null value, the third expression of SAL is returned.

The argument *expr1* can have any data type. The arguments *expr2* and *expr3* can have any data types except LONG. If the data types of *expr2* and *expr3* are different, the Oracle server converts *expr3* to the data type of *expr2* before comparing them unless *expr3* is a null constant. In the latter case, a data type conversion is not necessary. The data type of the return value is always the same as the data type of *expr2*, unless *expr2* is character data, in which case the return value's data type is VARCHAR2.



Using the NULLIF Function

The NULLIF function compares two expressions. If they are equal, the function returns null. If they are not equal, the function returns the first expression. You cannot specify the literal NULL for the first expression.

Syntax

```
NULLIF (expr1, expr2)
```

In the syntax:

- expr1 is the source value compared to expr2
- expr2 is the source value compared with expr1 (If it is not equal to expr1, expr1 is returned.)

In the example shown in the slide, the length of the first name in the EMPLOYEES table is compared to the length of the last name in the EMPLOYEES table. When the lengths of the names are equal, a null value is displayed. When the lengths of the names are not equal, the length of the first name is displayed.

Note: The NULLIF function is logically equivalent to the following CASE expression. The CASE expression is discussed on a subsequent page:

```
CASE WHEN expr1 = expr 2 THEN NULL ELSE expr1 END
```

Using the COALESCE Function

- The advantage of the COALESCE function over the NVL function is that the COALESCE function can take multiple alternate values.
- If the first expression is not null, the COALESCE function returns that expression; otherwise, it does a COALESCE of the remaining expressions.

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Using the COALESCE Function

The COALESCE function returns the first non-null expression in the list.

Syntax

```
COALESCE (expr1, expr2, ... exprn)
```

In the syntax:

- expr1 returns this expression if it is not null
- expr2 returns this expression if the first expression is null and this expression is not null
- exprn returns this expression if the preceding expressions are null

All expressions must be of the same data type.

Using the COALESCE Function SELECT last name, COALESCE (manager id, commission pct, -1) comm FROM employees ORDER BY commission pct; LAST_NAME COMM Grant 149 100 Zlotkey 149 Taylor 149 Abel King -1 Kochhar 100 De Haan 100 20 rows selected. **ORACLE** 3 - 53 Copyright © 2006, Oracle. All rights reserved.

Using the COALESCE Function (continued)

In the example shown in the slide, if the MANAGER_ID value is not null, it is displayed. If the MANAGER_ID value is null, then the COMMISSION_PCT is displayed. If the MANAGER_ID and COMMISSION_PCT values are null, then the value -1 is displayed.

Conditional Expressions

- Provide the use of IF-THEN-ELSE logic within a SQL statement
- Use two methods:
 - CASE expression
 - DECODE function

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Conditional Expressions

Two methods used to implement conditional processing (IF-THEN-ELSE logic) in a SQL statement are the CASE expression and the DECODE function.

Note: The CASE expression complies with ANSI SQL. The DECODE function is specific to Oracle syntax.

CASE Expression

Facilitates conditional inquiries by doing the work of an IF-THEN-ELSE statement:

```
CASE expr WHEN comparison_expr1 THEN return_expr1
[WHEN comparison_expr2 THEN return_expr2
WHEN comparison_exprn THEN return_exprn
ELSE else_expr]
END
```

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CASE Expression

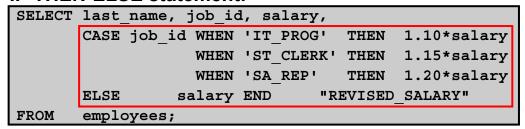
CASE expressions let you use IF-THEN-ELSE logic in SQL statements without having to invoke procedures.

In a simple CASE expression, the Oracle server searches for the first WHEN ... THEN pair for which expr is equal to comparison_expr and returns return_expr. If none of the WHEN ... THEN pairs meet this condition, and if an ELSE clause exists, then the Oracle server returns else_expr. Otherwise, the Oracle server returns null. You cannot specify the literal NULL for all the return exprs and the else expr.

All of the expressions (expr, comparison_expr, and return_expr) must be of the same data type, which can be CHAR, VARCHAR2, NCHAR, or NVARCHAR2.

Using the CASE Expression

Facilitates conditional inquiries by doing the work of an IF-THEN-ELSE statement:



LAST_NAME	JOB_ID	SALARY	REVISED_SALARY
	1		
Lorentz	IT_PROG	4200	4620
Mourgos	ST_MAN	5800	5800
Rajs	ST_CLERK	3500	4025
• • • •			
Gietz	AC_ACCOUNT	8300	8300

20 rows selected.

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Using the CASE Expression

In the SQL statement in the slide, the value of JOB_ID is decoded. If JOB_ID is IT_PROG, the salary increase is 10%; if JOB_ID is ST_CLERK, the salary increase is 15%; if JOB_ID is SA_REP, the salary increase is 20%. For all other job roles, there is no increase in salary.

The same statement can be written with the DECODE function.

This is an example of a searched CASE expression. In a searched CASE expression, the search occurs from left to right until an occurrence of the listed condition is found, and then it returns the return expression. If no condition is found to be true, and if an ELSE clause exists, the return expression in the ELSE clause is returned; otherwise, NULL is returned.

```
SELECT last_name,salary,
(CASE WHEN salary<5000 THEN 'Low'
          WHEN salary<10000 THEN 'Medium'
        WHEN salary<20000 THEN 'Good'
        ELSE 'Excellent'
END) qualified_salary
FROM employees;</pre>
```

DECODE Function

Facilitates conditional inquiries by doing the work of a CASE expression or an IF-THEN-ELSE statement:

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DECODE Function

The DECODE function decodes an expression in a way similar to the IF-THEN-ELSE logic that is used in various languages. The DECODE function decodes *expression* after comparing it to each *search* value. If the expression is the same as *search*, *result* is returned.

If the default value is omitted, a null value is returned where a search value does not match any of the result values.

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Using the DECODE Function

LAST_NAME	JOB_ID	SALARY	REVISED_SALARY
	,		
Lorentz	IT_PROG	4200	4620
Mourgos	ST_MAN	5800	5800
Rajs	ST_CLERK	3500	4025
Gietz	AC_ACCOUNT	8300	8300

20 rows selected.

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Using the DECODE Function

In the SQL statement in the slide, the value of JOB_ID is tested. If JOB_ID is IT_PROG, the salary increase is 10%; if JOB_ID is ST_CLERK, the salary increase is 15%; if JOB_ID is SA_REP, the salary increase is 20%. For all other job roles, there is no increase in salary.

The same statement can be expressed in pseudocode as an IF-THEN-ELSE statement:

Using the DECODE Function

Display the applicable tax rate for each employee in department 80:

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Using the DECODE function (continued)

This slide shows another example using the DECODE function. In this example, you determine the tax rate for each employee in department 80 based on the monthly salary. The tax rates are as follows:

Monthly Salary Range	Tax Rate
\$0.00-1,999.99	00%
\$2,000.00-3,999.99	09%
\$4,000.00-5,999.99	20%
\$6,000.00-7,999.99	30%
\$8,000.00-9,999.99	40%
\$10,000.00-11,999.99	42%
\$12,200.00-13,999.99	44%
\$14,000.00 or greater	45%

LAST_NAME	SALARY	TAX_RATE
Zlotkey	10500	.42
Abel	11000	.42
Taylor	8600	.4

Summary

In this lesson, you should have learned how to:

- Perform calculations on data using functions
- Modify individual data items using functions
- Manipulate output for groups of rows using functions
- Alter date formats for display using functions
- Convert column data types using functions
- Use NVL functions
- Use IF-THEN-ELSE logic

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Summary

Single-row functions can be nested to any level. Single-row functions can manipulate the following:

- Character data: LOWER, UPPER, INITCAP, CONCAT, SUBSTR, INSTR, LENGTH
- Number data: ROUND, TRUNC, MOD
- Date data: MONTHS BETWEEN, ADD MONTHS, NEXT DAY, LAST DAY, ROUND, TRUNC

Remember the following:

- Date values can also use arithmetic operators.
- Conversion functions can convert character, date, and numeric values: TO_CHAR,
 TO DATE, TO NUMBER
- There are several functions that pertain to nulls, including NVL, NVL2, NULLIF, and COALESCE.
- IF-THEN-ELSE logic can be applied within a SQL statement by using the CASE expression or the DECODE function.

SYSDATE and DUAL

SYSDATE is a date function that returns the current date and time. It is customary to select SYSDATE from a dummy table called DUAL.

Practice 3: Overview of Part 2

This practice covers the following topics:

- Creating queries that require the use of numeric, character, and date functions
- Using concatenation with functions
- Writing non-case-sensitive queries to test the usefulness of character functions
- Performing calculations of years and months of service for an employee
- Determining the review date for an employee

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Practice 3: Overview of Part 2

Part 2 of this lesson's practice provides a variety of exercises using different functions that are available for character, number, and date data types. For Part 2, complete exercises 7–14.

Remember that for nested functions, the results are evaluated from the innermost function to the outermost function.

Practice 3

Part 1

1. Write a query to display the current date. Label the column Date.

	Date	
31-DEC-03		

- 2. The HR department needs a report to display the employee number, last name, salary, and salary increased by 15.5% (expressed as a whole number) for each employee. Label the column New Salary. Place your SQL statement in a text file named lab 03 02.sql.
- 3. Run your query in the file lab 03 02.sql.

EMPLOYEE_ID	LAST_NAME	SALARY	New Salary
100	King	24000	27720
101	Kochhar	17000	19635
			'
202	Fay	6000	6930
205	Higgins	12000	13860
206	Gietz	8300	9587

20 rows selected.

4. Modify your query lab_03_02.sql to add a column that subtracts the old salary from the new salary. Label the column Increase. Save the contents of the file as lab 03 04.sql. Run the revised query.

EMPLOYEE_ID	LAST_NAME	SALARY	New Salary	Increase
100	King	24000	27720	3720
101	Kochhar	17000	19635	2635
102	De Haan	17000	19635	2635
202	Fay	6000	6930	930
205	Higgins	12000	13860	1860
206	Gietz	8300	9587	1287
20 rows selected.				

5. Write a query that displays the last name (with the first letter uppercase and all other letters lowercase) and the length of the last name for all employees whose name starts with the letters *J*, *A*, or *M*. Give each column an appropriate label. Sort the results by the employees' last names.

Name	Length
Abel	4
Matos	5
Mourgos	7

Rewrite the query so that the user is prompted to enter a letter that starts the last name. For example, if the user enters H when prompted for a letter, then the output should show all employees whose last name starts with the letter H.

Name	Length
Hartstein	9
Higgins	7
Hunold	6

6. The HR department wants to find the length of employment for each employee. For each employee, display the last name and calculate the number of months between today and the date on which the employee was hired. Label the column MONTHS_WORKED. Order your results by the number of months employed. Round the number of months up to the closest whole number.

Note: Your results will differ.

LAST_NAME	MONTHS_WORKED
Zlotkey	47
Mourgos	50
Grant	55
Lorentz	59
Vargas	66
Taylor	69
Matos	70
Fay	76
Davies	83
Abel	92
Hartstein	94
Rajs	98
Higgins	115
Gietz	115
De Haan	132
Ernst	151
Hunold	168
Kochhar	171
Whalen	195
King	198
20 rows selected.	

Part 2

7. Create a report that produces the following for each employee:
<employee last name> earns <salary> monthly but wants <3
times salary>. Label the column Dream Salaries.

Dream Salaries
King earns \$24,000.00 monthly but wants \$72,000.00.
Kochhar earns \$17,000.00 monthly but wants \$51,000.00.
De Haan earns \$17,000.00 monthly but wants \$51,000.00.
Hartstein earns \$13,000.00 monthly but wants \$39,000.00.
Fay earns \$6,000.00 monthly but wants \$18,000.00.
Higgins earns \$12,000.00 monthly but wants \$36,000.00.
Gietz earns \$8,300.00 monthly but wants \$24,900.00.
20 rows selected.

If you have time, complete the following exercises:

8. Create a query to display the last name and salary for all employees. Format the salary to be 15 characters long, left-padded with the \$ symbol. Label the column SALARY.

LAST_NAME	SALARY
King	\$\$\$\$\$\$\$\$\$\$24000
Kochhar	\$\$\$\$\$\$\$\$\$\$17000
De Haan	\$\$\$\$\$\$\$\$\$\$17000
Hunold	\$\$\$\$\$\$\$\$\$\$\$9000
Fay	\$\$\$\$\$\$\$\$\$\$6000
Higgins	\$\$\$\$\$\$\$\$\$\$12000
Gietz	\$\$\$\$\$\$\$\$\$\$\$8300

9. Display each employee's last name, hire date, and salary review date, which is the first Monday after six months of service. Label the column REVIEW. Format the dates to appear in the format similar to "Monday, the Thirty-First of July, 2000."

LAST_NAME	HIRE_DATE	REVIEW
King	17-JUN-87	Monday, the Twenty-First of December, 1987
Kochhar	21-SEP-89	Monday, the Twenty-Sixth of March, 1990
De Haan	13-JAN-93	Monday, the Nineteenth of July, 1993
Hunold	03-JAN-90	Monday, the Ninth of July, 1990
Ernst	21-MAY-91	Monday, the Twenty-Fifth of November, 1991
Lorentz	07-FEB-99	Monday, the Ninth of August, 1999
• • •		
Higgins	07-JUN-94	Monday, the Twelfth of December, 1994
Gietz	07-JUN-94	Monday, the Twelfth of December, 1994
20 rows selected.		

10. Display the last name, hire date, and day of the week on which the employee started. Label the column DAY. Order the results by the day of the week, starting with Monday.

LAST_NAME	HIRE_DATE	DAY	
Grant	24-MAY-99	MONDAY	
Ernst	21-MAY-91	TUESDAY	
Mourgos	16-NOV-99	TUESDAY	
Taylor	24-MAR-98	TUESDAY	
Lorentz	07-FEB-99	SUNDAY	
Fay	17-AUG-97	SUNDAY	
Matos	15-MAR-98	SUNDAY	
20 rows selected.			

If you want an extra challenge, complete the following exercises:

11. Create a query that displays the employees' last names and commission amounts. If an employee does not earn commission, show "No Commission." Label the column COMM.

LAST_NAME	СОММ
King	No Commission
Kochhar	No Commission
Zlotkey	.2
Abel	.3
Taylor	.2
Grant	.15
Whalen	No Commission
Hartstein	No Commission
Fay	No Commission
Higgins	No Commission
Gietz	No Commission
20 rows selected.	

12. Create a query that displays the first eight characters of the employees' last names and indicates the amounts of their salaries with asterisks. Each asterisk signifies a thousand dollars. Sort the data in descending order of salary. Label the column EMPLOYEES_AND_THEIR_SALARIES.

EMPLOYEES_AND_THEIR_SALARIES
King ************************************
Kochhar ***********************************
De Haan **********************************
Hartstei *************
Higgins ***********
Matos **
Vargas **
20 rows selected.

13. Using the DECODE function, write a query that displays the grade of all employees based on the value of the column JOB_ID, using the following data:

Job	Grade
AD_PRES	A
ST_MAN	В
IT_PROG	C
SA_REP	D
ST_CLERK	E
None of the above	0

JOB_ID	GRA
AC_ACCOUNT	0
AC_MGR	0
AD_ASST	0
AD_PRES	Α
AD_VP	0
AD_VP	0
IT_PROG	С
IT_PROG	С
IT_PROG	С
MK_MAN	0
MK_REP	0
SA_MAN	0
SA_REP	D
SA_REP	D
SA_REP	D
ST_CLERK	E
ST_MAN	В
20 rows selected.	

14. Rewrite the statement in the preceding exercise using the CASE syntax.

Reporting Aggregated Data Using the Group Functions

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Objectives

After completing this lesson, you should be able to do the following:

- Identify the available group functions
- Describe the use of group functions
- Group data by using the GROUP BY clause
- Include or exclude grouped rows by using the HAVING clause

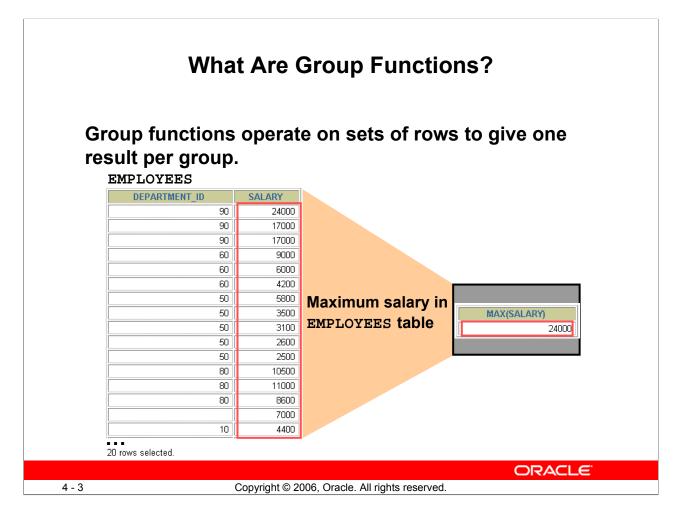
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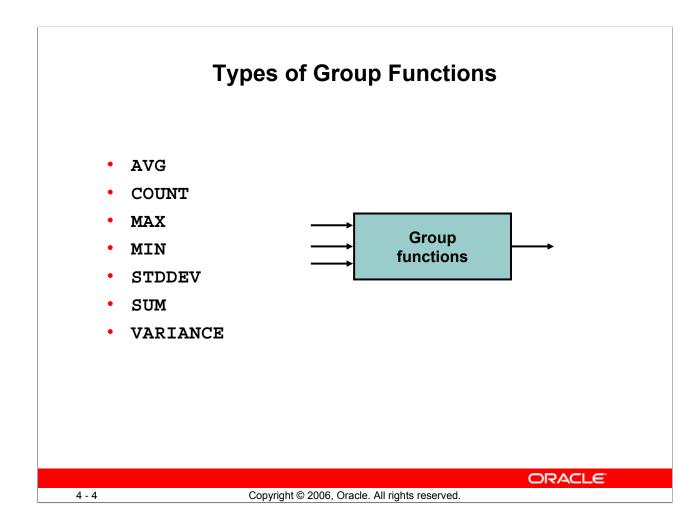
Objectives

This lesson further addresses functions. It focuses on obtaining summary information (such as averages) for groups of rows. It discusses how to group rows in a table into smaller sets and how to specify search criteria for groups of rows.



Group Functions

Unlike single-row functions, group functions operate on sets of rows to give one result per group. These sets may comprise the entire table or the table split into groups.



Types of Group Functions

Each of the functions accepts an argument. The following table identifies the options that you can use in the syntax:

Function	Description
AVG([DISTINCT ALL]n)	Average value of n, ignoring null values
COUNT({* [DISTINCT ALL]expr})	Number of rows, where <i>expr</i> evaluates to something other than null (count all selected rows using *, including duplicates and rows with nulls)
MAX([DISTINCT ALL]expr)	Maximum value of expr, ignoring null values
MIN([DISTINCT ALL]expr)	Minimum value of expr, ignoring null values
STDDEV([DISTINCT ALL]x)	Standard deviation of n, ignoring null values
SUM([DISTINCT ALL]n)	Sum values of n, ignoring null values
VARIANCE([DISTINCT ALL]x)	Variance of <i>n</i> , ignoring null values

Group Functions: Syntax

```
SELECT [column,] group_function(column), ...

FROM table
[WHERE condition]
[GROUP BY column]
[ORDER BY column];
```

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Guidelines for Using Group Functions

- DISTINCT makes the function consider only nonduplicate values; ALL makes it consider every value, including duplicates. The default is ALL and therefore does not need to be specified.
- The data types for the functions with an expr argument may be CHAR, VARCHAR2, NUMBER, or DATE.
- All group functions ignore null values. To substitute a value for null values, use the NVL, NVL2, or COALESCE functions.

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Using the AVG and SUM Functions

You can use AVG and SUM for numeric data.

SELECT	AVG(salary), MAX(salary),
	MIN(salary), SUM(salary)
FROM	employees
WHERE	job_id LIKE '%REP%';

AVG(SALARY)	MAX(SALARY)	MIN(SALARY)	SUM(SALARY)
8150	11000	6000	32600

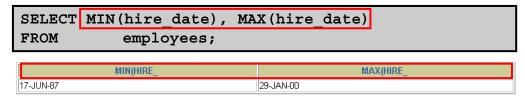
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Using the Group Functions

You can use AVG, SUM, MIN, and MAX functions against columns that can store numeric data. The example in the slide displays the average, highest, lowest, and sum of monthly salaries for all sales representatives.

Using the MIN and MAX Functions

You can use MIN and MAX for numeric, character, and date data types.



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Using the Group Functions (continued)

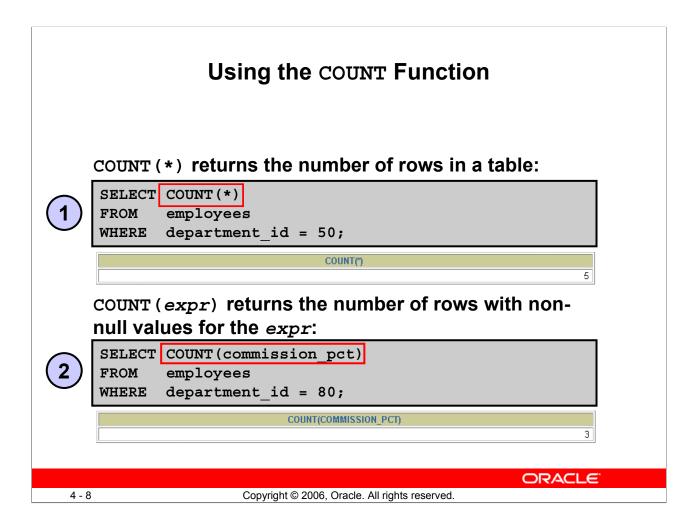
You can use the MAX and MIN functions for numeric, character, and date data types. The slide example displays the most junior and most senior employees.

The following example displays the employee last name that is first and the employee last name that is last in an alphabetized list of all employees:

SELECT MIN(last_name), MAX(last_name)
FROM employees;

MIN(LAST_NAME)	MAX(LAST_NAME)
Abel	Zlotkey

Note: The AVG, SUM, VARIANCE, and STDDEV functions can be used only with numeric data types. MAX and MIN cannot be used with LOB or LONG data types.



COUNT Function

The COUNT function has three formats:

- COUNT(*)
- COUNT (expr)
- COUNT (DISTINCT expr)

COUNT (*) returns the number of rows in a table that satisfy the criteria of the SELECT statement, including duplicate rows and rows containing null values in any of the columns. If a WHERE clause is included in the SELECT statement, COUNT (*) returns the number of rows that satisfy the condition in the WHERE clause.

In contrast, COUNT (expr) returns the number of non-null values that are in the column identified by expr.

COUNT (DISTINCT expr) returns the number of unique, non-null values that are in the column identified by expr.

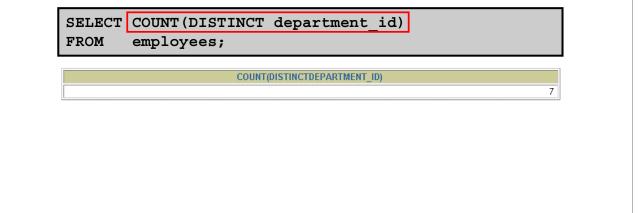
Examples

- 1. The slide example displays the number of employees in department 50.
- 2. The slide example displays the number of employees in department 80 who can earn a commission.

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Using the DISTINCT Keyword

- COUNT (DISTINCT expr) returns the number of distinct non-null values of the expr.
- To display the number of distinct department values in the EMPLOYEES table:



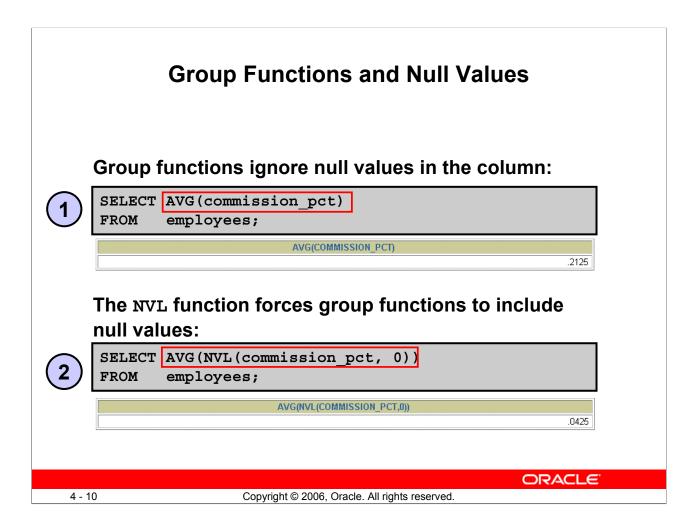
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DISTINCT Keyword

Use the DISTINCT keyword to suppress the counting of any duplicate values in a column.

The example in the slide displays the number of distinct department values that are in the EMPLOYEES table.



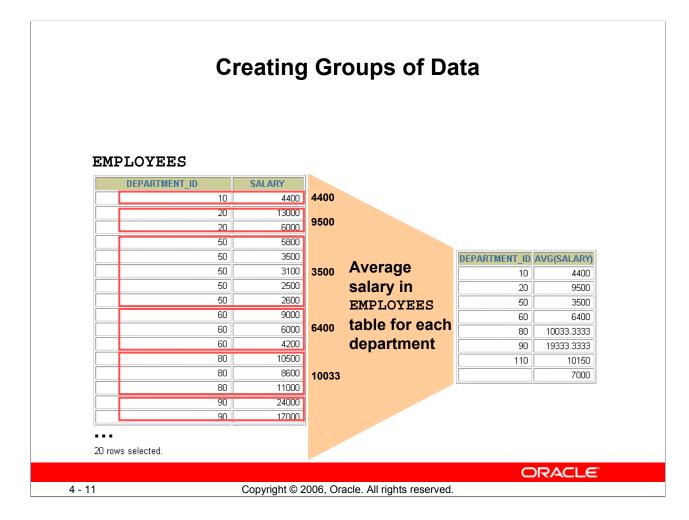
Group Functions and Null Values

All group functions ignore null values in the column.

The NVL function forces group functions to include null values.

Examples

- 1. The average is calculated based on *only* those rows in the table where a valid value is stored in the COMMISSION_PCT column. The average is calculated as the total commission that is paid to all employees divided by the number of employees receiving a commission (four).
- 2. The average is calculated based on *all* rows in the table, regardless of whether null values are stored in the COMMISSION_PCT column. The average is calculated as the total commission that is paid to all employees divided by the total number of employees in the company (20).



Creating Groups of Data

Until this point in our discussion, all group functions have treated the table as one large group of information.

At times, however, you need to divide the table of information into smaller groups. This can be done by using the GROUP BY clause.

Creating Groups of Data: GROUP BY Clause Syntax

```
SELECT column, group_function(column)

FROM table

[WHERE condition]

[GROUP BY group_by_expression]

[ORDER BY column];
```

You can divide rows in a table into smaller groups by using the GROUP BY clause.

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GROUP BY Clause

You can use the GROUP BY clause to divide the rows in a table into groups. You can then use the group functions to return summary information for each group.

In the syntax:

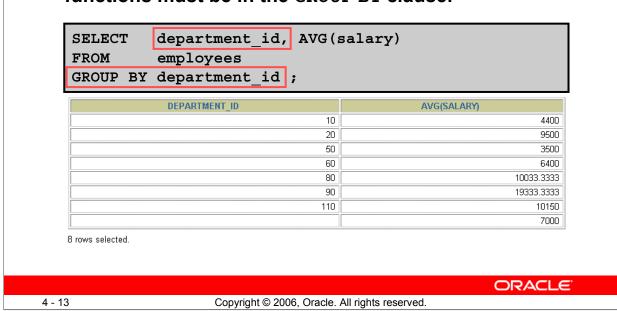
group_by_expression specifies columns whose values determine the basis for grouping rows

Guidelines

- If you include a group function in a SELECT clause, you cannot select individual results as well, *unless* the individual column appears in the GROUP BY clause. You receive an error message if you fail to include the column list in the GROUP BY clause.
- Using a WHERE clause, you can exclude rows before dividing them into groups.
- You must include the *columns* in the GROUP BY clause.
- You cannot use a column alias in the GROUP BY clause.

Using the GROUP BY Clause

All columns in the SELECT list that are not in group functions must be in the GROUP BY clause.



Using the GROUP BY Clause

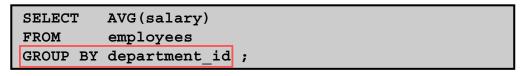
When using the GROUP BY clause, make sure that all columns in the SELECT list that are not group functions are included in the GROUP BY clause. The example in the slide displays the department number and the average salary for each department. Here is how this SELECT statement, containing a GROUP BY clause, is evaluated:

- The SELECT clause specifies the columns to be retrieved, as follows:
 - Department number column in the EMPLOYEES table
 - The average of all the salaries in the group that you specified in the GROUP BY clause
- The FROM clause specifies the tables that the database must access: the EMPLOYEES table.
- The WHERE clause specifies the rows to be retrieved. Because there is no WHERE clause, all rows are retrieved by default.
- The GROUP BY clause specifies how the rows should be grouped. The rows are grouped by department number, so the AVG function that is applied to the salary column calculates the average salary for each department.

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Using the GROUP BY Clause

The GROUP BY column does not have to be in the SELECT list.



AVG(SALARY)	
	4400
	9500
	3500
	6400
	10033.3333
	19333.3333
	10150
	7000

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Using the GROUP BY Clause (continued)

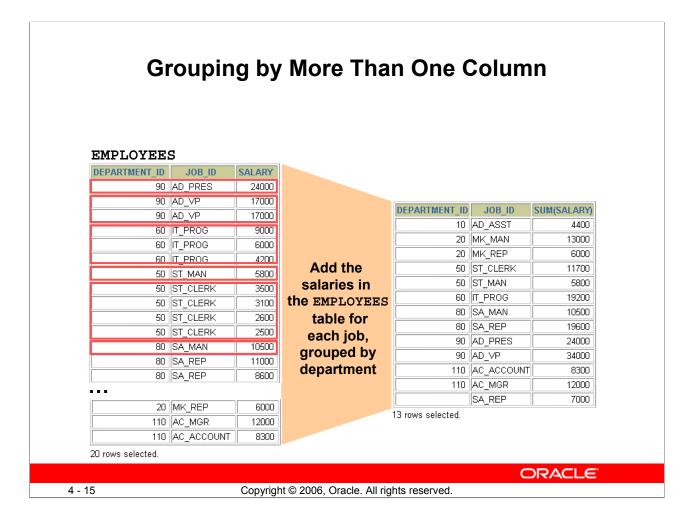
The GROUP BY column does not have to be in the SELECT clause. For example, the SELECT statement in the slide displays the average salaries for each department without displaying the respective department numbers. Without the department numbers, however, the results do not look meaningful.

You can use the group function in the ORDER BY clause:

SELECT department_id, AVG(salary)
FROM employees
GROUP BY department_id
ORDER BY AVG(salary);

DEPARTMENT_ID	AVG(SALARY)
50	3500
10	4400
60	6400
90	19333.3333

8 rows selected.



Groups Within Groups

Sometimes you need to see results for groups within groups. The slide shows a report that displays the total salary that is paid to each job title in each department.

The EMPLOYEES table is grouped first by department number and then by job title within that grouping. For example, the four stock clerks in department 50 are grouped together, and a single result (total salary) is produced for all stock clerks in the group.

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Using the GROUP BY Clause on Multiple Columns

SELECT	<pre>department_id dept_id, job_id, SUM(salary)</pre>
	employees
GROUP BY	department id, job id;

DEPT_ID	JOB_ID	SUM(SALARY)
10	AD_ASST	4400
20	MK_MAN	13000
20	MK_REP	6000
50	ST_CLERK	11700
50	ST_MAN	5800
60	IT_PROG	19200
80	SA_MAN	10500
80	SA_REP	19600
90	AD_PRES	24000
90	AD_VP	34000
110	AC_ACCOUNT	8300
110	AC_MGR	12000
	SA_REP	7000

13 rows selected.

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Groups Within Groups (continued)

You can return summary results for groups and subgroups by listing more than one GROUP BY column. You can determine the default sort order of the results by the order of the columns in the GROUP BY clause. In the slide example, the SELECT statement containing a GROUP BY clause is evaluated as follows:

- The SELECT clause specifies the column to be retrieved:
 - Department number in the EMPLOYEES table
 - Job ID in the EMPLOYEES table
 - The sum of all the salaries in the group that you specified in the GROUP BY clause
- The FROM clause specifies the tables that the database must access: the EMPLOYEES table.
- The GROUP BY clause specifies how you must group the rows:
 - First, the rows are grouped by department number.
 - Second, the rows are grouped by job ID in the department number groups.

So the SUM function is applied to the salary column for all job IDs in each department number group.

Illegal Queries Using Group Functions

Any column or expression in the SELECT list that is not an aggregate function must be in the GROUP BY clause:

```
SELECT department_id, COUNT(last_name)
FROM employees;
```

```
SELECT department_id, COUNT(last_name)

*

ERROR at line 1:

ORA-00937: not a single-group group function
```

Column missing in the GROUP BY clause

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Illegal Queries Using Group Functions

Whenever you use a mixture of individual items (DEPARTMENT_ID) and group functions (COUNT) in the same SELECT statement, you must include a GROUP BY clause that specifies the individual items (in this case, DEPARTMENT_ID). If the GROUP BY clause is missing, then the error message "not a single-group group function" appears and an asterisk (*) points to the offending column. You can correct the error in the slide by adding the GROUP BY clause:

```
SELECT department_id, count(last_name)
FROM employees
GROUP BY department id;
```

DEPARTMENT_ID	COUNT(LAST_NAME)
10	1
20	2
	1

8 rows selected.

Any column or expression in the SELECT list that is not an aggregate function must be in the GROUP BY clause.

Illegal Queries Using Group Functions

- You cannot use the WHERE clause to restrict groups.
- You use the HAVING clause to restrict groups.
- You cannot use group functions in the WHERE clause.

```
SELECT department_id, AVG(salary)
FROM employees
WHERE AVG(salary) > 8000
GROUP BY department_id;
```

```
WHERE AVG(salary) > 8000
    *
ERROR at line 3:
ORA-00934: group function is not allowed here
```

Cannot use the WHERE clause to restrict groups

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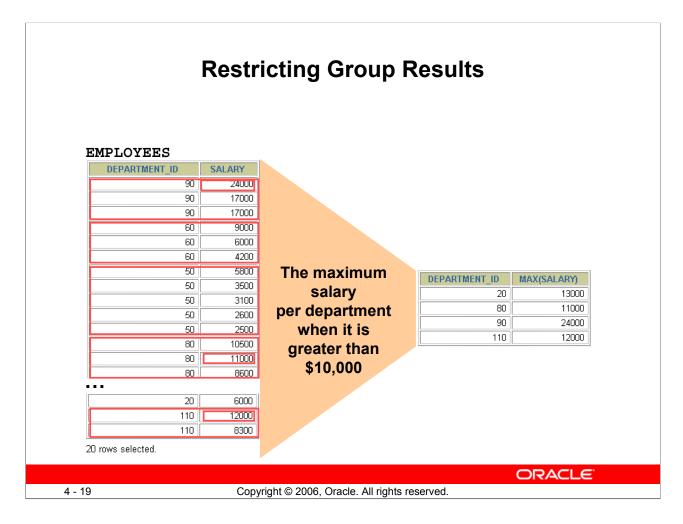
Illegal Queries Using Group Functions (continued)

The WHERE clause cannot be used to restrict groups. The SELECT statement in the slide example results in an error because it uses the WHERE clause to restrict the display of average salaries of those departments that have an average salary greater than \$8,000.

You can correct the error in the example by using the HAVING clause to restrict groups:

SELECT department_id, AVG(salary)
FROM employees
HAVING AVG(salary) > 8000
GROUP BY department id;

DEPARTMENT_ID	AVG(SALARY)
20	9500
80	10033.3333
90	19333.3333
110	10150



Restricting Group Results

In the same way that you use the WHERE clause to restrict the rows that you select, you use the HAVING clause to restrict groups. To find the maximum salary in each of the departments that have a maximum salary greater than \$10,000, you need to do the following:

- 1. Find the average salary for each department by grouping by department number.
- 2. Restrict the groups to those departments with a maximum salary greater than \$10,000.

Restricting Group Results with the HAVING Clause

When you use the HAVING clause, the Oracle server restricts groups as follows:

- 1. Rows are grouped.
- 2. The group function is applied.
- 3. Groups matching the HAVING clause are displayed.

```
SELECT column, group_function

FROM table
[WHERE condition]
[GROUP BY group_by_expression]
[HAVING group_condition]
[ORDER BY column];
```

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Restricting Group Results with the HAVING Clause

You use the HAVING clause to specify which groups are to be displayed, thus further restricting the groups on the basis of aggregate information.

In the syntax, group_condition restricts the groups of rows returned to those groups for which the specified condition is true.

The Oracle server performs the following steps when you use the HAVING clause:

- 1. Rows are grouped.
- 2. The group function is applied to the group.
- 3. The groups that match the criteria in the HAVING clause are displayed.

The HAVING clause can precede the GROUP BY clause, but it is recommended that you place the GROUP BY clause first because that is more logical. Groups are formed and group functions are calculated before the HAVING clause is applied to the groups in the SELECT list.

Using the HAVING Clause

SELECT	department_id, MAX(salary)
FROM	employees
GROUP BY	department_id
HAVING	MAX(salary)>10000 ;

DEPARTMENT_ID	MAX(SALARY)
20	13000
80	11000
90	24000
110	12000

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Using the HAVING Clause

The slide example displays department numbers and maximum salaries for those departments with a maximum salary that is greater than \$10,000.

You can use the GROUP BY clause without using a group function in the SELECT list.

If you restrict rows based on the result of a group function, you must have a GROUP BY clause as well as the HAVING clause.

The following example displays the department numbers and average salaries for those departments with a maximum salary that is greater than \$10,000:

SELECT department_id, AVG(salary)
FROM employees
GROUP BY department_id
HAVING max(salary)>10000;

DEPARTMENT_ID	AVG(SALARY)
20	9500
80	10033.3333
90	19333.3333
110	10150

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Using the HAVING Clause

SELECT job_id, SUM(salary) PAYROLL
FROM employees
WHERE job_id NOT LIKE '%REP%'
GROUP BY job_id
HAVING SUM(salary) > 13000
ORDER BY SUM(salary);

JOB_ID	PAYROLL
IT_PROG	19200
AD_PRES	24000
AD_VP	34000

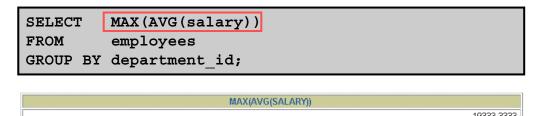
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Using the HAVING Clause (continued)

The slide example displays the job ID and total monthly salary for each job that has a total payroll exceeding \$13,000. The example excludes sales representatives and sorts the list by the total monthly salary.

Nesting Group Functions

Display the maximum average salary:



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Nesting Group Functions

Group functions can be nested to a depth of two. The slide example displays the maximum average salary.

Summary

In this lesson, you should have learned how to:

- Use the group functions COUNT, MAX, MIN, and AVG
- Write queries that use the GROUP BY clause
- Write queries that use the HAVING clause

```
SELECT column, group_function

FROM table
[WHERE condition]

[GROUP BY group_by_expression]
[HAVING group_condition]

[ORDER BY column];
```

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Summary

Several group functions are available in SQL, such as the following: AVG, COUNT, MAX, MIN, SUM, STDDEV, and VARIANCE

You can create subgroups by using the GROUP BY clause. Groups can be restricted using the HAVING clause.

Place the HAVING and GROUP BY clauses after the WHERE clause in a statement. The order of the HAVING and GROUP clauses following the WHERE clause is not important. Place the ORDER BY clause last.

The Oracle server evaluates the clauses in the following order:

- 1. If the statement contains a WHERE clause, the server establishes the candidate rows.
- 2. The server identifies the groups that are specified in the GROUP BY clause.
- 3. The HAVING clause further restricts result groups that do not meet the group criteria in the HAVING clause.

Note: For a complete list of the group functions, see *Oracle SQL Reference*.

Practice 4: Overview

This practice covers the following topics:

- Writing queries that use the group functions
- Grouping by rows to achieve more than one result
- Restricting groups by using the HAVING clause

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Practice 4: Overview

At the end of this practice, you should be familiar with using group functions and selecting groups of data.

Practice 4

Determine the validity of the following three statements. Circle either True or False.

- 1. Group functions work across many rows to produce one result per group. True/False
- 2. Group functions include nulls in calculations. True/False
- 3. The WHERE clause restricts rows before inclusion in a group calculation. True/False

The HR department needs the following reports:

4. Find the highest, lowest, sum, and average salary of all employees. Label the columns Maximum, Minimum, Sum, and Average, respectively. Round your results to the nearest whole number. Place your SQL statement in a text file named lab 04 04.sql.

Maximum Minimum		Minimum	Sum	Average
	24000	2500	175500	8775

5. Modify the query in lab_04_04.sql to display the minimum, maximum, sum, and average salary for each job type. Resave lab_04_04.sql as lab_04_05.sql. Run the statement in lab 04 05.sql.

JOB_ID	Maximum	Minimum	Sum	Average
AC_ACCOUNT	8300	8300	8300	8300
AC_MGR	12000	12000	12000	12000
AD_ASST	4400	4400	4400	4400
AD_PRES	24000	24000	24000	24000
AD_VP	17000	17000	34000	17000
IT_PROG	9000	4200	19200	6400
MK_MAN	13000	13000	13000	13000
MK_REP	6000	6000	6000	6000
SA_MAN	10500	10500	10500	10500
SA_REP	11000	7000	26600	8867
ST_CLERK	3500	2500	11700	2925
ST_MAN	5800	5800	5800	5800

12 rows selected.

Practice 4 (continued)

6. Write a query to display the number of people with the same job.

JOB_ID	COUNT(*)
AC_ACCOUNT	1
AC_MGR	1
AD_ASST	1
AD_PRES	1
AD_VP	2
IT_PROG	3
MK_MAN	1
MK_REP	1
SA_MAN	1
SA_REP	3
ST_CLERK	4
ST_MAN	1

12 rows selected.

Generalize the query so that the user in the HR department is prompted for a job title. Save the script to a file named lab 04 06.sql.

7. Determine the number of managers without listing them. Label the column Number of Managers. *Hint: Use the MANAGER ID column to determine the number of managers*.

Number of Managers	
8	

8. Find the difference between the highest and lowest salaries. Label the column DIFFERENCE.

DIFFERENCE	
21500	

If you have time, complete the following exercises:

9. Create a report to display the manager number and the salary of the lowest-paid employee for that manager. Exclude anyone whose manager is not known. Exclude any groups where the minimum salary is \$6,000 or less. Sort the output in descending order of salary.

MANAGER_ID	MIN(SALARY)
102	9000
205	8300
149	7000

Practice 4 (continued)

If you want an extra challenge, complete the following exercises:

10. Create a query to display the total number of employees and, of that total, the number of employees hired in 1995, 1996, 1997, and 1998. Create appropriate column headings.

TOTAL	1995	1996	1997	1998	
20	1	2	2	3	

11. Create a matrix query to display the job, the salary for that job based on department number, and the total salary for that job, for departments 20, 50, 80, and 90, giving each column an appropriate heading.

Job	Dept 20	Dept 50	Dept 80	Dept 90	Total
AC_ACCOUNT					8300
AC_MGR					12000
AD_ASST					4400
AD_PRES				24000	24000
AD_VP				34000	34000
IT_PROG					19200
MK_MAN	13000				13000
MK_REP	6000				6000
SA_MAN			10500		10500
SA_REP			19600		26600
ST_CLERK		11700			11700
ST_MAN		5800			5800

12 rows selected.

Displaying Data from Multiple Tables

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Objectives

After completing this lesson, you should be able to do the following:

- Write SELECT statements to access data from more than one table using equijoins and nonequijoins
- Join a table to itself by using a self-join
- View data that generally does not meet a join condition by using outer joins
- Generate a Cartesian product of all rows from two or more tables

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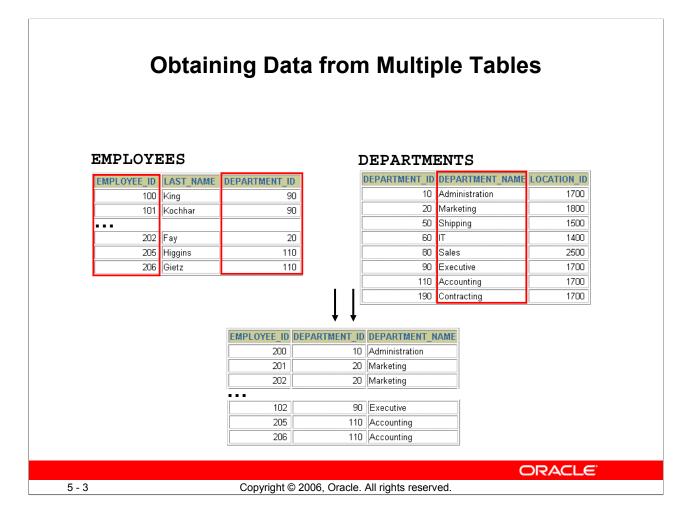
5 - 2

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Objectives

This lesson explains how to obtain data from more than one table. A *join* is used to view information from multiple tables. Therefore, you can *join* tables together to view information from more than one table.

Note: Information on joins is found in "SQL Queries and Subqueries: Joins" in *Oracle SQL Reference*.



Obtaining Data from Multiple Tables

Sometimes you need to use data from more than one table. In the slide example, the report displays data from two separate tables:

- Employee IDs exist in the EMPLOYEES table.
- Department IDs exist in both the EMPLOYEES and DEPARTMENTS tables.
- Department names exist in the DEPARTMENTS table.

To produce the report, you need to link the EMPLOYEES and DEPARTMENTS tables and access data from both of them.

Types of Joins

Joins that are compliant with the SQL:1999 standard include the following:

- Cross joins
- Natural joins
- USING clause
- Full (or two-sided) outer joins
- Arbitrary join conditions for outer joins

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Types of Joins

To join tables, you can use join syntax that is compliant with the SQL:1999 standard.

Note: Before the Oracle9*i* release, the join syntax was different from the ANSI standards. The SQL:1999–compliant join syntax does not offer any performance benefits over the Oracle-proprietary join syntax that existed in prior releases. For detailed information about the proprietary join syntax, see Appendix C.

Joining Tables Using SQL:1999 Syntax

Use a join to query data from more than one table:

```
SELECT table1.column, table2.column
FROM table1
[NATURAL JOIN table2] |
[JOIN table2 USING (column_name)] |
[JOIN table2
ON (table1.column_name = table2.column_name)] |
[LEFT | RIGHT | FULL OUTER JOIN table2
ON (table1.column_name = table2.column_name)] |
[CROSS JOIN table2];
```

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Defining Joins

In the syntax:

```
table1.column denotes the table and column from which data is retrieved
NATURAL JOIN joins two tables based on the same column name
JOIN table USING column_name performs an equijoin based on the column name
JOIN table ON table1.column_name performs an equijoin based on the condition
    in the ON clause, = table2.column_name
    LEFT/RIGHT/FULL OUTER is used to perform outer joins
    CROSS JOIN returns a Cartesian product from the two tables
For more information, see "SELECT" in Oracle SQL Reference.
```

Creating Natural Joins

- The NATURAL JOIN clause is based on all columns in the two tables that have the same name.
- It selects rows from the two tables that have equal values in all matched columns.
- If the columns having the same names have different data types, an error is returned.

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Creating Natural Joins

You can join tables automatically based on columns in the two tables that have matching data types and names. You do this by using the keywords NATURAL JOIN.

Note: The join can happen on only those columns that have the same names and data types in both tables. If the columns have the same name but different data types, then the NATURAL JOIN syntax causes an error.

Retrieving Records with Natural Joins

SELECT department_id, department_name,
location_id, city
FROM departments
NATURAL JOIN locations;

DEPARTMENT_ID	DEPARTMENT_NAME	LOCATION_ID	CITY
60	IT	1400	Southlake
50	Shipping	1500	South San Francisco
10	Administration	1700	Seattle
90	Executive	1700	Seattle
110	Accounting	1700	Seattle
190	Contracting	1700	Seattle
20	Marketing	1800	Toronto
80	Sales	2500	Oxford

8 rows selected.

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Retrieving Records with Natural Joins

In the example in the slide, the LOCATIONS table is joined to the DEPARTMENT table by the LOCATION_ID column, which is the only column of the same name in both tables. If other common columns were present, the join would have used them all.

Natural Joins with a WHERE Clause

Additional restrictions on a natural join are implemented by using a WHERE clause. The following example limits the rows of output to those with a department ID equal to 20 or 50:

Creating Joins with the USING Clause

- If several columns have the same names but the data types do not match, the NATURAL JOIN clause can be modified with the USING clause to specify the columns that should be used for an equijoin.
- Use the USING clause to match only one column when more than one column matches.
- Do not use a table name or alias in the referenced columns.
- The NATURAL JOIN and USING clauses are mutually exclusive.

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USING Clause

Natural joins use all columns with matching names and data types to join the tables. The USING clause can be used to specify only those columns that should be used for an equijoin. The columns that are referenced in the USING clause should not have a qualifier (table name or alias) anywhere in the SQL statement.

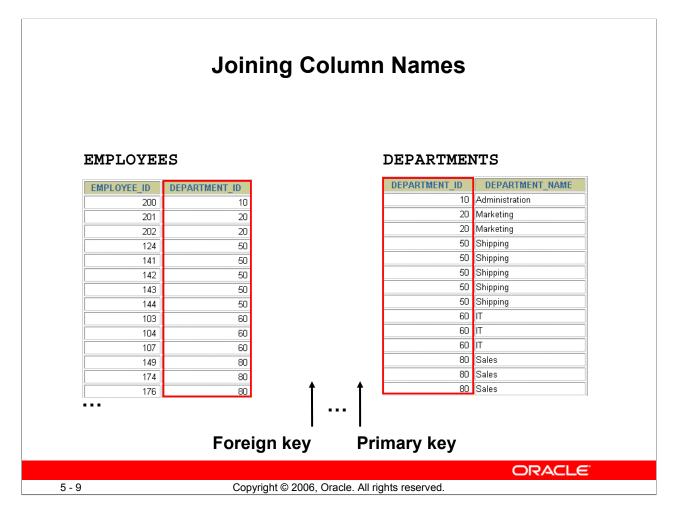
For example, the following statement is valid:

```
SELECT l.city, d.department_name
FROM locations l JOIN departments d USING (location_id)
WHERE location_id = 1400;
```

The following statement is invalid because the LOCATION_ID is qualified in the WHERE clause:

```
SELECT l.city, d.department_name
FROM locations l JOIN departments d USING (location_id)
WHERE d.location_id = 1400;
ORA-25154: column part of USING clause cannot have qualifier
```

The same restriction also applies to NATURAL joins. Therefore, columns that have the same name in both tables must be used without any qualifiers.



The USING Clause for Equijoins

To determine an employee's department name, you compare the value in the DEPARTMENT_ID column in the EMPLOYEES table with the DEPARTMENT_ID values in the DEPARTMENTS table. The relationship between the EMPLOYEES and DEPARTMENTS tables is an *equijoin;* that is, values in the DEPARTMENT_ID column in both tables must be equal. Frequently, this type of join involves primary and foreign key complements.

Note: Equijoins are also called *simple joins* or *inner joins*.

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Retrieving Records with the USING Clause

SELECT employees.employee_id, employees.last_name, departments.location_id, department_id

FROM employees JOIN departments

USING (department_id);

EMPLOYEE_ID	LAST_NAME	LOCATION_ID	DEPARTMENT_ID
200	Whalen	1700	10
201	Hartstein	1800	20
202	Fay	1800	20 20 50
124	Mourgos	1500	
141	Rajs	1500	50
142	Davies	1500	50
144	Vargas	1500	50
143	Matos	1500	50

19 rows selected.

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Retrieving Records with the USING Clause

The slide example joins the DEPARTMENT_ID column in the EMPLOYEES and DEPARTMENTS tables, and thus shows the location where an employee works.

Qualifying Ambiguous Column Names

- Use table prefixes to qualify column names that are in multiple tables.
- Use table prefixes to improve performance.
- Use column aliases to distinguish columns that have identical names but reside in different tables.
- Do not use aliases on columns that are identified in the USING clause and listed elsewhere in the SQL statement.

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Qualifying Ambiguous Column Names

You need to qualify the names of the columns with the table name to avoid ambiguity. Without the table prefixes, the DEPARTMENT_ID column in the SELECT list could be from either the DEPARTMENTS table or the EMPLOYEES table. It is necessary to add the table prefix to execute your query:

If there are no common column names between the two tables, there is no need to qualify the columns. However, using the table prefix improves performance, because you tell the Oracle server exactly where to find the columns.

Note: When joining with the USING clause, you cannot qualify a column that is used in the USING clause itself. Furthermore, if that column is used anywhere in the SQL statement, you cannot alias it.

Using Table Aliases

- Use table aliases to simplify queries.
- Use table aliases to improve performance.

```
SELECT e employee_id, e.last_name,
d.location_id, department_id

FROM employees e JOIN departments d

USING (department_id);
```

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Using Table Aliases

Qualifying column names with table names can be very time consuming, particularly if table names are lengthy. You can use *table aliases* instead of table names. Just as a column alias gives a column another name, a table alias gives a table another name. Table aliases help to keep SQL code smaller, therefore using less memory.

Notice how table aliases are identified in the FROM clause in the example. The table name is specified in full, followed by a space and then the table alias. The EMPLOYEES table has been given an alias of e, and the DEPARTMENTS table an alias of d.

Guidelines

- Table aliases can be up to 30 characters in length, but shorter aliases are better than longer ones.
- If a table alias is used for a particular table name in the FROM clause, then that table alias must be substituted for the table name throughout the SELECT statement.
- Table aliases should be meaningful.
- The table alias is valid for only the current SELECT statement.

Creating Joins with the ON Clause

- The join condition for the natural join is basically an equijoin of all columns with the same name.
- Use the ON clause to specify arbitrary conditions or specify columns to join.
- The join condition is separated from other search conditions.
- The ON clause makes code easy to understand.

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on Clause

Use the ON clause to specify a join condition. This lets you specify join conditions separate from any search or filter conditions in the WHERE clause.

Retrieving Records with the ON Clause

EMPLOYEE_ID	LAST_NAME	DEPARTMENT_ID	DEPARTMENT_ID	LOCATION_ID
200	Whalen	10	10	1700
201	Hartstein	20	20	1800
202	Fay	20	20	1800
124	Mourgos	50	50	1500
141	Rajs	50	50	1500
142	Davies	50	50	1500
143	Matos	50	50	1500

19 rows selected.

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Creating Joins with the ON Clause

In this example, the DEPARTMENT_ID columns in the EMPLOYEES and DEPARTMENTS table are joined using the ON clause. Wherever a department ID in the EMPLOYEES table equals a department ID in the DEPARTMENTS table, the row is returned.

You can also use the ON clause to join columns that have different names.

Self-Joins Using the ON Clause EMPLOYEES (WORKER) **EMPLOYEES** (MANAGER) EMPLOYEE ID LAST NAME MANAGER ID EMPLOYEE ID LAST NAME 100 King 100 |King 100 101 Kochhar 101 Kochhar 102 De Haan 100 102 De Haan 103 Hunold 102 103 Hunold 104 Ernst 103 104 Ernst 103 107 | Lorentz 107 Lorentz 124 | Mourgos 100 124 | Mourgos MANAGER ID in the WORKER table is equal to EMPLOYEE ID in the MANAGER table. ORACLE 5 - 15 Copyright © 2006, Oracle. All rights reserved.

Joining a Table to Itself

Sometimes you need to join a table to itself. To find the name of each employee's manager, you need to join the EMPLOYEES table to itself, or perform a self join. For example, to find the name of Lorentz's manager, you need to:

- Find Lorentz in the EMPLOYEES table by looking at the LAST NAME column
- Find the manager number for Lorentz by looking at the MANAGER_ID column. Lorentz's manager number is 103.
- Find the name of the manager with EMPLOYEE_ID 103 by looking at the LAST_NAME column. Hunold's employee number is 103, so Hunold is Lorentz's manager.

In this process, you look in the table twice. The first time you look in the table to find Lorentz in the LAST_NAME column and MANAGER_ID value of 103. The second time you look in the EMPLOYEE_ID column to find 103 and the LAST_NAME column to find Hunold.

Self-Joins Using the ON Clause

```
SELECT e.last_name emp, m.last_name mgr
FROM employees e JOIN employees m
ON (e.manager_id = m.employee_id);
```

EMP	MGR
Hartstein	King
Zlotkey	King
Mourgos	King
De Haan	King
Kochhar	King

19 rows selected.

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Joining a Table to Itself (continued)

The ON clause can also be used to join columns that have different names, within the same table or in a different table.

The example shown is a self-join of the EMPLOYEES table, based on the EMPLOYEE_ID and MANAGER ID columns.

Applying Additional Conditions to a Join

EMPLOYEE_ID	LAST_NAME	DEPARTMENT_ID	DEPARTMENT_ID	LOCATION_ID
174	Abel	80	80	2500
176	Taylor	80	80	2500

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Applying Additional Conditions to a Join

You can apply additional conditions to the join.

The example shown performs a join on the EMPLOYEES and DEPARTMENTS tables and, in addition, displays only employees who have a manager ID of 149. To add additional conditions to the ON clause, you can add AND clauses. Alternatively, you can use a WHERE clause to apply additional conditions:

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Creating Three-Way Joins with the ON Clause

SELECT	employee_id, city, department_name
FROM	employees e
JOIN	departments d
ON	d.department_id = e.department_id
JOIN	locations 1
ON	d.location_id = l.location_id;

EMPLOYEE_ID	CITY	DEPARTMENT_NAME
103	Southlake	IT
104	Southlake	IT
107	Southlake	IT
124	South San Francisco	Shipping
141	South San Francisco	Shipping
142	South San Francisco	Shipping
143	South San Francisco	Shipping
144	South San Francisco	Shipping

19 rows selected.

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Three-Way Joins

A three-way join is a join of three tables. In SQL:1999—compliant syntax, joins are performed from left to right. So, the first join to be performed is EMPLOYEES JOIN DEPARTMENTS. The first join condition can reference columns in EMPLOYEES and DEPARTMENTS but cannot reference columns in LOCATIONS. The second join condition can reference columns from all three tables.

Nonequijoins EMPLOYEES JOB GRADES GRA LOWEST SAL HIGHEST SAL LAST_NAME SALARY 2999 King 24000 1000 В 17000 3000 5999 Kochhar С De Haan 17000 6000 9999 Hunold 9000 D 10000 14999 E 15000 24999 Ernst 6000 25000 40000 Lorentz 4200 Mourgos 5800 Rajs 3500 3100 Davies Matos 2600 Vargas 2500 Salary in the EMPLOYEES Zlotkey 10500 table must be between Abel 11000 8600 Taylor lowest salary and highest . . . salary in the JOB GRADES 20 rows selected. table. **ORACLE** 5 - 19 Copyright © 2006, Oracle. All rights reserved.

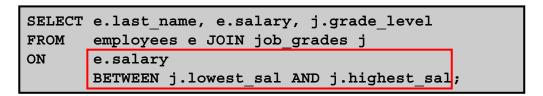
Nonequijoins

A nonequijoin is a join condition containing something other than an equality operator.

The relationship between the EMPLOYEES table and the JOB_GRADES table is an example of a nonequijoin. A relationship between the two tables is that the SALARY column in the EMPLOYEES table must be between the values in the LOWEST_SALARY and HIGHEST_SALARY columns of the JOB_GRADES table. The relationship is obtained using an operator other than equality (=).

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Retrieving Records with Nonequijoins



LAST_NAME	SALARY	GRA
Matos	2600	А
Vargas	2500	А
Lorentz	4200	В
Mourgos	5800	В
Rajs	3500	В
Davies	3100	В
Whalen	4400	В
Hunold	9000	С
Ernst	6000	С

20 rows selected.

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Nonequijoins (continued)

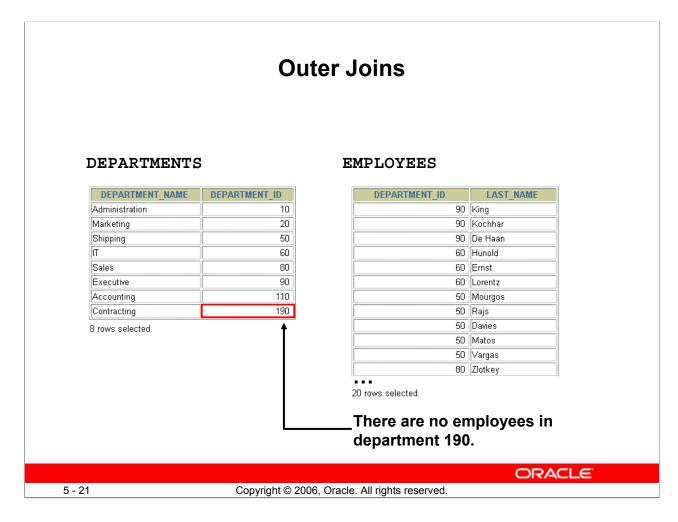
The slide example creates a nonequijoin to evaluate an employee's salary grade. The salary must be *between* any pair of the low and high salary ranges.

It is important to note that all employees appear exactly once when this query is executed. No employee is repeated in the list. There are two reasons for this:

- None of the rows in the job grade table contain grades that overlap. That is, the salary value for an employee can lie only between the low salary and high salary values of one of the rows in the salary grade table.
- All of the employees' salaries lie within the limits that are provided by the job grade table. That is, no employee earns less than the lowest value contained in the LOWEST_SAL column or more than the highest value contained in the HIGHEST_SAL column.

Note: Other conditions (such as <= and >=) can be used, but BETWEEN is the simplest. Remember to specify the low value first and the high value last when using BETWEEN.

Table aliases have been specified in the slide example for performance reasons, not because of possible ambiguity.



Returning Records with No Direct Match with Outer Joins

If a row does not satisfy a join condition, the row does not appear in the query result. For example, in the equijoin condition of EMPLOYEES and DEPARTMENTS tables, department ID 190 does not appear because there are no employees with that department ID recorded in the EMPLOYEES table. Instead of seeing 20 employees in the result set, you see 19 records.

To return the department record that does not have any employees, you can use an outer join.

INNER Versus OUTER Joins

- In SQL:1999, the join of two tables returning only matched rows is called an inner join.
- A join between two tables that returns the results of the inner join as well as the unmatched rows from the left (or right) tables is called a left (or right) outer join.
- A join between two tables that returns the results of an inner join as well as the results of a left and right join is a full outer join.

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INNER Versus OUTER Joins

Joining tables with the NATURAL JOIN, USING, or ON clauses results in an inner join. Any unmatched rows are not displayed in the output. To return the unmatched rows, you can use an outer join. An outer join returns all rows that satisfy the join condition and also returns some or all of those rows from one table for which no rows from the other table satisfy the join condition.

There are three types of outer joins:

- · LEFT OUTER
- · RIGHT OUTER
- FULL OUTER

LEFT OUTER JOIN SELECT e.last name, e.department id, d.department name FROM employees e LEFT OUTER JOIN departments d ON (e.department id = d.department id) DEPARTMENT NAME LAST_NAME DEPARTMENT ID Whalen 10 Administration Fay 20 Marketing Hartstein 20 Marketing De Haan 90 Executive Kochhar 90 Executive King 90 Executive Gietz 110 Accounting Higgins 110 Accounting Grant 20 rows selected. ORACLE 5 - 23 Copyright © 2006, Oracle. All rights reserved.

Example of LEFT OUTER JOIN

This query retrieves all rows in the EMPLOYEES table, which is the left table even if there is no match in the DEPARTMENTS table.

RIGHT OUTER JOIN SELECT e.last name, e.department id, d.department name employees e RIGHT OUTER JOIN departments d FROM ON (e.department id = d.department id) ; LAST NAME DEPARTMENT ID DEPARTMENT NAME Whalen 10 Administration Fay 20 Marketing Hartstein 20 Marketing Davies 50 Shipping Kochhar 90 Executive Gietz 110 Accounting Higgins 110 Accounting 190 Contracting 20 rows selected. ORACLE 5 - 24 Copyright © 2006, Oracle. All rights reserved.

Example of RIGHT OUTER JOIN

This query retrieves all rows in the DEPARTMENTS table, which is the right table even if there is no match in the EMPLOYEES table.

FULL OUTER JOIN SELECT e.last name, d.department id, d.department name FROM employees e FULL OUTER JOIN departments d ON (e.department id = d.department id) ; DEPARTMENT NAME LAST NAME DEPARTMENT ID 10 Administration Whalen Fay 20 Marketing 20 Marketing Hartstein 90 Executive King Gietz 110 Accounting Higgins 110 Accounting Grant 190 Contracting 21 rows selected. ORACLE 5 - 25 Copyright © 2006, Oracle. All rights reserved.

Example of FULL OUTER JOIN

This query retrieves all rows in the EMPLOYEES table, even if there is no match in the DEPARTMENTS table. It also retrieves all rows in the DEPARTMENTS table, even if there is no match in the EMPLOYEES table.

Cartesian Products

- A Cartesian product is formed when:
 - A join condition is omitted
 - A join condition is invalid
 - All rows in the first table are joined to all rows in the second table
- To avoid a Cartesian product, always include a valid join condition.

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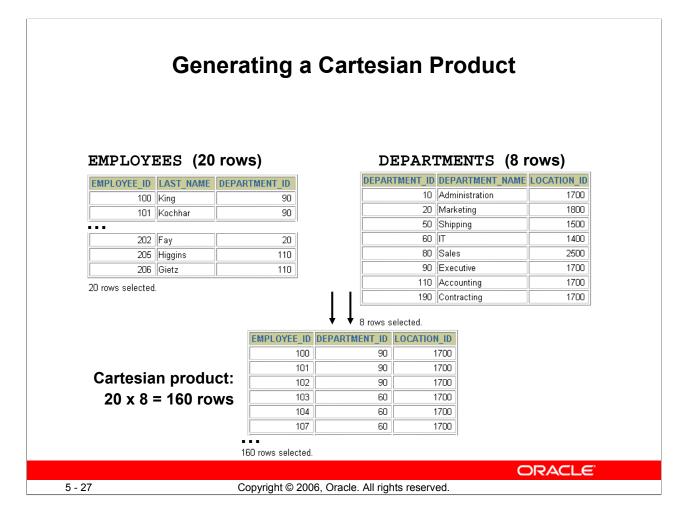
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Cartesian Products

When a join condition is invalid or omitted completely, the result is a *Cartesian product*, in which all combinations of rows are displayed. All rows in the first table are joined to all rows in the second table.

A Cartesian product tends to generate a large number of rows, and the result is rarely useful. You should always include a valid join condition unless you have a specific need to combine all rows from all tables.

Cartesian products are useful for some tests when you need to generate a large number of rows to simulate a reasonable amount of data.

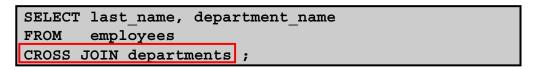


Cartesian Products (continued)

A Cartesian product is generated if a join condition is omitted. The example in the slide displays employee last name and department name from the EMPLOYEES and DEPARTMENTS tables. Because no join condition has been specified, all rows (20 rows) from the EMPLOYEES table are joined with all rows (8 rows) in the DEPARTMENTS table, thereby generating 160 rows in the output.

Creating Cross Joins

- The CROSS JOIN clause produces the cross-product of two tables.
- This is also called a Cartesian product between the two tables.



LA	ST_NAME	DEPARTMENT_NAME
King		Administration
Kochhar		Administration
De Haan		Administration
Hunold		Administration

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Creating Cross Joins

The example in the slide produces a Cartesian product of the EMPLOYEES and DEPARTMENTS tables.

Summary

In this lesson, you should have learned how to use joins to display data from multiple tables by using:

- Equijoins
- Nonequijoins
- Outer joins
- Self-joins
- Cross joins
- Natural joins
- Full (or two-sided) outer joins

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Summary

There are multiple ways to join tables.

Types of Joins

- Equijoins
- Nonequijoins
- Outer joins
- Self-joins
- Cross joins
- Natural joins
- Full (or two-sided) outer joins

Cartesian Products

A Cartesian product results in a display of all combinations of rows. This is done by either omitting the WHERE clause or specifying the CROSS JOIN clause.

Table Aliases

- Table aliases speed up database access.
- Table aliases can help to keep SQL code smaller by conserving memory.

Practice 5: Overview

This practice covers the following topics:

- Joining tables using an equijoin
- Performing outer and self-joins
- Adding conditions

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Practice 5: Overview

This practice is intended to give you practical experience in extracting data from more than one table using SQL:1999—compliant joins.

Practice 5

1. Write a query for the HR department to produce the addresses of all the departments. Use the LOCATIONS and COUNTRIES tables. Show the location ID, street address, city, state or province, and country in the output. Use a NATURAL JOIN to produce the results.

LOCATION_ID	STREET_ADDRESS	CITY	STATE_PROVINCE	COUNTRY_NAME
1400	2014 Jabberwocky Rd	Southlake	Texas	United States of America
1500	2011 Interiors Blvd	South San Francisco	California	United States of America
1700	2004 Charade Rd	Seattle	Washington	United States of America
1800	460 Bloor St. W.	Toronto	Ontario	Canada
2500	Magdalen Centre, The Oxford Science Park	Oxford	Oxford	United Kingdom

2. The HR department needs a report of all employees. Write a query to display the last name, department number, and department name for all employees.

LAST_NAME	DEPARTMENT_ID	DEPARTMENT_NAME
Whalen	10	Administration
Hartstein	20	Marketing
Fay	20	Marketing
Mourgos	50	Shipping
Rajs	50	Shipping
Davies	50	Shipping
Vargas	50	Shipping
De Haan	90	Executive
Higgins	110	Accounting
Gietz	110	Accounting

3. The HR department needs a report of employees in Toronto. Display the last name, job, department number, and department name for all employees who work in Toronto.

LAST_NAME	JOB_ID	DEPARTMENT_ID	DEPARTMENT_NAME
Hartstein	MK_MAN	20	Marketing
Fay	MK_REP	20	Marketing

4. Create a report to display employees' last name and employee number along with their manager's last name and manager number. Label the columns Employee, Emp#, Manager, and Mgr#, respectively. Place your SQL statement in a text file named lab_05_04.sql.

Employee	EMP#	Manager	Mgr#
Kochhar	101	King	100
De Haan	102	King	100
Mourgos	124	King	100
Zlotkey	149	King	100
Hartstein	201	King	100
Whalen	200	Kochhar	101
Higgins	205	Kochhar	101
Hunold	103	De Haan	102
Ernst	104	Hunold	103
Lorentz	107	Hunold	103
Rajs	141	Mourgos	124
Davies	142	Mourgos	124
Matos	143	Mourgos	124
Vargas	144	Mourgos	124
Employee	EMP#	Manager	Mgr#
Abel	174	Zlotkey	149
Taylor	176	Zlotkey	149
Grant	178	Zlotkey	149
Fay	202	Hartstein	201
Gietz	206	Higgins	205

5. Modify lab_05_04.sql to display all employees including King, who has no manager. Order the results by the employee number. Place your SQL statement in a text file named lab 05 05.sql. Run the query in lab 05 05.sql.

Employee	EMP#	Manager	Mgr#
King	100		
Kochhar	101	King	100
De Haan	102	King	100
Hunold	103	De Haan	102
Ernst	104	Hunold	103
Lorentz	107	Hunold	103
Mourgos	124	King	100

20 rows selected.

6. Create a report for the HR department that displays employee last names, department numbers, and all the employees who work in the same department as a given employee. Give each column an appropriate label. Save the script to a file named lab_05_06.sql.

DEPARTMENT	EMPLOYEE	COLLEAGUE
20	Fay	Hartstein
20	Hartstein	Fay
50	Davies	Matos
50	Davies	Mourgos
50	Davies	Rajs
50	Davies	Vargas
50	Matos	Davies
50	Matos	Mourgos
50	Matos	Rajs
50	Matos	Vargas
50	Mourgos	Davies
50	Mourgos	Matos
50	Mourgos	Rajs
50	Mourgos	Vargas

- - -

7. The HR department needs a report on job grades and salaries. To familiarize yourself with the JOB_GRADES table, first show the structure of the JOB_GRADES table. Then create a query that displays the name, job, department name, salary, and grade for all employees.

Name	Null?	Туре
GRADE_LEVEL		VARCHAR2(3)
LOWEST_SAL		NUMBER
HIGHEST_SAL		NUMBER

LAST_NAME	JOB_ID	DEPARTMENT_NAME	SALARY	GRA
Matos	ST_CLERK	Shipping	2600	А
Vargas	ST_CLERK	Shipping	2500	Α
Lorentz	IT_PROG	IT	4200	В
Mourgos	ST_MAN	Shipping	5800	В
Rajs	ST_CLERK	Shipping	3500	В
Davies	ST_CLERK	Shipping	3100	В
Whalen	AD_ASST	Administration	4400	В

. . .

19 rows selected.

If you want an extra challenge, complete the following exercises:

8. The HR department wants to determine the names of all employees who were hired after Davies. Create a query to display the name and hire date of any employee hired after employee Davies.

LAST_NAME	HIRE_DATE
Lorentz	07-FEB-99
Mourgos	16-NOV-99
Matos	15-MAR-98
Vargas	09-JUL-98
Zlotkey	29-JAN-00
Taylor	24-MAR-98
Grant	24-MAY-99
Fay	17-AUG-97

9. The HR department needs to find the names and hire dates for all employees who were hired before their managers, along with their managers' names and hire dates. Save the script to a file named lab5_09.sql.

LAST_NAME	HIRE_DATE	LAST_NAME	HIRE_DATE
Whalen	17-SEP-87	Kochhar	21-SEP-89
Hunold	03-JAN-90	De Haan	13-JAN-93
Rajs	17-OCT-95	Mourgos	16-NOV-99
Davies	29-JAN-97	Mourgos	16-NOV-99
Matos	15-MAR-98	Mourgos	16-NOV-99
Vargas	09-JUL-98	Mourgos	16-NOV-99
Abel	11-MAY-96	Zlotkey	29-JAN-00
Taylor	24-MAR-98	Zlotkey	29-JAN-00
Grant	24-MAY-99	Zlotkey	29-JAN-00

Using Subqueries to Solve Queries

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Objectives

After completing this lesson, you should be able to do the following:

- Define subqueries
- Describe the types of problems that subqueries can solve
- List the types of subqueries
- Write single-row and multiple-row subqueries

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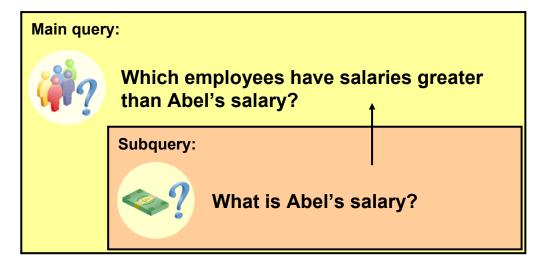
Objectives

In this lesson, you learn about more advanced features of the SELECT statement. You can write subqueries in the WHERE clause of another SQL statement to obtain values based on an unknown conditional value. This lesson covers single-row subqueries and multiple-row subqueries.

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Using a Subquery to Solve a Problem

Who has a salary greater than Abel's?



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Using a Subquery to Solve a Problem

Suppose you want to write a query to find out who earns a salary greater than Abel's salary.

To solve this problem, you need *two* queries: one to find how much Abel earns, and a second query to find who earns more than that amount.

You can solve this problem by combining the two queries, placing one query *inside* the other query.

The inner query (or *subquery*) returns a value that is used by the outer query (or *main query*). Using a subquery is equivalent to performing two sequential queries and using the result of the first query as the search value in the second query.

Subquery Syntax

```
SELECT select_list

FROM table

WHERE expr operator

(SELECT select_list
FROM table);
```

- The subquery (inner query) executes once before the main query (outer query).
- The result of the subquery is used by the main query.

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Subquery Syntax

A subquery is a SELECT statement that is embedded in a clause of another SELECT statement. You can build powerful statements out of simple ones by using subqueries. They can be very useful when you need to select rows from a table with a condition that depends on the data in the table itself.

You can place the subquery in a number of SQL clauses, including the following:

- WHERE clause
- HAVING clause
- FROM clause

In the syntax:

operator includes a comparison condition such as >, =, or IN **Note:** Comparison conditions fall into two classes: single-row operators (>, =, >=, <, <>, <=) and multiple-row operators (IN, ANY, ALL).

The subquery is often referred to as a nested SELECT, sub-SELECT, or inner SELECT statement. The subquery generally executes first, and its output is used to complete the query condition for the main (or outer) query.

Using a Subquery SELECT last name, salary FROM employees WHERE salary > (SELECT salary FROM employees WHERE last name = 'Abel'); LAST NAME SALARY 24000 King Kochhar 17000 De Haan 17000 13000 Hartstein 12000 Higgins **ORACLE** 6 - 5 Copyright © 2006, Oracle. All rights reserved.

Using a Subquery

In the slide, the inner query determines the salary of employee Abel. The outer query takes the result of the inner query and uses this result to display all the employees who earn more than this amount.

Guidelines for Using Subqueries

- Enclose subqueries in parentheses.
- Place subqueries on the right side of the comparison condition.
- The ORDER BY clause in the subquery is not needed unless you are performing Top-N analysis.
- Use single-row operators with single-row subqueries, and use multiple-row operators with multiple-row subqueries.

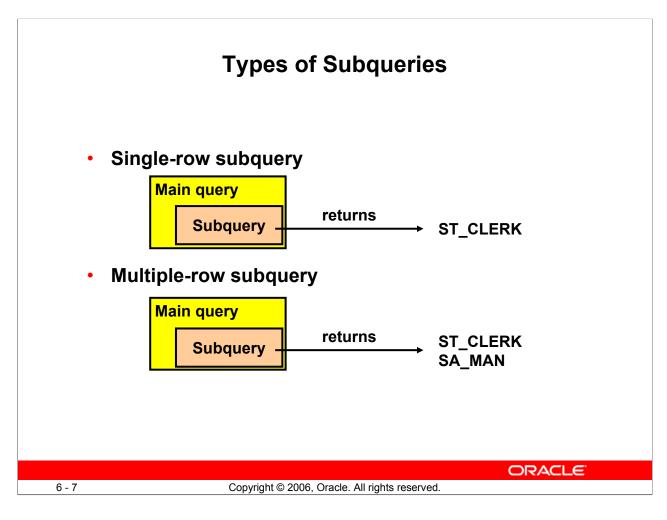
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Guidelines for Using Subqueries

- A subquery must be enclosed in parentheses.
- Place the subquery on the right side of the comparison condition for readability.
- With Oracle8*i* and later releases, an ORDER BY clause can be used and is required in the subquery to perform Top-N analysis.
 - Before Oracle8*i*, however, subqueries could not contain an ORDER BY clause. Only one ORDER BY clause could be used for a SELECT statement; if specified, it had to be the last clause in the main SELECT statement.
- Two classes of comparison conditions are used in subqueries: single-row operators and multiple-row operators.



Types of Subqueries

- Single-row subqueries: Queries that return only one row from the inner SELECT statement
- **Multiple-row subqueries:** Queries that return more than one row from the inner SELECT statement

Note: There are also multiple-column subqueries, which are queries that return more than one column from the inner SELECT statement. These are covered in the *Oracle Database 10g: SQL Fundamentals II* course.

Single-Row Subqueries

- Return only one row
- Use single-row comparison operators

Operator	Meaning
=	Equal to
>	Greater than
>=	Greater than or equal to
<	Less than
<=	Less than or equal to
<>	Not equal to

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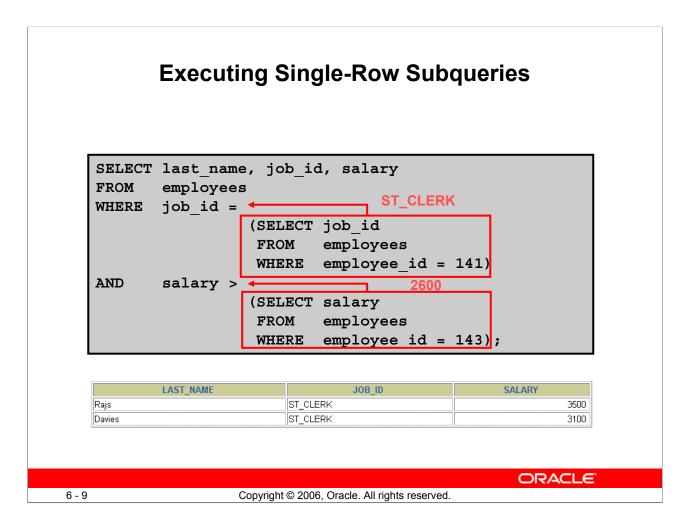
Single-Row Subqueries

A single-row subquery is one that returns one row from the inner SELECT statement. This type of subquery uses a single-row operator. The slide gives a list of single-row operators.

Example

Display the employees whose job ID is the same as that of employee 141:

LAST_NAME	JOB_ID
Rajs	ST_CLERK
Davies	ST_CLERK
Matos	ST_CLERK
Vargas	ST_CLERK



Executing Single-Row Subqueries

A SELECT statement can be considered as a query block. The example in the slide displays employees whose job ID is the same as that of employee 141 and whose salary is greater than that of employee 143.

The example consists of three query blocks: the outer query and two inner queries. The inner query blocks are executed first, producing the query results ST_CLERK and 2600, respectively. The outer query block is then processed and uses the values that were returned by the inner queries to complete its search conditions.

Both inner queries return single values (ST_CLERK and 2600, respectively), so this SQL statement is called a single-row subquery.

Note: The outer and inner queries can get data from different tables.

Using Group Functions in a Subquery SELECT last name, job id, salary 2500 employees FROM WHERE salary = (SELECT MIN(salary) FROM employees); LAST NAME JOB ID SALARY Vargas ST_CLERK 2500 ORACLE 6 - 10 Copyright © 2006, Oracle. All rights reserved.

Using Group Functions in a Subquery

You can display data from a main query by using a group function in a subquery to return a single row. The subquery is in parentheses and is placed after the comparison condition.

The example in the slide displays the employee last name, job ID, and salary of all employees whose salary is equal to the minimum salary. The MIN group function returns a single value (2500) to the outer query.

The HAVING Clause with Subqueries

- The Oracle server executes subqueries first.
- The Oracle server returns results into the HAVING clause of the main query.

```
SELECT department_id, MIN(salary)
FROM employees
GROUP BY department_id
HAVING MIN(salary) >

(SELECT MIN(salary)
FROM employees
WHERE department_id = 50);
```

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The HAVING Clause with Subqueries

You can use subqueries not only in the WHERE clause but also in the HAVING clause. The Oracle server executes the subquery, and the results are returned into the HAVING clause of the main query.

The SQL statement in the slide displays all the departments that have a minimum salary greater than that of department 50.

DEPARTMENT_ID	MIN(SALARY)
10	4400
20	6000
	7000

7 rows selected.

Example

Oracle Database 10g: SQL Fundamentals I 6 - 11

What Is Wrong with This Statement?

```
SELECT employee_id, last_name
FROM employees
WHERE salary =

(SELECT MIN(salary)
FROM employees
GROUP BY department_id);
```

```
ERROR at line 4:
ORA-01427: single-row subquery returns more than
one row
```

Single-row operator with multiple-row subquery

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Errors with Subqueries

One common error with subqueries occurs when more than one row is returned for a single-row subquery.

In the SQL statement in the slide, the subquery contains a GROUP BY clause, which implies that the subquery will return multiple rows, one for each group that it finds. In this case, the result of the subquery are 4400, 6000, 2500, 4200, 7000, 17000, and 8300.

The outer query takes those results and uses them in its WHERE clause. The WHERE clause contains an equal (=) operator, a single-row comparison operator that expects only one value. The = operator cannot accept more than one value from the subquery and, therefore, generates the error.

To correct this error, change the = operator to IN.

Will This Statement Return Rows?

no rows selected

Subquery returns no values.

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Problems with Subqueries

A common problem with subqueries occurs when no rows are returned by the inner query. In the SQL statement in the slide, the subquery contains a WHERE clause. Presumably, the intention is to find the employee whose name is Haas. The statement is correct but selects no rows when executed.

There is no employee named Haas. So the subquery returns no rows. The outer query takes the results of the subquery (null) and uses these results in its WHERE clause. The outer query finds no employee with a job ID equal to null, and so returns no rows. If a job existed with a value of null, the row is not returned because comparison of two null values yields a null; therefore, the WHERE condition is not true.

Multiple-Row Subqueries

- Return more than one row
- Use multiple-row comparison operators

Operator	Meaning
IN	Equal to any member in the list
ANY	Compare value to each value returned by the subquery
ALL	Compare value to every value returned by the subquery

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Multiple-Row Subqueries

Subqueries that return more than one row are called multiple-row subqueries. You use a multiple-row operator, instead of a single-row operator, with a multiple-row subquery. The multiple-row operator expects one or more values:

Example

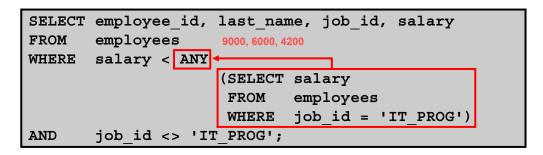
Find the employees who earn the same salary as the minimum salary for each department.

The inner query is executed first, producing a query result. The main query block is then processed and uses the values that were returned by the inner query to complete its search condition. In fact, the main query appears to the Oracle server as follows:

```
SELECT last_name, salary, department_id
FROM employees
WHERE salary IN (2500, 4200, 4400, 6000, 7000, 8300, 8600, 17000);
```

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Using the ANY Operator in Multiple-Row Subqueries



EMPLOYEE_ID	LAST_NAME	JOB_ID	SALARY
124	Mourgos	ST_MAN	5800
141	Rajs	ST_CLERK	3500
142	Davies	ST_CLERK	3100
143	Matos	ST_CLERK	2600
144	Vargas	ST_CLERK	2500

10 rows selected.

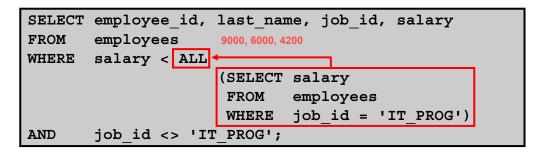
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Multiple-Row Subqueries (continued)

The ANY operator (and its synonym, the SOME operator) compares a value to *each* value returned by a subquery. The slide example displays employees who are not IT programmers and whose salary is less than that of any IT programmer. The maximum salary that a programmer earns is \$9,000.

<ANY means less than the maximum. >ANY means more than the minimum. =ANY is equivalent to IN.

Using the ALL Operator in Multiple-Row Subqueries



EMPLOYEE_ID	LAST_NAME	JOB_ID	SALARY
141	Rajs	ST_CLERK	3500
142	Davies	ST_CLERK	3100
143	Matos	ST_CLERK	2600
144	Vargas	ST_CLERK	2500

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Multiple-Row Subqueries (continued)

The ALL operator compares a value to *every* value returned by a subquery. The slide example displays employees whose salary is less than the salary of all employees with a job ID of IT PROG and whose job is not IT PROG.

>ALL means more than the maximum, and <ALL means less than the minimum.

The NOT operator can be used with IN, ANY, and ALL operators.

Null Values in a Subquery

```
SELECT emp.last_name
FROM employees emp
WHERE emp.employee_id NOT IN

(SELECT mgr.manager_id
FROM employees mgr);

no rows selected
```

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Returning Nulls in the Resulting Set of a Subquery

The SQL statement in the slide attempts to display all the employees who do not have any subordinates. Logically, this SQL statement should have returned 12 rows. However, the SQL statement does not return any rows. One of the values returned by the inner query is a null value, and, therefore, the entire query returns no rows.

The reason is that all conditions that compare a null value result in a null. So whenever null values are likely to be part of the results set of a subquery, do not use the NOT IN operator. The NOT IN operator is equivalent to <> ALL.

Notice that the null value as part of the results set of a subquery is not a problem if you use the IN operator. The IN operator is equivalent to =ANY. For example, to display the employees who have subordinates, use the following SQL statement:

Returning Nulls in the Resulting Set of a Subquery (continued)

Alternatively, a WHERE clause can be included in the subquery to display all employees who do not have any subordinates:

Summary

In this lesson, you should have learned how to:

- Identify when a subquery can help solve a question
- Write subqueries when a query is based on unknown values

```
SELECT select_list
FROM table
WHERE expr operator
(SELECT select_list
FROM table);
```

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Summary

In this lesson, you should have learned how to use subqueries. A subquery is a SELECT statement that is embedded in a clause of another SQL statement. Subqueries are useful when a query is based on a search criterion with unknown intermediate values.

Subqueries have the following characteristics:

- Can pass one row of data to a main statement that contains a single-row operator, such as =, <>, >, >=, <, or <=
- Can pass multiple rows of data to a main statement that contains a multiple-row operator, such as IN
- Are processed first by the Oracle server, after which the WHERE or HAVING clause uses the results
- Can contain group functions

Practice 6: Overview

This practice covers the following topics:

- Creating subqueries to query values based on unknown criteria
- Using subqueries to find out which values exist in one set of data and not in another

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Practice 6: Overview

In this practice, you write complex queries using nested SELECT statements.

Paper-Based Questions

You may want to create the inner query first for these questions. Make sure that it runs and produces the data that you anticipate before you code the outer query.

Practice 6

1. The HR department needs a query that prompts the user for an employee last name. The query then displays the last name and hire date of any employee in the same department as the employee whose name they supply (excluding that employee). For example, if the user enters Zlotkey, find all employees who work with Zlotkey (excluding Zlotkey).

LAST_NAME HIRE_DATE	
Abel	11-MAY-96
Taylor	24-MAR-98

2. Create a report that displays the employee number, last name, and salary of all employees who earn more than the average salary. Sort the results in order of ascending salary.

EMPLOYEE_ID	LAST_NAME	SALARY
103	Hunold	9000
149	Zlotkey	10500
174	Abel	11000
205	Higgins	12000
201	Hartstein	13000
101	Kochhar	17000
102	De Haan	17000
100	King	24000

8 rows selected.

3. Write a query that displays the employee number and last name of all employees who work in a department with any employee whose last name contains a *u*. Place your SQL statement in a text file named lab 06 03.sql. Run your query.

EMPLOYEE_ID	LAST_NAME
124	Mourgos
141	Rajs
142	Davies
143	Matos
144	Vargas
103	Hunold
104	Ernst
107	Lorentz

4. The HR department needs a report that displays the last name, department number, and job ID of all employees whose department location ID is 1700.

LAST_NAME	DEPARTMENT_ID	JOB_ID
Whalen	10	AD_ASST
King	90	AD_PRES
Kochhar	90	AD_VP
De Haan	90	AD_VP
Higgins	110	AC_MGR
Gietz	110	AC_ACCOUNT

6 rows selected.

Modify the query so that the user is prompted for a location ID. Save this to a file named lab 06 04.sql.

5. Create a report for HR that displays the last name and salary of every employee who reports to King.

LAST_NAME	SALARY
Kochhar	17000
De Haan	17000
Mourgos	5800
Zlotkey	10500
Hartstein	13000

6. Create a report for HR that displays the department number, last name, and job ID for every employee in the Executive department.

DEPARTMENT_ID	LAST_NAME	JOB_ID
90	King	AD_PRES
90	Kochhar	AD_VP
90	De Haan	AD_VP

If you have time, complete the following exercise:

7. Modify the query in lab_06_03.sql to display the employee number, last name, and salary of all employees who earn more than the average salary and who work in a department with any employee whose last name contains a *u*. Resave lab_06_03.sql as lab_06_07.sql. Run the statement in lab_06_07.sql.

EMPLOY	EE_ID	LAST_NAME	SALARY
	103 Hu	nold	9000



Objectives

After completing this lesson, you should be able to do the following:

- Describe set operators
- Use a set operator to combine multiple queries into a single query
- Control the order of rows returned

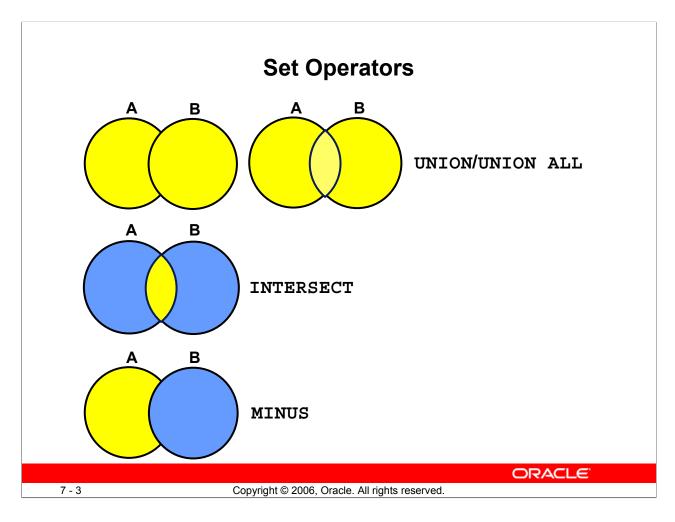
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Objectives

In this lesson, you learn how to write queries by using set operators.



Set Operators

Set operators combine the results of two or more component queries into one result. Queries containing set operators are called *compound queries*.

Operator	Returns
UNION	All distinct rows selected by either query
UNION ALL	All rows selected by either query, including all duplicates
INTERSECT	All distinct rows selected by both queries
MINUS	All distinct rows that are selected by the first SELECT statement and not selected in the second SELECT statement

All set operators have equal precedence. If a SQL statement contains multiple set operators, the Oracle server evaluates them from left (top) to right (bottom) if no parentheses explicitly specify another order. You should use parentheses to specify the order of evaluation explicitly in queries that use the INTERSECT operator with other set operators.

Tables Used in This Lesson

The tables used in this lesson are:

- EMPLOYEES: Provides details regarding all current employees
- JOB_HISTORY: Records the details of the start date and end date of the former job, and the job identification number and department when an employee switches jobs

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Tables Used in This Lesson

Two tables are used in this lesson. They are the EMPLOYEES table and the JOB_HISTORY table.

The EMPLOYEES table stores the employee details. For the human resource records, this table stores a unique identification number and e-mail address for each employee. The details of the employee's job identification number, salary, and manager are also stored. Some of the employees earn a commission in addition to their salary; this information is tracked, too. The company organizes the roles of employees into jobs. Some of the employees have been with the company for a long time and have switched to different jobs. This is monitored using the JOB_HISTORY table. When an employee switches jobs, the details of the start date and end date of the former job, the job identification number, and the department are recorded in the JOB_HISTORY table.

The structure and data from the EMPLOYEES and JOB_HISTORY tables are shown on the following pages.

Tables Used in This Lesson (continued)

There have been instances in the company of people who have held the same position more than once during their tenure with the company. For example, consider the employee Taylor, who joined the company on 24-MAR-1998. Taylor held the job title SA_REP for the period 24-MAR-98 to 31-DEC-98 and the job title SA_MAN for the period 01-JAN-99 to 31-DEC-99. Taylor moved back into the job title of SA_REP, which is his current job title.

Similarly, consider the employee Whalen, who joined the company on 17-SEP-1987. Whalen held the job title AD_ASST for the period 17-SEP-87 to 17-JUN-93 and the job title AC_ACCOUNT for the period 01-JUL-94 to 31-DEC-98. Whalen moved back into the job title of AD ASST, which is his current job title.

DESCRIBE employees

Name	Null?	Туре
EMPLOYEE_ID	NOT NULL	NUMBER(6)
FIRST_NAME		VARCHAR2(20)
LAST_NAME	NOT NULL	VARCHAR2(25)
EMAIL	NOT NULL	VARCHAR2(25)
PHONE_NUMBER		VARCHAR2(20)
HIRE_DATE	NOT NULL	DATE
JOB_ID	NOT NULL	VARCHAR2(10)
SALARY		NUMBER(8,2)
COMMISSION_PCT		NUMBER(2,2)
MANAGER_ID		NUMBER(6)
DEPARTMENT_ID		NUMBER(4)

Tables Used in This Lesson (continued)

SELECT employee_id, last_name, job_id, hire_date, department_id
FROM employees;

EMPLOYEE_ID	LAST_NAME	JOB_ID	HIRE_DATE	DEPARTMENT_ID
100	King	AD_PRES	17-JUN-87	90
101	Kochhar	AD_VP	21-SEP-89	90
102	De Haan	AD_VP	13-JAN-93	90
103	Hunold	IT_PROG	03-JAN-90	60
104	Ernst	IT_PROG	21-MAY-91	60
107	Lorentz	IT_PROG	07-FEB-99	60
124	Mourgos	ST_MAN	16-NOV-99	50
141	Rajs	ST_CLERK	17-OCT-95	50
142	Davies	ST_CLERK	29-JAN-97	50
143	Matos	ST_CLERK	15-MAR-98	50
144	Vargas	ST_CLERK	09-JUL-98	50
149	Zlotkey	SA_MAN	29-JAN-00	80
174	Abel	SA_REP	11-MAY-96	80
176	Taylor	SA_REP	24-MAR-98	80
EMPLOYEE_ID	LAST_NAME	JOB_ID	HIRE_DATE	DEPARTMENT_ID
178	Grant	SA_REP	24-MAY-99	
200	Whalen	AD_ASST	17-SEP-87	10
201	Hartstein	MK_MAN	17-FEB-96	20

20 rows selected.

DESCRIBE job_history

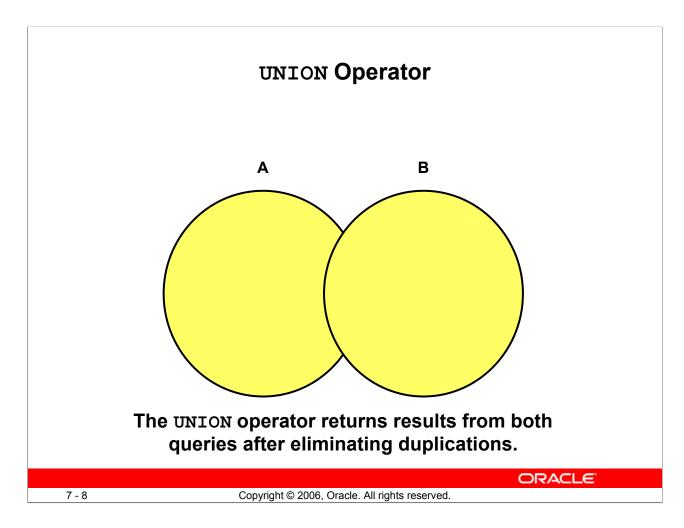
Name	Null?	Туре
EMPLOYEE_ID	NOT NULL	NUMBER(6)
START_DATE	NOT NULL	DATE
END_DATE	NOT NULL	DATE
JOB_ID	NOT NULL	VARCHAR2(10)
DEPARTMENT_ID		NUMBER(4)

Tables Used in This Lesson (continued)

SELECT * FROM job history;

EMPLOYEE_ID	START_DAT	END_DATE	JOB_ID	DEPARTMENT_ID
102	13-JAN-93	24-JUL-98	IT_PROG	60
101	21-SEP-89	27-OCT-93	AC_ACCOUNT	110
101	28-OCT-93	15-MAR-97	AC_MGR	110
201	17-FEB-96	19-DEC-99	MK_REP	20
114	24-MAR-98	31-DEC-99	ST_CLERK	50
122	01-JAN-99	31-DEC-99	ST_CLERK	50
200	17-SEP-87	17-JUN-93	AD_ASST	90
176	24-MAR-98	31-DEC-98	SA_REP	80
176	01-JAN-99	31-DEC-99	SA_MAN	80
200	01-JUL-94	31-DEC-98	AC_ACCOUNT	90

10 rows selected.



UNION Operator

The UNION operator returns all rows that are selected by either query. Use the UNION operator to return all rows from multiple tables and eliminate any duplicate rows.

Guidelines

- The number of columns and the data types of the columns being selected must be identical in all the SELECT statements used in the query. The names of the columns need not be identical.
- UNION operates over all of the columns being selected.
- NULL values are not ignored during duplicate checking.
- The IN operator has a higher precedence than the UNION operator.
- By default, the output is sorted in ascending order of the first column of the SELECT clause.

Using the UNION Operator

Display the current and previous job details of all employees. Display each employee only once.

```
SELECT employee_id, job_id
FROM employees
UNION
SELECT employee_id, job_id
FROM job_history;
```

EMPLOYEE_ID	JOB_ID
100	AD_PRES
101	AC_ACCOUNT
200	AC_ACCOUNT
200	AD_ASST
111	
205	AC_MGR
206	AC_ACCOUNT

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Using the UNION Operator

The UNION operator eliminates any duplicate records. If records that occur in both the EMPLOYEES and the JOB_HISTORY tables are identical, the records are displayed only once. Observe in the output shown in the slide that the record for the employee with the EMPLOYEE ID 200 appears twice because the JOB ID is different in each row.

Consider the following example:

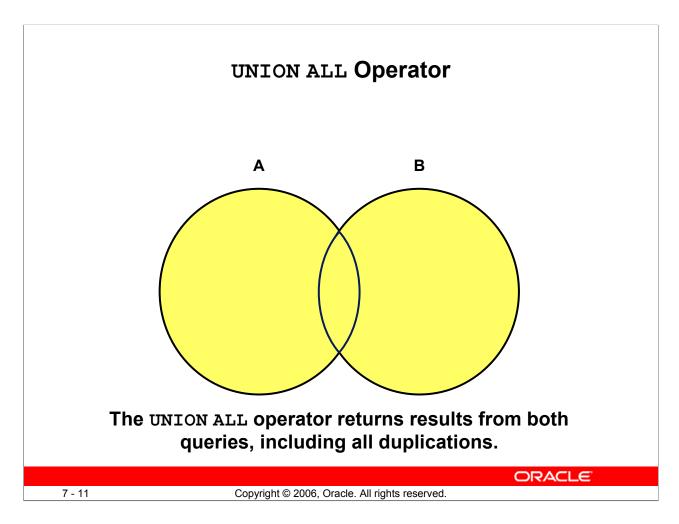
SELECT employee_id, job_id, department_id FROM employees
UNION
SELECT employee_id, job_id, department_id FROM job history;

EMPLOYEE_ID	JOB_ID	DEPARTMENT_ID
200	AC_ACCOUNT	90
200	AD_ASST	10
200	AD_ASST	90

29 rows selected.

Using the UNION Operator (continued)

In the preceding output, employee 200 appears three times. Why? Notice the DEPARTMENT_ID values for employee 200. One row has a DEPARTMENT_ID of 90, another 10, and the third 90. Because of these unique combinations of job IDs and department IDs, each row for employee 200 is unique and therefore not considered to be a duplicate. Observe that the output is sorted in ascending order of the first column of the SELECT clause (in this case, EMPLOYEE ID).



UNION ALL Operator

Use the UNION ALL operator to return all rows from multiple queries.

Guidelines

The guidelines for UNION and UNION ALL are the same, with the following two exceptions that pertain to UNION ALL:

- Unlike UNION, duplicate rows are not eliminated and the output is not sorted by default.
- The DISTINCT keyword cannot be used.

Using the UNION ALL Operator

Display the current and previous departments of all employees.

```
SELECT employee_id, job_id, department_id
FROM employees
UNION ALL
SELECT employee_id, job_id, department_id
FROM job_history
ORDER BY employee_id;
```

EMPLOYEE_ID	JOB_ID	DEPARTMENT_ID
100	AD_PRES	90
101	AD_VP	90
200	AD_ASST	10
200	AD_ASST	90
200	AC_ACCOUNT	90
••		
205	AC_MGR	110
208	AC_ACCOUNT	110

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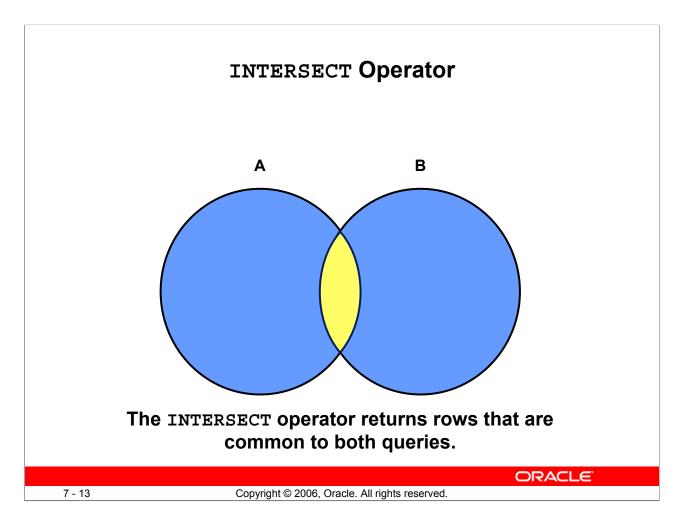
UNION ALL Operator (continued)

In the example, 30 rows are selected. The combination of the two tables totals to 30 rows. The UNION ALL operator does not eliminate duplicate rows. UNION returns all distinct rows selected by either query. UNION ALL returns all rows selected by either query, including all duplicates. Consider the query on the slide, now written with the UNION clause:

```
SELECT employee_id, job_id,department_id FROM employees
UNION
SELECT employee_id, job_id,department_id FROM job_history
ORDER BY employee id;
```

The preceding query returns 29 rows. This is because it eliminates the following row (because it is a duplicate):

EMPLOYE	E_ID	JOB_ID	DEPARTMENT_ID	
176 SA_REP			80	



INTERSECT Operator

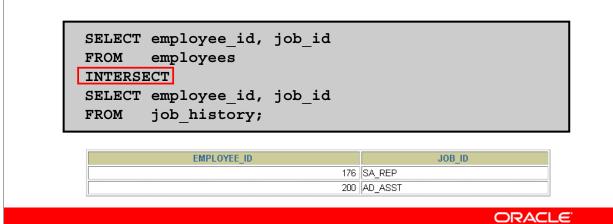
Use the INTERSECT operator to return all rows that are common to multiple queries.

Guidelines

- The number of columns and the data types of the columns being selected by the SELECT statements in the queries must be identical in all the SELECT statements used in the query. The names of the columns need not be identical.
- Reversing the order of the intersected tables does not alter the result.
- INTERSECT does not ignore NULL values.

Using the INTERSECT Operator

Display the employee IDs and job IDs of those employees who currently have a job title that is the same as their job title when they were initially hired (that is, they changed jobs but have now gone back to doing their original job).



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INTERSECT Operator (continued)

In the example in this slide, the query returns only the records that have the same values in the selected columns in both tables.

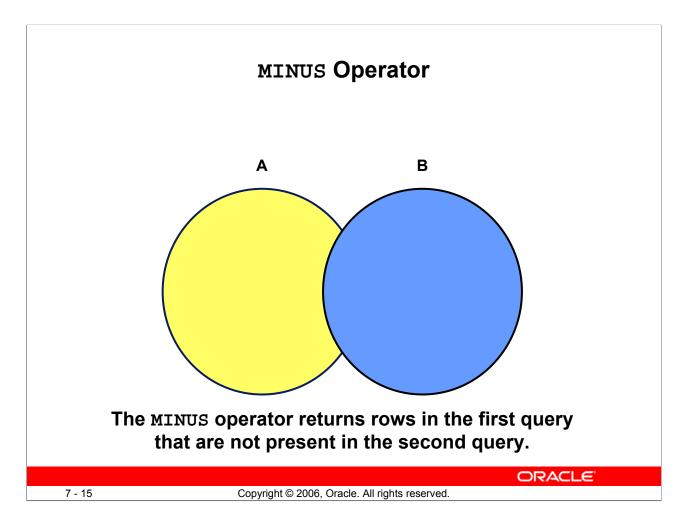
What will be the results if you add the DEPARTMENT_ID column to the SELECT statement from the EMPLOYEES table and add the DEPARTMENT_ID column to the SELECT statement from the JOB_HISTORY table and run this query? The results may be different because of the introduction of another column whose values may or may not be duplicates.

Example

```
SELECT employee_id, job_id, department_id
FROM employees
INTERSECT
SELECT employee_id, job_id, department_id
FROM job_history;
```

EMPLOYEE_ID	JOB_ID	DEPARTMENT_ID
176 SA_REP		80

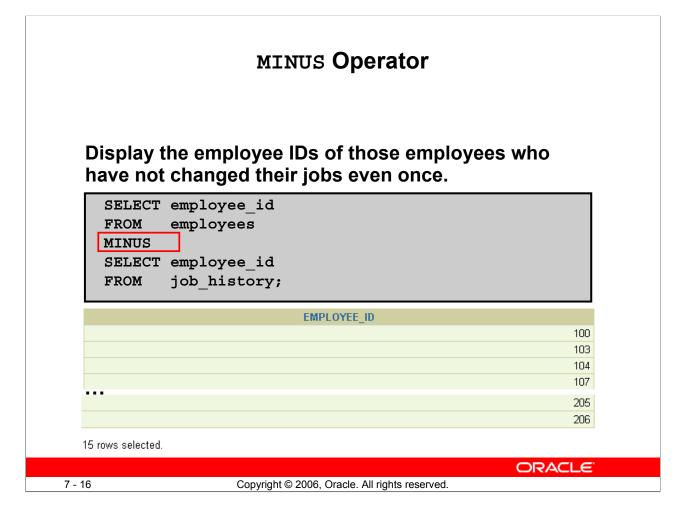
Employee 200 is no longer part of the results because the EMPLOYEES.DEPARTMENT_ID value is different from the JOB_HISTORY.DEPARTMENT_ID value.



MINUS Operator

Use the MINUS operator to return rows returned by the first query that are not present in the second query (the first SELECT statement MINUS the second SELECT statement).

Note: The number of columns and the data types of the columns being selected by the SELECT statements in the queries must be identical in all the SELECT statements used in the query. The names of the columns need not be identical.



MINUS Operator (continued)

In the example in the slide, the employee IDs in the JOB_HISTORY table are subtracted from those in the EMPLOYEES table. The results set displays the employees remaining after the subtraction; they are represented by rows that exist in the EMPLOYEES table but do not exist in the JOB_HISTORY table. These are the records of the employees who have not changed their jobs even once.

Set Operator Guidelines

- The expressions in the SELECT lists must match in number and data type.
- Parentheses can be used to alter the sequence of execution.
- The ORDER BY clause:
 - Can appear only at the very end of the statement
 - Will accept the column name, aliases from the first SELECT statement, or the positional notation

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Set Operator Guidelines

• The expressions in the select lists of the queries must match in number and data type. Queries that use UNION, UNION ALL, INTERSECT, and MINUS operators in their WHERE clause must have the same number and type of columns in their SELECT list. For example:

- The ORDER BY clause:
 - Can appear only at the very end of the statement
 - Will accept the column name, an alias, or the positional notation
- The column name or alias, if used in an ORDER BY clause, must be from the first SELECT list.
- Set operators can be used in subqueries.

The Oracle Server and Set Operators

- Duplicate rows are automatically eliminated except in UNION ALL.
- Column names from the first query appear in the result.
- The output is sorted in ascending order by default except in UNION ALL.

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The Oracle Server and Set Operators

When a query uses set operators, the Oracle server eliminates duplicate rows automatically except in the case of the UNION ALL operator. The column names in the output are decided by the column list in the first SELECT statement. By default, the output is sorted in ascending order of the first column of the SELECT clause.

The corresponding expressions in the select lists of the component queries of a compound query must match in number and data type. If component queries select character data, the data type of the return values is determined as follows:

- If both queries select values of data type CHAR, the returned values have data type CHAR.
- If either or both of the queries select values of data type VARCHAR2, the returned values have data type VARCHAR2.

Matching the SELECT Statements

Using the UNION operator, display the department ID, location, and hire date for all employees.

SELECT	<pre>department_id, TO_NUMBER(null) location, hire date</pre>
FROM	employees
UNION	
SELECT	department id, location id, TO DATE(null)
FROM	departments;

DEPARTMENT_ID	LOCATION	HIRE_DATE
10	1700	
10		17-SEP-87
20	1800	
20		17-FEB-96
110	1700	
110		07-JUN-94
190	1700	
		24-MAY-99

27 rows selected.

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Matching the SELECT Statements

Because the expressions in the select lists of the queries must match in number, you can use dummy columns and the data type conversion functions to comply with this rule. In the slide, the name location is given as the dummy column heading. The TO_NUMBER function is used in the first query to match the NUMBER data type of the LOCATION_ID column retrieved by the second query. Similarly, the TO_DATE function in the second query is used to match the DATE data type of the HIRE_DATE column retrieved by the first query.

Matching the SELECT Statement: Example

Using the UNION operator, display the employee ID, job ID, and salary of all employees.

SELECT employee_id, job_id,salary
FROM employees
UNION
SELECT employee_id, job_id,0
FROM job_history;

EMPLOYEE_ID	JOB_ID	SALARY
100	AD_PRES	24000
101	AC_ACCOUNT	0
	AC_MGR	0
		12000
205	AC_MGR	12000
206	AC_ACCOUNT	8300

30 rows selected.

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Matching the SELECT Statement: Example

The EMPLOYEES and JOB_HISTORY tables have several columns in common (for example, EMPLOYEE_ID, JOB_ID, and DEPARTMENT_ID). But what if you want the query to display the employee ID, job ID, and salary using the UNION operator, knowing that the salary exists only in the EMPLOYEES table?

The code example in the slide matches the EMPLOYEE_ID and JOB_ID columns in the EMPLOYEES and JOB_HISTORY tables. A literal value of 0 is added to the JOB_HISTORY SELECT statement to match the numeric SALARY column in the EMPLOYEES SELECT statement.

In the preceding results, each row in the output that corresponds to a record from the JOB HISTORY table contains a 0 in the SALARY column.

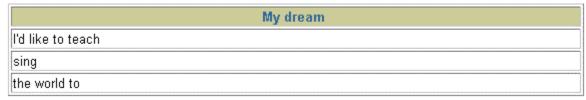
Controlling the Order of Rows Produce an English sentence using two UNION operators. COLUMN a dummy NOPRINT SELECT 'sing' AS "My dream", 3 a dummy FROM dual UNION SELECT 'I''d like to teach', 1 a dummy FROM dual UNION SELECT 'the world to', 2 a dummy FROM dual ORDER BY a dummy; My dream I'd like to teach the world to sing

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Controlling the Order of Rows

By default, the output is sorted in ascending order on the first column. You can use the ORDER BY clause to change this.

The ORDER BY clause can be used only once in a compound query. If used, the ORDER BY clause must be placed at the end of the query. The ORDER BY clause accepts the column name or an alias. Without the ORDER BY clause, the code example in the slide produces the following output in the alphabetical order of the first column:



Note: Consider a compound query where the UNION set operator is used more than once. In this case, the ORDER BY clause can use only positions rather than explicit expressions.

The iSQL*Plus COLUMN Command

You can use the *i*SQL*Plus COLUMN command to customize column headings.

```
Syntax:
```

```
COL[UMN] [{column|alias} [option]]

Where OPTION is:

CLE [AR]: Clears any column formats

HEA[DING] text: Sets the column heading

FOR [MAT] format: Changes the display of the column using a format model

NOPRINT | PRINT: Suppresses or displays the column heading and data

NULL
```

The following statement suppresses the column data and title heading for the column named A_DUMMY. Notice that the first SELECT clause in the previous slide creates a dummy column named A_DUMMY.

```
COLUMN a_dummy NOPRINT
```

Summary

In this lesson, you should have learned how to:

- Use union to return all distinct rows
- Use union all to return all rows, including duplicates
- Use INTERSECT to return all rows that are shared by both queries
- Use MINUS to return all distinct rows that are selected by the first query but not by the second
- Use ORDER BY only at the very end of the statement

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Summary

- The UNION operator returns all rows selected by either query. Use the UNION operator to return all rows from multiple tables and eliminate any duplicate rows.
- Use the UNION ALL operator to return all rows from multiple queries. Unlike the case with the UNION operator, duplicate rows are not eliminated and the output is not sorted by default.
- Use the INTERSECT operator to return all rows that are common to multiple queries.
- Use the MINUS operator to return rows returned by the first query that are not present in the second query.
- Remember to use the ORDER BY clause only at the very end of the compound statement.
- Make sure that the corresponding expressions in the SELECT lists match in number and data type.

Practice 7: Overview

In this practice, you use the set operators to create reports:

- Using the UNION operator
- Using the INTERSECTION operator
- Using the MINUS operator

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Practice 7: Overview

In this practice, you write queries using the set operators.

Practice 7

1. The HR department needs a list of department IDs for departments that do not contain the job ID ST CLERK. Use set operators to create this report.

DEPARTMENT_ID	
	10
	20
	60
	80
	90
	110
	190

7 rows selected.

2. The HR department needs a list of countries that have no departments located in them. Display the country ID and the name of the countries. Use set operators to create this report.

CO	COUNTRY_NAME
DE	Germany

3. Produce a list of jobs for departments 10, 50, and 20, in that order. Display job ID and department ID using set operators.

JOB_ID	DEPARTMENT_ID
AD_ASST	10
ST_CLERK	50
ST_MAN	50
MK_MAN	20
MK_REP	20

4. Create a report that lists the employee IDs and job IDs of those employees who currently have a job title that is the same as their job title when they were initially hired by the company (that is, they changed jobs but have now gone back to doing their original job).

EMPLOYEE_ID	JOB_ID
176	SA_REP
200	AD_ASST

Practice 7 (continued)

- 5. The HR department needs a report with the following specifications:
 - Last name and department ID of all the employees from the EMPLOYEES table, regardless of whether or not they belong to a department
 - Department ID and department name of all the departments from the DEPARTMENTS table, regardless of whether or not they have employees working in them Write a compound query to accomplish this.

LAST_NAME	DEPARTMENT_ID	TO_CHAR(NULL)
Abel	80	
Davies	50	
De Haan	90	
Ernst	60	
Fay	20	
Gietz	110	
Grant		
Hartstein	20	
Higgins	110	
Hunold	60	
King	90	
Kochhar	90	
Lorentz	60	
Matos	50	
LAST_NAME	DEPARTMENT_ID	TO_CHAR(NULL)
Mourgos	DEPARTMENT_ID 50	TO_CHAR(NULL)
Mourgos Rajs		TO_CHAR(NULL)
Mourgos Rajs Taylor	50 50 80	TO_CHAR(NULL)
Mourgos Rajs Taylor Vargas	50 50	TO_CHAR(NULL)
Mourgos Rajs Taylor Vargas Whalen	50 50 80	TO_CHAR(NULL)
Mourgos Rajs Taylor Vargas	50 50 80 50	
Mourgos Rajs Taylor Vargas Whalen	50 50 80 50 10	Administration
Mourgos Rajs Taylor Vargas Whalen	50 50 80 50 10 80	
Mourgos Rajs Taylor Vargas Whalen	50 50 80 50 10 80	Administration Marketing Shipping
Mourgos Rajs Taylor Vargas Whalen	50 50 80 50 10 80 10	Administration Marketing Shipping
Mourgos Rajs Taylor Vargas Whalen	50 50 80 50 10 80 10 20	Administration Marketing Shipping IT Sales
Mourgos Rajs Taylor Vargas Whalen	50 50 80 50 10 80 10 20 50 60 80	Administration Marketing Shipping IT Sales Executive
Mourgos Rajs Taylor Vargas Whalen	50 50 80 50 10 80 10 20 50 60 80	Administration Marketing Shipping IT Sales

28 rows selected.



Objectives

After completing this lesson, you should be able to do the following:

- Describe each data manipulation language (DML) statement
- Insert rows into a table
- Update rows in a table
- Delete rows from a table
- Control transactions

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Objective

In this lesson, you learn how to use DML statements to insert rows into a table, update existing rows in a table, and delete existing rows from a table. You also learn how to control transactions with the COMMIT, SAVEPOINT, and ROLLBACK statements.

Data Manipulation Language

- A DML statement is executed when you:
 - Add new rows to a table
 - Modify existing rows in a table
 - Remove existing rows from a table
- A transaction consists of a collection of DML statements that form a logical unit of work.

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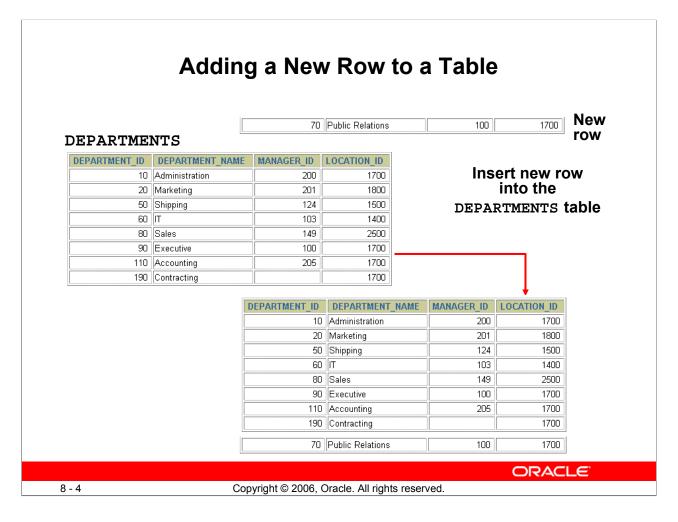
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Data Manipulation Language

Data manipulation language (DML) is a core part of SQL. When you want to add, update, or delete data in the database, you execute a DML statement. A collection of DML statements that form a logical unit of work is called a *transaction*.

Consider a banking database. When a bank customer transfers money from a savings account to a checking account, the transaction might consist of three separate operations: decrease the savings account, increase the checking account, and record the transaction in the transaction journal. The Oracle server must guarantee that all three SQL statements are performed to maintain the accounts in proper balance. When something prevents one of the statements in the transaction from executing, the other statements of the transaction must be undone.



Adding a New Row to a Table

The graphic in the slide illustrates adding a new department to the DEPARTMENTS table.

INSERT Statement Syntax

 Add new rows to a table by using the INSERT statement:

```
INSERT INTO table [(column [, column...])]
VALUES (value [, value...]);
```

With this syntax, only one row is inserted at a time.

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Adding a New Row to a Table (continued)

You can add new rows to a table by issuing the INSERT statement.

In the syntax:

is the name of the table

column is the name of the column in the table to populate

value is the corresponding value for the column

Note: This statement with the VALUES clause adds only one row at a time to a table.

Inserting New Rows

- Insert a new row containing values for each column.
- List values in the default order of the columns in the table.
- Optionally, list the columns in the INSERT clause.

 Enclose character and date values in single quotation marks.

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Adding a New Row to a Table (continued)

Because you can insert a new row that contains values for each column, the column list is not required in the INSERT clause. However, if you do not use the column list, the values must be listed according to the default order of the columns in the table, and a value must be provided for each column.

DESCRIBE departments

Name	Null?	Туре
DEPARTMENT_ID	NOT NULL	NUMBER(4)
DEPARTMENT_NAME	NOT NULL	VARCHAR2(30)
MANAGER_ID		NUMBER(6)
LOCATION_ID		NUMBER(4)

For clarity, use the column list in the INSERT clause.

Enclose character and date values in single quotation marks; it is not recommended that you enclose numeric values in single quotation marks.

Number values should not be enclosed in single quotation marks, because implicit conversion may take place for numeric values that are assigned to NUMBER data type columns if single quotation marks are included.

Inserting Rows with Null Values

Implicit method: Omit the column from the column list.

 Explicit method: Specify the NULL keyword in the VALUES clause.

```
INSERT INTO departments

VALUES (100, 'Finance', NULL, NULL);

1 row created.
```

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Methods for Inserting Null Values

Method	Description
Implicit	Omit the column from the column list.
Explicit	Specify the NULL keyword in the VALUES list; specify the empty string ('') in the VALUES list for character strings and dates.

Be sure that you can use null values in the targeted column by verifying the Null? status with the *i*SQL*Plus DESCRIBE command.

The Oracle server automatically enforces all data types, data ranges, and data integrity constraints. Any column that is not listed explicitly obtains a null value in the new row.

Common errors that can occur during user input:

- Mandatory value missing for a NOT NULL column
- Duplicate value violates uniqueness constraint
- Foreign key constraint violated
- · CHECK constraint violated
- Data type mismatch
- Value too wide to fit in column

Inserting Special Values

The SYSDATE function records the current date and time.

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Inserting Special Values by Using SQL Functions

You can use functions to enter special values in your table.

The slide example records information for employee Popp in the EMPLOYEES table. It supplies the current date and time in the HIRE_DATE column. It uses the SYSDATE function for current date and time.

You can also use the USER function when inserting rows in a table. The USER function records the current username.

Confirming Additions to the Table

```
SELECT employee_id, last_name, job_id, hire_date, commission_pct
FROM employees
WHERE employee id = 113;
```

EMPLOYEE_ID	LAST_NAME	JOB_ID	HIRE_DATE	COMMISSION_PCT
113	Рорр	AC_ACCOUNT	27-SEP-01	

Inserting Specific Date Values

Add a new employee.

Verify your addition.



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Inserting Specific Date and Time Values

The DD-MON-YY format is usually used to insert a date value. With this format, recall that the century defaults to the current century. Because the date also contains time information, the default time is midnight (00:00:00).

If a date must be entered in a format other than the default format (for example, with another century or a specific time), you must use the TO_DATE function.

The example in the slide records information for employee Raphealy in the EMPLOYEES table. It sets the HIRE_DATE column to be February 3, 1999. If you use the following statement instead of the one shown in the slide, the year of the hire date is interpreted as 2099.

If the RR format is used, the system provides the correct century automatically, even if it is not the current one.

Creating a Script

 Use & substitution in a SQL statement to prompt for values.

INSERT IN	TO departments
	<pre>(department_id, department_name, location_id)</pre>
VALUES	&department_id, '&department_name', &location);
(i) Input Re	equired
~ ·	<u>. </u>
Enter value for dep	eartment_id: 40 Cancel Continue
	and the state of t
Enter value for dep	eartment_name: Human Resources Cancel Continue
Enter value for dep	eartment_name: Human Resources Cancel Continue
Enter value for dep	partment_name: Human Resources Cancel Continue ation: 2500 Cancel Continue
Enter value for dep Enter value for dep Enter value for loca 1 row cr	partment_name: Human Resources Cancel Continue ation: 2500 Cancel Continue
Enter value for dep	partment_name: Human Resources Cancel Continue ation: 2500 Cancel Continue

Creating a Script to Manipulate Data

You can save commands with substitution variables to a file and execute the commands in the file. The slide example records information for a department in the DEPARTMENTS table.

Run the script file and you are prompted for input for each of the & substitution variables. After entering a value for the substitution variable, click the Continue button. The values that you input are then substituted into the statement. This enables you to run the same script file over and over but supply a different set of values each time you run it.

Copying Rows from Another Table

Write your INSERT statement with a subquery:

```
INSERT INTO sales_reps(id, name, salary, commission_pct)
SELECT employee_id, last_name, salary, commission_pct
FROM employees
WHERE job_id LIKE '%REP%';
4 rows created.
```

- Do not use the VALUES clause.
- Match the number of columns in the INSERT clause to those in the subquery.

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Copying Rows from Another Table

You can use the INSERT statement to add rows to a table where the values are derived from existing tables. In place of the VALUES clause, you use a subquery.

Syntax

```
INSERT INTO table [ column (, column) ] subquery;

In the syntax:

table is the table name

column is the name of the column in the table to populate

subquery is the subquery that returns rows to the table
```

The number of columns and their data types in the column list of the INSERT clause must match the number of values and their data types in the subquery. To create a copy of the rows of a table, use SELECT * in the subquery:

```
INSERT INTO copy_emp
  SELECT *
  FROM employees;
```

For more information, see "SELECT" ("subqueries" section) in the *Oracle Database SQL Reference*.

Changing Data in a Table

EMPLOYEES

EMPLOYEE_ID	FIRST_NAME	LAST_NAME	EMAIL	HIRE_DATE	JOB_ID	SALARY	DEPARTMENT_ID	COMMISSION_F
100	Steven	King	SKING	17-JUN-87	AD_PRES	24000	90	
101	Neena	Kochhar	NKOCHHAR	21-SEP-89	AD_VP	17000	90	
102	Lex	De Haan	LDEHAAN	13-JAN-93	AD_VP	17000	90	
103	Alexander	Hunold	AHUNOLD	03-JAN-90	IT_PROG	9000	60	
104	Bruce	Ernst	BERNST	21-MAY-91	IT_PROG	6000	60	
107	Diana	Lorentz	DLORENTZ	07-FEB-99	IT_PROG	4200	60	
124	Kevin	Mourgos	KMOURGOS	16-NOV-99	ST_MAN	5800	50	

Update rows in the EMPLOYEES table:

EMPLOYEE_ID	FIRST_NAME	LAST_NAME	EMAIL	HIRE_DATE	JOB_ID	SALARY	DEPARTMENT_ID	COMMISSIO
100	Steven	King	SKING	17-JUN-87	AD_PRES	24000	90	
101	Neena	Kochhar	NKOCHHAR	21-SEP-89	AD_VP	17000	90	
102	Lex	De Haan	LDEHAAN	13-JAN-93	AD_VP	17000	90	
103	Alexander	Hunold	AHUNOLD	03-JAN-90	IT_PROG	9000	30	
104	Bruce	Ernst	BERNST	21-MAY-91	IT_PROG	6000	30	
107	Diana	Lorentz	DLORENTZ	07-FEB-99	IT_PROG	4200	30	
124	Kevin	Mourgos	KMOURGOS	16-NOV-99	ST_MAN	5800	50	

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Changing Data in a Table

The slide illustrates changing the department number for employees in department 60 to department 30.

UPDATE Statement Syntax

Modify existing rows with the UPDATE statement:

```
UPDATE     table
SET     column = value [, column = value, ...]
[WHERE     condition];
```

Update more than one row at a time (if required).

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Updating Rows

You can modify existing rows by using the UPDATE statement.

In the syntax:

table is the name of the table

column is the name of the column in the table to populate value is the corresponding value or subquery for the column

condition identifies the rows to be updated and is composed of column names,

expressions, constants, subqueries, and comparison operators

Confirm the update operation by querying the table to display the updated rows.

For more information, see "UPDATE" in the Oracle Database SQL Reference.

Note: In general, use the primary key to identify a single row. Using other columns can unexpectedly cause several rows to be updated. For example, identifying a single row in the EMPLOYEES table by name is dangerous, because more than one employee may have the same name.

Updating Rows in a Table

Specific row or rows are modified if you specify the WHERE clause:

```
UPDATE employees
SET department id = 70
WHERE employee_id = 113;
1 row updated.
```

 All rows in the table are modified if you omit the WHERE clause:

```
UPDATE copy_emp
SET department_id = 110;
22 rows updated.
```

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Updating Rows (continued)

The UPDATE statement modifies specific rows if the WHERE clause is specified. The slide example transfers employee 113 (Popp) to department 70.

If you omit the WHERE clause, all the rows in the table are modified.

SELECT last_name, department_id
FROM copy_emp;

LAST_NAME	DEPARTMENT_ID
King	110
Kochhar	110
De Haan	110
Hunold	110
Ernst	110
Lorentz	110

22 rows selected.

Note: The COPY EMP table has the same data as the EMPLOYEES table.

Updating Two Columns with a Subquery

Update employee 114's job and salary to match that of employee 205.

```
UPDATE
         employees
SET
         job id
                    (SELECT
                              job id
                     FROM
                              employees
                     WHERE
                              employee id = 205),
         salary
                    (SELECT
                             salary
                     FROM
                              employees
                     WHERE
                              employee id = 205)
WHERE
         employee id
                            114;
1 row updated.
```

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Updating Two Columns with a Subquery

You can update multiple columns in the SET clause of an UPDATE statement by writing multiple subqueries.

Syntax

Note: If no rows are updated, the message "0 rows updated" is returned.

Updating Rows Based on Another Table

Use subqueries in **UPDATE** statements to update rows in a table based on values from another table:

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Updating Rows Based on Another Table

You can use subqueries in UPDATE statements to update rows in a table. The example in the slide updates the COPY_EMP table based on the values from the EMPLOYEES table. It changes the department number of all employees with employee 200's job ID to employee 100's current department number.

Removing a Row from a Table

DEPARTMENTS

DEPARTMENT_ID	DEPARTMENT_NAME	MANAGER_ID	LOCATION_ID
10	Administration	200	1700
20 Marketing		201	1800
30 Purchasing			
100 Finance			
50	Shipping	124	1500
60	IT	103	1400

Delete a row from the DEPARTMENTS table:

DEPARTMENT_ID	DEPARTMENT_NAME	MANAGER_ID	LOCATION_ID
10	Administration	200	1700
20	Marketing	201	1800
30	Purchasing		
50	Shipping	124	1500
60	ΙΤ	103	1400

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Removing a Row from a Table

The graphic in the slide removes the Finance department from the DEPARTMENTS table (assuming that there are no constraints defined on the DEPARTMENTS table).

DELETE Statement

You can remove existing rows from a table by using the DELETE statement:

DELETE [FROM] table

[WHERE condition];

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Deleting Rows

You can remove existing rows by using the DELETE statement.

In the syntax:

table is the table name

condition identifies the rows to be deleted and is composed of column names,

expressions, constants, subqueries, and comparison operators

Note: If no rows are deleted, the message "0 rows deleted" is returned. For more information, see "DELETE" in the *Oracle Database SQL Reference*.

Deleting Rows from a Table

Specific rows are deleted if you specify the WHERE clause:

```
DELETE FROM departments
WHERE department_name = 'Finance';
1 row deleted.
```

 All rows in the table are deleted if you omit the WHERE clause:

```
DELETE FROM copy_emp;
22 rows deleted.
```

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Deleting Rows (continued)

You can delete specific rows by specifying the WHERE clause in the DELETE statement. The slide example deletes the Finance department from the DEPARTMENTS table. You can confirm the delete operation by displaying the deleted rows using the SELECT statement.

```
SELECT *
FROM departments
WHERE department_name = 'Finance';
no rows selected.
```

If you omit the WHERE clause, all rows in the table are deleted. The second example in the slide deletes all the rows from the COPY_EMP table, because no WHERE clause has been specified.

Example

Remove rows identified in the WHERE clause.

```
DELETE FROM employees WHERE employee_id = 114;
1 row deleted.

DELETE FROM departments WHERE department_id IN (30, 40);
2 rows deleted.
```

Deleting Rows Based on Another Table

Use subqueries in DELETE statements to remove rows from a table based on values from another table:

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Deleting Rows Based on Another Table

You can use subqueries to delete rows from a table based on values from another table. The example in the slide deletes all the employees who are in a department where the department name contains the string Public. The subquery searches the DEPARTMENTS table to find the department number based on the department name containing the string Public. The subquery then feeds the department number to the main query, which deletes rows of data from the EMPLOYEES table based on this department number.

TRUNCATE Statement

- Removes all rows from a table, leaving the table empty and the table structure intact
- Is a data definition language (DDL) statement rather than a DML statement; cannot easily be undone
- Syntax:

```
TRUNCATE TABLE table name;
```

Example:

TRUNCATE TABLE copy emp;

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TRUNCATE Statement

A more efficient method of emptying a table is with the TRUNCATE statement.

You can use the TRUNCATE statement to quickly remove all rows from a table or cluster. Removing rows with the TRUNCATE statement is faster than removing them with the DELETE statement for the following reasons:

- The TRUNCATE statement is a data definition language (DDL) statement and generates no rollback information. Rollback information is covered later in this lesson.
- Truncating a table does not fire the delete triggers of the table.
- If the table is the parent of a referential integrity constraint, you cannot truncate the table. You need to disable the constraint before issuing the TRUNCATE statement. Disabling constraints is covered in a subsequent lesson.

Using a Subquery in an INSERT Statement

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Using a Subquery in an INSERT Statement

You can use a subquery in place of the table name in the INTO clause of the INSERT statement.

The select list of this subquery must have the same number of columns as the column list of the VALUES clause. Any rules on the columns of the base table must be followed if the INSERT statement is to work successfully. For example, you could not put in a duplicate employee ID or omit a value for a mandatory not-null column.

Using a Subquery in an INSERT Statement

Verify the results:

EMPLOYEE_ID	LAST_NAME	EMAIL	HIRE_DATE	JOB_ID	SALARY	DEPARTMENT_ID
124	Mourgos	KMOURGOS	16-NOV-99	ST_MAN	5800	50
141	Rajs	TRAJS	17-OCT-95	ST_CLERK	3500	50
142	Davies	CDAVIES	29-JAN-97	ST_CLERK	3100	50
143	Matos	RMATOS	15-MAR-98	ST_CLERK	2600	50
144	Vargas	PVARGAS	09-JUL-98	ST_CLERK	2500	50
99999	Taylor	DTAYLOR	07-JUN-99	ST_CLERK	5000	50

6 rows selected.

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Using a Subquery in an INSERT Statement (continued)

The example shows the results of the subquery that was used to identify the table for the INSERT statement.

Database Transactions

A database transaction consists of one of the following:

- DML statements that constitute one consistent change to the data
- One DDL statement
- One data control language (DCL) statement

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Database Transactions

The Oracle server ensures data consistency based on transactions. Transactions give you more flexibility and control when changing data, and they ensure data consistency in the event of user process failure or system failure.

Transactions consist of DML statements that make up one consistent change to the data. For example, a transfer of funds between two accounts should include the debit to one account and the credit to another account in the same amount. Both actions should either fail or succeed together; the credit should not be committed without the debit.

Transaction Types

Type	Description
Data manipulation language (DML)	Consists of any number of DML statements that the Oracle server treats as a single entity or a logical unit of work
Data definition language (DDL)	Consists of only one DDL statement
Data control language (DCL)	Consists of only one DCL statement

Database Transactions

- Begin when the first DML SQL statement is executed
- End with one of the following events:
 - A COMMIT or ROLLBACK statement is issued.
 - A DDL or DCL statement executes (automatic commit).
 - The user exits iSQL*Plus.
 - The system crashes.

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When Does a Transaction Start and End?

A transaction begins when the first DML statement is encountered and ends when one of the following occurs:

- A COMMIT or ROLLBACK statement is issued.
- A DDL statement, such as CREATE, is issued.
- A DCL statement is issued.
- The user exits *i*SQL*Plus.
- A machine fails or the system crashes.

After one transaction ends, the next executable SQL statement automatically starts the next transaction.

A DDL statement or a DCL statement is automatically committed and therefore implicitly ends a transaction.

Advantages of COMMIT and ROLLBACK Statements

With COMMIT and ROLLBACK statements, you can:

- Ensure data consistency
- Preview data changes before making changes permanent
- Group logically related operations

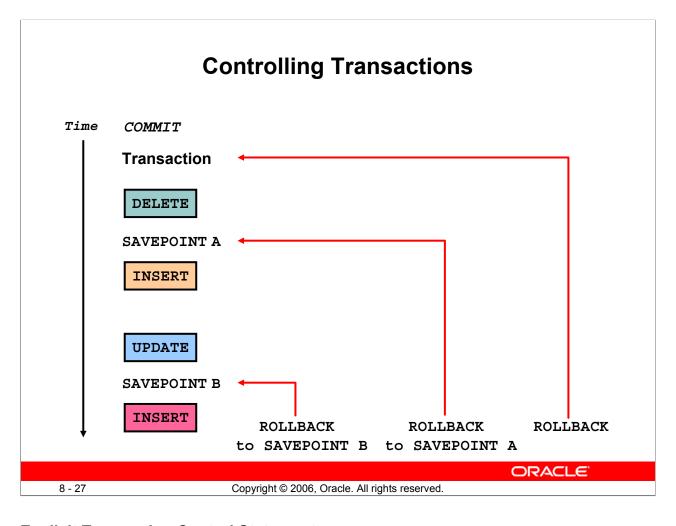
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Advantages of COMMIT and ROLLBACK

With the COMMIT and ROLLBACK statements, you have control over making changes to the data permanent.



Explicit Transaction Control Statements

You can control the logic of transactions by using the COMMIT, SAVEPOINT, and ROLLBACK statements.

Statement	Description
COMMIT	Ends the current transaction by making all pending data changes permanent
SAVEPOINT name	Marks a savepoint within the current transaction
ROLLBACK	ROLLBACK ends the current transaction by discarding all pending data changes.
ROLLBACK TO SAVEPOINT name	ROLLBACK TO SAVEPOINT rolls back the current transaction to the specified savepoint, thereby discarding any changes and or savepoints that were created after the savepoint to which you are rolling back. If you omit the TO SAVEPOINT clause, the ROLLBACK statement rolls back the entire transaction. Because savepoints are logical, there is no way to list the savepoints that you have created.

Note: SAVEPOINT is not ANSI standard SQL.

Rolling Back Changes to a Marker

- Create a marker in a current transaction by using the SAVEPOINT statement.
- Roll back to that marker by using the ROLLBACK TO SAVEPOINT statement.

```
UPDATE...

SAVEPOINT update done

Savepoint created.

INSERT...

ROLLBACK TO update_done;

Rollback complete.
```

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Rolling Back Changes to a Marker

You can create a marker in the current transaction by using the SAVEPOINT statement, which divides the transaction into smaller sections. You can then discard pending changes up to that marker by using the ROLLBACK TO SAVEPOINT statement.

If you create a second savepoint with the same name as an earlier savepoint, the earlier savepoint is deleted.

Implicit Transaction Processing

- An automatic commit occurs under the following circumstances:
 - DDL statement is issued
 - DCL statement is issued
 - Normal exit from iSQL*Plus, without explicitly issuing COMMIT or ROLLBACK statements
- An automatic rollback occurs under an abnormal termination of iSQL*Plus or a system failure.

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Implicit Transaction Processing

Status	Circumstances
Automatic commit	DDL statement or DCL statement is issued. iSQL*Plus exited normally, without explicitly issuing COMMIT or ROLLBACK commands.
Automatic rollback	Abnormal termination of iSQL*Plus or system failure

Note: A third command is available in *i*SQL*Plus. The AUTOCOMMIT command can be toggled on or off. If set to *on*, each individual DML statement is committed as soon as it is executed. You cannot roll back the changes. If set to *off*, the COMMIT statement can still be issued explicitly. Also, the COMMIT statement is issued when a DDL statement is issued or when you exit *i*SQL*Plus.

Implicit Transaction Processing (continued)

System Failures

When a transaction is interrupted by a system failure, the entire transaction is automatically rolled back. This prevents the error from causing unwanted changes to the data and returns the tables to their state at the time of the last commit. In this way, the Oracle server protects the integrity of the tables.

From *i*SQL*Plus, a normal exit from the session is accomplished by clicking the Exit button. With SQL*Plus, a normal exit is accomplished by typing the command EXIT at the prompt. Closing the window is interpreted as an abnormal exit.

State of the Data Before COMMIT or ROLLBACK

- The previous state of the data can be recovered.
- The current user can review the results of the DML operations by using the SELECT statement.
- Other users cannot view the results of the DML statements by the current user.
- The affected rows are locked; other users cannot change the data in the affected rows.

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Committing Changes

Every data change made during the transaction is temporary until the transaction is committed. The state of the data before COMMIT or ROLLBACK statements are issued can be described as follows:

- Data manipulation operations primarily affect the database buffer; therefore, the previous state of the data can be recovered.
- The current user can review the results of the data manipulation operations by querying the tables.
- Other users cannot view the results of the data manipulation operations made by the current user. The Oracle server institutes read consistency to ensure that each user sees data as it existed at the last commit.
- The affected rows are locked; other users cannot change the data in the affected rows.

State of the Data After COMMIT

- Data changes are made permanent in the database.
- The previous state of the data is permanently lost.
- All users can view the results.
- Locks on the affected rows are released; those rows are available for other users to manipulate.
- All savepoints are erased.

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Committing Changes (continued)

Make all pending changes permanent by using the COMMIT statement. Here is what happens after a COMMIT statement:

- Data changes are written to the database.
- The previous state of the data is no longer available with normal SQL queries.
- All users can view the results of the transaction.
- The locks on the affected rows are released; the rows are now available for other users to perform new data changes.
- All savepoints are erased.

Committing Data

Make the changes:

```
DELETE FROM employees
WHERE employee_id = 99999;
1 row deleted.

INSERT INTO departments
VALUES (290, 'Corporate Tax', NULL, 1700);
1 row created.
```

Commit the changes:

```
COMMIT;
Commit complete.
```

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Committing Changes (continued)

The slide example deletes a row from the EMPLOYEES table and inserts a new row into the DEPARTMENTS table. It then makes the change permanent by issuing the COMMIT statement.

Example

Remove departments 290 and 300 in the DEPARTMENTS table, and update a row in the EMPLOYEES table. Make the data change permanent.

```
DELETE FROM departments
WHERE department_id IN (290, 300);
1 row deleted.

UPDATE employees
   SET department_id = 80
   WHERE employee_id = 206;
1 row updated.

COMMIT;
Commit Complete.
```

State of the Data After ROLLBACK

Discard all pending changes by using the ROLLBACK statement:

- Data changes are undone.
- Previous state of the data is restored.
- Locks on the affected rows are released.

```
DELETE FROM copy_emp;
20 rows deleted.

ROLLBACK;
Rollback complete.
```

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Rolling Back Changes

Discard all pending changes by using the ROLLBACK statement, which results in the following:

- Data changes are undone.
- The previous state of the data is restored.
- Locks on the affected rows are released.

State of the Data After ROLLBACK

```
DELETE FROM test;
25,000 rows deleted.

ROLLBACK;
Rollback complete.

DELETE FROM test WHERE id = 100;
1 row deleted.

SELECT * FROM test WHERE id = 100;
No rows selected.

COMMIT;
Commit complete.
```

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Example

While attempting to remove a record from the TEST table, you can accidentally empty the table. You can correct the mistake, reissue the proper statement, and make the data change permanent.

Statement-Level Rollback

- If a single DML statement fails during execution, only that statement is rolled back.
- The Oracle server implements an implicit savepoint.
- All other changes are retained.
- The user should terminate transactions explicitly by executing a COMMIT or ROLLBACK statement.

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Statement-Level Rollback

Part of a transaction can be discarded by an implicit rollback if a statement execution error is detected. If a single DML statement fails during execution of a transaction, its effect is undone by a statement-level rollback, but the changes made by the previous DML statements in the transaction are not discarded. They can be committed or rolled back explicitly by the user.

The Oracle server issues an implicit commit before and after any DDL statement. So, even if your DDL statement does not execute successfully, you cannot roll back the previous statement because the server issued a commit.

Terminate your transactions explicitly by executing a COMMIT or ROLLBACK statement.

Read Consistency

- Read consistency guarantees a consistent view of the data at all times.
- Changes made by one user do not conflict with changes made by another user.
- Read consistency ensures that on the same data:
 - Readers do not wait for writers
 - Writers do not wait for readers

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Read Consistency

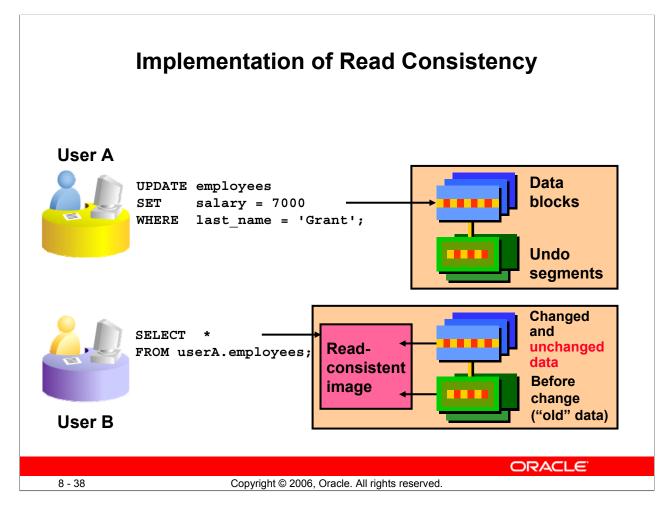
Database users access the database in two ways:

- Read operations (SELECT statement)
- Write operations (INSERT, UPDATE, DELETE statements)

You need read consistency so that the following occur:

- The database reader and writer are ensured a consistent view of the data.
- Readers do not view data that is in the process of being changed.
- Writers are ensured that the changes to the database are done in a consistent way.
- Changes made by one writer do not disrupt or conflict with changes that another writer is making.

The purpose of read consistency is to ensure that each user sees data as it existed at the last commit, before a DML operation started.



Implementation of Read Consistency

Read consistency is an automatic implementation. It keeps a partial copy of the database in undo segments. The read-consistent image is constructed from committed data from the table and old data being changed and not yet committed from the undo segment.

When an insert, update, or delete operation is made to the database, the Oracle server takes a copy of the data before it is changed and writes it to an *undo segment*.

All readers, except the one who issued the change, still see the database as it existed before the changes started; they view the undo segment's "snapshot" of the data.

Before changes are committed to the database, only the user who is modifying the data sees the database with the alterations. Everyone else sees the snapshot in the undo segment. This guarantees that readers of the data read consistent data that is not currently undergoing change.

When a DML statement is committed, the change made to the database becomes visible to anyone issuing a select statement *after* the commit is done. The space occupied by the *old* data in the undo segment file is freed for reuse.

If the transaction is rolled back, the changes are undone:

- The original, older version of the data in the undo segment is written back to the table.
- All users see the database as it existed before the transaction began.

Summary

In this lesson, you should have learned how to use the following statements:

Function	Description
INSERT	Adds a new row to the table
UPDATE	Modifies existing rows in the table
DELETE	Removes existing rows from the table
COMMIT	Makes all pending changes permanent
SAVEPOINT	Is used to roll back to the savepoint marker
ROLLBACK	Discards all pending data changes

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Summary

In this lesson, you should have learned how to manipulate data in the Oracle database by using the INSERT, UPDATE, and DELETE statements, as well as how to control data changes by using the COMMIT, SAVEPOINT, and ROLLBACK statements.

The Oracle server guarantees a consistent view of data at all times.

Practice 8: Overview

This practice covers the following topics:

- Inserting rows into the tables
- Updating and deleting rows in the table
- Controlling transactions

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Practice 8: Overview

In this practice, you add rows to the MY_EMPLOYEE table, update and delete data from the table, and control your transactions.

Practice 8

The HR department wants you to create SQL statements to insert, update, and delete employee data. As a prototype, you use the MY_EMPLOYEE table, before giving the statements to the HR department.

Insert data into the MY EMPLOYEE table.

- 1. Run the statement in the lab_08_01.sql script to build the MY_EMPLOYEE table to be used for the lab.
- 2. Describe the structure of the MY EMPLOYEE table to identify the column names.

Name	Null?	Туре
ID	NOT NULL	NUMBER(4)
LAST_NAME		VARCHAR2(25)
FIRST_NAME		VARCHAR2(25)
USERID		VARCHAR2(8)
SALARY		NUMBER(9,2)

3. Create an INSERT statement to add *the first row* of data to the MY_EMPLOYEE table from the following sample data. Do not list the columns in the INSERT clause. *Do not enter all rows yet*.

ID	LAST_NAME	FIRST_NAME	USERID	SALARY
1	Patel	Ralph	rpatel	895
2	Dancs	Betty	bdancs	860
3	Biri	Ben	bbiri	1100
4	Newman	Chad	cnewman	750
5	Ropeburn	Audrey	aropebur	1550

- 4. Populate the MY_EMPLOYEE table with the second row of sample data from the preceding list. This time, list the columns explicitly in the INSERT clause.
- 5. Confirm your addition to the table.

ID	LAST_NAME	FIRST_NAME	USERID	SALARY
1	Patel	Ralph	rpatel	895
2	Dancs	Betty	bdancs	860

Practice 8 (continued)

- 6. Write an insert statement in a dynamic reusable script file named loademp.sql to load rows into the MY_EMPLOYEE table. Concatenate the first letter of the first name and the first seven characters of the last name to produce the user ID. Save this script to a file named lab 08 06.sql.
- 7. Populate the table with the next two rows of sample data listed in step 3 by running the insert statement in the script that you created.
- 8. Confirm your additions to the table.

ID	LAST_NAME	FIRST_NAME	USERID	SALARY
1	Patel	Ralph	rpatel	895
2	Dancs	Betty	bdancs	860
3	Biri	Ben	bbiri	1100
4	Newman	Chad	cnewman	750

9. Make the data additions permanent.

Update and delete data in the MY EMPLOYEE table.

- 10. Change the last name of employee 3 to Drexler.
- 11. Change the salary to \$1,000 for all employees who have a salary less than \$900.
- 12. Verify your changes to the table.

ID	LAST_NAME	FIRST_NAME	USERID	SALARY
1	Patel	Ralph	rpatel	1000
2	Dancs	Betty	bdancs	1000
3	Drexler	Ben	bbiri	1100
4	Newman	Chad	cnewman	1000

- 13. Delete Betty Dancs from the MY EMPLOYEE table.
- 14. Confirm your changes to the table.

ID	LAST_NAME	FIRST_NAME	USERID	SALARY
1	Patel	Ralph	rpatel	1000
3	Drexler	Ben	bbiri	1100
4	Newman	Chad	cnewman	1000

Practice 8 (continued)

15. Commit all pending changes.

Control data transaction to the MY EMPLOYEE table.

- 16. Populate the table with the last row of sample data listed in step 3 by using the statements in the script that you created in step 6. Run the statements in the script.
- 17. Confirm your addition to the table.

ID	LAST_NAME	FIRST_NAME	USERID	SALARY
1	Patel	Ralph	rpatel	1000
3	Drexler	Ben	bbiri	1100
4	Newman	Chad	cnewman	1000
5	Ropeburn	Audrey	aropebur	1550

- 18. Mark an intermediate point in the processing of the transaction.
- 19. Empty the entire table.
- 20. Confirm that the table is empty.
- 21. Discard the most recent DELETE operation without discarding the earlier INSERT operation.
- 22. Confirm that the new row is still intact.

ID	LAST_NAME	FIRST_NAME	USERID	SALARY
1	Patel	Ralph	rpatel	1000
3	Drexler	Ben	bbiri	1100
4	Newman	Chad	cnewman	1000
5	Ropeburn	Audrey	aropebur	1550

23. Make the data addition permanent.