

SQL Tutorial

[What is SQL](#)

[SQL Syntax](#)

[SQL Data Types](#) 

[SQL Operators](#)

SQL Database

[SQL CREATE Database](#)

[SQL DROP Database](#)

[SQL RENAME Database](#)

[SQL SELECT Database](#)

SQL Table

[What is Table](#)

[SQL CREATE TABLE](#)

[SQL DROP TABLE](#)

[SQL DELETE TABLE](#)

[SQL RENAME TABLE](#)

[SQL TRUNCATE TABLE](#)

[SQL COPY TABLE](#)

[SQL TEMP TABLE](#)

[SQL ALTER TABLE](#)

SQL Select

[SELECT Statement](#)

[SQL SELECT UNIQUE](#)

[SQL SELECT DISTINCT](#)

[SQL SELECT COUNT](#)

[SQL SELECT TOP](#)

[SQL SELECT FIRST](#)

[SQL SELECT LAST](#)

[SQL SELECT RANDOM](#)

[SQL SELECT IN](#)

[SQL SELECT Multiple](#)

[SQL SELECT DATE](#)

[SQL SELECT SUM](#)

[SQL SELECT NULL](#)

SQL Clause

[SQL WHERE](#)

[SQL AND](#)

[SQL OR](#)

[SQL WITH](#)

[SQL AS](#)

[SQL HAVING Clause](#)

SQL Order By

[ORDER BY Clause](#)

[ORDER BY ASC](#)

[ORDER BY DESC](#)

[ORDER BY RANDOM](#)

[ORDER BY LIMIT](#)

[ORDER BY Multiple Cols](#)

SQL Insert

[INSERT Statement](#)

[INSERT INTO Values](#)

INSERT INTO SELECT
INSERT Multiple Rows

SQL Update

UPDATE Statement
SQL UPDATE JOIN
SQL UPDATE DATE

SQL Delete

DELETE Statement
SQL DELETE TABLE
SQL DELETE ROW
SQL DELETE All Rows
DELETE Duplicate Rows
SQL DELETE DATABASE
SQL DELETE VIEW
SQL DELETE JOIN

SQL Join

SQL JOIN
SQL Outer Join
SQL Left Join
SQL Right Join
SQL Full Join
SQL Cross Join

SQL Keys

Primary Key
Foreign Key
Composite Key
Unique Key
Alternate Key

Differences

SQL vs NoSQL
IN vs EXISTS
Group By vs Order By
WHERE vs HAVING
Where condition in SQL

SQL Injection

SQL Injection

SQL Tutorial



SQL tutorial provides basic and advanced concepts of SQL. Our SQL tutorial is designed for both beginners and professionals.

SQL (Structured Query Language) is used to perform operations on the records stored in the database, such as updating records, inserting records, deleting records, creating and modifying database tables, views, etc.

SQL is not a database system, but it is a query language.

Suppose you want to perform the queries of SQL language on the stored data in the database. You are required to install any database management system in your systems, for example, [Oracle](#)

, [MySQL](#)
, [MongoDB](#)
, [PostgreSQL](#)
, [SQL Server](#)
, [DB2](#)
, etc.

What is SQL?

SQL is a short-form of the structured query language, and it is pronounced as S-Q-L or sometimes as See-Quell.

This database language is mainly designed for maintaining the data in relational database management systems. It is a special tool used by data professionals for handling structured data (data which is stored in the form of tables). It is also designed for stream processing in RDSMS.

You can easily create and manipulate the database, access and modify the table rows and columns, etc. This query language became the standard of ANSI in the year of 1986 and ISO in the year of 1987.

If you want to get a job in the field of data science, then it is the most important query language to learn. Big enterprises like Facebook, Instagram, and LinkedIn, use SQL for storing the data in the back-end.

Why SQL?

Nowadays, SQL is widely used in data science and analytics. Following are the reasons which explain why it is widely used:

- The basic use of SQL for data professionals and SQL users is to insert, update, and delete the data from the relational database.
- SQL allows the data professionals and users to retrieve the data from the relational database management systems.
- It also helps them to describe the structured data.
- It allows SQL users to create, drop, and manipulate the database and its tables.
- It also helps in creating the view, stored procedure, and functions in the relational database.
- It allows you to define the data and modify that stored data in the relational database.
- It also allows SQL users to set the permissions or constraints on table columns, views, and stored procedures.

History of SQL

"A Relational Model of Data for Large Shared Data Banks" was a paper which was published by the great computer scientist "E.F. Codd" in 1970.

The IBM researchers Raymond Boyce and Donald Chamberlin originally developed the SEQUEL (Structured English Query Language) after learning from the paper given by E.F. Codd. They both developed the SQL at the San Jose Research laboratory of IBM Corporation in 1970.

At the end of the 1970s, relational software Inc. developed their own first SQL using the concepts of E.F. Codd, Raymond Boyce, and Donald Chamberlin. This SQL was totally based on RDBMS. Relational Software Inc., which is now known as Oracle Corporation, introduced the Oracle V2 in June 1979, which is the first implementation of SQL language. This Oracle V2 version operates on VAX computers.

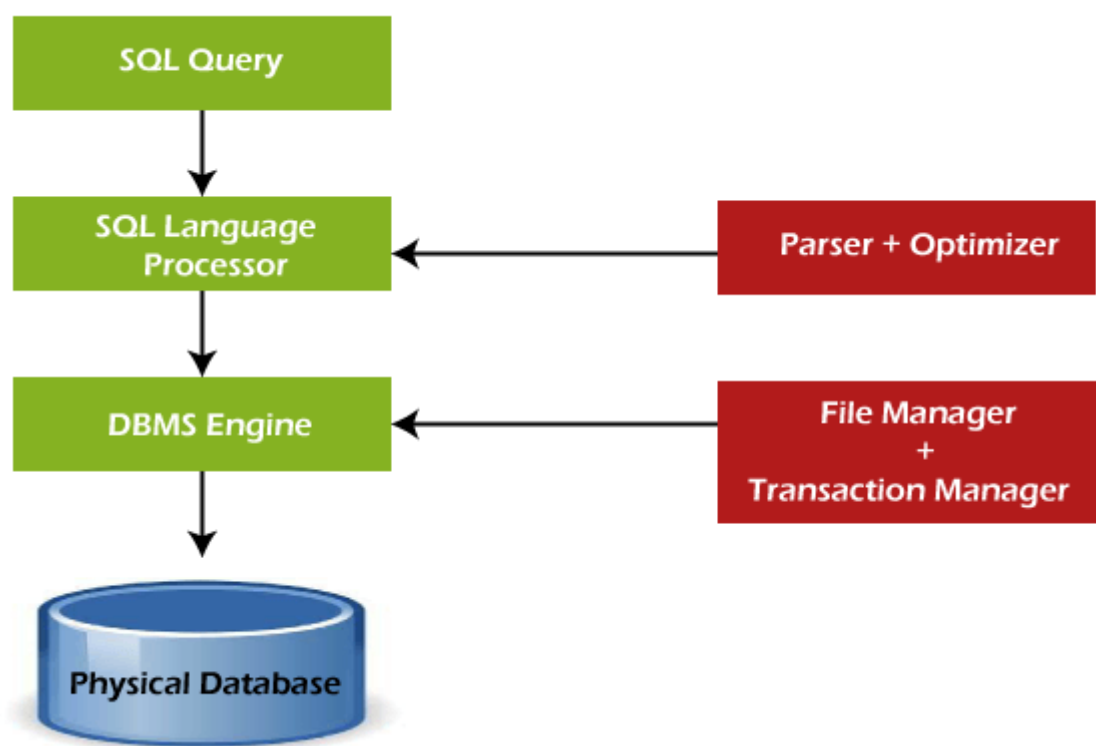
Process of SQL

When we are executing the command of SQL on any Relational database management system, then the system automatically finds the best routine to carry out our request, and the SQL engine determines how to interpret that particular command.

Structured Query Language contains the following four components in its process:

- Query Dispatcher
- Optimization Engines
- Classic Query Engine
- SQL Query Engine, etc.

A classic query engine allows data professionals and users to maintain non-SQL queries. The architecture of SQL is shown in the following diagram:



Some SQL Commands

The SQL commands help in creating and managing the database. The most common SQL commands which are highly used are mentioned below:

1. CREATE command
2. UPDATE command
3. DELETE command
4. SELECT command
5. DROP command
6. INSERT command

CREATE Command

This command helps in creating the new database, new table, table view, and other objects of the database.

UPDATE Command

This command helps in updating or changing the stored data in the database.

DELETE Command

This command helps in removing or erasing the saved records from the database tables. It erases single or multiple tuples from the tables of the database.

SELECT Command

This command helps in accessing the single or multiple rows from one or multiple tables of the database. We can also use this command with the WHERE clause.

DROP Command

This command helps in deleting the entire table, table view, and other objects from the database.

INSERT Command

This command helps in inserting the data or records into the database tables. We can easily insert the records in single as well as multiple rows of the table.

SQL vs No-SQL



The following table describes the [differences between the SQL and NoSQL](#)

, which are necessary to understand:

SQL	No-SQL
1. SQL is a relational database management system.	1. While No-SQL is a non-relational or distributed database management system.
2. The query language used in this database system is a structured query language.	2. The query language used in the No-SQL database systems is a non-declarative query language.
3. The schema of SQL databases is predefined, fixed, and static.	3. The schema of No-SQL databases is a dynamic schema for unstructured data.
4. These databases are vertically scalable.	4. These databases are horizontally scalable.
5. The database type of SQL is in the form of tables, i.e., in the form of rows and columns.	5. The database type of No-SQL is in the form of documents, key-value, and graphs.
6. It follows the ACID model.	6. It follows the BASE model.
7. Complex queries are easily managed in the SQL database.	7. NoSQL databases cannot handle complex queries.
8. This database is not the best choice for storing hierarchical data.	8. While No-SQL database is a perfect option for storing hierarchical data.
9. All SQL databases require object-relational mapping.	9. Many No-SQL databases do not require object-relational mapping.

10. Gauges, CircleCI, Hootsuite, etc., are the top enterprises that are using this query language.	10. Airbnb, Uber, and Kickstarter are the top enterprises that are using this query language.
11. SQLite, Ms-SQL, Oracle, PostgreSQL, and MySQL are examples of SQL database systems.	11. Redis, MongoDB, Hbase, BigTable, CouchDB, and Cassandra are examples of NoSQL database systems.

Advantages of SQL

SQL provides various advantages which make it more popular in the field of data science. It is a perfect query language which allows data professionals and users to communicate with the database. Following are the best advantages or benefits of Structured Query Language:

1. No programming needed

SQL does not require a large number of coding lines for managing the database systems. We can easily access and maintain the database by using simple SQL syntactical rules. These simple rules make the SQL user-friendly.

2. High-Speed Query Processing

A large amount of data is accessed quickly and efficiently from the database by using SQL queries. Insertion, deletion, and updation operations on data are also performed in less time.

3. Standardized Language

SQL follows the long-established standards of ISO and ANSI, which offer a uniform platform across the globe to all its users.

4. Portability

The structured query language can be easily used in desktop computers, laptops, tablets, and even smartphones. It can also be used with other applications according to the user's requirements.

5. Interactive language

We can easily learn and understand the SQL language. We can also use this language for communicating with the database because it is a simple query language. This language is also used for receiving the answers to complex queries in a few seconds.

6. More than one Data View

The SQL language also helps in making the multiple views of the database structure for the different database users.

Disadvantages of SQL

With the advantages of SQL, it also has some disadvantages, which are as follows:

1. Cost

The operation cost of some SQL versions is high. That's why some programmers cannot use the Structured Query Language.

2. Interface is Complex

Another big disadvantage is that the interface of Structured query language is difficult, which makes it difficult for SQL users to use and manage it.

3. Partial Database control

The business rules are hidden. So, the data professionals and users who are using this query language cannot have full database control.

SQL Syntax

When you want to do some operations on the data in the database, then you must have to write the query in the predefined syntax of SQL.

The syntax of the structured query language is a unique set of rules and guidelines, which is not case-sensitive. Its Syntax is defined and maintained by the ISO and ANSI standards.

Following are some most important points about the SQL syntax which are to remember:

- You can write the keywords of SQL in both uppercase and lowercase, but writing the SQL keywords in uppercase improves the readability of the SQL query.
- SQL statements or syntax are dependent on text lines. We can place a single SQL statement on one or multiple text lines.
- You can perform most of the action in a database with SQL statements.
- SQL syntax depends on relational algebra and tuple relational calculus.

SQL Statement

SQL statements tell the database what operation you want to perform on the structured data and what information you would like to access from the database.

The statements of SQL are very simple and easy to use and understand. They are like plain English but with a particular syntax.

Simple Example of SQL statement:

1. **SELECT** "column_name" **FROM** "table_name";

Each SQL statement begins with any of the SQL keywords and ends with the semicolon (;). The semicolon is used in the SQL for separating the multiple Sql statements which are going to execute in the same call. In this SQL tutorial, we will use the semicolon (;) at the end of each SQL query or statement.

Most Important SQL Commands and Statements

1. **Select Statement**
2. **Update Statement**
3. **Delete Statement**
4. **Create Table Statement**
5. **Alter Table Statement**
6. **Drop Table Statement**
7. **Create Database Statement**
8. **Drop Database Statement**
9. **Insert Into Statement**
10. **Truncate Table Statement**
11. **Describe Statement**
12. **Distinct Clause**
13. **Commit Statement**
14. **Rollback Statement**
15. **Create Index Statement**
16. **Drop Index Statement**
17. **Use Statement**

Let's discuss each statement in short one by one with syntax and one example:

1. SELECT Statement

This SQL statement reads the data from the SQL database and shows it as the output to the database user.

Syntax of SELECT Statement:

1. **SELECT** column_name1, column_name2, ..., column_nameN
2. [**FROM** table_name]
3. [**WHERE** condition]
4. [**ORDER BY** order_column_name1 [**ASC** | **DESC**],];

Example of SELECT Statement:

1. **SELECT** Emp_ID, First_Name, Last_Name, Salary, City
2. **FROM** Employee_details
3. **WHERE** Salary = 100000
4. **ORDER BY** Last_Name

This example shows the **Emp_ID, First_Name, Last_Name, Salary, and City** of those employees from the **Employee_details** table whose **Salary** is **100000**. The output shows all the specified details according to the ascending alphabetical order of **Last_Name**.

3. UPDATE Statement

This SQL statement changes or modifies the stored data in the SQL database.

Syntax of UPDATE Statement:

1. **UPDATE** table_name
2. **SET** column_name1 = new_value_1, column_name2 = new_value_2, ..., column_nameN = new_value_N
3. [**WHERE** CONDITION];

Example of UPDATE Statement:

1. **UPDATE** Employee_details
2. **SET** Salary = 100000
3. **WHERE** Emp_ID = 10;

This example changes the **Salary** of those employees of the **Employee_details** table whose **Emp_ID** is **10** in the table.

3. DELETE Statement

This SQL statement deletes the stored data from the SQL database.

Syntax of DELETE Statement:

1. **DELETE FROM** table_name
2. [**WHERE** CONDITION];

Example of DELETE Statement:

1. **DELETE FROM** Employee_details
2. **WHERE** First_Name = 'Sumit';

This example deletes the record of those employees from the **Employee_details** table whose **First_Name** is **Sumit** in the table.

4. CREATE TABLE Statement

This SQL statement creates the new table in the SQL database.

Syntax of CREATE TABLE Statement:

1. **CREATE TABLE** table_name
2. (
3. column_name1 data_type [column1 **constraint**(s)],
4. column_name2 data_type [column2 **constraint**(s)],
5.
6.,
7. column_nameN data_type [columnN **constraint**(s)],
8. **PRIMARY KEY**(one or more col)
9.);

Example of CREATE TABLE Statement:

1. **CREATE TABLE** Employee_details(
2. Emp_Id NUMBER(4) NOT NULL,
3. First_name **VARCHAR**(30),

4. Last_name **VARCHAR**(30),
5. Salary Money,
6. City **VARCHAR**(30),
7. **PRIMARY KEY** (Emp_Id)
8.);

This example creates the table **Employee_details** with five columns or fields in the SQL database. The fields in the table are **Emp_Id**, **First_Name**, **Last_Name**, **Salary**, and **City**. The **Emp_Id** column in the table acts as a **primary key**, which means that the Emp_Id column cannot contain duplicate values and null values.

5. ALTER TABLE Statement

This SQL statement adds, deletes, and modifies the columns of the table in the SQL database.

Syntax of ALTER TABLE Statement:

1. **ALTER TABLE** table_name **ADD** column_name datatype[(size)];

The above SQL alter statement adds the column with its datatype in the existing database table.

1. **ALTER TABLE** table_name **MODIFY** column_name column_datatype[(size)];

The above 'SQL alter statement' renames the old column name to the new column name of the existing database table.

1. **ALTER TABLE** table_name **DROP COLUMN** column_name;

The above SQL alter statement deletes the column of the existing database table.

Example of ALTER TABLE Statement:

1. **ALTER TABLE** Employee_details
2. **ADD** Designation **VARCHAR**(18);

This example adds the new field whose name is **Designation** with size **18** in the **Employee_details** table of the SQL database.

6. DROP TABLE Statement

This SQL statement deletes or removes the table and the structure, views, permissions, and triggers associated with that table.

Syntax of DROP TABLE Statement:

1. **DROP TABLE** [IF EXISTS]
2. table_name1, table_name2,, table_nameN;

The above syntax of the drop statement deletes specified tables completely if they exist in the database.

Example of DROP TABLE Statement:

1. **DROP TABLE** Employee_details;

This example drops the **Employee_details** table if it exists in the SQL database. This removes the complete information if available in the table.

7. CREATE DATABASE Statement

This SQL statement creates the new database in the database management system.

Syntax of CREATE DATABASE Statement:

1. **CREATE DATABASE** database_name;

Example of CREATE DATABASE Statement:

1. **CREATE DATABASE** Company;

The above example creates the company database in the system.

8. DROP DATABASE Statement

This SQL statement deletes the existing database with all the data tables and views from the database management system.

Syntax of DROP DATABASE Statement:

1. **DROP DATABASE** database_name;

Example of DROP DATABASE Statement:

1. **DROP DATABASE** Company;

The above example deletes the company database from the system.

9. INSERT INTO Statement

This SQL statement inserts the data or records in the existing table of the SQL database. This statement can easily insert single and multiple records in a single query statement.

Syntax of insert a single record:

1. **INSERT INTO** table_name
2. (
3. column_name1,
4. column_name2, ...,
5. column_nameN
6.)
7. **VALUES**
8. (value_1,
9. value_2,,
10. value_N
- 11.);

Example of insert a single record:

1. **INSERT INTO** Employee_details
2. (
3. Emp_ID,
4. First_name,
5. Last_name,
6. Salary,
7. City
8.)
9. **VALUES**
10. (101,
11. Akhil,
12. Sharma,
13. 40000,
14. Bangalore
- 15.);

This example inserts **101** in the first column, **Akhil** in the second column, **Sharma** in the third column, **40000** in the fourth column, and **Bangalore** in the last column of the table **Employee_details**.

Syntax of inserting a multiple records in a single query:

1. **INSERT INTO** table_name
2. (column_name1, column_name2, ..., column_nameN)
3. **VALUES** (value_1, value_2,, value_N), (value_1, value_2,, value_N),....;

Example of inserting multiple records in a single query:

1. **INSERT INTO** Employee_details

2. (Emp_ID, First_name, Last_name, Salary, City)
3. **VALUES** (101, Amit, Gupta, 50000, Mumbai), (101, John, Aggarwal, 45000, Calcutta), (101, Sidhu, Arora, 55000, Mumbai);

This example inserts the records of three employees in the **Employee_details** table in the single query statement.

10. TRUNCATE TABLE Statement

This SQL statement deletes all the stored records from the table of the SQL database.

Syntax of TRUNCATE TABLE Statement:

1. **TRUNCATE TABLE** table_name;

Example of TRUNCATE TABLE Statement:

1. **TRUNCATE TABLE** Employee_details;

This example deletes the record of all employees from the Employee_details table of the database.

11. DESCRIBE Statement

This SQL statement tells something about the specified table or view in the query.

Syntax of DESCRIBE Statement:

1. DESCRIBE table_name | view_name;

Example of DESCRIBE Statement:

1. DESCRIBE Employee_details;

This example explains the structure and other details about the **Employee_details** table.

12. DISTINCT Clause

This SQL statement shows the distinct values from the specified columns of the database table. This statement is used with the **SELECT** keyword.

Syntax of DISTINCT Clause:

1. **SELECT DISTINCT** column_name1, column_name2, ...
2. **FROM** table_name;

Example of DISTINCT Clause:

1. **SELECT DISTINCT** City, Salary
2. **FROM** Employee_details;

This example shows the distinct values of the **City** and **Salary** column from the **Employee_details** table.

13. COMMIT Statement

This SQL statement saves the changes permanently, which are done in the transaction of the SQL database.

Syntax of COMMIT Statement:

1. **COMMIT**

Example of COMMIT Statement:

1. **DELETE FROM** Employee_details
2. **WHERE** salary = 30000;
3. **COMMIT**;

This example deletes the records of those employees whose **Salary** is **30000** and then saves the changes permanently in the database.

14. ROLLBACK Statement

This SQL statement undo the transactions and operations which are not yet saved to the SQL database.

Syntax of ROLLBACK Statement:

1. **ROLLBACK**

Example of ROLLBACK Statement:

1. **DELETE FROM** Employee_details
2. **WHERE** City = Mumbai;
3. **ROLLBACK**;

This example deletes the records of those employees whose **City** is **Mumbai** and then undo the changes in the database.

15. CREATE INDEX Statement

This SQL statement creates the new index in the SQL database table.

Syntax of CREATE INDEX Statement:

1. **CREATE INDEX** index_name
2. **ON** table_name (column_name1, column_name2, ..., column_nameN);

Example of CREATE INDEX Statement:

1. **CREATE INDEX** idx_First_Name
2. **ON** employee_details (First_Name);

This example creates an index **idx_First_Name** on the **First_Name** column of the **Employee_details** table.

16. DROP INDEX Statement

This SQL statement deletes the existing index of the SQL database table.

Syntax of DROP INDEX Statement:

1. **DROP INDEX** index_name;

Example of DROP INDEX Statement:

1. **DROP INDEX** idx_First_Name;

This example deletes the index **idx_First_Name** from the SQL database.

17. USE Statement

This SQL statement selects the existing SQL database. Before performing the operations on the database table, you have to select the database from the multiple existing databases.

Syntax of USE Statement:

1. USE database_name;

Example of USE DATABASE Statement:

1. USE Company;

This example uses the company database.

SQL Data Types

Data types are used to represent the nature of the data that can be stored in the database table. For example, in a particular column of a table, if we want to store a string type of data then we will have to declare a string data type of this column.

Data types mainly classified into three categories for every database.

- String Data types
- Numeric Data types
- Date and time Data types

Data Types in MySQL, SQL Server and Oracle Databases

MySQL Data Types

A list of data types used in MySQL database. This is based on MySQL 8.0.

MySQL String Data Types

CHAR(Size)	It is used to specify a fixed length string that can contain numbers, letters, and special characters. Its size can be 0 to 255 characters. Default is 1.
VARCHAR(Size)	It is used to specify a variable length string that can contain numbers, letters, and special characters. Its size can be from 0 to 65535 characters.
BINARY(Size)	It is equal to CHAR() but stores binary byte strings. Its size parameter specifies the column length in the bytes. Default is 1.
VARBINARY(Size)	It is equal to VARCHAR() but stores binary byte strings. Its size parameter specifies the maximum column length in bytes.
TEXT(Size)	It holds a string that can contain a maximum length of 255 characters.
TINYTEXT	It holds a string with a maximum length of 255 characters.
MEDIUMTEXT	It holds a string with a maximum length of 16,777,215.
LONGTEXT	It holds a string with a maximum length of 4,294,967,295 characters.
ENUM(val1, val2, val3,...)	It is used when a string object having only one value, chosen from a list of possible values. It contains 65535 values in an ENUM list. If you insert a value that is not in the list, a blank value will be inserted.
SET(val1,val2,val3,...)	It is used to specify a string that can have 0 or more values, chosen from a list of possible values. You can list up to 64 values at one time in a SET list.
BLOB(size)	It is used for BLOBs (Binary Large Objects). It can hold up to 65,535 bytes.

MySQL Numeric Data Types

BIT(Size)	It is used for a bit-value type. The number of bits per value is specified in size. Its size can be 1 to 64. The default value is 1.
INT(size)	It is used for the integer value. Its signed range varies from - 2147483648 to 2147483647 and unsigned range varies from 0 to 4294967295. The size parameter specifies the max display width that is 255.
INTEGER(size)	It is equal to INT(size).
FLOAT(size, d)	It is used to specify a floating point number. Its size parameter specifies the total number of digits. The number of digits after the decimal point is specified by d parameter.
FLOAT(p)	It is used to specify a floating point number. MySQL used p parameter to determine whether to use FLOAT or DOUBLE. If p

	is between 0 to24, the data type becomes FLOAT (). If p is from 25 to 53, the data type becomes DOUBLE().
DOUBLE(size, d)	It is a normal size floating point number. Its size parameter specifies the total number of digits. The number of digits after the decimal is specified by d parameter.
DECIMAL(size, d)	It is used to specify a fixed point number. Its size parameter specifies the total number of digits. The number of digits after the decimal parameter is specified by d parameter. The maximum value for the size is 65, and the default value is 10. The maximum value for d is 30, and the default value is 0.
DEC(size, d)	It is equal to DECIMAL(size, d).
BOOL	It is used to specify Boolean values true and false. Zero is considered as false, and nonzero values are considered as true.

MySQL Date and Time Data Types

DATE	It is used to specify date format YYYY-MM-DD. Its supported range is from '1000-01-01' to '9999-12-31'.
DATETIME(fsp)	It is used to specify date and time combination. Its format is YYYY-MM-DD hh:mm:ss. Its supported range is from '1000-01-01 00:00:00' to 9999-12-31 23:59:59'.
TIMESTAMP(fsp)	It is used to specify the timestamp. Its value is stored as the number of seconds since the Unix epoch('1970-01-01 00:00:00' UTC). Its format is YYYY-MM-DD hh:mm:ss. Its supported range is from '1970-01-01 00:00:01' UTC to '2038-01-09 03:14:07' UTC.
TIME(fsp)	It is used to specify the time format. Its format is hh:mm:ss. Its supported range is from '-838:59:59' to '838:59:59'
YEAR	It is used to specify a year in four-digit format. Values allowed in four digit format from 1901 to 2155, and 0000.

SQL Server Data Types

SQL Server String Data Type

char(n)	It is a fixed width character string data type. Its size can be up to 8000 characters.
varchar(n)	It is a variable width character string data type. Its size can be up to 8000 characters.
varchar(max)	It is a variable width character string data types. Its size can be up to 1,073,741,824 characters.
text	It is a variable width character string data type. Its size can be up to 2GB of text data.
nchar	It is a fixed width Unicode string data type. Its size can be up to 4000 characters.
nvarchar	It is a variable width Unicode string data type. Its size can be up to 4000 characters.
ntext	It is a variable width Unicode string data type. Its size can be up to 2GB of text data.
binary(n)	It is a fixed width Binary string data type. Its size can be up to 8000 bytes.

varbinary	It is a variable width Binary string data type. Its size can be up to 8000 bytes.
image	It is also a variable width Binary string data type. Its size can be up to 2GB.

SQL Server Numeric Data Types

bit	It is an integer that can be 0, 1 or null.
tinyint	It allows whole numbers from 0 to 255.
Smallint	It allows whole numbers between -32,768 and 32,767.
Int	It allows whole numbers between -2,147,483,648 and 2,147,483,647.
bigint	It allows whole numbers between -9,223,372,036,854,775,808 and 9,223,372,036,854,775,807.
float(n)	It is used to specify floating precision number data from -1.79E+308 to 1.79E+308. The n parameter indicates whether the field should hold the 4 or 8 bytes. Default value of n is 53.
real	It is a floating precision number data from -3.40E+38 to 3.40E+38.
money	It is used to specify monetary data from -922,337,233,685,477.5808 to 922,337,203,685,477.5807.

SQL Server Date and Time Data Type

datetime	It is used to specify date and time combination. It supports range from January 1, 1753, to December 31, 9999 with an accuracy of 3.33 milliseconds.
datetime2	It is used to specify date and time combination. It supports range from January 1, 0001 to December 31, 9999 with an accuracy of 100 nanoseconds
date	It is used to store date only. It supports range from January 1, 0001 to December 31, 9999
time	It stores time only to an accuracy of 100 nanoseconds
timestamp	It stores a unique number when a new row gets created or modified. The time stamp value is based upon an internal clock and does not correspond to real time. Each table may contain only one-time stamp variable.

SQL Server Other Data Types

Sql_variant	It is used for various data types except for text, timestamp, and ntext. It stores up to 8000 bytes of data.
XML	It stores XML formatted data. Maximum 2GB.
cursor	It stores a reference to a cursor used for database operations.
table	It stores result set for later processing.
uniqueidentifier	It stores GUID (Globally unique identifier).

Oracle Data Types

Oracle String data types

CHAR(size)	It is used to store character data within the predefined length. It can be stored up to 2000 bytes.
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NCHAR(size)	It is used to store national character data within the predefined length. It can be stored up to 2000 bytes.
VARCHAR2(size)	It is used to store variable string data within the predefined length. It can be stored up to 4000 byte.
VARCHAR(SIZE)	It is the same as VARCHAR2(size). You can also use VARCHAR(size), but it is suggested to use VARCHAR2(size)
NVARCHAR2(size)	It is used to store Unicode string data within the predefined length. We have to must specify the size of NVARCHAR2 data type. It can be stored up to 4000 bytes.

Oracle Numeric Data Types

NUMBER(p, s)	It contains precision p and scale s. The precision p can range from 1 to 38, and the scale s can range from -84 to 127.
FLOAT(p)	It is a subtype of the NUMBER data type. The precision p can range from 1 to 126.
BINARY_FLOAT	It is used for binary precision(32-bit). It requires 5 bytes, including length byte.
BINARY_DOUBLE	It is used for double binary precision (64-bit). It requires 9 bytes, including length byte.

Oracle Date and Time Data Types

DATE	It is used to store a valid date-time format with a fixed length. Its range varies from January 1, 4712 BC to December 31, 9999 AD.
TIMESTAMP	It is used to store the valid date in YYYY-MM-DD with time hh:mm:ss format.

Oracle Large Object Data Types (LOB Types)

BLOB	It is used to specify unstructured binary data. Its range goes up to 2 ³² -1 bytes or 4 GB.
BFILE	It is used to store binary data in an external file. Its range goes up to 2 ³² -1 bytes or 4 GB.
CLOB	It is used for single-byte character data. Its range goes up to 2 ³² -1 bytes or 4 GB.
NCLOB	It is used to specify single byte or fixed length multibyte national character set (NCHAR) data. Its range is up to 2 ³² -1 bytes or 4 GB.
RAW(size)	It is used to specify variable length raw binary data. Its range is up to 2000 bytes per row. Its maximum size must be specified.
LONG RAW	It is used to specify variable length raw binary data. Its range up to 2 ³¹ -1 bytes or 2 GB, per row.

SQL Operators

Every database administrator and user uses SQL queries for manipulating and accessing the data of database tables and views.

The manipulation and retrieving of the data are performed with the help of reserved words and characters, which are used to perform arithmetic operations, logical operations, comparison operations, compound operations, etc.

What is SQL Operator?

The SQL reserved words and characters are called operators, which are used with a WHERE clause in a SQL query. In SQL, an operator can either be a unary or binary operator. The unary operator uses only one operand for performing the unary operation, whereas the binary operator uses two operands for performing the binary operation.

Syntax of Unary SQL Operator

- 1. Operator SQL_Operand

Syntax of Unary SQL Operator

- 1. Operand1 SQL_Operator Operand2

Note: SQL operators are used for filtering the table's data by a specific condition in the SQL statement.

What is the Precedence of SQL Operator?

The precedence of SQL operators is the sequence in which the SQL evaluates the different operators in the same expression. Structured Query Language evaluates those operators first, which have high precedence.

In the following table, the operators at the top have high precedence, and the operators that appear at the bottom have low precedence.

SQL Operator Symbols	Operators
**	Exponentiation operator
+, -	Identity operator, Negation operator
*, /	Multiplication operator, Division operator
+, -,	Addition (plus) operator, subtraction (minus) operator, String Concatenation operator
=, !=, <, >, <=, >=, IS NULL, LIKE, BETWEEN, IN	Comparison Operators
NOT	Logical negation operator
&& or AND	Conjunction operator
OR	Inclusion operator

For Example,

- 1. UPDATE employee
- 2. SET salary = 20 - 3 * 5 WHERE Emp_Id = 5;

In the above SQL example, salary is assigned 5, not 85, because the * (Multiplication)

Operator has higher precedence than the - (subtraction) operator, so it first gets multiplied with 3*5 and then subtracts from 20.

Types of Operator

SQL operators are categorized in the following categories:

- 1. SQL Arithmetic Operators
- 2. SQL Comparison Operators
- 3. SQL Logical Operators

- 4. SQL Set Operators
- 5. SQL Bit-wise Operators
- 6. SQL Unary Operators

Let's discuss each operator with their types.

SQL Arithmetic Operators

The **Arithmetic Operators** perform the mathematical operation on the numerical data of the SQL tables. These operators perform addition, subtraction, multiplication, and division operations on the numerical operands.

Following are the various arithmetic operators performed on the SQL data:

- 1. SQL Addition Operator (+)
- 2. SQL Subtraction Operator (-)
- 3. SQL Multiplication Operator (*)
- 4. SQL Division Operator (/)
- 5. SQL Modulus Operator (%)

SQL Addition Operator (+)

The **Addition Operator** in SQL performs the addition on the numerical data of the database table. In SQL, we can easily add the numerical values of two columns of the same table by specifying both the column names as the first and second operand. We can also add the numbers to the existing numbers of the specific column.

Syntax of SQL Addition Operator:

- 1. SELECT operand1 + operand2;

Let's understand the below example which explains how to execute Addition Operator in SQL query:

This example consists of an **Employee_details** table, which has four columns **Emp_Id**, **Emp_Name**, **Emp_Salary**, and **Emp_Monthlybonus**.

Emp Id	Emp Name	Emp Salary	Emp Monthlybonus
101	Tushar	25000	4000
102	Anuj	30000	200

- o Suppose, we want to add **20,000** to the salary of each employee specified in the table. Then, we have to write the following query in the SQL:

- 1. SELECT Emp_Salary + 20000 as Emp_New_Salary FROM Employee_details;

In this query, we have performed the SQL addition operation on the single column of the given table.

- o Suppose, we want to add the Salary and monthly bonus columns of the above table, then we have to write the following query in SQL:

- 1. SELECT Emp_Salary + Emp_Monthlybonus as Emp_Total_Salary FROM Employee_details;

In this query, we have added two columns with each other of the above table.

SQL Subtraction Operator (-)

The Subtraction Operator in SQL performs the subtraction on the numerical data of the database table. In SQL, we can easily subtract the numerical values of two columns of the same table by specifying both the column names as the first and second operand. We can also subtract the number from the existing number of the specific table column.

Syntax of SQL Subtraction Operator:

- 1. SELECT operand1 - operand2;

Let's understand the below example which explains how to execute Subtraction Operator in SQL query:

This example consists of an **Employee_details** table, which has four columns **Emp_Id**, **Emp_Name**, **Emp_Salary**, and **Emp_Monthlybonus**.

Emp Id	Emp Name	Emp Salary	Penalty
201	Abhay	25000	200
202	Sumit	30000	500

- Suppose we want to subtract 5,000 from the salary of each employee given in the **Employee_details** table. Then, we have to write the following query in the SQL:

1. SELECT Emp_Salary - 5000 as Emp_New_Salary FROM Employee_details;

In this query, we have performed the SQL subtraction operation on the single column of the given table.

- If we want to subtract the penalty from the salary of each employee, then we have to write the following query in SQL:

1. SELECT Emp_Salary - Penalty as Emp_Total_Salary FROM Employee_details;

SQL Multiplication Operator (*)

The Multiplication Operator in SQL performs the Multiplication on the numerical data of the database table. In SQL, we can easily multiply the numerical values of two columns of the same table by specifying both the column names as the first and second operand.

Syntax of SQL Multiplication Operator:

1. SELECT operand1 * operand2;

Let's understand the below example which explains how to execute Multiplication Operator in SQL query:

This example consists of an **Employee_details** table, which has four columns **Emp_Id**, **Emp_Name**, **Emp_Salary**, and **Emp_Monthlybonus**.

Emp Id	Emp Name	Emp Salary	Penalty
201	Abhay	25000	200
202	Sumit	30000	500

- Suppose, we want to double the salary of each employee given in the **Employee_details** table. Then, we have to write the following query in the SQL:

1. SELECT Emp_Salary * 2 as Emp_New_Salary FROM Employee_details;

In this query, we have performed the SQL multiplication operation on the single column of the given table.

- If we want to multiply **the Emp_Id** column to **Emp_Salary** column of that employee whose **Emp_Id** is **202**, then we have to write the following query in SQL:

1. SELECT Emp_Id * Emp_Salary as Emp_Id * Emp_Salary FROM Employee_details WHERE Emp_Id = 202;

In this query, we have multiplied the values of two columns by using the WHERE clause.

SQL Division Operator (/)

The Division Operator in SQL divides the operand on the left side by the operand on the right side.

Syntax of SQL Division Operator:

1. SELECT operand1 / operand2;

In SQL, we can also divide the numerical values of one column by another column of the same table by specifying both column names as the first and second operand.

We can also perform the division operation on the stored numbers in the column of the SQL table.

Let's understand the below example which explains how to execute Division Operator in SQL query:

This example consists of an **Employee_details** table, which has three columns **Emp_Id**, **Emp_Name**, and **Emp_Salary**.

Emp Id	Emp Name	Emp Salary
201	Abhay	25000
202	Sumit	30000

- Suppose, we want to half the salary of each employee given in the Employee_details table. For this operation, we have to write the following query in the SQL:
1. SELECT Emp_Salary / 2 as Emp_New_Salary FROM Employee_details;

In this query, we have performed the SQL division operation on the single column of the given table.

SQL Modulus Operator (%)

The Modulus Operator in SQL provides the remainder when the operand on the left side is divided by the operand on the right side.

Syntax of SQL Modulus Operator:

1. SELECT operand1 % operand2;

Let's understand the below example which explains how to execute Modulus Operator in SQL query:

This example consists of a **Division** table, which has three columns **Number**, **First_operand**, and **Second_operand**.

Number	First operand	Second operand
1	56	4
2	32	8
3	89	9
4	18	10
5	10	5

- If we want to get the remainder by dividing the numbers of First_operand column by the numbers of Second_operand column, then we have to write the following query in SQL:
1. SELECT First_operand % Second_operand as Remainder FROM Employee_details;

SQL Comparison Operators

The **Comparison Operators** in SQL compare two different data of SQL table and check whether they are the same, greater, and lesser. The SQL comparison operators are used with the WHERE clause in the SQL queries

Following are the various comparison operators which are performed on the data stored in the SQL database tables:

1. SQL Equal Operator (=)
2. SQL Not Equal Operator (!=)
3. SQL Greater Than Operator (>)

- 4. SQL Greater Than Equals to Operator (>=)
- 5. SQL Less Than Operator (<)\
- 6. SQL Less Than Equals to Operator (<=)

SQL Equal Operator (=)

This operator is highly used in SQL queries. The **Equal Operator** in SQL shows only data that matches the specified value in the query.

This operator returns TRUE records from the database table if the value of both operands specified in the query is matched.

Let's understand the below example which explains how to execute Equal Operator in SQL query:

This example consists of an **Employee_details** table, which has three columns **Emp_Id**, **Emp_Name**, and **Emp_Salary**.

Emp Id	Emp Name	Emp Salary
201	Abhay	30000
202	Ankit	40000
203	Bheem	30000
204	Ram	29000
205	Sumit	30000

- o Suppose, we want to access all the records of those employees from the **Employee_details** table whose salary is 30000. Then, we have to write the following query in the SQL database:

- 1. SELECT * FROM Employee_details WHERE Emp_Salary = 30000;

In this example, we used the SQL equal operator with WHERE clause for getting the records of those employees whose salary is 30000.

SQL Equal Not Operator (!=)

The **Equal Not Operator** in SQL shows only those data that do not match the query's specified value.

This operator returns those records or rows from the database views and tables if the value of both operands specified in the query is not matched with each other.

Let's understand the below example which explains how to execute Equal Not Operator in SQL query:

This example consists of an **Employee_details** table, which has three columns **Emp_Id**, **Emp_Name**, and **Emp_Salary**.

Emp Id	Emp Name	Emp Salary
201	Abhay	45000
202	Ankit	45000
203	Bheem	30000
204	Ram	29000
205	Sumit	29000

- o Suppose, we want to access all the records of those employees from the **Employee_details** table whose salary is not 45000. Then, we have to write the following query in the SQL database:

- 1. SELECT * FROM Employee_details WHERE Emp_Salary != 45000;

In this example, we used the SQL equal not operator with WHERE clause for getting the records of those employees whose salary is not 45000.

SQL Greater Than Operator (>)

The **Greater Than Operator** in SQL shows only those data which are greater than the value of the right-hand operand.

Let's understand the below example which explains how to execute Greater ThanOperator (>) in SQL query:

This example consists of an **Employee_details** table, which has three columns **Emp_Id**, **Emp_Name**, and **Emp_Salary**.

Emp Id	Emp Name	Emp Salary
201	Abhay	45000
202	Ankit	45000
203	Bheem	30000
204	Ram	29000
205	Sumit	29000

- Suppose, we want to access all the records of those employees from the **Employee_details** table whose employee id is greater than 202. Then, we have to write the following query in the SQL database:

1. SELECT * FROM Employee_details WHERE Emp_Id > 202;

Here, SQL greater than operator displays the records of those employees from the above table whose Employee Id is greater than 202.

SQL Greater Than Equals to Operator (>=)

The **Greater Than Equals to Operator** in SQL shows those data from the table which are greater than and equal to the value of the right-hand operand.

Let's understand the below example which explains how to execute greater than equals to the operator (>=) in SQL query:

This example consists of an **Employee_details** table, which has three columns **Emp_Id**, **Emp_Name**, and **Emp_Salary**.

Emp Id	Emp Name	Emp Salary
201	Abhay	45000
202	Ankit	45000
203	Bheem	30000
204	Ram	29000
205	Sumit	29000

- Suppose, we want to access all the records of those employees from the **Employee_details** table whose employee id is greater than and equals to 202. For this, we have to write the following query in the SQL database:

1. SELECT * FROM Employee_details WHERE Emp_Id >= 202;

Here,'**SQL greater than equals to operator**' with WHERE clause displays the rows of those employees from the table whose Employee Id is greater than and equals to 202.

SQL Less Than Operator (<)

The **Less Than Operator** in SQL shows only those data from the database tables which are less than the value of the right-side operand.

This comparison operator checks that the left side operand is lesser than the right side operand. If the condition becomes true, then this operator in SQL displays the data which is less than the value of the right-side operand.

Let's understand the below example which explains how to execute less than operator (<) in SQL query:

This example consists of an **Employee_details** table, which has three columns **Emp_Id**, **Emp_Name**, and **Emp_Salary**.

Emp Id	Emp Name	Emp Salary
201	Abhay	45000
202	Ankit	45000
203	Bheem	30000
204	Ram	29000
205	Sumit	29000

- Suppose, we want to access all the records of those employees from the **Employee_details** table whose employee id is less than 204. For this, we have to write the following query in the SQL database:

1. SELECT * FROM Employee_details WHERE Emp_Id < 204;

Here,**SQL less than operator** with WHERE clause displays the records of those employees from the above table whose Employee Id is less than 204.

SQL Less Than Equals to Operator (<=)

The **Less Than Equals to Operator** in SQL shows those data from the table which are lesser and equal to the value of the right-side operand.

This comparison operator checks that the left side operand is lesser and equal to the right side operand.

Let's understand the below example which explains how to execute less than equals to the operator (<=) in SQL query:

This example consists of an **Employee_details** table, which has three columns **Emp_Id**, **Emp_Name**, and **Emp_Salary**.

Emp Id	Emp Name	Emp Salary
201	Abhay	45000
202	Ankit	45000
203	Bheem	30000
204	Ram	29000
205	Sumit	29000

- Suppose, we want to access all the records of those employees from the **Employee_details** table whose employee id is less and equals **203**. For this, we have to write the following query in the SQL database:

1. SELECT * FROM Employee_details WHERE Emp_Id <= 203;

Here, SQL **less than equals to the operator** with WHERE clause displays the rows of those employees from the table whose Employee Id is less than and equals 202.

SQL Logical Operators

The **Logical Operators** in SQL perform the Boolean operations, which give two results **True and False**. These operators provide **True** value if both operands match the logical condition.

Following are the various logical operators which are performed on the data stored in the SQL database tables:

- 1. SQL ALL operator
- 2. SQL AND operator
- 3. SQL OR operator
- 4. SQL BETWEEN operator
- 5. SQL IN operator
- 6. SQL NOT operator
- 7. SQL ANY operator
- 8. SQL LIKE operator

SQL ALL Operator

The ALL operator in SQL compares the specified value to all the values of a column from the sub-query in the SQL database.

This operator is always used with the following statement:

- 1. SELECT,
- 2. HAVING, and
- 3. WHERE.

Syntax of ALL operator:

- 1. SELECT column_Name1, ..., column_NameN FROM table_Name WHERE column Comparison_operator ALL (SELECT column FROM tablename2)

Let's understand the below example which explains how to execute ALL logical operators in SQL query:

This example consists of an **Employee_details** table, which has three columns **Emp_Id, Emp_Name, Emp_Salary, and Emp_City**.

Emp Id	Emp Name	Emp Salary	Emp City
201	Abhay	25000	Gurgaon
202	Ankit	45000	Delhi
203	Bheem	30000	Jaipur
204	Ram	29000	Mumbai
205	Sumit	40000	Kolkata

- o If we want to access the employee id and employee names of those employees from the table whose salaries are greater than the salary of employees who lives in Jaipur city, then we have to type the following query in SQL.

- 1. SELECT Emp_Id, Emp_Name FROM Employee_details WHERE Emp_Salary > ALL (SELECT Emp_Salary FROM Employee_details WHERE Emp_City = Jaipur)

Here, we used the **SQL ALL operator** with greater than the operator.

SQL AND Operator

The **AND operator** in SQL would show the record from the database table if all the conditions separated by the AND operator evaluated to True. It is also known as the conjunctive operator and is used with the WHERE clause.

Syntax of AND operator:

- 1. SELECT column1, ..., columnN FROM table_Name WHERE condition1 AND condition2 AND condition3 AND AND conditionN;

Let's understand the below example which explains how to execute AND logical operator in SQL query:

This example consists of an **Employee_details** table, which has three columns **Emp_Id**, **Emp_Name**, **Emp_Salary**, and **Emp_City**.

Emp Id	Emp Name	Emp Salary	Emp City
201	Abhay	25000	Delhi
202	Ankit	45000	Chandigarh
203	Bheem	30000	Delhi
204	Ram	25000	Delhi
205	Sumit	40000	Kolkata

- o Suppose, we want to access all the records of those employees from the **Employee_details** table whose salary is 25000 and the city is Delhi. For this, we have to write the following query in SQL:

- 1. SELECT * FROM Employee_details WHERE Emp_Salary = 25000 OR Emp_City = 'Delhi';

Here,**SQL AND operator** with WHERE clause shows the record of employees whose salary is 25000 and the city is Delhi.

SQL OR Operator

The OR operator in SQL shows the record from the table if any of the conditions separated by the OR operator evaluates to True. It is also known as the conjunctive operator and is used with the WHERE clause.

Syntax of OR operator:

- 1. SELECT column1, ..., columnN FROM table_Name WHERE condition1 OR condition2 OR condition3 OR OR conditionN;

Let's understand the below example which explains how to execute OR logical operator in SQL query:

This example consists of an **Employee_details** table, which has three columns **Emp_Id**, **Emp_Name**, **Emp_Salary**, and **Emp_City**.

Emp Id	Emp Name	Emp Salary	Emp City
201	Abhay	25000	Delhi
202	Ankit	45000	Chandigarh
203	Bheem	30000	Delhi
204	Ram	25000	Delhi
205	Sumit	40000	Kolkata

- o If we want to access all the records of those employees from the **Employee_details** table whose salary is 25000 or the city is Delhi. For this, we have to write the following query in SQL:

- 1. SELECT * FROM Employee_details WHERE Emp_Salary = 25000 OR Emp_City = 'Delhi';

Here, **SQL OR operator** with WHERE clause shows the record of employees whose salary is 25000 or the city is Delhi.

SQL BETWEEN Operator

The **BETWEEN operator** in SQL shows the record within the range mentioned in the SQL query. This operator operates on the numbers, characters, and date/time operands.

If there is no value in the given range, then this operator shows NULL value.

Syntax of BETWEEN operator:

- 1. SELECT column_Name1, column_Name2, column_NameN FROM table_Name WHERE column_nameBETWEEN value1 and value2;

Let's understand the below example which explains how to execute BETWEEN logical operator in SQL query:

This example consists of an **Employee_details** table, which has three columns **Emp_Id**, **Emp_Name**, **Emp_Salary**, and **Emp_City**.

Emp Id	Emp Name	Emp Salary	Emp City
201	Abhay	25000	Delhi
202	Ankit	45000	Chandigarh
203	Bheem	30000	Delhi
204	Ram	25000	Delhi
205	Sumit	40000	Kolkata

- o Suppose, we want to access all the information of those employees from the **Employee_details** table who is having salaries between 20000 and 40000. For this, we have to write the following query in SQL:

- 1. SELECT * FROM Employee_details WHERE Emp_Salary BETWEEN 30000 AND 45000;

Here, we used the **SQL BETWEEN operator** with the Emp_Salary field.

SQL IN Operator

The **IN operator** in SQL allows database users to specify two or more values in a WHERE clause. This logical operator minimizes the requirement of multiple OR conditions.

This operator makes the query easier to learn and understand. This operator returns those rows whose values match with any value of the given list.

Syntax of IN operator:

- 1. SELECT column_Name1, column_Name2, column_NameN FROM table_Name WHERE column_name IN (list_of_values);

Let's understand the below example which explains how to execute IN logical operator in SQL query:

This example consists of an **Employee_details** table, which has three columns **Emp_Id**, **Emp_Name**, **Emp_Salary**, and **Emp_City**.

Emp Id	Emp Name	Emp Salary	Emp City
201	Abhay	25000	Delhi
202	Ankit	45000	Chandigarh
203	Bheem	30000	Delhi
204	Ram	25000	Delhi

205	Sumit	40000	Kolkata
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- Suppose, we want to show all the information of those employees from the **Employee_details** table whose **Employee Id** is 202, 204, and 205. For this, we have to write the following query in SQL:

1. SELECT * FROM Employee_details WHERE Emp_Id IN (202, 204, 205);

Here, we used the **SQL IN operator** with the Emp_Id column.

- Suppose, we want to show all the information of those employees from the **Employee_details** table whose **Employee Id** is not equal to 202 and 205. For this, we have to write the following query in SQL:

1. SELECT * FROM Employee_details WHERE Emp_Id NOT IN (202,205);
2.

Here, we used the **SQL NOT IN operator** with the Emp_Id column.

SQL NOT Operator

The **NOT operator** in SQL shows the record from the table if the condition evaluates to false. It is always used with the WHERE clause.

Syntax of NOT operator:

1. SELECT column1, column2 ..., columnN FROM table_Name WHERE NOT condition;

Let's understand the below example which explains how to execute NOT logical operator in SQL query:

This example consists of an **Employee_details** table, which has four columns **Emp_Id**, **Emp_Name**, **Emp_Salary**, and **Emp_City**.

Emp Id	Emp Name	Emp Salary	Emp City
201	Abhay	25000	Delhi
202	Ankit	45000	Chandigarh
203	Bheem	30000	Delhi
204	Ram	25000	Delhi
205	Sumit	40000	Kolkata

- Suppose, we want to show all the information of those employees from the **Employee_details** table whose Cityis not Delhi. For this, we have to write the following query in SQL:

1. SELECT * FROM Employee_details WHERE NOT Emp_City = 'Delhi' ;

In this example, we used the **SQL NOT operator** with the Emp_City column.

- Suppose, we want to show all the information of those employees from the **Employee_details** table whose Cityis not Delhi and Chandigarh. For this, we have to write the following query in SQL:

1. SELECT * FROM Employee_details WHERE NOT Emp_City = 'Delhi' AND NOT Emp_City = 'Chandigarh';

In this example, we used the **SQL NOT operator** with the Emp_City column.

SQL ANY Operator

The **ANY operator** in SQL shows the records when any of the values returned by the sub-query meet the condition.

The ANY logical operator must match at least one record in the inner query and must be preceded by any SQL comparison operator.

Syntax of ANY operator:

- 1. SELECT column1, column2, columnN FROM table_Name WHERE column_name comparison_operator ANY (SELECT column_name FROM table_name WHERE condition(s)) ;

SQL LIKE Operator

The **LIKE operator** in SQL shows those records from the table which match with the given pattern specified in the sub-query.

The percentage (%) sign is a wildcard which is used in conjunction with this logical operator.

This operator is used in the WHERE clause with the following three statements:

- 1. SELECT statement
- 2. UPDATE statement
- 3. DELETE statement

Syntax of LIKE operator:

- 1. SELECT column_Name1, column_Name2, column_NameN FROM table_Name WHERE column_name LIKE pattern;

Let's understand the below example which explains how to execute LIKE logical operator in SQL query:

This example consists of an **Employee_details** table, which has four columns **Emp_Id**, **Emp_Name**, **Emp_Salary**, and **Emp_City**.

Emp Id	Emp Name	Emp Salary	Emp City
201	Sanjay	25000	Delhi
202	Ajay	45000	Chandigarh
203	Saket	30000	Delhi
204	Abhay	25000	Delhi
205	Sumit	40000	Kolkata

- o If we want to show all the information of those employees from the **Employee_details** whose name starts with "s". For this, we have to write the following query in SQL:

- 1. SELECT * FROM Employee_details WHERE Emp_Name LIKE 's%' ;

In this example, we used the SQL LIKE operator with **Emp_Name** column because we want to access the record of those employees whose name starts with s.

- o If we want to show all the information of those employees from the **Employee_details**whose name ends with "y". For this, we have to write the following query in SQL:

- 1. SELECT * FROM Employee_details WHERE Emp_Name LIKE '%y' ;

- o If we want to show all the information of those employees from the **Employee_details**whose name starts with "S" and ends with "y". For this, we have to write the following query in SQL:

- 1. SELECT * FROM Employee_details WHERE Emp_Name LIKE 'S%y' ;

SQL Set Operators

The **Set Operators** in SQL combine a similar type of data from two or more SQL database tables. It mixes the result, which is extracted from two or more SQL queries, into a single result.

Set operators combine more than one select statement in a single query and return a specific result set.

Following are the various set operators which are performed on the similar data stored in the two SQL database tables:

- 1. SQL Union Operator
- 2. SQL Union ALL Operator
- 3. SQL Intersect Operator
- 4. SQL Minus Operator

SQL Union Operator

The SQL Union Operator combines the result of two or more SELECT statements and provides the single output.

The data type and the number of columns must be the same for each SELECT statement used with the UNION operator. This operator does not show the duplicate records in the output table.

Syntax of UNION Set operator:

- 1. SELECT column1, column2, columnN FROM table_Name1 [WHERE conditions]
- 2. UNION
- 3. SELECT column1, column2, columnN FROM table_Name2 [WHERE conditions];

Let's understand the below example which explains how to execute Union operator in Structured Query Language:

In this example, we used two tables. Both tables have four columns Emp_Id, Emp_Name, Emp_Salary, and Emp_City.

Emp Id	Emp Name	Emp Salary	Emp City
201	Sanjay	25000	Delhi
202	Ajay	45000	Delhi
203	Saket	30000	Aligarh

Table: Employee_details1

Emp Id	Emp Name	Emp Salary	Emp City
203	Saket	30000	Aligarh
204	Saurabh	40000	Delhi
205	Ram	30000	Kerala
201	Sanjay	25000	Delhi

Table: Employee_details2

- Suppose, we want to see the employee name and employee id of each employee from both tables in a single output. For this, we have to write the following query in SQL:
 - 1. SELECT Emp_ID, Emp_Name FROM Employee_details1
 - 2. UNION
 - 3. SELECT Emp_ID, Emp_Name FROM Employee_details2 ;

SQL Union ALL Operator

The SQL Union Operator is the same as the UNION operator, but the only difference is that it also shows the same record.

Syntax of UNION ALL Set operator:

- 1. SELECT column1, column2, columnN FROM table_Name1 [WHERE conditions]

- 2. UNION ALL
- 3. SELECT column1, column2, columnN FROM table_Name2 [WHERE conditions];

Let's understand the below example which explains how to execute Union ALL operator in Structured Query Language:

In this example, we used two tables. Both tables have four columns Emp_Id, Emp_Name, Emp_Salary, and Emp_City.

Emp Id	Emp Name	Emp Salary	Emp City
201	Sanjay	25000	Delhi
202	Ajay	45000	Delhi
203	Saket	30000	Aligarh

Table: Employee_details1

Emp Id	Emp Name	Emp Salary	Emp City
203	Saket	30000	Aligarh
204	Saurabh	40000	Delhi
205	Ram	30000	Kerala
201	Sanjay	25000	Delhi

Table: Employee_details2

- o If we want to see the employee name of each employee of both tables in a single output. For this, we have to write the following query in SQL:
 - 1. SELECT Emp_Name FROM Employee_details1
 - 2. UNION ALL
 - 3. SELECT Emp_Name FROM Employee_details2 ;

SQL Intersect Operator

The SQL Intersect Operator shows the common record from two or more SELECT statements. The data type and the number of columns must be the same for each SELECT statement used with the INTERSECT operator.

Syntax of INTERSECT Set operator:

- 1. SELECT column1, column2, columnN FROM table_Name1 [WHERE conditions]
- 2. INTERSECT
- 3. SELECT column1, column2, columnN FROM table_Name2 [WHERE conditions];

Let's understand the below example which explains how to execute INTERSECT operator in Structured Query Language:

In this example, we used two tables. Both tables have four columns Emp_Id, Emp_Name, Emp_Salary, and Emp_City.

Emp Id	Emp Name	Emp Salary	Emp City
201	Sanjay	25000	Delhi
202	Ajay	45000	Delhi

203	Saket	30000	Aligarh
-----	-------	-------	---------

Table: Employee_details1

Emp Id	Emp Name	Emp Salary	Emp City
203	Saket	30000	Aligarh
204	Saurabh	40000	Delhi
205	Ram	30000	Kerala
201	Sanjay	25000	Delhi

Table: Employee_details2

Suppose, we want to see a common record of the employee from both the tables in a single output. For this, we have to write the following query in SQL:

- 1. SELECT Emp_Name FROM Employee_details1
- 2. INTERSECT
- 3. SELECT Emp_Name FROM Employee_details2 ;

SQL Minus Operator

The SQL Minus Operator combines the result of two or more SELECT statements and shows only the results from the first data set.

Syntax of MINUS operator:

- 1. SELECT column1, column2, columnN FROM First_tablename [WHERE conditions]
- 2. MINUS
- 3. SELECT column1, column2, columnN FROM Second_tablename [WHERE conditions];

Let's understand the below example which explains how to execute INTERSECT operator in Structured Query Language:

In this example, we used two tables. Both tables have four columns Emp_Id, Emp_Name, Emp_Salary, and Emp_City.

Emp Id	Emp Name	Emp Salary	Emp City
201	Sanjay	25000	Delhi
202	Ajay	45000	Delhi
203	Saket	30000	Aligarh

Table: Employee_details1

Emp Id	Emp Name	Emp Salary	Emp City
203	Saket	30000	Aligarh
204	Saurabh	40000	Delhi
205	Ram	30000	Kerala
201	Sanjay	25000	Delhi

Table: Employee_details2

Suppose, we want to see the name of employees from the first result set after the combination of both tables. For this, we have to write the following query in SQL:

- 1. SELECT Emp_Name FROM Employee_details1
- 2. MINUS
- 3. SELECT Emp_Name FROM Employee_details2 ;

SQL Unary Operators

The **Unary Operators** in SQL perform the unary operations on the single data of the SQL table, i.e., these operators operate only on one operand.

These types of operators can be easily operated on the numeric data value of the SQL table.

Following are the various unary operators which are performed on the numeric data stored in the SQL table:

- 1. SQL Unary Positive Operator
- 2. SQL Unary Negative Operator
- 3. SQL Unary Bitwise NOT Operator

SQL Unary Positive Operator

The SQL Positive (+) operator makes the numeric value of the SQL table positive.

Syntax of Unary Positive Operator

- 1. SELECT +(column1), +(column2), +(columnN) FROM table_Name [WHERE conditions] ;

Let's understand the below example which explains how to execute a Positive unary operator on the data of SQL table:

This example consists of an**Employee_details** table, which has four columns **Emp_Id**, **Emp_Name**, **Emp_Salary**, and **Emp_City**.

Emp Id	Emp Name	Emp Salary	Emp City
201	Sanjay	25000	Delhi
202	Ajay	45000	Chandigarh
203	Saket	30000	Delhi
204	Abhay	25000	Delhi
205	Sumit	40000	Kolkata

- o Suppose, we want to see the salary of each employee as positive from the Employee_details table. For this, we have to write the following query in SQL:

- 1. SELECT +Emp_Salary Employee_details ;

SQL Unary Negative Operator

The SQL Negative (-) operator makes the numeric value of the SQL table negative.

Syntax of Unary Negative Operator

- 1. SELECT -(column_Name1), -(column_Name2), -(column_NameN) FROM table_Name [WHERE conditions] ;

Let's understand the below example which explains how to execute Negative unary operator on the data of SQL table:

This example consists of an **Employee_details** table, which has four columns **Emp_Id**, **Emp_Name**, **Emp_Salary**, and **Emp_City**.

Emp Id	Emp Name	Emp Salary	Emp City
201	Sanjay	25000	Delhi
202	Ajay	45000	Chandigarh
203	Saket	30000	Delhi
204	Abhay	25000	Delhi
205	Sumit	40000	Kolkata

- Suppose, we want to see the salary of each employee as negative from the Employee_details table. For this, we have to write the following query in SQL:

1. SELECT -Emp_Salary Employee_details ;

- Suppose, we want to see the salary of those employees as negative whose city is Kolkata in the Employee_details table. For this, we have to write the following query in SQL:

1. SELECT -Emp_Salary Employee_details WHERE Emp_City = 'Kolkata';

SQL Bitwise NOT Operator

The SQL Bitwise NOT operator provides the one's complement of the single numeric operand. This operator turns each bit of numeric value. If the bit of any numerical value is 001100, then this operator turns these bits into 110011.

Syntax of Bitwise NOT Operator

1. SELECT ~(column1), ~(column2), ~(columnN) FROM table_Name [WHERE conditions] ;

Let's understand the below example which explains how to execute the Bitwise NOT operator on the data of SQL table:

This example consists of a **Student_details** table, which has four columns **Roll_No**, **Stu_Name**, **Stu_Marks**, and **Stu_City**.

Emp Id	Stu Name	Stu Marks	Stu City
101	Sanjay	85	Delhi
102	Ajay	97	Chandigarh
103	Saket	45	Delhi
104	Abhay	68	Delhi
105	Sumit	60	Kolkata

If we want to perform the Bitwise Not operator on the marks column of **Student_details**, we have to write the following query in SQL:

1. SELECT ~Stu_Marks Employee_details ;

SQL Bitwise Operators

The **Bitwise Operators** in SQL perform the bit operations on the Integer values. To understand the performance of Bitwise operators, you just knew the basics of Boolean algebra.

Following are the two important logical operators which are performed on the data stored in the SQL database tables:

- 1. Bitwise AND (&)
- 2. Bitwise OR(|)

Bitwise AND (&)

The Bitwise AND operator performs the logical AND operation on the given Integer values. This operator checks each bit of a value with the corresponding bit of another value.

Syntax of Bitwise AND Operator

- 1. SELECT column1 & column2 & & columnN FROM table_Name [WHERE conditions] ;

Let's understand the below example which explains how to execute Bitwise AND operator on the data of SQL table:

This example consists of the following table, which has two columns. Each column holds numerical values.

When we use the Bitwise AND operator in SQL, then SQL converts the values of both columns in binary format, and the AND operation is performed on the converted bits.

After that, SQL converts the resultant bits into user understandable format, i.e., decimal format.

Column1	Column2
1	1
2	5
3	4
4	2
5	3

- o Suppose, we want to perform the Bitwise AND operator between both the columns of the above table. For this, we have to write the following query in SQL:

- 1. SELECT Column1 & Column2 From TABLE_AND ;

Bitwise OR (|)

The Bitwise OR operator performs the logical OR operation on the given Integer values. This operator checks each bit of a value with the corresponding bit of another value.

Syntax of Bitwise OR Operator

- 1. SELECT column1 | column2 | | columnN FROM table_Name [WHERE conditions] ;

Let's understand the below example which explains how to execute Bitwise OR operator on the data of SQL table:

This example consists of a table that has two columns. Each column holds numerical values.

When we used the Bitwise OR operator in SQL, then SQL converts the values of both columns in binary format, and the OR operation is performed on the binary bits. After that, SQL converts the resultant binary bits into user understandable format, i.e., decimal format.

Column1	Column2
1	1
2	5

3	4
4	2
5	3

- Suppose, we want to perform the Bitwise OR operator between both the columns of the above table. For this, we have to write the following query in SQL:

1. SELECT Column1 | Column2 From TABLE_OR ;

SQL Database

SQL Create Database

In SQL, the 'Create Database' statement is a first step for storing the structured data in the database.

The database developers and the users use this statement in SQL for creating the new database in the database systems. It creates the database with the name which has been specified in the Create Database statement.

Syntax of Create Database statement in SQL

1. **CREATE DATABASE** Database_Name;

In this syntax, **Database_Name** specifies the name of the database which we want to create in the system. We have to type the database name in query just after the 'Create Database' keyword.

Following are the most important points which are required to learn while creating a database:

- The database we want to create should be a simple and unique name, which can be easily identified.
- Database name should be no more than 128 characters.

Syntax of Create Database statement in MySQL

The same command is used in MySQL to create the new database for storing the structured data.

1. **CREATE DATABASE** Database_Name;

Syntax of Create Database in Oracle

There is no need to create the database in Oracle systems. In the Oracle database, we can directly create the database tables.

Examples of Create Database statement in SQL

In this article, we took the following two examples which will help how to run and perform the Create Database query in SQL:

Example 1:

This example creates the **Student** database. To create the Student database, you have to type the following command in Structured Query Language:

1. **CREATE DATABASE** Student ;

When this query is executed successfully, then it will show the following output:

Database created successfully

You can also verify that your database is created in SQL or not by using the following query:

1. SHOW **DATABASE** ;

SQL does not allow developers to create the database with the existing database name. Suppose if you want to create another Student database in the same database system, then the Create Database statement will show the following error in the output:

```
Can't create database 'Student'; database exists
```

So, firstly you have to delete the existing database by using the Drop Statement. You can also replace the existing database with the help of Replace keyword.

If you want to replace the existing Student database, then you have to type the following SQL query:

1. **CREATE** OR **REPLACE DATABASE** Student ;

Example 2:

Suppose, we want to create the Employee database in the system.

Firstly, we have to type the following command in Structured Query Language:

1. **CREATE DATABASE** Employee ;

When this query is executed successfully, then it will show the following output:

Database created successfully

You can also check that your database is created in SQL by typing the following query:

1. SHOW **DATABASE** ;

We know that SQL does not allow developers to create the database with the existing database name.

Suppose, we want to create another Employee database in the same database system, firstly, we have to delete the existing database using a drop statement, or we have to replace the existing Employee database with the help of the 'replace' keyword.

To replace the existing Employee database with a new Employee database, we have to type the following query in SQL:

1. **CREATE** OR **REPLACE DATABASE** Employee;

SQL DROP Database

The SQL Drop Database statement deletes the existing database permanently from the database system. This statement deletes all the views and tables if stored in the database, so be careful while using this query in SQL.

Following are the most important points which are required to learn before removing the database from the database system:

- This statement deletes all the data from the database. If you want to restore the deleted data in the future, you should keep the backup of data of that database which you want to delete.
- Another most important point is that you cannot delete that database from the system which is currently in use by another database user. If you do so, then the drop statement shows the following error on screen:

1. Cannot **drop database** "name_of_the_database" because it **is** currently in use.

Syntax of Drop Database Statement in SQL

1. **DROP DATABASE** Database_Name;

In this SQL syntax, we have to specify the name of that database which we want to delete permanently from the database system. We have to write the name of the database after the DROP DATABASE keyword in every example.

We can also delete multiple databases easily by using the single DROP syntax:



1. **DROP DATABASE** Database_Name1, [Database_Name2,, Database_NameN] ;

Using this statement, we have no need to write multiple statements for deleting multiple databases. We can specify all the databases by using a comma in a single statement, as shown in the above syntax.

Examples of Drop Database Statement in SQL

In this article, we took the following two examples that will help how to run and perform the Drop Database query in SQL:

Example1:

Suppose, we want to delete the Student database with all its data from the database system so, firstly we have to check that the Student database exists in the system or not by using the following statement:

1. SHOW DATABASES ;

If the Student database is shown in the output, then we have to type the following query in SQL for removing the Student database:

1. **DROP DATABASE** Student;

If the Student database does not exist in the database system and we run the above query in SQL, then the query will show the following output:

```
Can't drop database 'Student'; database doesn't exist
```

Example2:

Suppose, we want to delete the College database with all its tables and views from the database system, firstly we have to check that if the College database exists in the system or not by using the following statement:

1. SHOW DATABASES;

If the College database is shown in the output, then you have to type the following query in SQL for removing the College database permanently:

1. **DROP DATABASE** College;

If the College database does not exist in the database system, and we run the above query in SQL, then this query will show the following output:

```
Can't drop database 'College'; database doesn't exist
```

SQL RENAME Database

In some situations, database users and administrators want to change the name of the database for some technical reasons. So, the **Rename Database** statement in SQL is used to change the name of the existing database.

Sometimes, the Rename Database statement is used because the developers think that the original name is not more relevant to the data of the database, or they want to give a temporary name to that database.

Syntax of Rename Database in SQL

1. **ALTER DATABASE** old_database_name **MODIFY NAME** = new_database_name;
1. **EXEC** sp_renamedb'old_database_name' , 'new_database_name'

Syntax of Rename Database in MySQL

1. RENAME **DATABASE** old_database_name **TO** new_database_name;

This syntax is used when we want to change the name of the database in MySQL.

Examples of Rename Database in SQL

In this article, we have taken the following two examples which will help you how to run and perform the Rename Database query in SQL:

Example 1:

Suppose we want to rename the Student Database. For this, we have to type the following query in SQL:

1. **ALTER DATABASE** Student **MODIFY NAME** = College ;

This query will change the name of the database from Student to College. To run this query, we must ensure that the database Student exists in the current database server. If not, then it will show an error in the output.

Example 2:

Suppose we want to rename the Department Database. For this, we have to type the following query in SQL:

1. **ALTER DATABASE** Department **MODIFY NAME** = Company ;

This query changes the name of the database from Department to Company. To run this query, we must ensure that the database Department exists in the current database server. If not, then it will show an error in the output.

SQL SELECT Database

Suppose database users and administrators want to perform some operations on tables, views, and indexes on the specific existing database in SQL. Firstly, they have to select the database on which they want to run the database queries.

Any database user and administrator can easily select the particular database from the current database server using the **USE** statement in SQL.

Syntax of USE statement in SQL

1. USE database_name;

In this syntax, we have to define the name of the database after the **USE** keyword and the name of the database must be unique.

Syntax of USE statement in MySQL

1. USE database_name;

Syntax of USE statement in Oracle

There is no need to select the database in Oracle.

Examples of USE statement in SQL

In this article, we have taken the following three examples which will help you how to run and perform USE statement in SQL:

Example 1: Suppose, you want to work with the **Hospital** database. For this firstly, you have to check that if the Hospital database exists on the current database server or not by using the following query:

1. SHOW DATABASES;

If the Hospital database is shown in the output, then you have to execute the following query to select the Hospital database:

- 1. USE Hospital;

Example 2: Suppose, you want to work with another College database in SQL. For this firstly, you have to check that the College database exists on the current database server or not by using the following query:

- 1. SHOW DATABASES;

If the College database is shown in the result, then you have to execute the following query to select the College database:

- 1. USE College;

Example 3: Suppose you want to work with another School database in SQL. For this firstly, you have to check that the School database exists on the current database server or not by using the following query:

- 1. SHOW DATABASES;

If the School database is shown in the result, then you have to execute the following query to select the School database:

- 1. USE School;

SQL Table

SQL Table

Table is a collection of data, organized in terms of rows and columns. In DBMS term, table is known as relation and row as tuple.

Note: A table has a specified number of columns, but can have any number of rows.

Table is the simple form of data storage. A table is also considered as a convenient representation of relations.

Let's see an example of an employee table:

Employee		
EMP_NAME	ADDRESS	SALARY
Ankit	Lucknow	15000
Raman	Allahabad	18000
Mike	New York	20000

In the above table, "Employee" is the table name, "EMP_NAME", "ADDRESS" and "SALARY" are the column names. The combination of data of multiple columns forms a row e.g. "Ankit", "Lucknow" and 15000 are the data of one row.

SQL TABLE Variable

The **SQL Table variable** is used to create, modify, rename, copy and delete tables. Table variable was introduced by Microsoft.

It was introduced with SQL server 2000 to be an alternative of temporary tables.

It is a variable where we temporary store records and results. This is same like temp table but in the case of temp table we need to explicitly drop it.

Table variables are used to store a set of records. So declaration syntax generally looks like CREATE TABLE syntax.

- 1. **create table** "tablename"
- 2. ("column1" "data type",
- 3. "column2" "data type",
- 4. ...
- 5. "columnN" "data type");

When a transaction rolled back the data associated with table variable is not rolled back.

A table variable generally uses lesser resources than a temporary variable.

Table variable cannot be used as an input or an output parameter.

Topics of SQL TABLE Statement

SQL TABLE Variable

What TABLE variable can do?

SQL CREATE TABLE

How to create a table using SQL query>

SQL DROP TABLE

How to drop a table?

SQL DELETE TABLE

How to delete all the records of a table?

SQL RENAME TABLE

How to rename a table?

SQL TRUNCATE TABLE

How to truncate a table?

SQL COPY TABLE

How to copy a table?

SQL TEMP TABLE

What is temporary table? What are the advantage of temporary table?

SQL ALTER TABLE

How to add, modify, rename and drop column.

SQL CREATE TABLE

SQL CREATE TABLE statement is used to create table in a database.

If you want to create a table, you should name the table and define its column and each column's data type.

Let's see the simple syntax to create the table.

1. **create table** "tablename"
2. ("column1" "data type",
3. "column2" "data type",
4. "column3" "data type",
5. ...
6. "columnN" "data type");

The data type of the columns may vary from one database to another. For example, NUMBER is supported in Oracle database for integer value whereas INT is supported in MySQL.

Let us take an example to create a STUDENTS table with ID as primary key and NOT NULL are the constraint showing that these fields cannot be NULL while creating records in the table.

1. SQL> **CREATE TABLE** STUDENTS (

- 2. ID **INT** NOT NULL,
- 3. **NAME VARCHAR** (20) NOT NULL,
- 4. AGE **INT** NOT NULL,
- 5. ADDRESS **CHAR** (25),
- 6. **PRIMARY KEY** (ID)
- 7.);

You can verify it, if you have created the table successfully by looking at the message displayed by the SQL Server, else you can use DESC command as follows:

SQL> DESC STUDENTS;

FIELD	TYPE	NULL	KEY	DEFAULT	EXTRA
ID	Int(11)	NO	PRI		
NAME	Varchar(20)	NO			
AGE	Int(11)	NO			
ADDRESS	Varchar(25)	YES		NULL	

4 rows in set (0.00 sec)

Now you have the STUDENTS table available in your database and you can use to store required information related to students.

SQL CREATE TABLE Example in MySQL

Let's see the command to create a table in MySQL database.

- 1. **CREATE TABLE** Employee
- 2. (
- 3. EmployeeID **int**,
- 4. FirstName **varchar**(255),
- 5. LastName **varchar**(255),
- 6. Email **varchar**(255),
- 7. AddressLine **varchar**(255),
- 8. City **varchar**(255)
- 9.);

SQL CREATE TABLE Example in Oracle

Let's see the command to create a table in Oracle database.

- 1. **CREATE TABLE** Employee
- 2. (
- 3. EmployeeID number(10),
- 4. FirstName varchar2(255),
- 5. LastName varchar2(255),
- 6. Email varchar2(255),
- 7. AddressLine varchar2(255),
- 8. City varchar2(255)
- 9.);

SQL CREATE TABLE Example in Microsoft SQLServer

Let's see the command to create a table in SQLServer database. It is same as MySQL and Oracle.

- 1. **CREATE TABLE** Employee
- 2. (

3. EmployeeID **int**,
4. FirstName **varchar**(255),
5. LastName **varchar**(255),
6. Email **varchar**(255),
7. AddressLine **varchar**(255),
8. City **varchar**(255)
9.);

Create a Table using another table

We can create a copy of an existing table using the create table command. The new table gets the same column signature as the old table. We can select all columns or some specific columns.

If we create a new table using an old table, the new table will be filled with the existing value from the old table.

The basic syntax for creating a table with the other table is:

1. **CREATE TABLE** table_name **AS**
2. **SELECT** column1, column2,...
3. **FROM** old_table_name **WHERE** ;
4. The following SQL creates a copy **of** the employee **table**.
5. **CREATE TABLE** EmployeeCopy **AS**
6. **SELECT** EmployeeID, FirstName, Email
7. **FROM** Employee;

SQL Primary Key with CREATE TABLE Statement

The following query creates a PRIMARY KEY on the "D" column when the "Employee" table is created.

MySQL

1. **CREATE TABLE** Employee(
2. EmployeeID NOT NULL,
3. FirstName **varchar**(255) NOT NULL,
4. LastName **varchar**(255),
5. City **varchar**(255),
6. **PRIMARY KEY** (EmployeeID)
7.);

SQL Server / Oracle / MS Access

1. **CREATE TABLE** Employee(
2. EmployeeID NOT NULL **PRIMARY KEY**,
3. FirstName **varchar**(255) NOT NULL,
4. LastName **varchar**(255),
5. City **varchar**(255)
6.);

Use the following query to define a PRIMARY KEY constraints on multiple columns, and to allow naming of a PRIMARY KEY constraints.

For MySQL / SQL Server /Oracle / MS Access

1. **CREATE TABLE** Employee(
2. EmployeeID NOT NULL,
3. FirstName **varchar**(255) NOT NULL,
4. LastName **varchar**(255),
5. City **varchar**(255),
6. **CONSTRAINT** PK_Employee **PRIMARY KEY** (EmployeeID, FirstName)
7.);

SQL DROP TABLE

A SQL DROP TABLE statement is used to delete a table definition and all data from a table.

This is very important to know that once a table is deleted all the information available in the table is lost forever, so we have to be very careful when using this command.

Let's see the syntax to drop the table from the database.

- 1. **DROP TABLE** "table_name";

Let us take an example:

First we verify STUDENTS table and then we would delete it from the database.

- 1. SQL> **DESC** STUDENTS;

FIELD	TYPE	NULL	KEY	DEFAULT	EXTRA
ID	Int(11)	NO	PRI		
NAME	Varchar(20)	NO			
AGE	Int(11)	NO			
ADDRESS	Varchar(25)	YES		NULL	

1. 4 rows in set (0.00 sec)

This shows that STUDENTS table is available in the database, so we can drop it as follows:

- 1. SQL>**DROP TABLE** STUDENTS;

Now, use the following command to check whether table exists or not.

- 1. SQL> **DESC** STUDENTS;

1. Query OK, 0 rows affected (0.01 sec)

As you can see, table is dropped so it doesn't display it.

SQL DROP TABLE Example in MySQL

Let's see the command to drop a table from the MySQL database.

- 1. **DROP TABLE** table_name;

SQL DROP TABLE Example in Oracle

Let's see the command to drop a table from Oracle database. It is same as MySQL.

- 1. **DROP TABLE** table_name;

SQL DROP TABLE Example in Microsoft SQLServer

Let's see the command to drop a table from SQLServer database. It is same as MySQL.

- 1. **DROP TABLE** table_name;

SQL DELETE TABLE

The DELETE statement is used to delete rows from a table. If you want to remove a specific row from a table you should use WHERE condition.

- 1. **DELETE FROM** table_name [**WHERE** condition];

But if you do not specify the WHERE condition it will remove all the rows from the table.

1. **DELETE FROM** table_name;

There are some more terms similar to DELETE statement like as DROP statement and TRUNCATE statement but they are not exactly same there are some differences between them.

Difference between DELETE and TRUNCATE statements

There is a slight difference b/w delete and truncate statement. The **DELETE statement** only deletes the rows from the table based on the condition defined by WHERE clause or delete all the rows from the table when condition is not specified.

But it does not free the space containing by the table.

The **TRUNCATE statement:** it is used to delete all the rows from the table **and free the containing space**.

Let's see an "employee" table.

Emp_id	Name	Address	Salary
1	Aryan	Allahabad	22000
2	Shurabhi	Varanasi	13000
3	Pappu	Delhi	24000

Execute the following query to truncate the table:

1. **TRUNCATE TABLE** employee;

Difference b/w DROP and TRUNCATE statements

When you use the drop statement it deletes the table's row together with the table's definition so all the relationships of that table with other tables will no longer be valid.

When you drop a table:

- Table structure will be dropped
- Relationship will be dropped
- Integrity constraints will be dropped
- Access privileges will also be dropped

On the other hand when we **TRUNCATE** a table, the table structure remains the same, so you will not face any of the above problems.

SQL RENAME TABLE

In some situations, database administrators and users want to change the name of the table in the SQL database because they want to give a more relevant name to the table.

Any database user can easily change the name by using the RENAME TABLE and ALTER TABLE statement in Structured Query Language.

The RENAME TABLE and ALTER TABLE syntax help in changing the name of the table.

Syntax of RENAME statement in SQL

1. RENAME old_table _name To new_table_name ;

Examples of RENAME statement in SQL

Here, we have taken the following two different SQL examples, which will help you how to change the name of the SQL table in the database using RENAME statement:

Example 1: Let's take an example of a table named **Cars**:

Car Name	Car Color	Car Cost
Hyundai Creta	White	10,85,000
Hyundai Venue	White	9,50,000
Hyundai i20	Red	9,00,000
Kia Sonet	White	10,00,000
Kia Seltos	Black	8,00,000
Swift Dezire	Red	7,95,000

Table: Cars

- Suppose, you want to change the above table name into "Car_2021_Details". For this, you have to type the following RENAME statement in SQL:
 - RENAME Cars To Car_2021_Details ;
- After this statement, the table "Cars" will be changed into table name "Car_2021_Details".

Example 2: Let's take an example of a table named **Employee**:

Emp_Id	Emp_Name	Emp_Salary	Emp_City
201	Abhay	25000	Goa
202	Ankit	45000	Delhi
203	Bheem	30000	Goa
204	Ram	29000	Goa
205	Sumit	40000	Delhi

Table: Employee

- Suppose, you want to change the name of the above table into the "**Coding_Employees**". For this, you have to type the following RENAME statement in SQL:
 - RENAME Employee To Coding_Employees ;
- After this statement, the table "**Employee**" will be changed into the table name "**Coding_Employees**".

Syntax of ALTER TABLE statement in SQL

- ALTER TABLE old_table_name RENAME TO new_table_name;

In the Syntax, we have to specify the RENAME TO keyword after the old name of the table.

Examples of ALTER TABLE statement in SQL

Here, we have taken the following three different SQL examples, which will help you how to change the name of the table in the SQL database using ALTER TABLE statement:

Example 1: Let's take an example of a table named **Bikes**:

Bike_Name	Bike_Color	Bike_Cost
KTM DUKE	Black	185,000
Royal Enfield	Black	NULL
Pulsar	Red	90,0000

Apache	White	NULL
Livo	Black	80,000
KTM RC	Red	195,000

Table : Bikes

- Suppose, you want to change the name of the above table into "Bikes_Details" using ALTER TABLE statement. For this, you have to type the following query in SQL:
- ALTER TABLE Bikes RENAME TO Bikes_Details ;

After this statement, the table "Bikes" will be changed into the table name "Bikes_Details".

Example 2: Let's take an example of a table named **Student**:

Stu_ID	Stu_Name	Stu_Marks
1001	Abhay	85
1002	Ankit	75
1003	Bheem	60
1004	Ram	79
1005	Sumit	80

Table : Student

- Suppose, you want to change the name of the above table into "MCA_Student_Details" using ALTER TABLE statement. For this, you have to type the following query in SQL:
- ALTER TABLE Student RENAME TO MCA_Student_Details ;

After this statement, the table "Student" will be changed into table name "MCA_Student_Details".

Example 3: Let's take an example of a table named **Employee**:

Emp_Id	Emp_Name	Emp_Salary	Emp_City
201	Abhay	25000	Goa
202	Ankit	45000	Delhi
203	Bheem	30000	Goa
204	Ram	29000	Goa
205	Sumit	40000	Delhi

Table: Employee

- Suppose, you want to change the name of the above table into the "**Coding_Employees**" using an ALTER TABLE statement. For this, you have to type the following query in SQL:
- ALTER TABLE Employee RENAME To Coding_Employees ;

After this statement, the table "**Employee**" will be changed into the table name "**Coding_Employees**".

SQL TRUNCATE TABLE

A truncate SQL statement is used to remove all rows (complete data) from a table. It is similar to the DELETE statement with no WHERE clause.

TRUNCATE TABLE Vs DELETE TABLE

Truncate table is faster and uses lesser resources than DELETE TABLE command.

TRUNCATE TABLE Vs DROP TABLE

Drop table command can also be used to delete complete table but it deletes table structure too. TRUNCATE TABLE doesn't delete the structure of the table.

Let's see the syntax to truncate the table from the database.

- 1. TRUNCATE TABLE table_name;

For example, you can write following command to truncate the data of employee table

- 1. TRUNCATE TABLE Employee;

Note: The rollback process is not possible after truncate table statement. Once you truncate a table you cannot use a flashback table statement to retrieve the content of the table.

SQL COPY TABLE

If you want to copy the data of one SQL table into another SQL table in the same SQL server, then it is possible by using the SELECT INTO statement in SQL.

The SELECT INTO statement in Structured Query Language copies the content from one existing table into the new table. SQL creates the new table by using the structure of the existing table.

Syntax of SELECT INTO statement in SQL

- 1. SELECT * INTO New_table_name FROM old_table_name;

Examples of SELECT INTO statement in SQL

In this article, we have taken the following three different SQL examples which will help you how to copy the content of one table into another table in SQL:

Example 1: In this example, we have a table called **Cars** with three columns:

Car Name	Car Color	Car Cost
Hyundai Creta	White	10,85,000
Hyundai Venue	White	9,50,000
Hyundai i20	Red	9,00,000
Kia Sonet	White	10,00,000
Kia Seltos	Black	8,00,000
Swift Dezire	Red	7,95,000

Table: Cars

- Suppose you want to copy the content of the above Car table into the new table **Car_Details**. For this, you have to type the following query in SQL:
 - 1. SELECT * INTO Car_Details FROM Cars;
 - Let's check the **Car_Details** table is created successfully or not in the database:
 - 1. SELECT * FROM Car_Details;

Car Name	Car Color	Car Cost
Hyundai Creta	White	10,85,000
Hyundai Venue	White	9,50,000
Hyundai i20	Red	9,00,000
Kia Sonet	White	10,00,000
Kia Seltos	Black	8,00,000
Swift Dezire	Red	7,95,000

Table: Car_Details

Example 2: In this example, we have a table called **Employee** with four columns:

Emp_Id	Emp_Name	Emp_Salary	Emp_City
201	Abhay	25000	Goa
202	Ankit	45000	Delhi
203	Bheem	30000	Goa
204	Ram	29000	Goa
205	Sumit	40000	Delhi

- Suppose you want to copy the record of the above Employee table into the new table **Coding_Employees**. For this, you have to type the following query in SQL:

- SELECT * INTO Coding_Employees FROM Employee;
- Let's check the **Coding_Employees** table is created successfully or not in the database:
 - SELECT * FROM Coding_Employees;

Emp_Id	Emp_Name	Emp_Salary	Emp_City
201	Abhay	25000	Goa
202	Ankit	45000	Delhi
203	Bheem	30000	Goa
204	Ram	29000	Goa
205	Sumit	40000	Delhi

Table: Coding_Employees

Example 3: In this example, we have a table called **Student** with four columns:

RollNo	Name	Marks	Age
1001	Bhanu	88	17
1002	Raman	82	16
1003	Sumit	80	16
1004	Shobhit	95	15
1005	Akash	85	16

Table: Student

- Suppose you want to copy the record of the above Student table into the new table **Class_12_Students**. For this, you have to type the following query in SQL:

1. SELECT * INTO Class_12_Students FROM Student;
- Let's check the table is **Class_12_Students** table created successfully or not in the database:

1. SELECT * FROM Class_12_Students;

RollNo	Name	Marks	Age
1001	Bhanu	88	17
1002	Raman	82	16
1003	Sumit	80	16
1004	Shobhit	95	15
1005	Akash	85	16

Table: Class_12_Students

Example 4: In this example, we have a table called **Cars** with three columns:

Car Name	Car Color	Car Cost
Hyundai Creta	White	10,85,000
Hyundai Venue	White	9,50,000
Hyundai i20	Red	9,00,000
Kia Sonet	White	10,00,000
Kia Seltos	Black	8,00,000
Swift Dezire	Red	7,95,000

Table: Cars

- Suppose you want to copy **Car_Color** and **Car_Name** columns of the above Cars table into the new table **Car_Color**. For this, you have to type the following query in SQL:

1. SELECT Car_Name, Car_Color INTO Car_Color FROM Cars;
- Let's check the **Car_Color** table is created successfully or not in the database:

1. SELECT * FROM Car_Color;

Car Name	Car Color
Hyundai Creta	White
Hyundai Venue	White
Hyundai i20	Red
Kia Sonet	White
Kia Seltos	Black
Swift Dezire	Red

Table: Car_Color

Syntax of SELECT INTO statement with WHERE clause in SQL

- 1. SELECT * INTO New_table_name FROM old_table_name WHERE [condition] ;

Examples of SELECT INTO statement with WHERE clause in SQL

Here, we have taken the following three different SQL examples, which will help you how to copy the content of one table into another table with a specific condition in SQL:

Example 1: In this example, we have a table called **Cars** with three columns:

Car Name	Car Color	Car Cost
Hyundai Creta	Black	10,85,000
Hyundai Venue	Black	9,50,000
Hyundai i20	Red	9,00,000
Kia Sonet	White	10,00,000
Kia Seltos	Black	8,00,000
Swift Dezire	Red	7,95,000

Table: Cars

- Suppose we want to copy only the record of those cars whose color is black. For this, we have to type the following query in SQL:
- 1. SELECT * INTO Black_Car_Details FROM Cars WHERE Car_Color = 'Black';
- Let's check the **Black_Car_Details** table is created successfully or not in the database:
- 1. SELECT * FROM Black_Car_Details;

Car Name	Car Color	Car Cost
Hyundai Creta	Black	10,85,000
Hyundai Venue	Black	9,50,000
Kia Seltos	Black	8,00,000

Table: Black_Car_Details

Example 2: In this example, we have a table called **Employee** with four columns:

Emp_Id	Emp_Name	Emp_Salary	Emp_City
201	Abhay	45000	Goa
202	Ankit	45000	Delhi
203	Bheem	38000	Goa
204	Ram	49000	Goa
205	Sumit	40000	Delhi

Table: Employee

- Suppose we want to copy only the record of those employees whose Salary is more than 40,000. For this, we have to type the following query in SQL:
- 1. SELECT * INTO Emp_Salary_40000 FROM Cars WHERE Emp_Salary > 40000;
- Let's check the **Emp_Salary_40000** table created successfully or not in the database:
- 1. SELECT * FROM Emp_Salary_40000;

Emp_Id	Emp_Name	Emp_Salary	Emp_City
--------	----------	------------	----------

201	Abhay	45000	Goa
202	Ankit	45000	Delhi
204	Ram	49000	Goa

Table: Emp_Salary_40000

SQL TEMP TABLE

The concept of temporary table is introduced by SQL server. It helps developers in many ways:

Temporary tables can be created at run-time and can do all kinds of operations that a normal table can do. These temporary tables are created inside tempdb database.

There are two types of temp tables based on the behavior and scope.

- 1. Local Temp Variable
- 2. Global Temp Variable

Local Temp Variable

Local temp tables are only available at current connection time. It is automatically deleted when user disconnects from instances. It is started with hash (#) sign.

- 1. **CREATE TABLE #local temp table** (
- 2. **User** id **int**,
- 3. Username **varchar** (50),
- 4. **User** address **varchar** (150)
- 5.)

Global Temp Variable

Global temp tables name starts with double hash (##). Once this table is created, it is like a permanent table. It is always ready for all users and not deleted until the total connection is withdrawn.

- 1. **CREATE TABLE ##new global temp table** (
- 2. **User** id **int**,
- 3. **User** name **varchar** (50),
- 4. **User** address **varchar** (150)
- 5.)

SQL ALTER TABLE

The ALTER TABLE statement in Structured Query Language allows you to add, modify, and delete columns of an existing table. This statement also allows database users to add and remove various SQL constraints on the existing tables.

Any user can also change the name of the table using this statement.

ALTER TABLE ADD Column statement in SQL

In many situations, you may require to add the columns in the existing table. Instead of creating a whole table or database again you can easily add single and multiple columns using the ADD keyword.

Syntax of ALTER TABLE ADD Column statement in SQL

- 1. ALTER TABLE table_name ADD column_name column-definition;

The above syntax only allows you to add a single column to the existing table. If you want to add more than one column to the table in a single SQL statement, then use the following syntax:

- 1. ALTER TABLE table_name
- 2. ADD (column_Name1 column-definition,
- 3. column_Name2 column-definition,

4.
5. column_NameN column-definition);

Examples of ALTER TABLE ADD Column statement in SQL

Here, we have taken the following two different SQL examples, which will help you how to add the single and multiple columns in the existing table using ALTER TABLE statement:

Example 1: Let's take an example of a table named **Cars**:

Car Name	Car Color	Car Cost
Hyundai Creta	White	10,85,000
Hyundai Venue	White	9,50,000
Hyundai i20	Red	9,00,000
Kia Sonet	White	10,00,000
Kia Seltos	Black	8,00,000
Swift Dezire	Red	7,95,000

Table: Cars

- Suppose, you want to add the new column Car_Model in the above table. For this, you have to type the following query in the SQL:

1. ALTER TABLE Cars ADD Car_Model Varchar(20);

This statement will add the Car_Model column to the Cars table.

Example 2: Let's take an example of a table named **Employee**:

Emp_Id	Emp_Name	Emp_Salary	Emp_City
201	Abhay	25000	Goa
202	Ankit	45000	Delhi
203	Bheem	30000	Goa
204	Ram	29000	Goa
205	Sumit	40000	Delhi

Table: Employee

- Suppose, you want to add two columns, **Emp_ContactNo.** and **Emp_EmailID**, in the above Employee table. For this, you have to type the following query in the SQL:

1. ALTER TABLE Employee ADD (Emp_ContactNo. Number(13), Emp_EmailID varchar(50) ;

This statement will add Emp_ContactNo. and Emp_EmailID columns to the Employee table.

ALTER TABLE MODIFY Column statement in SQL

The MODIFY keyword is used for changing the column definition of the existing table.

Syntax of ALTER TABLE MODIFY Column statement in SQL

1. ALTER TABLE table_name MODIFY column_name column-definition;

This syntax only allows you to modify a single column of the existing table. If you want to modify more than one column of the table in a single SQL statement, then use the following syntax:

1. ALTER TABLE table_name
2. MODIFY (column_Name1 column-definition,
3. column_Name2 column-definition,
4.
5. column_NameN column-definition);

Examples of ALTER TABLE MODIFY Column statement in SQL

Here, we have taken the following two different SQL examples, which will help you how to modify single and multiple columns of the existing table using ALTER TABLE statement:

Example 1: Let's take an example of a table named **Cars**:

Car Name	Car Color	Car Cost
Hyundai Creta	White	10,85,000
Hyundai Venue	White	9,50,000
Hyundai i20	Red	9,00,000
Kia Sonet	White	10,00,000
Kia Seltos	Black	8,00,000
Swift Dezire	Red	7,95,000

Table: Cars

- Suppose, you want to modify the datatype of the **Car_Color** column of the above table. For this, you have to type the following query in the SQL:

1. ALTER TABLE Cars ADD Car_Color Varchar(50);

Example 2: Let's take an example of a table named **Employee**:

Emp_Id	Emp_Name	Emp_Salary	Emp_City
201	Abhay	25000	Goa
202	Ankit	45000	Delhi
203	Bheem	30000	Goa
204	Ram	29000	Goa
205	Sumit	40000	Delhi

Table: Employee

- Suppose, you want to modify the datatypes of two columns **Emp_ContactNo.** and **Emp_EmailID** of the above Employee table. For this, you have to type the following query in the SQL:

1. ALTER TABLE Employee ADD (Emp_ContactNo. Int, Emp_EmailID varchar(80) ;

ALTER TABLE DROP Column statement in SQL

In many situations, you may require to delete the columns from the existing table. Instead of deleting the whole table or database you can use DROP keyword for deleting the columns.

Syntax of ALTER TABLE DROP Column statement in SQL

1. ALTER TABLE table_name DROP Column column_name ;

Examples of ALTER TABLE DROP Column statement in SQL

Here, we have taken the following two different SQL examples, which will help you how to delete a column from the existing table using ALTER TABLE statement:

Example 1: Let's take an example of a table named **Cars**:

Car Name	Car Color	Car Cost
Hyundai Creta	White	10,85,000
Hyundai Venue	White	9,50,000
Hyundai i20	Red	9,00,000
Kia Sonet	White	10,00,000
Kia Seltos	Black	8,00,000
Swift Dezire	Red	7,95,000

Table: Cars

- Suppose, you want to delete the Car_Color column from the above table. For this, you have to type the following query in the SQL:
 - ALTER TABLE Cars DROP COLUMN Car_Color ;
- Let's check using the following statement that the Car_Color column is deleted from the table or not:
 - SELECT * FROM Cars;

Car Name	Car Cost
Hyundai Creta	10,85,000
Hyundai Venue	9,50,000
Hyundai i20	9,00,000
Kia Sonet	10,00,000
Kia Seltos	8,00,000
Swift Dezire	7,95,000

Table: Cars

Example 2: Let's take an example of a table named **Employee**:

Emp_Id	Emp_Name	Emp_Salary	Emp_City
201	Abhay	25000	Goa
202	Ankit	45000	Delhi
203	Bheem	30000	Goa
204	Ram	29000	Goa
205	Sumit	40000	Delhi

Table: Employee

- Suppose, you want to delete the **Emp_Salary and Emp_City** column from the above Employee table. For this, you have to type the following two different queries in the SQL:
 - ALTER TABLE Cars DROP COLUMN Emp_Salary ;
 - ALTER TABLE Cars DROP COLUMN Emp_City ;

ALTER TABLE RENAME Column statement in SQL

The RENAME keyword is used for changing the name of columns or fields of the existing table.

Syntax of ALTER TABLE RENAME Column statement in SQL

- ALTER TABLE table_name RENAME COLUMN old_name to new_name;

Examples of ALTER TABLE RENAME Column statement in SQL

Here, we have taken the following two different SQL examples, which will help you how to change the name of a column of the existing table using ALTER TABLE statement:

Example 1: Let's take an example of a table named **Cars**:

Car Name	Car Color	Car Cost
Hyundai Creta	White	10,85,000
Hyundai Venue	White	9,50,000
Hyundai i20	Red	9,00,000
Kia Sonet	White	10,00,000
Kia Seltos	Black	8,00,000
Swift Dezire	Red	7,95,000

Table: Cars

- Suppose, you want to change the name of the **Car_Color** column of the above Cars table. For this, you have to type the following query in the SQL:
- ALTER TABLE Cars RENAME COLUMN Car_Color to Colors;

This statement will change the name of a column of the Cars table. To see the changes, you have to type the following query:

- SELECT * FROM Cars;

Car Name	Car Color	Car Cost
Hyundai Creta	White	10,85,000
Hyundai Venue	White	9,50,000
Hyundai i20	Red	9,00,000
Kia Sonet	White	10,00,000
Kia Seltos	Black	8,00,000
Swift Dezire	Red	7,95,000

Table: Cars

Example 2: Let's take an example of a table named **Employee**:

Emp_Id	Emp_Name	Emp_Salary	Emp_City
201	Abhay	25000	Goa
202	Ankit	45000	Delhi
203	Bheem	30000	Goa

204	Ram	29000	Goa
205	Sumit	40000	Delhi

Table: Employee

- Suppose, you want to change the name of **the Emp_City** column of the above Employee table. For this, you have to type the following query in the SQL:

1. ALTER TABLE Employee RENAME COLUMN Emp_City to Emp_Address;

This statement will change the name of a column of the Employee table. To see the changes, you have to type the following query:

1. SELECT * FROM Employee;

Emp_Id	Emp_Name	Emp_Salary	Emp_Address
201	Abhay	25000	Goa
202	Ankit	45000	Delhi
203	Bheem	30000	Goa
204	Ram	29000	Goa
205	Sumit	40000	Delhi

Table: Employee

SQL Select

SQL SELECT Statement

The SELECT statement is the most commonly used command in Structured Query Language. It is used to access the records from one or more database tables and views. It also retrieves the selected data that follow the conditions we want.

By using this command, we can also access the particular record from the particular column of the table. The table which stores the record returned by the SELECT statement is called a result-set table.

Syntax of SELECT Statement in SQL

1. **SELECT** Column_Name_1, Column_Name_2,, Column_Name_N **FROM** Table_Name;

In this SELECT syntax, **Column_Name_1, Column_Name_2,, Column_Name_N** are the name of those columns in the table whose data we want to read.

If you want to access all rows from all fields of the table, use the following SQL SELECT syntax with * asterisk sign:

1. **SELECT * FROM** table_name;

Examples of SELECT Statement in SQL

Here, we took the following two different SQL examples which will help you to execute the SELECT statement for retrieving the records:

Example 1:

Firstly, we have to create the new table and then insert some dummy records into it.

Use the following query to create the **Student_Records** table in SQL:

- CREATE TABLE** Student_Records
- (
- Student_Id **Int PRIMARY KEY**,

- 4. First_Name **VARCHAR** (20),
- 5. Address **VARCHAR** (20),
- 6. Age **Int** NOT NULL,
- 7. Percentage **Int** NOT NULL,
- 8. Grade **VARCHAR** (10)
- 9.);

The following query inserts the record of intelligent students into the **Student_Records** table:

- 1. **INSERT INTO** Student **VALUES** (201, Akash, Delhi, 18, 89, A2),
- 2. (202, Bhavesh, Kanpur, 19, 93, A1),
- 3. (203, Yash, Delhi, 20, 89, A2),
- 4. (204, Bhavna, Delhi, 19, 78, B1),
- 5. (05, Yatin, Lucknow, 20, 75, B1),
- 6. (206, Ishika, Ghaziabad, 19, 51, C1),
- 7. (207, Vivek, Goa, 20, 62, B2);

The following SQL query displays all the values of each column from the above Student_records table:

- 1. **SELECT * FROM** Student_Records;

The output of the above query is:

Student_ID	First_Name	Address	Age	Percentage	Grade
201	Akash	Delhi	18	89	A2
202	Bhavesh	Kanpur	19	93	A1
203	Yash	Delhi	20	89	A2
204	Bhavna	Delhi	19	78	B1
205	Yatin	Lucknow	20	75	B1
206	Ishika	Ghaziabad	19	91	C1
207	Vivek	Goa	20	80	B2

Example 2:

The following query displays the values of particular column from the above **Student_Record** table:

- 1. **SELECT** Student_Id, Age, Percentage, Grade **FROM** Employee;

Student_ID	Age	Percentage	Grade
201	18	89	A2
202	19	93	A1
203	20	89	A2
204	19	78	B1
205	20	75	B1
206	19	91	C1
207	20	80	B2

SELECT Statement with WHERE clause

The WHERE clause is used with SELECT statement to return only those rows from the table, which satisfy the specified condition in the query.

In SQL, the WHERE clause is not only used with SELECT, but it is also used with other SQL statements such as UPDATE, ALTER, and DELETE statements.

Syntax of SELECT Statement with WHERE clause

1. **SELECT** * **FROM** Name_of_Table **WHERE** [condition];

In the syntax, we specify the condition in the WHERE clause using SQL logical or comparison operators.

Example of SELECT Statement with WHERE clause

Firstly, we have to create the new table and then insert some dummy records into it.

Use the following query to create the **Employee_Details** table in SQL:

1. **CREATE TABLE** Employee_Details
2. (
3. Employee_ID **INT** AUTO_INCREMENT **PRIMARY KEY**,
4. Emp_Name **VARCHAR** (50),
5. Emp_City **VARCHAR** (20),
6. Emp_Salary **INT** NOT NULL,
7. Emp_Panelty **INT** NOT NULL
8.);

The following INSERT query inserts the record of employees into the Employee_Details table:

1. **INSERT INTO** Employee_Details (Employee_ID, Emp_Name, Emp_City, Emp_Salary, Emp_Panelty) **VALUES** (101, Anuj, Ghaziabad, 25000, 500),
2. (102, Tushar, Lucknow, 29000, 1000),
3. (103, Vivek, Kolkata, 35000, 500),
4. (104, Shivam, Goa, 22000, 500);

The following SELECT query shows the data of the **Employee_Details** table:

1. **SELECT** * **FROM** Employee_Details;

Employee_Id	Emp_Name	Emp_City	Emp_Salary	Emp_Panelty
101	Anuj	Ghaziabad	25000	500
102	Tushar	Lucknow	29000	1000
103	Vivek	Kolkata	35000	500
104	Shivam	Goa	22000	500

The following query shows the record of those employees from the above table whose Emp_Panelty is 500:

1. **SELECT** * **FROM** Employee_Details **WHERE** Emp_Panelty = 500;

This SELECT query displays the following table in result:

Employee_Id	Emp_Name	Emp_City	Emp_Salary	Emp_Panelty
101	Anuj	Ghaziabad	25000	500
103	Vivek	Kolkata	35000	500
104	Shivam	Goa	22000	500

SQL SELECT Statement with GROUP BY clause

The GROUP BY clause is used with the SELECT statement to show the common data of the column from the table:

Syntax of SELECT Statement with GROUP BY clause

- 1. **SELECT** column_Name_1, column_Name_2,, column_Name_N aggregate_function_name(column_Name2) **FROM** table_name **GROUP BY** column_Name1;

Example of SELECT Statement with GROUP BY clause

Use the following query to create the **Cars_Details** table:

- 1. **CREATE TABLE** Cars_Details
- 2. (
- 3. Car_Number **INT PRIMARY KEY**,
- 4. Car_Name **VARCHAR** (50),
- 5. Car_Price **INT** NOT NULL,
- 6. Car_Amount**INT** NOT NULL
- 7.);

The following INSERT query inserts the record of cars into the **Cars_Details** table:

- 1. **INSERT INTO** Cars_Details (Car_Number, Car_Name, Car_Amount, Car_Price)
- 2. **VALUES** (2578, Creta, 3, 1500000),
- 3. (9258, Audi, 2, 3000000),
- 4. (8233, Venue, 6, 900000),
- 5. (6214, Nexon, 7, 1000000);

The following SELECT query displays the values in the output:

- 1. **SELECT * FROM** Cars_Details;

Car_Number	Car_Name	Car_Amount	Car_Price
2578	Creta	3	1000000
9258	Audi	2	900000
8233	Venue	6	900000
6214	Nexon	7	1000000

The following SELECT with GROUP BY query lists the number of cars of the same price:

- 1. **SELECT COUNT** (Car_Name), Car_Price **FROM** Cars_Details **GROUP BY** Car_Price;

The output of above GROUP BY query is shown below:

Output:

Count (Car_Name)	Car_Price
2	1000000
2	900000

SQL SELECT Statement with HAVING clause

The HAVING clause in the SELECT statement creates a selection in those groups which are defined by the GROUP BY clause.

Syntax of SELECT Statement with HAVING clause

- 1. **SELECT** column_Name_1, column_Name_2,, column_Name_N aggregate_function_name(column_Name_2) **FRO**
M table_name **GROUP BY** column_Name1 **HAVING** ;

Example of SELECT Statement with HAVING clause

Let's create the **Employee_Having** table in SQL using the below CREATE command:

1. **CREATE TABLE** Employee_Having
2. (
3. Employee_Id **INT PRIMARY KEY**,
4. Employee_Name **VARCHAR** (50),
5. Employee_Salary **INT** NOT NULL,
6. Employee_City **VARCHAR** (50)
7.);

The following INSERT query inserts the record of employees into the Employee_Having table:

1. **INSERT INTO** Employee_Having (Employee_Id, Employee_Name, Employee_Salary, Employee_City)
2. **VALUES** (201, Jone, 20000, Goa),
3. (202, Basant, 40000, Delhi),
4. (203, Rashet, 80000,Jaipur),
5. (204, Aunj, 20000, Goa),
6. (205, Sumit, 50000, Delhi);

The following SELECT query shows the values of Employee_Having table in the output:

1. **SELECT * FROM** Employee_Having;

Employee_Id	Employee_Name	Employee_Salary	Employee_City
201	Jone	20000	Goa
202	Basant	40000	Delhi
203	Rashet	80000	Jaipur
204	Anuj	20000	Goa
205	Sumit	50000	Delhi

The following query shows the total salary of those employees having more than 5000 from the above Employee_Having table:

1. **SELECT SUM** (Employee_Salary), Employee_City **FROM** Employee_Having **GROUP BY** Employee_City **HAVING SUM**(Employee_Salary)>5000;

This HAVING query with SELECT statement shows the following table:

Output:

SUM (Employee_Salary)	Employee_City
90000	Delhi
80000	Jaipur

SELECT Statement with ORDER BY clause

The ORDER BY clause with the SQL SELECT statement shows the records or rows in a sorted manner.

The ORDER BY clause arranges the values in both ascending and descending order. Few database systems arrange the values of column in ascending order by default.

Syntax of SELECT Statement with ORDER BY clause

1. **SELECT** Column_Name_1, Column_Name_2,, column_Name_N **FROM** table_name **WHERE** [Condition] **ORDER BY** [column_Name_1, column_Name_2,, column_Name_N **asc** | **desc**];

Example of SELECT Statement with ORDER BY clause in SQL

1. **CREATE TABLE** Employee_Order

- 2. (
- 3. Id **INT** NOT NULL,
- 4. FirstName **VARCHAR** (50),
- 5. Salary **INT**,
- 6. City **VARCHAR** (50)
- 7.);

The following INSERT query inserts the record of employees into the Employee_Having table:

- 1. **INSERT INTO** Employee_Order (Id, FirstName, Salary, City)
- 2. **VALUES** (201, Jone, 20000, Goa),
- 3. (202, Basant, 15000, Delhi),
- 4. (203, Rashet, 80000,Jaipur),
- 5. (204, Aunj, 90000, Goa),
- 6. (205, Sumit, 50000, Delhi);

The following SELECT query shows the values of the table in the output:

- 1. **SELECT * FROM** Employee_Order;

Id	FirstName	Salary	City
201	Jone	20000	Goa
202	Basant	15000	Delhi
203	Rashet	80000	Jaipur
204	Anuj	90000	Goa
205	Sumit	50000	Delhi

The following query sorts the salary of employees in descending order from the above Employee_Order table:

- 1. **SELECT * FROM** Employee_Order **ORDER BY** Emp_Salary **DESC**;

This SQL query shows the following table in result:

Output:

Emp_Id	Emp_Name	Emp_Salary	Emp_City
204	Anuj	90000	Goa
203	Rashet	80000	Jaipur
205	Sumit	50000	Delhi
201	Jone	20000	Goa
202	Basant	15000	Delhi

SQL SELECT UNIQUE

Actually, there is no difference between DISTINCT and UNIQUE.

SELECT UNIQUE is an old syntax which was used in oracle description but later ANSI standard defines DISTINCT as the official keyword.

After that oracle also added DISTINCT but did not withdraw the service of UNIQUE keyword for the sake of backward compatibility.

In simple words, we can say that SELECT UNIQUE statement is used to retrieve a unique or distinct element from the table.

Let's see the syntax of select unique statement.

1. **SELECT UNIQUE** column_name
2. **FROM** table_name;

SQL SELECT DISTINCT statement can also be used for the same cause.

SQL SELECT DISTINCT

The **SQL DISTINCT command** is used with SELECT key word to retrieve only distinct or unique data.

In a table, there may be a chance to exist a duplicate value and sometimes we want to retrieve only unique values. In such scenarios, SQL SELECT DISTINCT statement is used.

Note: SQL SELECT UNIQUE and SQL SELECT DISTINCT statements are same.

Let's see the syntax of select distinct statement.

1. **SELECT DISTINCT** column_name ,column_name
2. **FROM** table_name;

Let's try to understand it by the table given below:

Student_Name	Gender	Mobile_Number	HOME_TOWN
Rahul Ojha	Male	7503896532	Lucknow
Disha Rai	Female	9270568893	Varanasi
Sonoo Jaiswal	Male	9990449935	Lucknow

Here is a table of students from where we want to retrieve distinct information For example: distinct home-town.

1. **SELECT DISTINCT** home_town
2. **FROM** students

Now, it will return two rows.

HOME_TOWN
Lucknow
Varanasi

SQL SELECT COUNT

The **SQL COUNT()** is a function that returns the number of records of the table in the output.

This function is used with the SQL SELECT statement.

Let's take a simple example: If you have a record of the voters in the selected area and want to count the number of voters, then it is very difficult to do it manually, but you can do it easily by using SQL SELECT COUNT query.

Syntax of Select Count Function in SQL

1. **SELECT COUNT**(column_name) **FROM** table_name;

In the syntax, we have to specify the column's name after the COUNT keyword and the name of the table on which the Count function is to be executed.

Examples of Select Count Function in SQL

In this article, we have taken the following two SQL examples that will help you to run the Count function in the query:

Example 1: In this example, we have a table called **Bike** with three columns:

Bike_Name	Bike_Color	Bike_Cost
Pulsar	Black	185,000
Apache	Black	NULL
KTM RC	Red	90,0000
Royal Enfield	White	NULL
Livo	Black	80,000
KTM DUKE	Red	195,000

- Suppose, you want to count the total number of bike colors from **Bike** Table. For this operation, you have to write the following SQL statement:

1. **SELECT COUNT** (Bike_Color) **AS** TotalBikeColor **FROM** Bikes ;

This query will show the following output on the screen:

TotalBikeColor
6

The output of this query is six because the **Bike_Color** column does not contain any NULL value.

- Suppose, you want to count the total values of **the Bike_Cost** column from the above **Bike** Table. For this operation, you have to write the following statement in SQL:

1. **SELECT COUNT** (Bike_Cost) **AS** TotalBikeCost **FROM** Bikes ;

This query will show the following output on the screen:

TotalBikeCost
4

The output of this query is four because two values of the Bike_Cost column are NULL and, these two NULL values are excluded from the count function. That's why this query shows four instead of 6 in the output.

Example 2: In this example, we have an **Employee_details** table with four columns:

Emp_Id	Emp_Name	Emp_Salary	Emp_City
2001	Saurabh	25000	NULL
2002	Ram	29000	Delhi
2003	Sumit	30000	NULL
2004	Ankit	45000	Goa
2005	Bheem	40000	NULL

- Suppose, you want to count the total values of **the Emp_City** column of the above **Employee_details** table. For this query, you have to write the following statement in Structured Query Language:

1. **SELECT COUNT** (Emp_City) **AS** TotalCity **FROM** Employee_details ;

This query will show the following output on the screen:

TotalCity

2

The output of this query is two because the three values of the **Emp_City** column are NULL. And, these three NULL values are excluded from the count function. That's why this query shows two instead of 5 in the output.

Select Count(*) Function in SQL

The count(*) function in SQL shows all the Null and Non-Null records present in the table.

Syntax of Count (*) Function in SQL

1. **SELECT COUNT(*) FROM** table_name;

Example of Count (*) Function in SQL

In this example, we have the following **Bike** table with three columns:

Bike_Name	Bike_Color	Bike_Cost
Livo	Black	185,000
Apache	Red	NULL
Pulsar	Red	90,0000
Royal Enfield	Black	NULL
KTM DUKE	Black	80,000
KTM RC	White	195,000

- Suppose, you want to count the total number of records from the **Bike** Table. For this condition, you have to write the following statement in Structured Query Language:

1. **SELECT COUNT (*) FROM** Bikes ;

This query will show the following output on the screen:

Count(*)
6

SQL Count() Function With WHERE Clause

We can also use the Count() function with the WHERE clause. The Count Function with WHERE clause in the SELECT statement shows those records that matched the specified criteria.

Syntax of Count() Function With WHERE clause in SQL

1. **SELECT COUNT**(column_name) **FROM** table_name **WHERE** [condition];

Examples of Count Function With WHERE clause in SQL

The following two examples will help you to run the Count function with the WHERE clause in the SQL query:

Example 1: In this example, we have the following **Bike** table with three columns:

Bike_Name	Bike_Color	Bike_Cost
Apache	Black	90,0000
Livo	Black	NULL
KTM RC	Red	185,000
KTM DUKE	White	NULL

Royal Enfield	Red	80,000
Pulsar	Black	195,000

- Suppose, you want to count the total number of bikes whose color is black. For this, you have to type the following statement in SQL:

1. **SELECT COUNT** (Bike_Name) **AS** TotalBikeBlackColor **FROM** Bikes **WHERE** Bike_Color = 'Black';

This query will show the following output on the screen:

TotalBikeBlackColor
3

Example 2: In this example, we have an **Employee_details** table with four columns:

Emp_Id	Emp_Name	Emp_Salary	Emp_City
2001	Bheem	30000	Jaipur
2002	Ankit	45000	Delhi
2003	Sumit	40000	Delhi
2004	Ram	29000	Goa
2005	Abhay	25000	Delhi

- Suppose, you want to count the total number of those employees who belong to Delhi city. For this, you have to write the following SQL statement:

1. **SELECT COUNT** (Emp_Name) **AS** TotalEmpCity **FROM** Employee_details **WHERE** Emp_City = 'Delhi';

This query will show the following output on the screen:

TotalEmpCity
3

SQL Count Function With DISTINCT keyword

The DISTINCT keyword with the COUNT function shows only the numbers of unique rows of a column.

Syntax of Count Function With DISTINCT keyword in SQL

1. **SELECT COUNT**(**DISTINCT** column_name) **FROM** table_name **WHERE** [condition];

Examples of Count Function With DISTINCT keyword in SQL

The following two examples will help you how to run the Count function with the DISTINCT keyword in the SQL query:

Example 1:

In this example, we have taken the following **Cars** table with three columns:

Car_Name	Car_Color	Car_Cost
i20	White	10,85,000
Hyundai Venue	Black	9,50,000
Swift Dezire	Red	9,00,000
Hyundai Creta	White	7,95,000

Kia Seltos	White	8,00,000
Kia Sonet	Red	10,00,000

- Suppose, you want to count the unique colors of a car from the above table. For this query, you have to write the below statement in SQL:

1. **SELECT COUNT (DISTINCT Car_Color) AS Unique_Car_Color FROM Cars ;**

This query will show the following output on the screen:

Unique_Car_Color
3

The output of this query is three because there are three unique values of the car.

Example 2:

In this example, we have taken an **Employee** table with four columns:

Emp_Id	Emp_Name	Emp_Salary	Emp_City
2001	Sumit	25000	Jaipur
2002	Ram	45000	Delhi
2003	Bheem	25000	Delhi
2004	Ankit	29000	Goa
2005	Abhay	40000	Delhi

- Suppose, you want to count the unique values of the **Emp_Salary**field from the Employee_details table. For this, you have to write the following statement in Structured Query Language:

1. **SELECT COUNT (DISTINCT Emp_Salary) AS Unique_Salary FROM Employee ;**

This query will show the following output on the screen:

Unique_Salary
4

SQL SELECT TOP

The **SELECT TOP** statement in SQL shows the limited number of records or rows from the database table. The TOP clause in the statement specifies how many rows are returned.

It shows the top N number of rows from the tables in the output. This clause is used when there are thousands of records stored in the database tables.

Let's take a simple example: If a Student table has a large amount of data about students, the select TOP statement determines how much student data will be retrieved from the given table.

Note: All the database systems do not support the TOP keyword for selecting the limited number of records. Oracle supports the ROWNUM keyword, and MySQL supports the LIMIT keyword.

Syntax of TOP Clause in SQL

1. **SELECT TOP number | percent column_Name1, column_Name2,, column_NameN FROM table_name WHERE [Condition] ;**

In the syntax, **the number** denotes the number of rows shown from the top in the output. column_Name denotes the column whose record we want to show in the output. We can also specify the condition using the WHERE clause.

Examples of TOP Clause in SQL

The following four SQL examples will help you how to use the Number and Percent in SQL TOP clause in the query:

Example 1: In this example, we have a table called **Cars** with three columns:

Car Name	Car Color	Car Cost
Hyundai Creta	White	10,85,000
Hyundai Venue	White	9,50,000
Hyundai i20	Red	9,00,000
Kia Sonet	White	10,00,000
Kia Seltos	Black	8,00,000
Swift Dezire	Red	7,95,000

- Suppose, you want to show the first three Names and Color of Car from the above table. To do this, you have to type the following query in SQL:

1. SELECT TOP 3 Car_Name, Car_Color FROM Cars;

This query shows the following table on the screen:

Car_Name	Car_Color
Hyundai Creta	White
Hyundai Venue	White
Hyundai i20	Red

Example 2: In this example, we have a table called **Student** with three columns:

Stu_ID	Stu_Name	Stu_Marks
1001	Abhay	85
1002	Ankit	75
1003	Bheem	60
1004	Ram	79
1005	Sumit	80

- Suppose, you want to show the details of the first four students in the result from the above table. To do this, you have to type the following query in SQL:

1. SELECT TOP 4 * FROM Student;

This query shows the following table on the screen in the SQL output:

Stu_ID	Stu_Name	Stu_Marks
--------	----------	-----------

1001	Abhay	85
1002	Ankit	75
1003	Bheem	60
1004	Ram	79

Example 3: In this example, we have a table called **Employee** with four columns:

Emp_Id	Emp_Name	Emp_Salary	Emp_City
201	Abhay	25000	Goa
202	Ankit	45000	Delhi
203	Bheem	30000	Goa
204	Ram	29000	Goa
205	Sumit	40000	Delhi

- Suppose, you want to show the details of those first four employees whose city is Goa from the above table. To do this, you have to type the following query in SQL:

1. SELECT TOP 4 * FROM Employee WHERE Emp_City = Goa ;

This query shows the following table on the screen in the SQL output:

Emp_Id	Emp_Name	Emp_Salary	Emp_City
201	Abhay	25000	Goa
203	Bheem	30000	Goa
204	Ram	29000	Goa

Example 4: In this example, we have a table called **Bikes** with three columns:

Bike_Name	Bike_Color	Bike_Cost
KTM DUKE	Black	185,000
Royal Enfield	Black	NULL
Pulsar	Red	90,0000
Apache	White	NULL
Livo	Black	80,000
KTM RC	Red	195,000

- Suppose, you want to show the 50 percent of data from the above table. To do this, you have to type the following query in SQL:

1. SELECT TOP 50 PERCENT * FROM Bikes;

This query shows the following table on the screen:

Bike_Name	Bike_Color	Bike_Cost
KTM DUKE	Black	185,000
Royal Enfield	Black	NULL
Pulsar	Red	90,0000

Syntax of LIMIT Clause in MySQL

1. SELECT column_Name1,column_Name2,, column_NameN FROM table_name LIMIT value;

In the syntax, we have to specify the value after the LIMIT keyword. The value denotes the number of rows to be shown from the top in the output.

Example of LIMIT Clause in MySQL

The following SQL example will help you how to use the LIMIT clause in the query. In this example, we have a table called **Cars** with three columns:

Car Name	Car Color	Car Cost
Hyundai Creta	White	10,85,000
Hyundai Venue	White	9,50,000
Hyundai i20	Red	9,00,000
Kia Sonet	White	10,00,000
Kia Seltos	Black	8,00,000
Swift Dezire	Red	7,95,000

- Suppose, you want to show the first three records of Car using a LIMIT clause in MySQL. To do this, you have to type the following query in MySQL:

1. SELECT * FROM Cars LIMIT 3;

This query shows the following table on the screen:

Car Name	Car Color	Car Cost
Hyundai Creta	White	10,85,000
Hyundai Venue	White	9,50,000
Hyundai i20	Red	9,00,000

Syntax of ROWNUM keyword in WHERE Clause in Oracle database

1. SELECT column_Name1,column_Name2,, column_NameN FROM table_name WHERE ROWNUM <= value;

In the syntax, we have to assign the value to ROWNUM in the WHERE clause. The value denotes the number of rows to be shown from the top in the output.

Example of ROWNUM keyword in WHERE Clause in Oracle

The following SQL example will help you how to use the ROWNUM keyword in the query. In this example, we have a table called **Cars** with three columns:

Car Name	Car Color	Car Cost
Hyundai Creta	White	10,85,000
Hyundai Venue	White	9,50,000
Hyundai i20	Red	9,00,000
Kia Sonet	White	10,00,000
Kia Seltos	Black	8,00,000
Swift Dezire	Red	7,95,000

- Suppose, you want to show the first three records of Car using the ROWNUM keyword in Oracle. To do this, you have to type the following query in the Oracle database:

1. `SELECT * FROM Cars WHERE ROWNUM <= 3;`

This query shows the following table on the screen:

Car Name	Car Color	Car Cost
Hyundai Creta	White	10,85,000
Hyundai Venue	White	9,50,000
Hyundai i20	Red	9,00,000

SQL SELECT FIRST

The SQL first() function is used to return the first value of the selected column.

Let's see the syntax of sql select first() function:

1. `SELECT FIRST(column_name) FROM table_name;`

Here a point is notable that first function is only supported by MS Access.

If you want to retrieve the first value of the "customer_name" column from the "customers" table, you need to write following query:

1. `SELECT FIRST(customer_name) AS first_customer FROM customers;`

Let us take the example of CUSTOMERS to examine SQL SELECT FIRST command:

Table CUSTOMERS

CUSTOMER_NAME	AGE	ADDRESS	EXPENDITURE
KAMAL SHARMA	26	GHAZIABAD	6000
ROBERT PETT	23	NEWYORK	26000

SHIKHA SRIVASTAV	22	DELHI	9000
------------------	----	-------	------

If you want to retrieve the first value of the "customer_name" column from the "customers" table, you need to write following query:

Let's see the syntax of sql select first() function:

1. **SELECT FIRST** (CUSTOMER_NAME) **AS** first_customer **FROM** CUSTOMERS;
2. **After** that query, you will find the result:
3. KAMAL SHARMA

Note: The SELECT FIRST statement is only supported by MS Access. This statement doesn't work with other databases like Oracle, MySQL etc.

SQL SELECT LAST

The **LAST()** function in Structured Query Language shows the last value from the specified column of the table.

Note: This SQL function is only supported in Microsoft Access database. Oracle supports ORDER BY and ROWNUM keywords, and MySQL supports the LIMIT keyword for selecting the last record.

Syntax of LAST() Function

1. **SELECT LAST** (Field_Name) **FROM** Table_Name ;

In the above syntax, the LAST keyword denotes the last row to be shown from the table in the output, and the **Field_Name** denotes the column whose value we want to show.

Example of the LAST function in SQL

Example 1:

Firstly, we have to create a table and insert the data into the table in SQL.

The following SQL statement creates the **Student_Details** table with **Student_ID** as the primary key:

1. **CREATE TABLE** Student_Details
2. (
3. Student_ID **INT** NOT NULL,
4. Student_Name **varchar**(100),
5. Student_Course **varchar**(50),
6. Student_Age **INT**,
7. Student_Marks **INT**
8.);

The following SQL queries insert the record of students into the above table using INSERT INTO statement:

1. **INSERT INTO** Student_Details **VALUES** (101, Anuj, B.tech, 20, 88);
2. **INSERT INTO** Student_Details **VALUES** (102, Raman, MCA, 24, 98);
3. **INSERT INTO** Student_Details **VALUES** (104, Shyam, BBA, 19, 92);
4. **INSERT INTO** Student_Details **VALUES** (107, Vikash, B.tech, 20, 78);
5. **INSERT INTO** Student_Details **VALUES** (111, Monu, MBA, 21, 65);
6. **INSERT INTO** Student_Details **VALUES** (114, Jones, B.tech, 18, 93);
7. **INSERT INTO** Student_Details **VALUES** (121, Parul, BCA, 20, 97);
8. **INSERT INTO** Student_Details **VALUES** (123, Divya, B.tech, 21, 89);
9. **INSERT INTO** Student_Details **VALUES** (128, Hemant, MBA, 23, 90);
10. **INSERT INTO** Student_Details **VALUES** (130, Nidhi, BBA, 20, 88);
11. **INSERT INTO** Student_Details **VALUES** (132, Priya, MBA, 22, 99);
12. **INSERT INTO** Student_Details **VALUES** (138, Mohit, MCA, 21, 92);

Let's see the record of the above table using the following SELECT statement:

1. **SELECT * FROM** Student_Details;

Student_ID	Student_Name	Student_Course	Student_Age	Student_Marks
101	Anuj	B.tech	20	88
102	Raman	MCA	24	98
104	Shyam	BBA	19	92
107	Vikash	B.tech	20	78
111	Monu	MBA	21	65
114	Jones	B.tech	18	93
121	Parul	BCA	20	97
123	Divya	B.tech	21	89
128	Hemant	MBA	23	90
130	Nidhi	BBA	20	88
132	Priya	MBA	22	99
138	Mohit	MCA	21	92

The following query shows the last Student_Name from the above table in the output:

1. **SELECT LAST** (Student_Name) **AS** Last_Student **FROM** Student_Details;

Output:

Last_Student
Mohit

Syntax of LIMIT Clause in MySQL

1. **SELECT** column_Name **FROM** Table_Name **ORDER BY** Column_Name **DESC** LIMIT 1;

In this MySQL syntax, we have to specify the value 1 just after the LIMIT keyword for indicating the single row/record.

Example of LIMIT Clause in MySQL

Let's take the following Employee table to explain how to use the LIMIT clause in MySQL for accessing the last record:

Employee_Id	Emp_Name	Emp_City	Emp_Salary	Emp_Bonus
101	Anuj	Ghaziabad	35000	2000
102	Tushar	Lucknow	29000	3000
103	Vivek	Kolkata	35000	2500
104	Shivam	Goa	22000	3000

The following MySQL query shows the last value of the **Emp_City** column from the above Employee table:

1. **SELECT** Emp_City **FROM** Employee **ORDER BY** Emp_City **DESC** LIMIT 1;

Output:

```
Goa
```

ROWNUM keyword in Oracle

The syntax for accessing the last record from the Oracle database is given below:

1. **SELECT** Column_Name **FROM** Table_Name **ORDER BY** Column_Name **DESC WHERE** ROWNUM <= 1;

In this Oracle syntax, we have to specify the ROWNUM keyword, which is less than and equal to 1. In Oracle, the ROWNUM keyword is used in the WHERE clause for retrieving the last record from the table.

Example of ROWNUM Clause in Oracle

Let's take the following Cars table to explain how to use the ROWNUM keyword in MySQL:

Car_Number	Car_Name	Car_Amount	Car_Price
2578	Creta	3	900000
9258	Audi	2	1100000
8233	Venue	6	900000
6214	Nexon	7	1000000

The following MySQL query shows the last name of the car from the **Car_Name** column of the Cars table:

1. **SELECT** Car_Name **FROM** Cars **ORDER BY** Car_Name **DESC WHERE** ROWNUM <= 1;

Output:

```
Nexon
```

SQL SELECT RANDOM

The SQL SELECT RANDOM() function returns the random row. It can be used in online exam to display the random questions.

There are a lot of ways to select a random record or row from a database table. Each database server needs different SQL syntax.

If you want to select a random row with **MY SQL**:

1. **SELECT column FROM table**
2. **ORDER BY** RAND ()
3. LIMIT 1

If you want to select a random row with **Microsoft SQL server**:

1. **SELECT TOP 1 column FROM table**
2. **ORDER BY** NEW ID()

If you want to select a random record with **ORACLE**:

1. **SELECT column FROM**
2. (**SELECT column FROM table**
3. **ORDER BY** dbms_random.value)

4. **WHERE** rownum =1

If you want to select a random row with **PostgreSQL**:

- 1. **SELECT column FROM table**
- 2. **ORDER BY** RAND()
- 3. **LIMIT** 1

SQL SELECT AS

- SQL '**AS**' is used to assign a new name temporarily to a table column or even a table.
- It makes an easy presentation of query results and allows the developer to label results more accurately without permanently renaming table columns or even the table itself.
- Let's see the syntax of select as:

- 1. **SELECT** Column_Name1 **AS** New_Column_Name, Column_Name2 **As** New_Column_Name **FROM** Table_Name;

Here, the Column_Name is the name of a column in the original table, and the New_Column_Name is the name assigned to a particular column only for that specific query. This means that New_Column_Name is a temporary name that will be assigned to a query.

Assigning a temporary name to the column of a table:

Let us take a table named orders, and it contains the following data:

Day_of_order	Customer	Product	Quantity
11-09-2001	Ajeet	Mobile	2
13-12-2001	Mayank	Laptop	20
26-12-2004	Balaswamy	Water cannon	35

Example:

Suppose you want to rename the 'day_of_order' column and the 'customer' column as 'Date' and 'Client', respectively.

Query:

- 1. **SELECT** day_of_order **AS** 'Date', Customer **As** 'Client', Product, Quantity **FROM** orders;

The result will be shown as this table:

Day_of_order	Customer	Product	Quantity
11-09-2001	Ajeet	Mobile	2
13-12-2001	Mayank	Laptop	20
26-12-2004	Balaswamy	Water cannon	35

From the above results, we can see that temporarily the 'Day_of_order' is renamed as 'date' and 'customer' is renamed as 'client'.

Note: SQL AS is the same as SQL ALIAS.

Let us take another example. Consider we have a students table with the following data.

Student_RollNo	Student_Name	Student_Gender	Student_MobileNumber	Student_HomeTown	Student_Age	Student_MotherName
----------------	--------------	----------------	----------------------	------------------	-------------	--------------------

1	Rohit More	Male	9890786123	Lucknow	23	75
2	Kunal Shah	Male	7789056784	Chandigarh	20	92
3	Kartik Goenka	Male	9908743576	Ahemdabad	22	89
4	Anupama Shah	Female	8890907656	Chennai	24	92
5	Snehal Jain	Female	8657983476	Surat	21	94

Example 1:

Write a query to get the student name and the average of the percentage of the student under the temporary column name 'Student' and 'Student_Percentage', respectively.

Query:

- `SELECT Student_Name AS Student, AVG (Student_Percentage) AS Average_Percentage FROM students;`

Here, to calculate the average, we have used **AVG () function**. Further, the calculated average value of the percentage will be stored under the temporary name 'Average_Percentage'.

The result will be shown as this table:

Student	Average_Percentage
Rohit More	88.4000

Example 2:

Write a query to get the student roll number and the student mobile number under the temporary column name 'Roll No' and 'Mobile Number', respectively.

Query:

- `mysql> SELECT Student_RollNo AS 'Roll No', Student_PhoneNumber AS 'Mobile Number' FROM students;`

The result will be shown as this table:

Roll No	Mobile Number
1	9890786123
2	7789056784
3	9908743576
4	8890907656
5	8657983476

Example 3:

Write a query to get the student roll number and the student phone number, home town under the temporary column name 'Roll No' and 'Student_Info', respectively.

Query:

- `mysql> SELECT Student_RollNo AS 'Roll No', CONCAT (Student_PhoneNumber, ', ', Student_HomeTown) AS Student_Info FROM students;`

Here, the **CONCAT () function** combines two different columns, student phone number and the home town, together in a single column. Further, the combined values of both these columns are stored under the temporarily assigned name 'Student_Info'.

The result will be shown as this table:

Roll No	Mobile Number
1	9890786123, Lucknow
2	7789056784, Chandigarh
3	9908743576, Ahemdabad
4	8890907656, Chennai
5	8657983476, Surat

Assigning a temporary name to a table

Instead of remembering the table names, we can create an alias of them. We can assign a temporary name to the columns of a table; similarly, we can create an alias of a table.

Let's understand it with the help of an example.

Write a query to create an alias of a table named 'students'.

Query:

1. mysql> **SELECT** s.Student_RollNo, s.Student_Name, s.Student_Gender, s.Student_PhoneNumber, s.Student_HomeTown **FROM** students **AS** s **WHERE** s.Student_RollNo = 3;

Here, 's' is the alias, i.e., the temporary name assigned to the 'students' table.

The result will be shown as this table:

Student_RollNo	Student_Name	Student_Gender	Student_MobileNumber	Student_HomeTown
3	Kartik Goenka	Male	9908743576	

HAVING Clause in SQL

The HAVING clause places the condition in the groups defined by the GROUP BY clause in the SELECT statement.

This SQL clause is implemented after the 'GROUP BY' clause in the 'SELECT' statement.

This clause is used in SQL because we cannot use the WHERE clause with the SQL aggregate functions. Both WHERE and HAVING clauses are used for filtering the records in SQL queries.

Difference between HAVING and WHERE Clause

The difference between the WHERE and HAVING clauses in the database is the most important question asked during an IT interview.

The following table shows the comparisons between these two clauses, but the main difference is that the [WHERE clause](#) uses condition for filtering records before any groupings are made, while HAVING clause uses condition for filtering values from a group.

HAVING	WHERE
1. The HAVING clause is used in database systems to fetch the	1. The WHERE clause is used in database systems to fetch the

data/values from the groups according to the given condition.	data/values from the tables according to the given condition.
2. The HAVING clause is always executed with the GROUP BY clause.	2. The WHERE clause can be executed without the GROUP BY clause.
3. The HAVING clause can include SQL aggregate functions in a query or statement.	3. We cannot use the SQL aggregate function with WHERE clause in statements.
4. We can only use SELECT statement with HAVING clause for filtering the records.	4. Whereas, we can easily use WHERE clause with UPDATE, DELETE, and SELECT statements.
5. The HAVING clause is used in SQL queries after the GROUP BY clause.	5. The WHERE clause is always used before the GROUP BY clause in SQL queries.
6. We can implements this SQL clause in column operations.	6. We can implements this SQL clause in row operations.
7. It is a post-filter.	7. It is a pre-filter.
8. It is used to filter groups.	8. It is used to filter the single record of the table.

Syntax of HAVING clause in SQL

1. **SELECT** column_Name1, column_Name2,, column_NameN aggregate_function_name(column_Name) **FROM** tabl
e_name **GROUP BY** column_Name1 **HAVING** condition;

Examples of HAVING clause in SQL

In this article, we have taken the following four different examples which will help you how to use the HAVING clause with different SQL aggregate functions:

Example 1: Let's take the following **Employee** table, which helps you to analyze the HAVING clause with SUM aggregate function:

Emp_Id	Emp_Name	Emp_Salary	Emp_City
201	Abhay	2000	Goa
202	Ankit	4000	Delhi
203	Bheem	8000	Jaipur
204 Ram	2000	Goa	
205	Sumit	5000	Delhi

If you want to add the salary of employees for each city, you have to write the following query:

1. **SELECT** **SUM**(Emp_Salary), Emp_City **FROM** Employee **GROUP BY** Emp_City;

The output of the above query shows the following output:

SUM(Emp_Salary)	Emp_City
4000	Goa
9000	Delhi
8000	Jaipur

Now, suppose that you want to show those cities whose total salary of employees is more than 5000. For this case, you have to type the following query with the HAVING clause in SQL:

1. **SELECT** **SUM**(Emp_Salary), Emp_City **FROM** Employee **GROUP BY** Emp_City **HAVING** **SUM**(Emp_Salary)>5000;

The output of the above SQL query shows the following table in the output:

SUM(Emp_Salary)	Emp_City
9000	Delhi
8000	Jaipur

Example 2: Let's take the following **Student_details** table, which helps you to analyze the HAVING clause with the COUNT aggregate function:

Roll_No	Name	Marks	Age
1	Rithik	91	20
2	Kapil	60	19
3	Arun	82	17
4	Ram	92	18
5	Anuj	50	20
6	Suman	88	18
7	Sheetal	57	19
8	Anuj	64	20

Suppose, you want to count the number of students from the above table according to their age. For this, you have to write the following query:

1. **SELECT** **COUNT**(Roll_No), Age **FROM** Student_details **GROUP BY** Age ;

The above query will show the following output:

Count(Roll_No)	Age
3	20
2	19
1	17
2	18

Now, suppose that you want to show the age of those students whose roll number is more than and equals 2. For this case, you have to type the following query with the HAVING clause in SQL:

1. **SELECT** **COUNT**(Roll_No), Age **FROM** Student_details **GROUP BY** Age **HAVING** **COUNT**(Roll_No) >= 2 ;

The output of the above SQL query shows the following table in the output:

Count(Roll_No)	Age
3	20
2	19
2	18

Example 3: Let's take the following **Employee** table, which helps you to analyze the HAVING clause with MIN and MAX aggregate function:

Emp_ID	Name	Emp_Salary	Emp_Dept
1001	Anuj	9000	Finance
1002	Saket	4000	HR
1003	Raman	3000	Coding
1004	Renu	6000	Coding
1005	Seenu	5000	HR
1006	Mohan	10000	Marketing
1007	Anaya	4000	Coding
1008	Parul	8000	Finance

MIN Function with HAVING Clause:

If you want to show each department and the minimum salary in each department, you have to write the following query:

- SELECT MIN**(Emp_Salary), Emp_Dept **FROM** Employee **GROUP BY** Emp_Dept;

The output of the above query shows the following output:

MIN(Emp_Salary)	Emp_Dept
8000	Finance
4000	HR
3000	Coding
10000	Marketing

Now, suppose that you want to show only those departments whose minimum salary of employees is greater than 4000. For this case, you have to type the following query with the HAVING clause in SQL:

- SELECT MIN**(Emp_Salary), Emp_Dept **FROM** Employee **GROUP BY** Emp_Dept **HAVING MIN**(Emp_Salary) > 4000 ;

The above SQL query shows the following table in the output:

MIN(Emp_Salary)	Emp_Dept
8000	Finance
10000	Marketing

MAX Function with HAVING Clause:

In the above employee table, if you want to list each department and the maximum salary in each department. For this, you have to write the following query:

- SELECT MAX**(Emp_Salary), Emp_Dept **FROM** Employee **GROUP BY** Emp_Dept;

The above query will show the following output:

MAX(Emp_Salary)	Emp_Dept
9000	Finance
5000	HR
6000	Coding
10000	Marketing

Now, suppose that you want to show only those departments whose maximum salary of employees is less than 8000. For this case, you have to type the following query with the HAVING clause in SQL:

1. **SELECT MAX**(Emp_Salary), Emp_Dept **FROM** Employee **GROUP BY** Emp_Dept **HAVING MAX**(Emp_Salary) < 8000 ;

The output of the above SQL query shows the following table in the output:

MAX(Emp_Salary)	Emp_Dept
5000	HR
6000	Coding

Example 4: Let's take the following **Employee_Dept** table, which helps you to analyze the HAVING clause with AVG aggregate function:

Emp_ID	Name	Emp_Salary	Emp_Dept
1001	Anuj	8000	Finance
1002	Saket	4000	HR
1003	Raman	3000	Coding
1004	Renu	6000	Coding
1005	Seenu	5000	HR
1006	Mohan	10000	Marketing
1007	Anaya	4000	Coding
1008	Parul	6000	Finance

If you want to find the average salary of employees in each department, you have to write the following query:

1. **SELECT AVG**(Emp_Salary), Emp_Dept **FROM** Employee_Dept **GROUP BY** Emp_Dept;

The above query will show the following output:

AVG(Emp_Salary)	Emp_Dept
7000	Finance
4500	HR
6500	Coding
10000	Marketing

Now, suppose that you want to show those departments whose average salary is more than and equals 6500. For this case, you have to type the following query with the HAVING clause in SQL:

1. **SELECT AVG**(Emp_Salary), Emp_Dept **FROM** Employee_Dept **GROUP BY** Emp_Dept **HAVING AVG**(Emp_Salary) > 6500 ;

The above SQL query will show the following table in the output:

AVG(Emp_Salary)	Emp_Dept
7000	Finance
6500	Coding
10000	Marketing

SQL ORDER BY Clause

- Whenever we want to sort the records based on the columns stored in the tables of the SQL database, then we consider using the ORDER BY clause in SQL.
- The ORDER BY clause in SQL will help us to sort the records based on the specific column of a table. This means that all the values stored in the column on which we are applying ORDER BY clause will be sorted, and the corresponding column values will be displayed in the sequence in which we have obtained the values in the earlier step.
- Using the ORDER BY clause, we can sort the records in ascending or descending order as per our requirement. The records will be sorted in ascending order whenever the **ASC keyword** is used with ORDER by clause. **DESC keyword** will sort the records in descending order.
- ***If no keyword is specified after the column based on which we have to sort the records, in that case, the sorting will be done by default in the ascending order.***

Before writing the queries for sorting the records, let us understand the syntax.

Syntax to sort the records in ascending order:

1. **SELECT** ColumnName1,...,ColumnNameN **FROM** TableName **ORDER BY** ColumnName **ASC**;

Syntax to sort the records in descending order:

1. **SELECT** ColumnName1,...,ColumnNameN **FROM** TableName **ORDER BY** ColumnNameDESC;

Syntax to sort the records in ascending order without using ASC keyword:

1. **SELECT** ColumnName1,...,ColumnNameN **FROM** TableName **ORDER BY** ColumnName;

Let us explore more on this topic with the help of examples. We will use the MySQL database for writing the queries in examples.

Consider we have customers table with the following records:

ID	NAME	AGE	ADDRESS	SALARY
2	Shiva Tiwari	22	Bhopal	21000
3	Ajeet Bhargav	45	Meerut	65000
4	Ritesh Yadav	36	Azamgarh	26000
5	Balwant Singh	45	Varanasi	36000
6	Mahesh Sharma	26	Mathura	22000
7	Rohit Shrivastav	19	Ahemdabad	38000
8	Neeru Sharma	29	Pune	40000
9	Aakash Yadav	32	Mumbai	43500
10	Sahil Sheikh	35	Aurangabad	68800

Example 1:

Write a query to sort the records in the ascending order of the customer names stored in the customers table.

Query:

1. mysql> **SELECT *FROM** customers **ORDER BY Name ASC**;

Here in a SELECT query, an ORDER BY clause is applied on the column 'Name' to sort the records. ASC keyword will sort the records in ascending order.

You will get the following output:

ID	NAME	AGE	ADDRESS	SALARY
9	Aakash Yadav	32	Mumbai	43500
3	Ajeet Bhargav	45	Meerut	65000
5	Balwant Singh	45	Varanasi	36000
1	Himani Gupta	21	Modinagar	22000
6	Mahesh Sharma	26	Mathura	22000
8	Neeru Sharma	29	Pune	40000
4	Ritesh Yadav	36	Azamgarh	26000
7	Rohit Shrivastav	19	Ahemdabad	38000
10	Sahil Sheikh	35	Aurangabad	68800
2	Shiva Tiwari	22	Bhopal	21000

All the records present in the customers table are displayed in the ascending order of the customer's name.

Example 2:

Write a query to sort the records in the ascending order of the addresses stored in the customers table.

Query:

1. mysql> **SELECT *FROM** customers **ORDER BY** Address;

Here in a SELECT query, an ORDER BY clause is applied to the 'Address' column to sort the records. No keyword is used after the ORDER BY clause. Hence, the records, by default, will be sorted in ascending order.

You will get the following output:

ID	NAME	AGE	ADDRESS	SALARY
7	Rohit Shrivastav	19	Ahemdabad	38000
10	Sahil Sheikh	35	Aurangabad	68800
4	Ritesh Yadav	36	Azamgarh	26000
2	Shiva Tiwari	22	Bhopal	21000
6	Mahesh Sharma	26	Mathura	22000
3	Ajeet Bhargav	45	Meerut	65000
1	Himani Gupta	21	Modinagar	22000
9	Aakash Yadav	32	Mumbai	43500
8	Neeru Sharma	29	Pune	40000
5	Balwant Singh	45	Varanasi	36000

All the records present in the customers table are displayed in the ascending order of the customer's address.

Example 3:

Write a query to sort the records in the descending order of the customer salary stored in the customers table.

Query:

1. mysql> **SELECT *FROM** customers **ORDER BY** Salary **DESC**;

Here in a SELECT query, an ORDER BY clause is applied on the column ?Salary? to sort the records. DESC keyword will sort the records in descending order.

You will get the following output:

ID	NAME	AGE	ADDRESS	SALARY
10	Sahil Sheikh	35	Aurangabad	68800
3	Ajeet Bhargav	45	Meerut	65000
9	Aakash Yadav	32	Mumbai	43500
8	Neeru Sharma	29	Pune	40000
7	Rohit Shrivastav	19	Ahemdabad	38000
5	Balwant Singh	45	Varanasi	36000
4	Ritesh Yadav	36	Azamgarh	26000
6	Mahesh Sharma	26	Mathura	22000
1	Himani Gupta	21	Modinagar	22000
2	Shiva Tiwari	22	Bhopal	21000

All the records present in the customers table are displayed in the descending order of the customer's salary.

Example 4:

Write a query to sort the records in the descending order of the customer age stored in the customers table.

Query:

1. mysql> **SELECT *FROM** customers **ORDER BY** Age **DESC**;

Here in a SELECT query, an ORDER BY clause is applied on the column 'Age' to sort the records. DESC keyword will sort the records in descending order.

You will get the following output:

ID	NAME	AGE	ADDRESS	SALARY
3	Ajeet Bhargav	45	Meerut	65000
5	Balwant Singh	45	Varanasi	36000
4	Ritesh Yadav	36	Azamgarh	26000
10	Sahil Sheikh	35	Aurangabad	68800
9	Aakash Yadav	32	Mumbai	43500
8	Neeru Sharma	29	Pune	40000
6	Mahesh Sharma	26	Mathura	22000
2	Shiva Tiwari	22	Bhopal	21000
1	Himani Gupta	21	Modinagar	22000
7	Rohit Shrivastav	19	Ahemdabad	38000

All the records present in the customers table are displayed in the descending order of the customer's age.

Consider we have another table named agents with the following records:

AID	Name	WorkArea	Profit_Percent	ContactNumber	Salary
-----	------	----------	----------------	---------------	--------

1	Gurpreet Singh	Bangalore	1	9989675432	43000
2	Sakshi Kumari	Chennai	5	8190567342	25000
3	Prachi Desai	Mumbai	2	9056123432	60000
4	Shivani More	Pune	3	8894236789	35500
5	Pallavi Singh	Delhi	4	7798092341	38700
6	Rohini Kulkarni	Ambala	8	7890945612	25670
7	Shweta Dixit	Chandigarh	6	8898786453	31670
8	Sonakshi Tiwari	Udaipur	2	9809453421	25050
9	Anushka Tripathi	Ujjain	9	8909124326	38000
10	Devika Sharma	Goa	7	7864523145	44050

Example 1:

Write a query to sort the records in the ascending order of the agent names stored in the agents table.

Query:

- mysql> **SELECT *FROM** agents **ORDER BY Name ASC**;

Here in a SELECT query, an ORDER BY clause is applied on the column 'Name' to sort the records. ASC keyword will sort the records in ascending order.

You will get the following output:

AID	Name	WorkArea	Profit_Percent	ContactNumber	Salary
9	Anushka Tripathi	Ujjain	9	8909124326	38000
10	Devika Sharma	Goa	7	7864523145	44050
1	Gurpreet Singh	Bangalore	1	9989675432	43000
5	Pallavi Singh	Delhi	4	7798092341	38700
3	Prachi Desai	Mumbai	2	9056123432	60000
6	Rohini Kulkarni	Ambala	8	7890945612	25670
2	Sakshi Kumari	Chennai	5	8190567342	25000
4	Shivani More	Pune	3	8894236789	35500

7	Shweta Dixit	Chandigarh	6	8898786453	31670
8	Sonakshi Tiwari	Udaipur	2	9809453421	25050

All the records present in the agents table are displayed in the ascending order of the agent's name.

Example 2:

Write a query to sort the records in the descending order of the work area stored in the agents table.

Query:

- mysql> **SELECT *FROM** agents **ORDER BY** WorkArea **DESC**;

Here in a SELECT query, an ORDER BY clause is applied on the column 'WorkArea' to sort the records. DESC keyword will sort the records in descending order.

You will get the following output:

AID	Name	WorkArea	Profit_Percent	ContactNumber	Salary
9	Anushka Tripathi	Ujjain	9	8909124326	38000
8	Sonakshi Tiwari	Udaipur	2	9809453421	25050
4	Shivani More	Pune	3	8894236789	35500
3	Prachi Desai	Mumbai	2	9056123432	60000
10	Devika Sharma	Goa	7	7864523145	44050
5	Pallavi Singh	Delhi	4	7798092341	38700
2	Sakshi Kumari	Chennai	5	8190567342	25000
7	Shweta Dixit	Chandigarh	6	8898786453	31670
1	Gurpreet Singh	Bangalore	1	9989675432	43000
6	Rohini Kulkarni	Ambala	8	7890945612	25670

All the records present in the agents table are displayed in the descending order of the customer's work area.

Example 3:

Write a query to sort the records in the ascending order of the agent salary stored in the agents table.

Query:

- mysql> **SELECT *FROM** agents **ORDER BY** Salary;

Here in a SELECT query, an ORDER BY clause is applied on the column 'Salary' to sort the records. No keyword is used after the ORDER BY clause. Hence, the records, by default, will be sorted in ascending order.

You will get the following output:

AID	Name	WorkArea	Profit_Percent	ContactNumber	Salary
2	Sakshi Kumari	Chennai	5	8190567342	25000
8	Sonakshi Tiwari	Udaipur	2	9809453421	25050
6	Rohini Kulkarni	Ambala	8	7890945612	25670
7	Shweta Dixit	Chandigarh	6	8898786453	31670
4	Shivani More	Pune	3	8894236789	35500
9	Anushka Tripathi	Ujjain	9	8909124326	38000
5	Pallavi Singh	Delhi	4	7798092341	38700
1	Gurpreet Singh	Bangalore	1	9989675432	43000
10	Devika Sharma	Goa	7	7864523145	44050
3	Prachi Desai	Mumbai	2	9056123432	60000

All the records present in the agents table are displayed in the ascending order of the customer's salary.

Example 4:

Write a query to sort the records in the descending order of the agent salary stored in the agents table.

Query:

- mysql> **SELECT *FROM** agents **ORDER BY** Salary **DESC**;

Here in a SELECT query, an ORDER BY clause is applied on the column 'Salary' to sort the records. DESC keyword will sort the records in descending order.

You will get the following output:

AID	Name	WorkArea	Profit_Percent	ContactNumber	Salary
3	Prachi Desai	Mumbai	2	9056123432	60000
10	Devika Sharma	Goa	7	7864523145	44050
1	Gurpreet Singh	Bangalore	1	9989675432	43000
5	Pallavi Singh	Delhi	4	7798092341	38700
9	Anushka Tripathi	Ujjain	9	8909124326	38000
4	Shivani More	Pune	3	8894236789	35500
7	Shweta Dixit	Chandigarh	6	8898786453	31670

6	Rohini Kulkarni	Ambala	8	7890945612	25670
8	Sonakshi Tiwari	Udaipur	2	9809453421	25050
2	Sakshi Kumari	Chennai	5	8190567342	25000

All the records present in the agents table are displayed in the descending order of the customer's address.

SQL ORDER BY CLAUSE WITH ASCENDING ORDER

This statement is used to sort data in ascending order. If you miss the ASC attribute, SQL ORDER BY query takes ascending order by default.

Let's take an example of supplier

1. **SELECT** supplier_city
2. **FROM** suppliers
3. **WHERE** supplier_name = 'IBM'
4. **ORDER BY** supplier_city;

Let us take a CUSTOMERS table having the following records:

ID	NAME	AGE	ADDRESS	SALARY
1	Himani gupta	21	Modinagar	22000
2	Shiva tiwari	22	Bhopal	21000
3	Ajeet bhargav	45	Meerut	65000
4	Ritesh yadav	36	Azamgarh	26000
5	Balwant singh	45	Varanasi	36000
6	Mahesh sharma	26	Mathura	22000

This is an example to sort the result in ascending order by NAME and SALARY.

1. **SELECT * FROM** CUSTOMERS
2. **ORDER BY NAME, SALARY;**

This would produce the following result.

ID	NAME	AGE	ADDRESS	SALARY
3	Ajeet bhargav	45	Meerut	65000
5	Balwant singh	45	Varanasi	36000
1	Himani gupta	21	Modinagar	22000
6	Mahesh sharma	26	Mathura	22000
4	Ritesh yadav	36	Azamgarh	26000
2	Shiva tiwari	22	Bhopal	21000

SQL ORDER BY CLAUSE WITH DESCENDING ORDER:

This statement is used to sort data in descending order. You should use the DESC attribute in your ORDER BY clause as follows.

- 1. **SELECT** supplier_city
- 2. **FROM** suppliers
- 3. **WHERE** supplier_name = 'IBM'
- 4. **ORDER BY** supplier_city **DESC**;

Let's see an example of an employee table:

ID	NAME	AGE	ADDRESS	SALARY
1	Himani gupta	21	Modinagar	22000
2	Shiva tiwari	22	Bhopal	21000
3	Ajeet bhargav	45	Meerut	65000
4	Ritesh yadav	36	Azamgarh	26000
5	Balwant singh	45	Varanasi	36000
6	Mahesh sharma	26	Mathura	22000

This is an example to sort the result in descending order by NAME.

- 1. **SELECT * FROM** CUSTOMERS
- 2. **ORDER BY NAME DESC**;

This would produce the following result.

ID	NAME	AGE	ADDRESS	SALARY
2	Shiva tiwari	22	Bhopal	21000
4	Ritesh yadav	36	Azamgarh	26000
6	Mahesh sharma	26	Mathura	22000
1	Himani gupta	21	Modinagar	22000
5	Balwant singh	45	Varanasi	36000
3	Ajeet bhargav	45	Meerut	65000

SQL ORDER BY RANDOM

If you want the resulting record to be **ordered randomly**, you should use the following codes according to several databases.

Here is a question: what is the need to fetch a random record or a row from a database?

Sometimes you may want to display random information like *articles, links, pages*, etc., to your user.

If you want to fetch random rows from any of the databases, you have to use some altered queries according to the databases.

- **Select a random row with MySQL:**

If you want to return a random row with MY SQL, use the following syntax:

- 1. **SELECT column FROM table ORDER BY** RAND () LIMIT 1;
- **Select a random row with Postgre SQL:**
- 1. **SELECT column FROM table ORDER BY** RANDOM () LIMIT 1;

- **Select a random row with SQL Server:**
 1. **SELECT TOP 1 column FROM table ORDER BY** NEWID ();
- **Select a random row with oracle:**
 1. **SELECT column FROM (SELECT column FROM table ORDER BY** dbms_random.value) **WHERE** rownum = 1;
- **Select a random row with IBM DB2:**
 1. **SELECT column** RAND () **as** IDX **FROM table ORDER BY** IDX **FETCH FIRST 1 ROWS ONLY;**

To understand this concept practically, let us see some examples using the MySQL database. Consider we have a table items created into the database with the following data:

Table: items

ID	Item_Name	Item_Quantity	Item_Price	Purchase_Date
1	Soap	5	200	2021-07-08
2	Toothpaste	2	80	2021-07-10
3	Pen	10	50	2021-07-12
4	Bottle	1	250	2021-07-13
5	Brush	3	90	2021-07-15

Suppose we want to retrieve any random record from the items table.

We will write the query as follows:

1. mysql> **SELECT * FROM** items **ORDER BY** RAND () LIMIT 1;

We may get the following results:

ID	Item_Name	Item_Quantity	Item_Price	Purchase_Date
3	Pen	10	20	2021-07-12

Now let us try executing the same query one more time.

1. mysql> **SELECT * FROM** items **ORDER BY** RAND () LIMIT 1;

We may get the following results:

ID	Item_Name	Item_Quantity	Item_Price	Purchase_Date
5	Brush	3	90	2021-07-15

From the above results, we can conclude that we get different records as output both times even though we executed the same query twice. RAND () function has selected random records both times for the same query from a single table. Therefore, even we execute the same query again, we will get different output every time. There is a rare possibility of getting the same record consecutively using the RAND () function.

Now, suppose you want all the records of the table to be fetched randomly.

To do so, we need to execute the following query:

1. mysql> **SELECT * FROM** items **ORDER BY** RAND ();

We may get the following results:

ID	Item_Name	Item_Quantity	Item_Price	Purchase_Date
----	-----------	---------------	------------	---------------

4	Bottle	1	250	2021-07-13
5	Brush	3	90	2021-07-15
1	Soap	5	200	2021-07-08
2	Toothpaste	2	80	2021-07-10
3	Pen	10	50	2021-07-12

There is also a possibility of getting some different arrangements of records if we execute the RAND () function again on the employees table.

SQL ORDER BY LIMIT

We can retrieve limited rows from the database. I can be used in pagination where are forced to show only limited records like 10, 50, 100 etc.

LIMIT CLAUSE FOR ORACLE SQL:

If you want to use LIMIT clause with SQL, you have to use ROWNUM queries because it is used after result are selected.

You should use the following code:

1. **SELECT name**, age
2. **FROM**
3. (**SELECT name**, age, ROWNUM r
4. **FROM**
5. (**SELECT name**, age, **FROM** employee_data
6. **ORDER BY** age **DESC**
7.)
8. **WHERE** ROWNUM <=40
9.)
10. **WHERE** r >= 21;

This query will give you 21th to 40th rows.

SQL SORTING ON MULTIPLE COLUMNS

Let's take an example of customer table which has many columns, the following SQL statement selects all customers from the table named "customer", stored by the "country" and "Customer-Name" columns:

1. **SELECT * FROM** customers
2. **ORDER BY** country, Customer-**Name**;

SQL Insert

SQL INSERT STATEMENT

SQL INSERT statement is a SQL query. It is used to insert a single or a multiple records in a table.

There are two ways to insert data in a table:

1. By SQL insert into statement
 1. By specifying column names
 2. Without specifying column names
2. By SQL insert into select statement

1) Inserting data directly into a table

You can insert a row in the table by using SQL INSERT INTO command.

There are two ways to insert values in a table.

In the first method there is no need to specify the column name where the data will be inserted, you need only their values.

- 1. **INSERT INTO** table_name
- 2. **VALUES** (value1, value2, value3....);

The second method specifies both the column name and values which you want to insert.

- 1. **INSERT INTO** table_name (column1, column2, column3....)
- 2. **VALUES** (value1, value2, value3....);

Let's take an example of table which has five records within it.

- 1. **INSERT INTO** STUDENTS (ROLL_NO, **NAME**, AGE, CITY)
- 2. **VALUES** (1, ABHIRAM, 22, ALLAHABAD);
- 3. **INSERT INTO** STUDENTS (ROLL_NO, **NAME**, AGE, CITY)
- 4. **VALUES** (2, ALKA, 20, GHAZIABAD);
- 5. **INSERT INTO** STUDENTS (ROLL_NO, **NAME**, AGE, CITY)
- 6. **VALUES** (3, DISHA, 21, VARANASI);
- 7. **INSERT INTO** STUDENTS (ROLL_NO, **NAME**, AGE, CITY)
- 8. **VALUES** (4, ESHA, 21, DELHI);
- 9. **INSERT INTO** STUDENTS (ROLL_NO, **NAME**, AGE, CITY)
- 10. **VALUES** (5, MANMEET, 23, JALANDHAR);

It will show the following table as the final result.

ROLL_NO	NAME	AGE	CITY
1	ABHIRAM	22	ALLAHABAD
2	ALKA	20	GHAZIABAD
3	DISHA	21	VARANASI
4	ESHA	21	DELHI
5	MANMEET	23	JALANDHAR

You can create a record in CUSTOMERS table by using this syntax also.

- 1. **INSERT INTO** CUSTOMERS
- 2. **VALUES** (6, PRATIK, 24, KANPUR);

The following table will be as follow:

ROLL_NO	NAME	AGE	CITY
1	ABHIRAM	22	ALLAHABAD
2	ALKA	20	GHAZIABAD
3	DISHA	21	VARANASI
4	ESHA	21	DELHI
5	MANMEET	23	JALANDHAR
6	PRATIK	24	KANPUR

2) Inserting data through SELECT Statement

SQL INSERT INTO SELECT Syntax

- 1. **INSERT INTO** table_name
- 2. [(column1, column2, **column**)]
- 3. **SELECT** column1, column2, **Column** N
- 4. **FROM** table_name [**WHERE** condition];

Note: when you add a new row, you should make sure that data type of the value and the column should be matched.

If any integrity constraints are defined for the table, you must follow them.

SQL INSERT Multiple Rows

Many times developers ask that is it possible to insert multiple rows into a single table in a single statement. Currently, developers have to write multiple insert statements when they insert values in a table. It is not only boring but also time-consuming.

Let us see few practical examples to understand this concept more clearly. We will use the MySQL database for writing all the queries.

Example 1:

To create a table in the database, first, we need to select the database in which we want to create a table.

- 1. mysql> USE dbs;

Then we will write a query to create a table named student in the selected database 'dbs'.

- 1. mysql> **CREATE TABLE** student(ID **INT**, **Name VARCHAR**(20), Percentage **INT**, Location **VARCHAR**(20), DateOfBirth **DATE**);

```
MySQL 5.5 Command Line Client
Enter password: ****
Welcome to the MySQL monitor.  Commands end with ; or \g.
Your MySQL connection id is 10
Server version: 5.5.62 MySQL Community Server (GPL)

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owners.

Type 'help;' or '\h' for help. Type '\c' to clear the current input statement.

mysql> USE dbs;
Database changed
mysql> CREATE TABLE student(ID INT, Name VARCHAR(20), Percentage INT, Location VARCHAR(20), DateOfBirth DATE);
Query OK, 0 rows affected (0.12 sec)
```

The student table is created successfully.

Now, we will write a single query to insert multiple records in the student table:

- 1. mysql> **INSERT INTO** student(ID, **Name**, Percentage, Location, DateOfBirth) **VALUES**(1, "Manthan Koli", 79, "Delhi", "2003-08-20"), (2, "Dev Dixit", 75, "Pune", "1999-06-17"), (3, "Aakash Deshmukh", 87, "Mumbai", "1997-09-12"), (4, "Aaryan Jaiswal", 90, "Chennai", "2005-10-02"), (5, "Rahul Khanna", 92, "Ambala", "1996-03-04"), (6, "Pankaj Deshmukh", 67, "Kanpur", "2000-02-02"), (7, "Gaurav Kumar", 84, "Chandigarh", "1998-07-06"), (8, "Sanket Jain", 61, "Shimla", "1990-09-08"), (9, "Sahil Wagh", 90, "Kolkata", "1968-04-03"), (10, "Saurabh Singh", 54, "Kashmir", "1989-01-06");

```
mysql> INSERT INTO student(ID, Name, Percentage, Location, DateOfBirth) VALUES(1, "Manthan Koli", 79, "Delhi", "2003-08-20"), (2, "Dev Dixit", 75, "Pune", "1999-06-17"), (3, "Aakash Deshmukh", 87, "Mumbai", "1997-09-12"), (4, "Aaryan Jaiswal", 90, "Chennai", "2005-10-02"), (5, "Rahul Khanna", 92, "Ambala", "1996-03-04"), (6, "Pankaj Deshmukh", 67, "Kanpur", "2000-02-02"), (7, "Gaurav Kumar", 84, "Chandigarh", "1998-07-06"), (8, "Sanket Jain", 61, "Shimla", "1990-09-08"), (9, "Sahil Wagh", 90, "Kolkata", "1968-04-03"), (10, "Saurabh Singh", 54, "Kashmir", "1989-01-06");
Query OK, 10 rows affected (0.10 sec)
Records: 10  Duplicates: 0  Warnings: 0
```

To verify that multiple records are inserted in the student table, we will execute the SELECT query.

1. mysql> **SELECT *FROM** student;

ID	Name	Percentage	Location	DateOfBirth
1	Manthan Koli	79	Delhi	2003-08-20
2	Dev Dixit	75	Pune	1999-06-17
3	Aakash Deshmukh	87	Mumbai	1997-09-12
4	Aaryan Jaiswal	90	Chennai	2005-10-02
5	Rahul Khanna	92	Ambala	1996-03-04
6	Pankaj Deshmukh	67	Kanpur	2000-02-02
7	Gaurav Kumar	84	Chandigarh	1998-07-06
8	Sanket Jain	61	Shimla	1990-09-08
9	Sahil Wagh	90	Kolkata	1968-04-03
10	Saurabh Singh	54	Kashmir	1989-01-06

The results show that all ten records are inserted successfully using a single query.

Example 2:

To create a table in the database, first, we need to select the database in which we want to create a table.

1. mysql> USE dbs;

Then we will write a query to create a table named items_tbl in the selected database 'dbs'.

1. mysql> **CREATE TABLE** items_tbl(ID **INT**, Item_Name **VARCHAR**(20), Item_Quantity **INT**, Item_Price **INT**, Purchase_Date **DATE**);

MySQL 5.5 Command Line Client

```
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affiliates. Other names may be trademarks of their respective
owners.

Type 'help;' or '\h' for help. Type '\c' to clear the current input statement.

mysql> USE dbs;
Database changed
mysql> CREATE TABLE items_tbl(ID INT, Item_Name VARCHAR(20), Item_Quantity INT, Item_Price INT, Purchase_Date DATE);
Query OK, 0 rows affected (0.48 sec)
```

The table named items_tbl is created successfully.

Now, we will write a single query to insert multiple records in the items_tbl table:

1. mysql> **INSERT INTO** items_tbl(ID, Item_Name, Item_Quantity, Item_Price, Purchase_Date) **VALUES**(1, "Soap", 5, 200, "2021-07-08"), (2, "Toothpaste", 2, 80, "2021-07-10"), (3, "Pen", 10, 50, "2021-07-12"), (4, "Bottle", 1, 250, "2021-07-13"), (5, "Brush", 3, 90, "2021-07-15"), (6, "Notebooks", 10, 1000, "2021-07-26"), (7, "Handkerchief", 3, 100, "2021-07-28"), (8, "Chips Packet", 5, 50, "2021-07-30"), (9, "Marker", 2, 30, "2021-08-13"), (10, "Scissors", 1, 60, "2021-08-13");

```
mysql> INSERT INTO items_tbl(ID, Item_Name, Item_Quantity, Item_Price, Purchase_Date) VALUES(1, "Soap", 5, 200, "2021-07-08"), (2, "Toothpaste", 2, 80, "2021-07-10"), (3, "Pen", 10, 50, "2021-07-12"), (4, "Bottle", 1, 250, "2021-07-13"), (5, "Brush", 3, 90, "2021-07-15"), (6, "Notebooks", 10, 1000, "2021-07-26"), (7, "Handkerchief", 3, 100, "2021-07-28"), (8, "Chips Packet", 5, 50, "2021-07-30"), (9, "Marker", 2, 30, "2021-08-13"), (10, "Scissors", 1, 60, "2021-08-13");
Query OK, 10 rows affected (0.08 sec)
Records: 10  Duplicates: 0  Warnings: 0
```

To verify that multiple records are inserted in the items_tbl table, we will execute the SELECT query.

1. mysql> **SELECT *FROM** items_tbl;

ID	Item_Name	Item_Quantity	Item_Price	Purchase_Date
1	Soap	5	200	2021-07-08
2	Toothpaste	2	80	2021-07-10
3	Pen	10	50	2021-07-12
4	Bottle	1	250	2021-07-13
5	Brush	3	90	2021-07-15
6	Notebooks	10	1000	2021-07-26
7	Handkerchief	3	100	2021-07-28
8	Chips Packet	5	50	2021-07-30
9	Marker	2	30	2021-08-13
10	Scissors	1	60	2021-08-13

The results show that all ten records are inserted successfully using a single query.

SQL Update

SQL UPDATE

The SQL commands (*UPDATE* and *DELETE*) are used to modify the data that is already in the database. The SQL DELETE command uses a WHERE clause.

SQL UPDATE statement is used to change the data of the records held by tables. Which rows is to be update, it is decided by a condition. To specify condition, we use WHERE clause.

The UPDATE statement can be written in following form:

1. **UPDATE** table_name **SET** [column_name1= value1,... column_nameN = valueN] [**WHERE** condition]

Let's see the Syntax:

1. **UPDATE** table_name
2. **SET** column_name = expression
3. **WHERE** conditions

Let's take an example: here we are going to update an entry in the source table.

SQL statement:

1. **UPDATE** students
2. **SET** User_Name = 'beinghuman'
3. **WHERE** Student_Id = '3'

Source Table:

Student_Id	FirstName	LastName	User_Name
1	Ada	Sharma	sharmili
2	Rahul	Maurya	sofamous
3	James	Walker	jonny

See the result after updating value:

Student_Id	FirstName	LastName	User_Name
1	Ada	Sharma	sharmili
2	Rahul	Maurya	sofamous
3	James	Walker	beinghuman

Updating Multiple Fields:

If you are going to update multiple fields, you should separate each field assignment with a comma.

SQL UPDATE statement for multiple fields:

1. **UPDATE** students
2. **SET** User_Name = 'beserious', First_Name = 'Johnny'
3. **WHERE** Student_Id = '3'

Result of the table is given below:

Student_Id	FirstName	LastName	User_Name
1	Ada	Sharma	sharmili
2	Rahul	Maurya	sofamous
3	Johnny	Walker	beserious

MYSQL SYNTAX FOR UPDATING TABLE:

1. **UPDATE** table_name
2. **SET** field1 = new-value1, field2 = new-value2,
3. [**WHERE** CLAUSE]

SQL UPDATE SELECT:

SQL UPDATE WITH SELECT QUERY:

We can use SELECT statement to update records through UPDATE statement.

SYNTAX:

1. **UPDATE** tableDestination
2. **SET** tableDestination.col = value
3. **WHERE** EXISTS (
4. **SELECT** col2.value
5. **FROM** tblSource
6. **WHERE** tblSource.join_col = tblDestination. Join_col
7. **AND** tblSource.**Constraint** = value)

You can also try this one -

1. **UPDATE**
2. **Table**
3. **SET**
4. **Table**.column1 = othertable.**column** 1,
5. **Table**.column2 = othertable.**column** 2
6. **FROM**
7. **Table**
8. **INNER** JOIN
9. Other_table
10. **ON**

11. **Table**.id = other_table.id

My SQL SYNTAX:

If you want to UPDATE with SELECT in My SQL, you can use this syntax:

Let's take an example having two tables. Here,

First table contains -

Cat_id, cat_name,

And the second table contains -

Rel_cat_id, rel_cat_name

SQL UPDATE COLUMN:

We can update a single or multiple columns in SQL with SQL UPDATE query.

SQL UPDATE EXAMPLE WITH UPDATING SINGLE COLUMN:

1. **UPDATE** students
2. **SET** student_id = 001
3. **WHERE** student_name = 'AJEET';

This SQL UPDATE example would update the student_id to '001' in the student table where student_name is 'AJEET'.

SQL UPDATE EXAMPLE WITH UPDATING MULTIPLE COLUMNS:

To update more than one column with a single update statement:

1. **UPDATE** students
2. **SET** student_name = 'AJEET',
3. Religion = 'HINDU'
4. **WHERE** student_name = 'RAJU';

This SQL UPDATE statement will change the student name to 'AJEET' and religion to 'HINDU' where the student name is 'RAJU'.

SQL UPDATE with JOIN

SQL UPDATE JOIN means we will update one table using another table and join condition.

Let us take an example of a customer table. I have updated customer table that contains latest customer details from another source system. I want to update the customer table with latest data. In such case, I will perform join between target table and source table using join on customer ID.

Let's see the *syntax* of SQL UPDATE query with JOIN statement.

1. **UPDATE** customer_table
2. **INNER JOIN**
3. Customer_table
4. **ON** customer_table.rel_cust_name = customer_table.cust_id
5. **SET** customer_table.rel_cust_name = customer_table.cust_name

How to use multiple tables in SQL UPDATE statement with JOIN

Let's take two tables, table 1 and table 2.

Create table1

1. **CREATE TABLE** table1 (column1 **INT**, column2 **INT**, column3 **VARCHAR** (100))
2. **INSERT INTO** table1 (col1, col2, col3)
3. **SELECT** 1, 11, 'FIRST'
4. **UNION ALL**

- 5. **SELECT** 11,12, 'SECOND'
- 6. **UNION** ALL
- 7. **SELECT** 21, 13, 'THIRD'
- 8. **UNION** ALL
- 9. **SELECT** 31, 14, 'FOURTH'

Create table2

- 1. **CREATE TABLE** table2 (column1 **INT**, column2 **INT**, column3 **VARCHAR** (100))
- 2. **INSERT INTO** table2 (col1, col2, col3)
- 3. **SELECT** 1, 21, 'TWO-ONE'
- 4. **UNION** ALL
- 5. **SELECT** 11, 22, 'TWO-TWO'
- 6. **UNION** ALL
- 7. **SELECT** 21, 23, 'TWO-THREE'
- 8. **UNION** ALL
- 9. **SELECT** 31, 24, 'TWO-FOUR'

Now check the content in the table.

- 1. **SELECT * FROM** table_1
- 1. **SELECT * FROM** table_2

Col 1		Col 2	Col 3
1	1	11	First
2	11	12	Second
3	21	13	Third
4	31	14	Fourth

Col 1		Col 2	Col 3
1	1	21	Two-One
2	11	22	Two-Two
3	21	23	Two-Three
4	31	24	Two-Four

Our requirement is that we have table 2 which has two rows where Col 1 is 21 and 31. We want to update the value from table 2 to table 1 for the rows where Col 1 is 21 and 31.

We want to also update the values of Col 2 and Col 3 only.

The most easiest and common way is to use join clause in the update statement and use multiple tables in the update statement.

- 1. **UPDATE** table 1
- 2. **SET** Col 2 = t2.Col2,
- 3. Col 3 = t2.Col3
- 4. **FROM** table1 t1
- 5. **INNER JOIN** table 2 t2 **ON** t1.Col1 = t2.col1
- 6. **WHERE** t1.Col1 IN (21,31)

Check the content of the table

SELECT FROM table 1

SELECT FROM table 2

	Col 1	Col 2	Col 3
1	1	11	First
2	11	12	Second
3	21	23	Two-Three
4	31	24	Two-Four

	Col 1	Col 2	Col 3
1	1	21	First
2	11	22	Second
3	21	23	Two-Three
4	31	24	Two-Four

Here we can see that using join clause in update statement. We have merged two tables by the use of join clause.

SQL UPDATE DATE

How to update a date and time field in SQL?

If you want to update a date & time field in SQL, you should use the following query.

let's see the syntax of sql update date.

1. **UPDATE** table
2. **SET** Column_Name = 'YYYY-MM-DD HH:MM:SS'
3. **WHERE** Id = value

Let us check this by an example:

Firstly we take a table in which we want to update date and time fields.

If you want to change the first row which id is 1 then you should write the following syntax:

1. **UPDATE** table
2. **SET** EndDate = '2014-03-16 00:00:00.000'
3. **WHERE** Id = 1

Note: you should always remember that SQL must attach default 00:00:00.000 automatically.

This query will change the date and time field of the first row in that above assumed table.

SQL Delete

SQL DELETE

The **SQL DELETE statement** is used to delete rows from a table. Generally DELETE statement removes one or more records from a table.

SQL DELETE Syntax

Let's see the Syntax for the SQL DELETE statement:

1. **DELETE FROM** table_name [**WHERE** condition];

Here table_name is the table which has to be deleted. The *WHERE clause* in SQL DELETE statement is optional here.

SQL DELETE Example

Let us take a table, named "EMPLOYEE" table.

ID	EMP_NAME	CITY	SALARY
101	Adarsh Singh	Obra	20000
102	Sanjay Singh	Meerut	21000
103	Priyanka Sharma	Raipur	25000
104	Esha Singhal	Delhi	26000

Example of delete with WHERE clause is given below:

- 1. **DELETE FROM** EMPLOYEE **WHERE** ID=101;

Resulting table after the query:

ID	EMP_NAME	CITY	SALARY
102	Sanjay Singh	Meerut	21000
103	Priyanka Sharma	Raipur	25000
104	Esha Singhal	Delhi	26000

Another example of delete statement is given below

- 1. **DELETE FROM** EMPLOYEE;

Resulting table after the query:

ID	EMP_NAME	CITY	SALARY
----	----------	------	--------

It will delete all the records of EMPLOYEE table.

It will delete the all the records of EMPLOYEE table where ID is 101.

The WHERE clause in the SQL DELETE statement is optional and it identifies the rows in the column that gets deleted.

WHERE clause is used to prevent the deletion of all the rows in the table, If you don't use the WHERE clause you might loss all the rows.

Invalid DELETE Statement for ORACLE database

You cannot use * (asterisk) symbol to delete all the records.

- 1. **DELETE * FROM** EMPLOYEE;

Topics of SQL DELETE Statement

SQL DELETE TABLE

How to delete the table and what is the difference between DELETE and TRUNCATE statement?

SQL DELETE ROW

How to delete a row from the database?

SQL DELETE All Rows

How to delete all the rows of a table?

SQL DELETE Duplicate Rows

How to use distinct keyword to delete all the duplicate rows from the table?

SQL DELETE DATABASE

There is not used DELETE statement to delete the database. But, there is used DROP statement to delete the database.

SQL DELETE VIEW

How to delete the view from the database?

SQL DELETE JOIN

How to use delete statement with INNER JOIN?

SQL DELETE TABLE

The DELETE statement is used to delete rows from a table. If you want to remove a specific row from a table you should use WHERE condition.

1. **DELETE FROM** table_name [**WHERE** condition];

But if you do not specify the WHERE condition it will remove all the rows from the table.

1. **DELETE FROM** table_name;

There are some more terms similar to DELETE statement like as DROP statement and TRUNCATE statement but they are not exactly same there are some differences between them.

Difference between DELETE and TRUNCATE statements

There is a slight difference b/w delete and truncate statement. The **DELETE statement** only deletes the rows from the table based on the condition defined by WHERE clause or delete all the rows from the table when condition is not specified.

But it does not free the space containing by the table.

The **TRUNCATE statement**: it is used to delete all the rows from the table **and free the containing space**.

Let's see an "employee" table.

Emp_id	Name	Address	Salary
1	Aryan	Allahabad	22000
2	Shurabhi	Varanasi	13000
3	Pappu	Delhi	24000

Execute the following query to truncate the table:

1. **TRUNCATE TABLE** employee;

Difference b/w DROP and TRUNCATE statements

When you use the drop statement it deletes the table's row together with the table's definition so all the relationships of that table with other tables will no longer be valid.

When you drop a table:

- Table structure will be dropped
- Relationship will be dropped
- Integrity constraints will be dropped
- Access privileges will also be dropped

On the other hand when we **TRUNCATE** a table, the table structure remains the same, so you will not face any of the above problems.

SQL DELETE ROW

Let us take an example of student.

Original table:

ID	STUDENT_NAME	ADDRESS
001	AJEET MAURYA	GHAZIABAD
002	RAJA KHAN	LUCKNOW
003	RAVI MALIK	DELHI

If you want to delete a student with id 003 from the student_name table, then the SQL DELETE query should be like this:

1. **DELETE FROM** student_name
2. **WHERE** id = 003;

Resulting table after SQL DELETE query:

ID	STUDENT_NAME	ADDRESS
001	AJEET MAURYA	GHAZIABAD
002	RAJA KHAN	LUCKNOW

SQL DELETE ALL ROWS

The statement SQL DELETE ALL ROWS is used to delete all rows from the table. If you want to delete all the rows from student table the query would be like,

1. **DELETE FROM** STUDENT_NAME;

Resulting table after using this query:

ID	STUDENT_NAME	ADDRESS
----	--------------	---------

SQL DELETE DUPLICATE ROWS

If you have got a situation that you have multiple duplicate records in a table, so at the time of fetching records from the table you should be more careful. You make sure that you are fetching unique records instead of fetching duplicate records.

To overcome with this problem we use DISTINCT keyword.

It is used along with SELECT statement to eliminate all duplicate records and fetching only unique records.

SYNTAX:

The basic syntax to eliminate duplicate records from a table is:

- 1. **SELECT DISTINCT** column1, column2,....columnN
- 2. **FROM table** _name
- 3. **WHERE** [conditions]

EXAMPLE:

Let us take an example of STUDENT table.

ROLL_NO	NAME	PERCENTAGE	ADDRESS
1	AJEET MAURYA	72.8	ALLAHABAD
2	CHANDAN SHARMA	63.5	MATHURA
3	DIVYA AGRAWAL	72.3	VARANASI
4	RAJAT KUMAR	72.3	DELHI
5	RAVI TYAGI	75.5	HAPUR
6	SONU JAISWAL	71.2	GHAZIABAD

Firstly we should check the SELECT query and see how it returns the duplicate percentage records.

- 1. SQL > **SELECT** PERCENTAGE **FROM** STUDENTS
- 2. **ORDER BY** PERCENTAGE;

PERCENTAGE
63.5
71.2
72.3
72.3
72.8
75.5

Now let us use SELECT query with DISTINCT keyword and see the result. This will eliminate the duplicate entry.

- 1. SQL > **SELECT DISTINCT** PERCENTAGE **FROM** STUDENTS
- 2. **ORDER BY** PERCENTAGE;

PERCENTAGE

63.5
71.2
72.3
72.8
75.5

SQL DELETE DATABASE

You can easily remove or delete indexes, tables and databases with the DROP statement.

The DROP index statement is:

Used to delete index in the table

DROP INDEX SYNTAX for MS Access:

- 1. **DROP INDEX** index_name **ON** table_name

DROP INDEX SYNTAX for MS SQL Server:

- 1. **DROP INDEX** table_name.index_name

DROP INDEX syntax for DB2/Oracle:

- 1. **DROP INDEX** index_name

DROP INDEX syntax for MySQL:

- 1. **ALTER TABLE** table_name **DROP INDEX** index_name

DROP DATABASE Statement:

The drop database statement is used to delete a database.

- 1. **DROP DATABASE** database_name

Note:

We should always note that in RDBMS, database name should be unique.

We should always remember that DROP database command may be the cause of loss of all information so we should always be careful while doing this operation.

SQL DELETE VIEW

Before knowing about what is SQL delete view, it is important to know -

What is SQL view?

A view is a result set of a stored query on the data.

The SQL view is a table which does not physically exist. It is only a virtual table.

SQL VIEW can be created by a SQL query by joining one or more table.

Syntax for SQL create view -

- 1. **CREATE VIEW** view_name **AS**
- 2. **SELECT** columns
- 3. **FROM** tables
- 4. **WHERE** conditions;

If you want to delete a SQL view, It is done by SQL DROP command you should use the following syntax:

SQL DROP VIEW syntax:

1. **DROP VIEW** view_name

Why use the SQL DROP VIEW statement?

When a view no longer useful you may drop the view permanently. Also if a view needs change within it, it would be dropped and then created again with changes in appropriate places.

SQL DELETE JOIN

This is very commonly asked question that how to delete or update rows using join clause

It is not a very easy process, sometimes, we need to update or delete records on the basis of complex WHERE clauses.

There are three tables which we use to operate on SQL syntax for DELETE JOIN.

These tables are table1, table2 and target table.

SQL Syntax for delete JOIN

1. **DELETE** [target **table**]
2. **FROM** [table1]
3. **INNER JOIN** [table2]
4. **ON** [table1.[joining **column**] = [table2].[joining **column**]
5. **WHERE** [condition]

Syntax for update

1. **UPDATE** [target **table**]
2. **SET** [target **column**] = [new value]
3. **FROM** [table1]
4. **INNER JOIN** [table2]
5. **ON** [table1.[joining **column**] = [table2].[joining **column**]
6. **WHERE** [condition]

SQL Join

SQL JOIN

As the name shows, JOIN means *to combine something*. In case of SQL, JOIN means "**to combine two or more tables**".

The SQL JOIN clause takes records from two or more tables in a database and combines it together.

ANSI standard SQL defines five types of JOIN :

1. inner join,
2. left outer join,
3. right outer join,
4. full outer join, and
5. cross join.

In the process of joining, rows of both tables are combined in a single table.

Why SQL JOIN is used?

If you want to access more than one table through a select statement.

If you want to combine two or more table then SQL JOIN statement is used .it combines rows of that tables in one table and one can retrieve the information by a SELECT statement.

The joining of two or more tables is based on common field between them.

SQL INNER JOIN also known as simple join is the most common type of join.

How to use SQL join or SQL Inner Join?

Let an example to deploy SQL JOIN process:

1.Staff table

ID	Staff_NAME	Staff_AGE	STAFF_ADDRESS	Monthley_Package
1	ARYAN	22	MUMBAI	18000
2	SUSHIL	32	DELHI	20000
3	MONTY	25	MOHALI	22000
4	AMIT	20	ALLAHABAD	12000

2.Payment table

Payment_ID	DATE	Staff_ID	AMOUNT
101	30/12/2009	1	3000.00
102	22/02/2010	3	2500.00
103	23/02/2010	4	3500.00

So if you follow this JOIN statement to join these two tables ?

1. **SELECT** Staff_ID, Staff_NAME, Staff_AGE, AMOUNT
2. **FROM** STAFF s, PAYMENT p
3. **WHERE** s.ID =p.STAFF_ID;

This will produce the result like this:

STAFF_ID	NAME	Staff_AGE	AMOUNT
3	MONTY	25	2500
1	ARYAN	22	3000
4	AMIT	25	3500
1	ARYAN	22	3000

SQL OUTER JOIN

In the SQL outer JOIN all the content of the both tables are integrated together either they are matched or not.

If you take an example of employee table

Outer join of two types:

1.Left outer join (also known as left join): this join returns all the rows from left table combine with the matching rows of the right table. If you get no matching in the right table it returns NULL values.

2.Right outer join (also known as right join): this join returns all the rows from right table are combined with the matching rows of left table .If you get no column matching in the left table .it returns null value.

This diagram shows the different type of joins:

SQL LEFT JOIN

The SQL left join returns all the values from the left table and it also includes matching values from right table, if there are no matching join value it returns NULL.

BASIC SYNTAX FOR LEFT JOIN:

- 1. **SELECT** table1.column1, table2.column2....
- 2. **FROM** table1
- 3. LEFTJOIN table2
- 4. **ON** table1.column_field = table2.column_field;

let us take two tables in this example to elaborate all the things:

CUSTOMER TABLE:

ID	NAME	AGE	SALARY
1	ARYAN	51	56000
2	AROHI	21	25000
3	VINEET	24	31000
4	AJEET	23	32000
5	RAVI	23	42000

This is second table

ORDER TABLE:

O_ID	DATE	CUSTOMER_ID	AMOUNT
001	20-01-2012	2	3000
002	12-02-2012	2	2000
003	22-03-2012	3	4000
004	11-04-2012	4	5000

join these two tables with LEFT JOIN:

- 1. SQL **SELECT** ID, **NAME**, AMOUNT,**DATE**
- 2. **FROM** CUSTOMER
- 3. **LEFT** JOIN **ORDER**
- 4. **ON** CUSTOMER.ID = **ORDER**.CUSTOMER_ID;

This will produce the following result:

ID	NAME	AMOUNT	DATE
1	ARYAN	NULL	NULL
2	AROHI	3000	20-01-2012
2	AROHI	2000	12-02-2012
3	VINEET	4000	22-03-2012
4	AJEET	5000	11-04-2012
5	RAVI	NULL	NULL

SQL RIGHT JOIN

The SQL right join returns all the values from the rows of right table. It also includes the matched values from left table but if there is no matching in both tables, it returns NULL.

Basic syntax for right join:

1. **SELECT** table1.column1, table2.column2.....
2. **FROM** table1
3. **RIGHT JOIN** table2
4. **ON** table1.column_field = table2.column_field;

let us take an example with 2 tables table1 is CUSTOMERS table and table2 is ORDERS table.

CUSTOMER TABLE:

ID	NAME	AGE	SALARY
1	ARYAN	51	56000
2	AROHI	21	25000
3	VINEET	24	31000
4	AJEET	23	32000
5	RAVI	23	42000

and this is the second table:

ORDER TABLE:

DATE	O_ID	CUSTOMER_ID	AMOUNT
20-01-2012	001	2	3000
12-02-2012	002	2	2000
22-03-2012	003	3	4000
11-04-2012	004	4	5000

Here we will join these two tables with SQL RIGHT JOIN:

- 1. SQL> **SELECT** ID,**NAME**,AMOUNT,**DATE**
- 2. **FROM** CUSTOMER
- 3. **RIGHT** JOIN **ORDER**
- 4. **ON** CUSTOMER.ID = **ORDER**.CUSTOMER_ID;

ID	NAME	AMOUNT	DATE
2	AROHI	3000	20-01-2012
2	AROHI	2000	12-02-2012
3	VINEET	4000	22-03-2012
4	AJEET	5000	11-04-2012

SQL FULL JOIN

The SQL full join is the result of combination of both left and right outer join and the join tables have all the records from both tables. It puts NULL on the place of matches not found.

SQL full outer join and SQL join are same. generally it is known as SQL FULL JOIN.

SQL full outer join:

What is SQL full outer join?

SQL full outer join is used to combine the result of both left and right outer join and returns all rows (don't care its matched or unmatched) from the both participating tables.

Syntax for full outer join:

- 1. **SELECT** *
- 2. **FROM** table1
- 3. **FULL** OUTER JOIN table2
- 4. **ON** table1.column_name = table2.column_name;

Note:here table1 and table2 are the name of the tables participating in joining and column_name is the column of the participating tables.

Let us take two tables to demonstrate full outer join:

table_A

A	M
1	m
2	n
4	o

table_B

A	N
2	p
3	q

5	r
---	---

Resulting table

A	M	A	N
2	n	2	p
1	m	-	-
4	o	-	-
-	-	3	q
-	-	5	r

Because this is a full outer join so all rows (both matching and non-matching) from both tables are included in the output. Here only one row of output displays values in all columns because there is only one match between table_A and table_B.

Pictorial representation of full outer join:

SQL Cross Join

- Join operation in SQL is used to combine multiple tables together into a single table.
- If we use the cross join to combine two different tables, then we will get the Cartesian product of the sets of rows from the joined table. When each row of the first table is combined with each row from the second table, it is known as Cartesian join or cross join.
- After performing the cross join operation, the total number of rows present in the final table will be equal to the product of the number of rows present in table 1 and the number of rows present in table 2.
- For** **example:**
If there are two records in table 1 and three records in table 2, then after performing cross join operation, we will get six records in the final table.
- Let us take a look at the syntax of writing a query to perform the cross join operation in SQL.

- SELECT** TableName1.columnName1, TableName2.columnName2 **FROM** TableName1 **CROSS JOIN** TableName2 **ON** TableName1.ColumnName = TableName2.ColumnName;

Now let us see take a deeper dive into the cross join in SQL with the help of examples. All the queries in the examples will be written using the MySQL database.

Consider we have the following tables with the given data:

Table 1: MatchScore

Player	Department_id	Goals
Franklin	1	2
Alan	1	3
Priyanka	2	2
Rajesh	3	5

Table 2: Departments

Department_id	Department_name
1	IT
2	HR
3	Marketing

Table 3: employee

EmployeeID	Employee_Name	Employee_Salary
1	Arun Tiwari	50000
2	Sachin Rathi	64000
3	Harshal Pathak	48000
4	Arjun Kuwar	46000
5	Sarthak Gada	62000

Table 4: department

DepartmentID	Department_Name	Employee_ID
1	Production	1
2	Sales	3
3	Marketing	4
4	Accounts	5

Table 5: loan

LoanID	Branch	Amount
1	B1	15000
2	B2	10000
3	B3	20000
4	B4	100000

Table 6: borrower

CustID	CustName	LoanID
1	Sonakshi Dixit	1
2	Shital Garg	4

3	Swara Joshi	5
4	Isha Deshmukh	2

Table 7: customer

Customer_ID	Name	Age	Salary
1	Aryan Jain	51	56000
2	Arohi Dixit	21	25000
3	Vineet Garg	24	31000

Table 8: orders

Order_ID	Order_Date	Cutomer_ID	Amount
1	2012-01-20	2	3000
2	2012-05-18	2	2000
3	2012-06-28	3	4000

Example 1:

Write a query to perform the cross join operation considering the MatchScore table as the left table and the Departments table as the right table.

Query:

1. **SELECT * FROM** MatchScore **CROSS JOIN** Departments;

We have used the SELECT command with the asterisk to retrieve all the columns present in the MatchScore and Departments table. Then we have used the CROSS JOIN keyword to perform the cross join operation on the MatchScore and Departments table. Since there are 4 records in the MatchScore and 3 records in the Departments table, after performing the cross join operation, we will get 12 rows.

After executing this query, you will find the following result:

Player	Department_id	Goals	Depatment_id	Department_name
Franklin	1	2	1	IT
Alan	1	3	1	IT
Priyanka	2	2	1	IT
Rajesh	3	5	1	IT
Franklin	1	2	2	HR
Alan	1	3	2	HR
Priyanka	2	2	2	HR
Rajesh	3	5	2	HR

Franklin	1	2	3	Marketing
Alan	1	3	3	Marketing
Priyanka	2	2	3	Marketing
Rajesh	3	5	3	Marketing

Each row from the MatchScore table is combined with each row of the Departments table. Since there are four records in the MatchScore and three records in the Departments table, we have got 12 rows in the final table after performing the cross join operation.

Example 2:

Write a query to perform the cross join operation considering the employee table as the left table and the department table as the right table.

Query:

- mysql> **SELECT *FROM** employee **CROSS JOIN** department;

We have used the SELECT command with the asterisk to retrieve all the columns present in the employee and department table. Then we have used the CROSS JOIN keyword to perform the cross join operation on the employee and department table. Since there are five records in the employee and four records in the department table, after performing the cross join operation, we will get 20 rows.

After executing this query, you will find the following result:

EmployeeID	Employee_Name	Employee_Salary	DepartmentID	Department_Name	Employee_ID
1	Arun Tiwari	50000	1	Production	1
1	Arun Tiwari	50000	2	Sales	3
1	Arun Tiwari	50000	3	Marketing	4
1	Arun Tiwari	50000	4	Accounts	5
2	Sachin Rathi	64000	1	Production	1
2	Sachin Rathi	64000	2	Sales	3
2	Sachin Rathi	64000	3	Marketing	4
2	Sachin Rathi	64000	4	Accounts	5
3	Harshal Pathak	48000	1	Production	1
3	Harshal Pathak	48000	2	Sales	3
3	Harshal Pathak	48000	3	Marketing	4
3	Harshal Pathak	48000	4	Accounts	5
4	Arjun Kuwar	46000	1	Production	1
4	Arjun Kuwar	46000	2	Sales	3
4	Arjun Kuwar	46000	3	Marketing	4

4	Arjun Kuwar	46000	4	Accounts	5
5	Sarthak Gada	62000	1	Production	1
5	Sarthak Gada	62000	2	Sales	3
5	Sarthak Gada	62000	3	Marketing	4
5	Sarthak Gada	62000	4	Accounts	5

Each row from the employee table is combined with each row of the department table. Since there are five records in the employee table and four records in the department table, we have got 20 rows in the final table after performing the cross join operation.

Example 3:

Write a query to perform the cross join operation considering the loan table as the left table and the borrower table as the right table.

Query:

- mysql> **SELECT *FROM** loan **CROSS JOIN** borrower;

We have used the SELECT command with the asterisk to retrieve all the columns present in the loan and the borrower table. Then we have used the CROSS JOIN keyword to perform the cross join operation on the loan and the borrower table. Since there are four records in the loan table and four records in the borrower table, after performing the cross join operation, we will get 16 rows.

After executing this query, you will find the following result:

LoanID	Branch	Amount	CustID	CustName	LoanID
1	B1	15000	1	Sonakshi Dixit	1
2	B2	10000	1	Sonakshi Dixit	1
3	B3	20000	1	Sonakshi Dixit	1
4	B4	100000	1	Sonakshi Dixit	1
1	B1	15000	2	Shital Garg	4
2	B2	10000	2	Shital Garg	4
3	B3	20000	2	Shital Garg	4
4	B4	100000	2	Shital Garg	4
1	B1	15000	3	Swara Joshi	5
2	B2	10000	3	Swara Joshi	5
3	B3	20000	3	Swara Joshi	5
4	B4	100000	3	Swara Joshi	5
1	B1	15000	4	Isha Deshmukh	2
2	B2	10000	4	Isha Deshmukh	2

3	B3	20000	4	Isha Deshmukh	2
4	B4	100000	4	Isha Deshmukh	2

Each row from the loan table is combined with each row of the borrower table. Since there are four records in the loan table and four records in the borrower table, after performing the cross join operation, we have got 16 rows.

Example 4:

Write a query to perform the cross join operation considering the customer table as the left table and the orders table as the right table.

Query:

- mysql> **SELECT *FROM** customer **CROSS JOIN** orders;

We have used the SELECT command with the asterisk to retrieve all the columns present in the customer and orders table. Then we have used the CROSS JOIN keyword to perform the cross join operation on the customer table and the orders table. Since there are three records in the loan table and three records in the orders table, after performing the cross join operation, we will get 9 rows.

After executing this query, you will find the following result:

Customer_ID	Name	Age	Salary	Order_ID	Order_Date	Customer_ID	Amount
1	Aryan Jain	51	56000	1	2012-01-20	2	3000
2	Arohi Dixit	21	25000	1	2012-01-20	2	3000
3	Vineet Garg	24	31000	1	2012-01-20	2	3000
1	Aryan Jain	51	56000	2	2012-05-18	2	2000
2	Arohi Dixit	21	25000	2	2012-05-18	2	2000
3	Vineet Garg	24	31000	2	2012-05-18	2	2000
1	Aryan Jain	51	56000	3	2012-06-28	3	4000
2	Arohi Dixit	21	25000	3	2012-06-28	3	4000
3	Vineet Garg	24	31000	3	2012-06-28	3	4000

Each row from the customers' table is combined with each row of the orders table. Since there are three records in the loan table and three records in the orders table, after performing the cross join operation, we will get 9 rows.

SQL Keys

SQL PRIMARY KEY

A column or columns is called **primary key (PK)** that *uniquely identifies each row in the table*.

If you want to create a primary key, you should define a PRIMARY KEY constraint when you create or modify a table.

When multiple columns are used as a primary key, it is known as **composite primary key**.

In designing the composite primary key, you should use as few columns as possible. It is good for storage and performance both, the more columns you use for primary key the more storage space you require.

Inn terms of performance, less data means the database can process faster.

Points to remember for primary key:

- Primary key enforces the entity integrity of the table.
- Primary key always has unique data.
- A primary key length cannot be exceeded than 900 bytes.
- A primary key cannot have null value.
- There can be no duplicate value for a primary key.
- A table can contain only one primary key constraint.

When we specify a primary key constraint for a table, database engine automatically creates a unique index for the primary key column.

Main advantage of primary key:

The main advantage of this uniqueness is that we get **fast access**.

In oracle, it is not allowed for a primary key to contain more than 32 columns.

SQL primary key for one column:

The following SQL command creates a PRIMARY KEY on the "S_Id" column when the "students" table is created.

MySQL:

1. **CREATE TABLE** students
2. (
3. S_Id **int** NOT NULL,
4. LastName **varchar** (255) NOT NULL,
5. FirstName **varchar** (255),
6. Address **varchar** (255),
7. City **varchar** (255),
8. **PRIMARY KEY** (S_Id)
9.)

SQL Server, Oracle, MS Access:

1. **CREATE TABLE** students
2. (
3. S_Id **int** NOT NULL **PRIMARY KEY**,
4. LastName **varchar** (255) NOT NULL,
5. FirstName **varchar** (255),
6. Address **varchar** (255),
7. City **varchar** (255),
8.)

SQL primary key for multiple columns:

MySQL, SQL Server, Oracle, MS Access:

1. **CREATE TABLE** students
2. (
3. S_Id **int** NOT NULL,
4. LastName **varchar** (255) NOT NULL,
5. FirstName **varchar** (255),
6. Address **varchar** (255),
7. City **varchar** (255),
8. **CONSTRAINT** pk_StudentID **PRIMARY KEY** (S_Id, LastName)
9.)

Note:you should note that in the above example there is only one PRIMARY KEY (pk_StudentID). However it is made up of two columns (S_Id and LastName).

SQL primary key on ALTER TABLE

When table is already created and you want to create a PRIMARY KEY constraint on the "S_Id" column you should use the following SQL:

Primary key on one column:

1. **ALTER TABLE** students
2. **ADD PRIMARY KEY** (S_Id)

Primary key on multiple column:

1. **ALTER TABLE** students
2. **ADD CONSTRAINT** pk_StudentID **PRIMARY KEY** (S_Id,LastName)

When you use ALTER TABLE statement to add a primary key, the primary key columns must not contain NULL values (when the table was first created).

How to DROP a PRIMARY KEY constraint?

If you want to DROP (remove) a primary key constraint, you should use following syntax:

MySQL:

1. **ALTER TABLE** students
2. **DROP PRIMARY KEY**

SQL Server / Oracle / MS Access:

1. **ALTER TABLE** students
2. **DROP CONSTRAINT** pk_StudentID

SQL FOREIGN KEY

In the relational databases, a foreign key is a field or a column that is used to establish a link between two tables.

In simple words you can say that, a foreign key in one table used to point primary key in another table.

Let us take an example to explain it:

Here are two tables first one is students table and second is orders table.

Here orders are given by students.

First table:

S_Id	LastName	FirstName	CITY
1	MAURYA	AJEET	ALLAHABAD
2	JAISWAL	RATAN	GHAZIABAD
3	ARORA	SAUMYA	MODINAGAR

Second table:

O_Id	OrderNo	S_Id
------	---------	------

1	99586465	2
2	78466588	2
3	22354846	3
4	57698656	1

Here you see that "S_Id" column in the "Orders" table points to the "S_Id" column in "Students" table.

- The "S_Id" column in the "Students" table is the PRIMARY KEY in the "Students" table.
- The "S_Id" column in the "Orders" table is a FOREIGN KEY in the "Orders" table.

The foreign key constraint is generally prevents action that destroy links between tables.

It also prevents invalid data to enter in foreign key column.

SQL FOREIGN KEY constraint ON CREATE TABLE:

(Defining a foreign key constraint on single column)

To create a foreign key on the "S_Id" column when the "Orders" table is created:

MySQL:

1. **CREATE TABLE** orders
2. (
3. O_Id **int** NOT NULL,
4. Order_No **int** NOT NULL,
5. S_Id **int**,
6. PRIMAY **KEY** (O_Id),
7. **FOREIGN KEY** (S_Id) **REFERENCES** Persons (S_Id)
8.)

SQL Server /Oracle / MS Access:

1. **CREATE TABLE** Orders
2. (
3. O_Id **int** NOT NULL PRIMAY **KEY**,
4. Order_No **int** NOT NULL,
5. S_Id **int FOREIGN KEY REFERENCES** persons (S_Id)
6.)

SQL FOREIGN KEY constraint for ALTER TABLE:

If the Order table is already created and you want to create a FOREIGN KEY constraint on the "S_Id" column, you should write the following syntax:

Defining a foreign key constraint on single column:

MySQL / SQL Server / Oracle / MS Access:

1. **ALTER TABLE** Orders
2. **ADD CONSTRAINT** fk_PerOrders
3. **FOREIGN KEY**(S_Id)
4. **REFERENCES** Students (S_Id)

DROP SYNTAX for FOREIGN KEY COSTRAINT:

If you want to drop a FOREIGN KEY constraint, use the following syntax:

MySQL:

1. **ALTER TABLE** Orders
2. ROP **FOREIGN KEY** fk_PerOrders

SQL Server / Oracle / MS Access:

1. **ALTER TABLE** Orders
2. **DROP CONSTRAINT** fk_PerOrders

Difference between primary key and foreign key in SQL:

These are some important difference between primary key and foreign key in SQL-

Primary key cannot be null on the other hand foreign key can be null.

Primary key is always unique while foreign key can be duplicated.

Primary key uniquely identify a record in a table while foreign key is a field in a table that is primary key in another table.

There is only one primary key in the table on the other hand we can have more than one foreign key in the table.

By default primary key adds a clustered index on the other hand foreign key does not automatically create an index, clustered or non-clustered. You must manually create an index for foreign key.

SQL Composite Key

A composite key is a combination of two or more columns in a table that can be used to uniquely identify each row in the table when the columns are combined uniqueness is guaranteed, but when it taken individually it does not guarantee uniqueness.

Sometimes more than one attributes are needed to uniquely identify an entity. A primary key that is made by the combination of more than one attribute is known as a composite key.

In other words we can say that:

Composite key is a key which is the combination of more than one field or column of a given table. It may be a candidate key or primary key.

Columns that make up the composite key can be of different data types.

SQL Syntax to specify composite key:

1. **CREATE TABLE** TABLE_NAME
2. (COLUMN_1, DATA_TYPE_1,
3. COLUMN_2, DATA_TYPE_2,
4. ???
5. **PRIMARY KEY** (COLUMN_1, COLUMN_2, ...);

In all cases composite key created consist of COLUMN1 and COLUMN2.

MySQL:

1. **CREATE TABLE** SAMPLE_TABLE
2. (COL1 **integer**,
3. COL2 **varchar**(30),
4. COL3 **varchar**(50),
5. **PRIMARY KEY** (COL1, COL2));

MySQL:

1. **CREATE TABLE** SAMPLE_TABLE
2. (COL1 **integer**,
3. COL2 **varchar**(30),
4. COL3 **varchar**(50),
5. **PRIMARY KEY** (COL1, COL2));

Oracle:

1. **CREATE TABLE** SAMPLE_TABLE
2. **CREATE TABLE** SAMPLE_TABLE
3. (COL1 **integer**,
4. COL2 **varchar**(30),
5. COL3 **varchar**(50),
6. **PRIMARY KEY** (COL1, COL2));

SQL Server:

Let's see the Syntax for the select top statement:

1. **CREATE TABLE** SAMPLE_TABLE
2. (COL1 **integer**,
3. COL2 **nvarchar**(30),
4. COL3 **nvarchar**(50),
5. **PRIMARY KEY** (COL1, COL2));

Unique Key in SQL

A unique key is a set of one or more than one fields/columns of a table that uniquely identify a record in a database table.

You can say that it is little like primary key but it can accept only one null value and it cannot have duplicate values.

The unique key and primary key both provide a guarantee for uniqueness for a column or a set of columns.

There is an automatically defined unique key constraint within a primary key constraint.

There may be many unique key constraints for one table, but only one PRIMARY KEY constraint for one table.

SQL UNIQUE KEY constraint on CREATE TABLE:

If you want to create a UNIQUE constraint on the "S_Id" column when the "students" table is created, use the following SQL syntax:

SQL Server / Oracle / MS Access:

(Defining a unique key constraint on single column):

1. **CREATE TABLE** students
2. (
3. S_Id **int** NOT NULL **UNIQUE**,
4. LastName **varchar** (255) NOT NULL,
5. FirstName **varchar** (255),
6. City **varchar** (255)
7.)

MySQL:

1. **CREATE TABLE** students
2. **CREATE TABLE** students
3. (
4. S_Id **int** NOT NULL,
5. LastName **varchar** (255) NOT NULL,
6. FirstName **varchar** (255),
7. City **varchar** (255),
8. **UNIQUE** (S_Id)
9.)

(Defining a unique key constraint on multiple columns):

MySQL / SQL Server / Oracle / MS Access:

1. **CREATE TABLE** students
2. (
3. S_Id **int** NOT NULL,
4. LastName **varchar** (255) NOT NULL,
5. FirstName **varchar** (255),
6. City **varchar** (255),
7. **CONSTRAINT** uc_studentId **UNIQUE** (S_Id, LastName)
8.)

SQL UNIQUE KEY constraint on ALTER TABLE:

If you want to create a unique constraint on "S_Id" column when the table is already created, you should use the following SQL syntax:

(Defining a unique key constraint on single column):

MySQL / SQL Server / Oracle / MS Access:

1. **ALTER TABLE** students
2. **ADD UNIQUE** (S_Id)

(Defining a unique key constraint on multiple columns):

MySQL / SQL Server / Oracle / MS Access:

1. **ALTER TABLE** students
2. **ADD CONSTRAINT** uc_StudentId **UNIQUE** (S_Id, LastName)

DROP SYNTAX FOR A FOREIGN KEY constraint:

If you want to drop a UNIQUE constraint, use the following SQL syntax:

MySQL:

1. **ALTER TABLE** students
2. **DROP INDEX** uc_studentID

SQL Server / Oracle / MS Access:

1. **ALTER TABLE** students
2. **DROP CONSTRAINT** uc_studentID

Alternate Key in SQL

Alternate key is a secondary key it can be simple to understand by an example:

Let's take an example of student it can contain NAME, ROLL NO., ID and CLASS.

Here ROLL NO. is primary key and rest of all columns like NAME, ID and CLASS are alternate keys.

If a table has more than one candidate key, one of them will become the primary key and rest of all are called alternate keys.

In simple words, you can say that any of the candidate key which is not part of primary key is called an alternate key. So when we talk about alternate key, the column may not be primary key but still it is a unique key in the column.

An alternate key is just a candidate key that has not been selected as the primary key.

Difference

SQL vs NoSQL

There are a lot of databases used today in the industry. Some are SQL databases, some are NoSQL databases. The conventional database is SQL database system that uses tabular relational model to represent data and their relationship. The NoSQL database is the newer one database that provides a mechanism for storage and retrieval of data other than tabular relations model used in relational databases.

Following is a list of differences between SQL and NoSQL database:

Index	SQL	NoSQL
1)	Databases are categorized as Relational Database Management System (RDBMS).	NoSQL databases are categorized as Non-relational or distributed database system.
2)	SQL databases have fixed or static or predefined schema.	NoSQL databases have dynamic schema.
3)	SQL databases display data in form of tables so it is known as table-based database.	NoSQL databases display data as collection of key-value pair, documents, graph databases or wide-column stores.
4)	SQL databases are vertically scalable.	NoSQL databases are horizontally scalable.
5)	SQL databases use a powerful language "Structured Query Language" to define and manipulate the data.	In NoSQL databases, collection of documents are used to query the data. It is also called unstructured query language. It varies from database to database.
6)	SQL databases are best suited for complex queries.	NoSQL databases are not so good for complex queries because these are not as powerful as SQL queries.
7)	SQL databases are not best suited for hierarchical data storage.	NoSQL databases are best suited for hierarchical data storage.
8)	MySQL, Oracle, Sqlite, PostgreSQL and MS-SQL etc. are the example of SQL database.	MongoDB, BigTable, Redis, RavenDB, Cassandra, Hbase, Neo4j, CouchDB etc. are the example of nosql database

IN vs. EXISTS

This article explains the complete overview of IN and EXISTS clause. It is one of the most common questions asked by developers who write SQL queries to filter for specific values. **The main difference between them is that IN selects a list of matching values, whereas EXISTS returns the Boolean value TRUE or FALSE.** Before making the comparison, we will first know these [SQL](#) clauses.



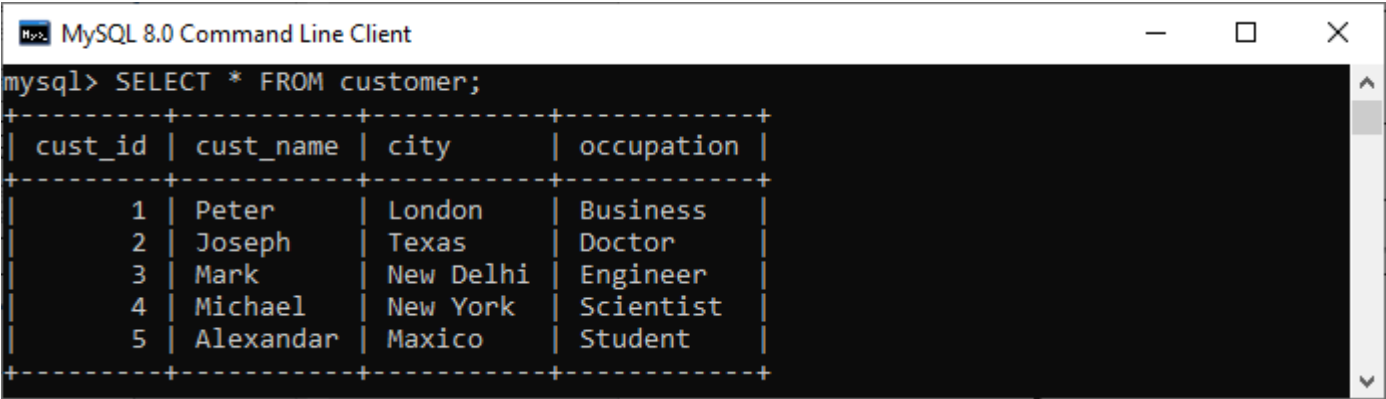
IN Operator

The IN operator is used to **retrieves results when the specified value matches any value in a set of values or is returned by a subquery.** This operator allows us to specify multiple values along with the [WHERE clause](#). It reduces the use of **multiple OR conditions** in [SELECT](#), [INSERT](#), [UPDATE](#), and [DELETE](#) queries; that's why it is also called the shorthand for multiple OR conditions.

In this operator, the inner query executes first, and the result obtained is used by the outer query to display the output. It should be remembered that the inner query is executed only once. The **IN operator** has the following syntax:

1. **SELECT** column_name(s)
2. **FROM** table_name
3. **WHERE** column_name IN (value1, value2, - - -);

Let us take an example to understand this operator. Suppose we have a table named **customer** that contains the following data:



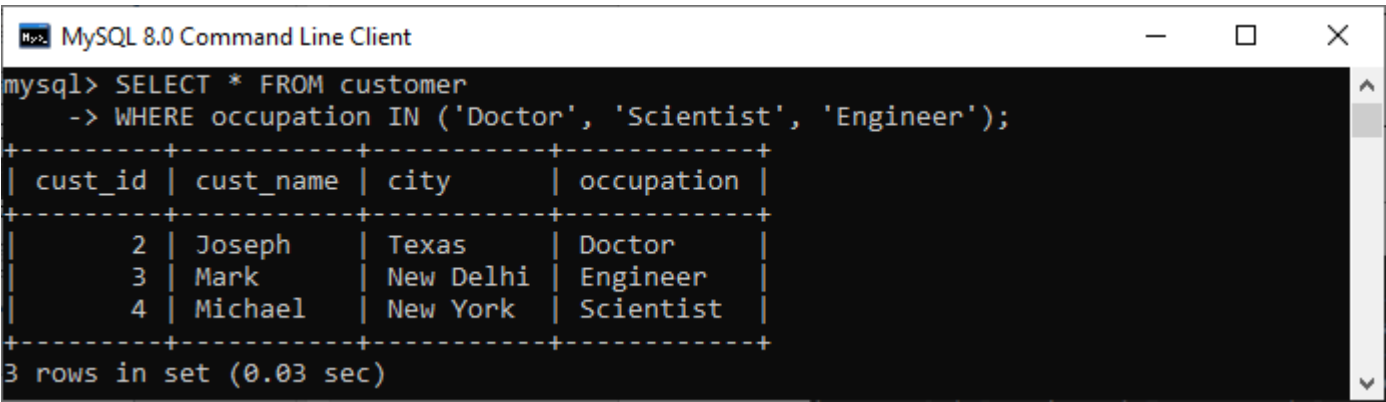
```
mysql> SELECT * FROM customer;
```

cust_id	cust_name	city	occupation
1	Peter	London	Business
2	Joseph	Texas	Doctor
3	Mark	New Delhi	Engineer
4	Michael	New York	Scientist
5	Alexandar	Maxico	Student

If we want **to get all customer details whose occupation is either doctor, engineer, or scientist**, then we can use the statement as follows:

1. mysql> **SELECT * FROM** customer
2. **WHERE** occupation IN ('Doctor', 'Scientist', 'Engineer');

Here is the output:



```
mysql> SELECT * FROM customer
-> WHERE occupation IN ('Doctor', 'Scientist', 'Engineer');
```

cust_id	cust_name	city	occupation
2	Joseph	Texas	Doctor
3	Mark	New Delhi	Engineer
4	Michael	New York	Scientist

3 rows in set (0.03 sec)

EXISTS Operator

EXISTS is a Boolean operator which **checks the subquery result and returns an either TRUE or FALSE value**. It is used in combination with subquery and checks whether a row is returned through this subquery or not. This operator returns **TRUE** if the subquery returns single or multiple records. Otherwise, it gives a **FALSE** result when no records are returned.

When the EXISTS operator detects the first true event, it automatically terminates for further processing. This feature enhances the query's efficiency. We can use the EXISTS operator with SELECT, UPDATE, DELETE, and INSERT statements. The following is the **syntax of EXISTS operator**:

1. **SELECT** col_names
2. **FROM** tab_name
3. **WHERE** [NOT] EXISTS (
4. **SELECT** col_names
5. **FROM** tab_name
6. **WHERE** condition
7.);

Let us take an example to understand this operator. Suppose we have a table named **customer** and **order** containing the following data:


```
MySQL 8.0 Command Line Client
mysql> SELECT * FROM customer;
+-----+-----+-----+-----+
| cust_id | name   | occupation | age |
+-----+-----+-----+-----+
| 101     | Peter  | Engineer   | 32  |
| 102     | Joseph | Developer  | 30  |
| 103     | John   | Leader     | 28  |
| 104     | Stephen| Scientist  | 45  |
| 105     | Suzi   | Carpenter  | 26  |
| 106     | Bob    | Actor      | 25  |
| 107     | NULL   | NULL       | NULL|
+-----+-----+-----+-----+
7 rows in set (0.00 sec)

mysql> SELECT * FROM Orders;
+-----+-----+-----+-----+
| order_id | cust_id | prod_name | order_date |
+-----+-----+-----+-----+
| 1        | 101     | Laptop    | 2020-01-10 |
| 2        | 103     | Desktop   | 2020-02-12 |
| 3        | 106     | Iphone    | 2020-02-15 |
| 4        | 104     | Mobile    | 2020-03-05 |
| 5        | 102     | TV        | 2020-03-20 |
+-----+-----+-----+-----+
```

If we want **to get all customer names and occupation who has placed at least one order**, then we can use the statement as follows:

- 1. mysql> **SELECT** name, occupation **FROM** customer
- 2. **WHERE** EXISTS (**SELECT** * **FROM** Orders
- 3. **WHERE** customer.cust_id = Orders.cust_id);

Here is the output:

```
MySQL 8.0 Command Line Client
mysql> SELECT name, occupation FROM customer
-> WHERE EXISTS (SELECT * FROM Orders
-> WHERE customer.cust_id = Orders.cust_id);
+-----+-----+
| name   | occupation |
+-----+-----+
| Peter  | Engineer   |
| Joseph | Developer  |
| John   | Leader     |
| Stephen| Scientist  |
| Bob    | Actor      |
+-----+-----+
```

Key differences between IN and EXISTS Operator

The following points explain the main differences between IN and EXISTS clause:

- The IN clause scan all records fetched from the given subquery column, whereas EXISTS clause evaluates true or false, and the SQL engine quits the scanning process as soon as it found a match.
- When the subquery results are large, EXISTS operator provides better performance. In contrast, when the sub-query results are small, the IN operator is faster than EXISTS.
- IN operator always picks the matching values list, whereas EXISTS returns the Boolean values TRUE or FALSE.
- EXISTS operator can only be used with subqueries, whereas we can use the IN operator on subqueries and values both.
- The EXISTS clause can compare everything with NULLs, while the IN clause can't compare anything with NULL.
- IN operator performs a direct match between the columns specified before the IN keyword and a subquery result. Conversely, EXISTS operator does not check for a match because it only verifies data existence in a subquery.

IN vs. EXISTS Comparison Chart

The following comparison chart explains their main differences in a quick manner:

SN	IN Operator	EXISTS Operator
----	-------------	-----------------

1.	It is used to minimize the multiple OR conditions.	It is used to check the existence of data in a subquery. In other words, it determines whether the value will be returned or not.
2.	It compares the values between subquery (child query) and parent query.	It does not compare the values between subquery and parent query.
3.	It scans all values inside the IN block.	It stops for further execution once the single positive condition is met.
4.	It can return TRUE, FALSE, or NULL. Hence, we can use it to compare NULL values.	It returns either TRUE or FALSE. Hence, we cannot use it to compare NULL values.
5.	We can use it on subqueries as well as with values.	We can use it only on subqueries.
6.	It executes faster when the subquery result is less.	It executes faster when the subquery result is large. It is more efficient than IN because it processes Boolean values rather than values itself.
7.	Syntax to use IN clause: SELECT col_names FROM tab_name WHERE col_name IN (subquery);	Syntax to use EXISTS clause: SELECT col_names FROM tab_name WHERE [NOT] EXISTS (subquery);

Conclusion

In this article, we have made a comparison between IN and EXISTS operators. Here, we conclude that both clauses work for the same purpose, but their internal working is different. In other words, they **differ in their logical working**. We can select any of them according to our requirement, but if we have a table that contains several records (large data), it is better to use EXISTS rather than IN operator.

GROUP BY vs. ORDER BY

This article explains the complete overview of the GROUP BY and ORDER BY clause. They are mainly used for organizing data obtained by SQL queries. The difference between these clauses is one of the most common places to get stuck when learning [SQL](#). The main difference between them is that **the GROUP BY clause is applicable when we want to use aggregate functions to more than one set of rows. The ORDER BY clause is applicable when we want to get the data obtained by a query in the sorting order**. Before making the comparison, we will first know these SQL clauses.



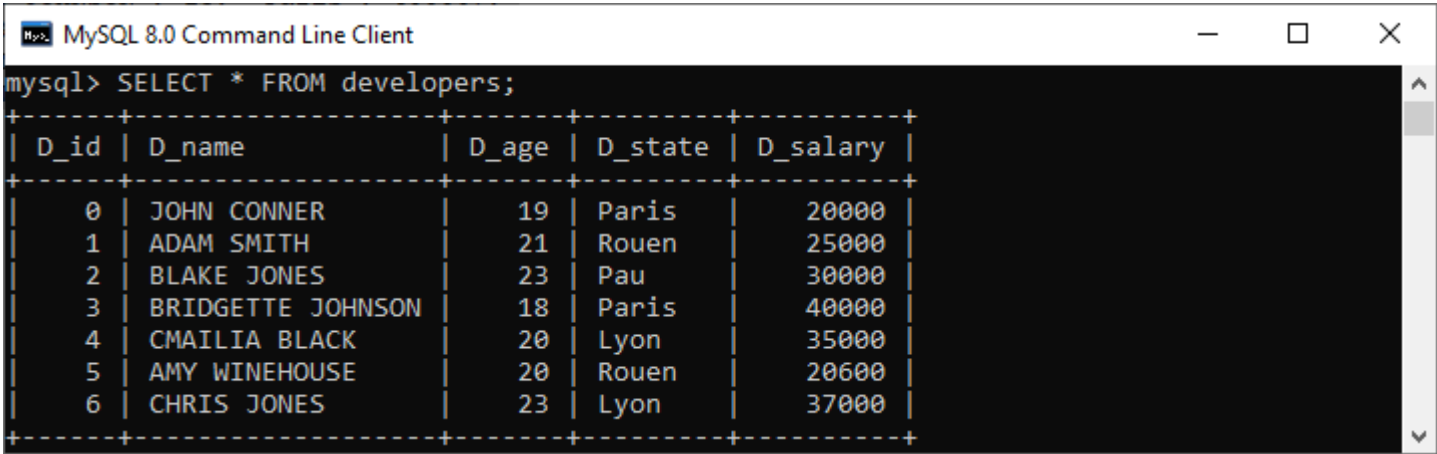
ORDER BY Clause

The [ORDER BY clause](#) is used in SQL queries to sort the data returned by a query in ascending or descending order. If we omit the sorting order, it sorts the summarized result in the ascending order by default. The ORDER BY clause, like the GROUP BY clause, could be used in conjunction with the SELECT statement. **ASC** denotes ascending order, while **DESC** denotes descending order.

The following is the syntax to use the ORDER BY clause in a SQL statement:

1. **SELECT** expressions
2. **FROM** tables
3. [**WHERE** conditions]
4. **ORDER BY** expression [**ASC** | **DESC**];

Let us understand how the ORDER BY clause works with the help of the following example. Suppose we have a table **developer** that contains the following data:



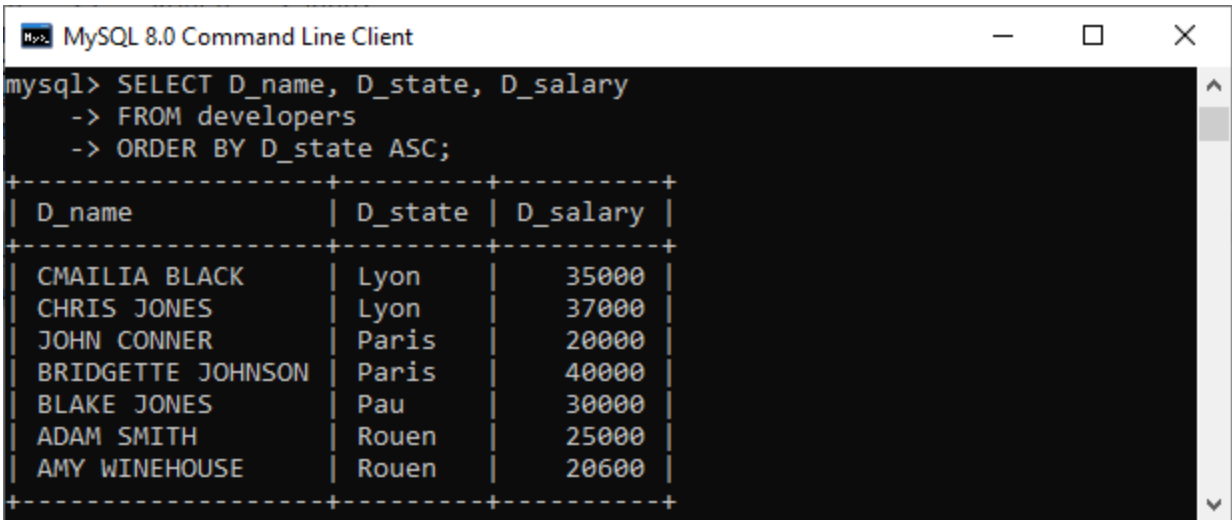
```
mysql> SELECT * FROM developers;
```

D_id	D_name	D_age	D_state	D_salary
0	JOHN CONNER	19	Paris	20000
1	ADAM SMITH	21	Rouen	25000
2	BLAKE JONES	23	Pau	30000
3	BRIDGETTE JOHNSON	18	Paris	40000
4	CMAILIA BLACK	20	Lyon	35000
5	AMY WINEHOUSE	20	Rouen	20600
6	CHRIS JONES	23	Lyon	37000

We can see that these results are not displayed in an organized way. Suppose we want to organize results in ascending or descending order based on the **state column**. In that case, we would need the ORDER BY command to get the desired result. We can do this by executing the command as follows:

1. mysql> **SELECT** D_name, D_state, D_salary
2. **FROM** developers
3. **ORDER BY** D_state **ASC**;

Here is the output where we will get the desired results:



```
mysql> SELECT D_name, D_state, D_salary
-> FROM developers
-> ORDER BY D_state ASC;
```

D_name	D_state	D_salary
CMAILIA BLACK	Lyon	35000
CHRIS JONES	Lyon	37000
JOHN CONNER	Paris	20000
BRIDGETTE JOHNSON	Paris	40000
BLAKE JONES	Pau	30000
ADAM SMITH	Rouen	25000
AMY WINEHOUSE	Rouen	20600

GROUP BY Clause

The **GROUP BY clause** is used in SQL queries to organize data that have the same attribute values. Usually, we use it with the **SELECT statement**. It is always to remember that we have to place the GROUP BY clause after the **WHERE clause**. Additionally, it is paced before the ORDER BY clause.

We can often use this clause in collaboration with aggregate functions like SUM, AVG, MIN, MAX, and COUNT to produce summary reports from the database. It's important to remember that the attribute in this clause must appear in the SELECT clause, not under an aggregate function. If we do so, the query would be incorrect. As a result, the GROUP BY clause is always used in conjunction with the SELECT clause. The query for the GROUP BY clause is grouped query, and it returns a single row for each grouped object.

The following is the syntax to use GROUP BY clause in a SQL statement:

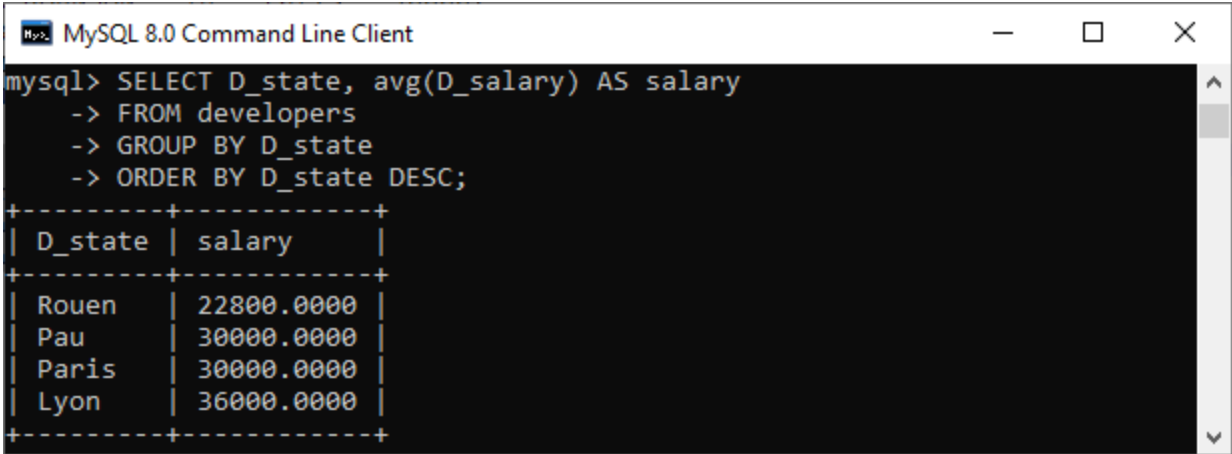
1. **SELECT** column_name, **function**(column_name)
2. **FROM** table_name
3. **WHERE** condition
4. **GROUP BY** column_name;

Let us understand how the GROUP BY clause works with the help of an example. Here we will demonstrate it with the same table.

Suppose we want to know **developer's average salary in a particular state** and organize results in descending order based on the state column. In that case, we would need both the GROUP BY and ORDER BY command to get the desired result. We can do this by executing the command as follows:

1. mysql> **SELECT** D_state, avg(D_salary) **AS** salary
2. **FROM** developers
3. **GROUP BY** D_state
4. **ORDER BY** D_state **DESC**;

This query initially formed an intermediate result that has grouped the state. Next, the **AVG** function is performed on each group of states, then sort the result in descending order, and finally, we will get the desired results as shown below:



Key Differences between GROUP BY and ORDER BY

The following are the key distinctions between the Group By and Order By clause:

- The Group By clause is used to group data based on the same value in a specific column. The ORDER BY clause, on the other hand, sorts the result and shows it in ascending or descending order.
- It is mandatory to use the aggregate function to use the Group By. On the other hand, it's not mandatory to use the aggregate function to use the Order By.
- The attribute cannot be under GROUP BY statement under aggregate function, whereas the attribute can be under ORDER BY statement under aggregate function.
- Group By clause controls the presentation of tuples that means grouping is done based on the similarity among the row's attribute values. In contrast, the ORDER BY clause controls the presentation of columns that means the ordering or sorting is done based on the column's attribute values either in ascending or descending order.
- GROUP BY is always placed after the WHERE clause but before the ORDER BY statement. On the other hand, ORDER BY is always used after the GROUP BY statement.

GROUP BY vs. ORDER BY Comparison Chart

The following comparison chart explains their main differences in a quick manner:

SN	GROUP BY	ORDER BY
1.	It is used to group the rows that have the same values.	It sorts the result set either in ascending or descending order.
2.	It may be allowed in CREATE VIEW statement.	It is not allowed in CREATE VIEW statement
3.	It controls the presentation of rows.	It controls the presentation of columns.
4.	The attribute cannot be under aggregate function under GROUP BY statement.	The attribute can be under aggregate function under ORDER BY statement.
5.	It is always used before the ORDER BY clause in the SELECT statement.	It is always used after the GROUP BY clause in the SELECT statement.

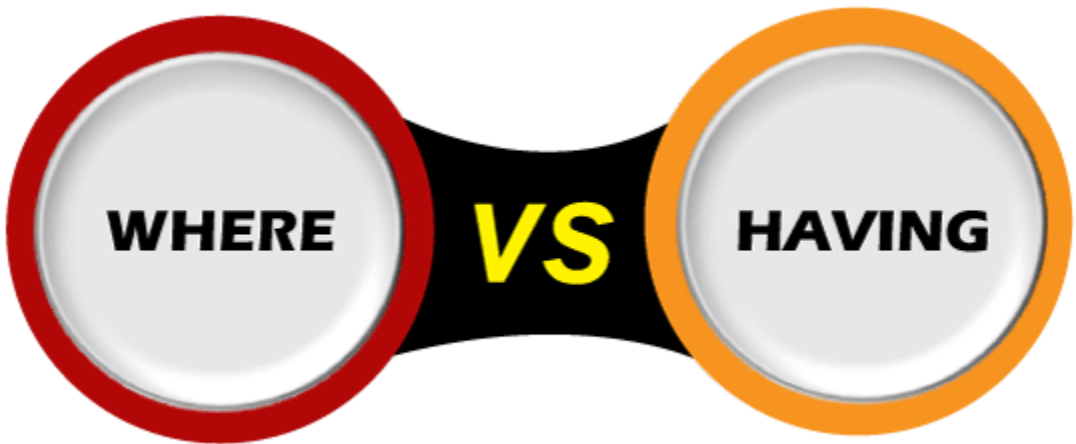
6.	It is mandatory to use aggregate functions in the GROUP BY.	It's not mandatory to use aggregate functions in the ORDER BY.
7.	Here, the grouping is done based on the similarity among the row's attribute values.	Here, the result-set is sorted based on the column's attribute values, either ascending or descending order.

Conclusion

The GROUP BY and ORDER BY clauses are compared in this article. Both clauses are extremely useful SQL database features. When we want to form a group of rows, we use the GROUP BY clause. If we want to organize data in ascending or descending order based on a particular column, we use the ORDER BY clause. They do not have any relationship because both are used for two different purposes. However, we can combine them to serve some special purpose or can use them individually depending on the circumstances. We can use these clauses only with the SELECT statement.

Difference between WHERE and HAVING

The WHERE and HAVING clauses are discussed in depth in this article. They're also used to filter records in SQL queries. The difference between the WHERE and HAVING clause is the most common question posed during an interview time. **The main difference between them is that the WHERE clause is used to specify a condition for filtering records before any groupings are made, while the HAVING clause is used to specify a condition for filtering values from a group.** Before making the comparison, we will first know these [SQL](#) clauses.



WHERE Clause

The WHERE clause in MySQL is used with [SELECT](#), [INSERT](#), [UPDATE](#), and [DELETE](#) queries to filter data from the table or relation. It describes a specific condition when retrieving records from a single table or multiple tables using the [JOIN clause](#). If the specified condition is satisfied, it returns the particular value from the table. The [WHERE clause](#) places conditions on the selected columns.

The WHERE clause in MySQL can also **implement the logical connectives** [AND](#), [OR](#), and NOT. They are known as the Boolean condition that must be **true** to retrieve the data. The logical connectives expressions use the comparison operators as their operands like <, <=, >, >=, =, and <>. The comparison operators are usually used to compare strings and arithmetic expressions.

The following syntax illustrates the use of the WHERE clause:

1. **SELECT** column_lists,
2. **FROM** table_name
3. **WHERE** conditions
4. **GROUP BY** column_lists;

Let us take an example to understand this clause. Suppose we have a table named **employees** that contain the following data:

```
MySQL 8.0 Command Line Client
mysql> SELECT * FROM employees;
+-----+-----+-----+-----+
| emp_id | name  | gender | working_hour |
+-----+-----+-----+-----+
| 101    | Bryan | M      | 12            |
| 103    | Mike  | M      | 10            |
| 104    | Daren | F      | 5             |
| 105    | Marie | F      | 8             |
| 106    | Marco | M      | 9             |
| 107    | Daren | F      | 12            |
| 108    | Mike  | M      | 10            |
| 109    | Marco | M      | 6             |
| 110    | Bryan | M      | 5             |
+-----+-----+-----+-----+
9 rows in set (0.00 sec)
```

If we want **to get the employee detail whose working hours are greater than 9**, then we can use the statement as follows:

1. mysql> **SELECT * FROM** employees
2. **WHERE** working_hour > 9;

We will get the below output where we can see employee detail whose working hours are greater than 9:

```
MySQL 8.0 Command Line Client
mysql> SELECT * FROM employees
-> WHERE working_hour > 9;
+-----+-----+-----+-----+
| emp_id | name  | gender | working_hour |
+-----+-----+-----+-----+
| 101    | Bryan | M      | 12            |
| 103    | Mike  | M      | 10            |
| 107    | Daren | F      | 12            |
| 108    | Mike  | M      | 10            |
+-----+-----+-----+-----+
4 rows in set (0.00 sec)
```

If we use the above query with the **GROUP BY clause**, we will get the different result:

1. mysql> **SELECT * FROM** employees
2. **WHERE** working_hour > 9
3. **GROUP BY name**;

Here is the output:

```
MySQL 8.0 Command Line Client
mysql> SELECT * FROM employees
-> WHERE working_hour > 9
-> GROUP BY name;
+-----+-----+-----+-----+
| emp_id | name  | gender | working_hour |
+-----+-----+-----+-----+
| 101    | Bryan | M      | 12            |
| 103    | Mike  | M      | 10            |
| 107    | Daren | F      | 12            |
+-----+-----+-----+-----+
3 rows in set (0.00 sec)
```

HAVING Clause

HAVING clause in MySQL **used in conjunction with GROUP BY** clause enables us to specify conditions that filter which group results appear in the result. It returns only those values from the groups in the final result that fulfills certain conditions. We can also use the WHERE and HAVING clause together during selection. In this case, WHERE clause first filters the individual rows, then rows are grouped, performs aggregate calculations, and at last HAVING clause filter the groups.

This clause places conditions on groups created by the GROUP BY clause. It behaves like the WHERE clause when the SQL statement does not use the GROUP BY keyword. We can use the aggregate (group) functions such as **SUM**, MIN, MAX, AVG, and **COUNT** only with two clauses: SELECT and HAVING.

The following syntax illustrates the use of the HAVING clause:

1. **SELECT** column_lists,
2. aggregate_function (expression)
3. **FROM** table_name

- 4. **WHERE** conditions
- 5. **GROUP BY** column_lists
- 6. **HAVING** condition;

Let us take an example to understand this clause. Here we are considering the same table **employees** for demonstration.

If we want **to get the total working hours for each employee whose working time is greater than 6 hour**, then we can use the statement as follows:

- 1. mysql> **SELECT** name, **SUM**(working_hour) **AS** "Total working hours"
- 2. **FROM** employees
- 3. **GROUP BY** name
- 4. **HAVING** **SUM**(working_hour) > 6;

We will get the below output where we can see each employee total working hours:

```
MySQL 8.0 Command Line Client
mysql> SELECT name, SUM(working_hour) AS "Total working hours"
-> FROM employees
-> GROUP BY name
-> HAVING SUM(working_hour) > 6;
+-----+-----+
| name | Total working hours |
+-----+-----+
| Bryan | 17 |
| Mike | 20 |
| Daren | 17 |
| Marie | 8 |
| Marco | 15 |
+-----+-----+
5 rows in set (0.03 sec)
```

Key Differences between WHERE and HAVING Clause

The following points explain the main differences between database and schema:

- WHERE clause filters individual rows, whereas the HAVING clause filters groups instead of one row at a time.
- We cannot use the WHERE clause with aggregate functions because it works for filtering individual rows. In contrast, HAVING can works with aggregate functions because it is used to filter groups.
- Row operations are handled by the WHERE clause, while the HAVING clause handles column operations to summarized rows or groups.
- WHERE comes before GROUP BY, which means WHERE clause filter rows before performing aggregate calculations. HAVING comes after GROUP BY, which means the HAVING clause filters rows after performing aggregate calculations. Consequently, HAVING is slower than WHERE in terms of efficiency and should be avoided wherever possible.
- We can combine the WHERE and HAVING clause together in a SELECT query. In this case, the WHERE clause is used first to filter individual rows. The rows are then grouped, perform aggregate calculations, and finally, the HAVING clause is used to filter the groups.
- The WHERE clause retrieves the desired data based on the specified condition. On the other hand, the HAVING clause first fetches whole data, and then separation is done based on the specified condition.
- Without a SELECT statement, we cannot use the HAVING clause. Conversely, we can use a WHERE with SELECT, UPDATE, and DELETE statements.
- WHERE clause is a pre-filter, whereas HAVING clause is a post-filter.

WHERE vs. HAVING Comparison Chart

The following comparison chart explains their main differences in a quick manner:

Comparison Basis	WHERE Clause	HAVING Clause
Definition	It is used to perform filtration on individual rows.	It is used to perform filtration on groups.

Basic	It is implemented in row operations.	It is implemented in column operations.
Data fetching	The WHERE clause fetches the specific data from particular rows based on the specified condition	The HAVING clause first fetches the complete data. It then separates them according to the given condition.
Aggregate Functions	The WHERE clause does not allow to work with aggregate functions.	The HAVING clause can work with aggregate functions.
Act as	The WHERE clause acts as a pre-filter.	The HAVING clause acts as a post-filter.
Used with	We can use the WHERE clause with the SELECT, UPDATE, and DELETE statements.	The HAVING clause can only use with the SELECT statement.
GROUP BY	The GROUP BY clause comes after the WHERE clause.	The GROUP BY clause comes before the HAVING clause.

Conclusion

In this article, we have made a comparison between the WHERE and HAVING clause. Here, we conclude that both clauses work in the same way in filtering the data, except some additional feature makes the HAVING clause more popular. We can efficiently work with aggregate functions in the HAVING clause while WHERE does not allow for aggregate functions.

Where condition in SQL

The MySQL WHERE statement is used to define a circumstance when the data is collected from a separate list or joined to several tables. If the specified circumstance is met, then only the unique value of the table is returned. To extract the information and retrieve only the correct records, you can use the WHERE statement.

Not only, the **WHERE** condition used in the Selection statement, but it is also used in the **UPDATE** assertion, **DELETE** assertion, etc.

Syntax

Now, we have discussed the syntax of the **SELECT statement** associated with the **WHERE** condition. It is shown below-

1. **SELECT** column1, column2, columnN
2. **FROM** table_name
3. **WHERE** {condition}

Note: The WHERE condition is used not only in the Selection assertion but also in the UPDATE assertion, the Remove assertion, etc.!

You may use contrast or logical operators, such as >, <, =, LIKE, NOT, etc. To define a state. The below-given example will explicitly state this notation.

For Example-

Here, we consider the table of CUSTOMERS with the below-given records.

CustomerID	CustomerName	Address	Age	Salary
001	Hardy Thompson	Maxico	25	10000.00
002	Sturt Broad Los Angeles	28	25000.00	
003	Joseph Winget	California	30	56000.00

004	David Anderson	Norway	24	76000.00
005	Alexa	Denmark	35	23000.00

Now, we will run the below-given query on **SQL** to fetch the CustomerID, CustomerName and Salary from the above table CUSTOMERS, where the salary is greater than 25000.

1. **Select** CustomerID, CustomerName, Salary
2. **from** CUSTOMERS
3. **Where** Salary > 25000;

Output

After the successful execution of the above SQL query, we got the following output.

```
CustomerID      CustomerName      Salary
003             Josaph Winget     56000.00
004             David Anderson    76000.00
```

Here, we have another instance where we would get the CustomerID, CustomerName and Salary from the database table named CUSTOMERS for a specific customer named **Joseph Winget**.

1. **Select** CustomerID, CustomerName, Salary
2. **from** CUSTOMERS
3. **Where** CustomerName = 'Joseph Winget';

Output

After the successful execution of the above SQL query, we got the above-given outcome.

```
CustomerID      CustomerName      Salary
003             Josaph Winget     56000.00
```

Note- Here, it should be noted that all strings should be specified within single quotes ("). So, as in the instance discussed earlier, should provide numerical data without any quotation.

SQL Injection

SQL Injection

The SQL Injection is a code penetration technique that might cause loss to our database. It is one of the most practiced web hacking techniques to place malicious code in SQL statements, via webpage input. SQL injection can be used to manipulate the application's web server by malicious users.

SQL injection generally occurs when we ask a user to input their username/userID. Instead of a name or ID, the user gives us an SQL statement that we will unknowingly run on our database. For Example - we create a SELECT statement by adding a variable "demoUserID" to select a string. The variable will be fetched from user input (getRequestString).

1. demoUserl = getRequestString("UserId");
2. demoSQL = "SELECT * FROM users WHERE UserId =" +demoUserId;

Types of SQL injection attacks

SQL injections can do more harm other than passing the login algorithms. Some of the SQL injection attacks include:

- Updating, deleting, and inserting the data: An attack can modify the cookies to poison a web application's database query.
- It is executing commands on the server that can download and install malicious programs such as Trojans.
- We are exporting valuable data such as credit card details, email, and passwords to the attacker's remote server.
- Getting user login details: It is the simplest form of SQL injection. Web application typically accepts user input through a form, and the front end passes the user input to the back end database for processing.

Example of SQL Injection

We have an application based on employee records. Any employee can view only their own records by entering a unique and private employee ID. We have a field like an Employee ID. And the employee enters the following in the input field:

236893238 or 1=1

It will translate to:

1. **SELECT * from** EMPLOYEE **where** EMPLOYEE_ID == 236893238 or 1=1

The SQL code above is valid and will return EMPLOYEE_ID row from the EMPLOYEE table. The 1=1 will return all records for which this holds true. All the employee data is compromised; now, the malicious user can also similarly delete the employee records.

Example:

1. **SELECT * from** Employee **where** (Username == "" or 1=1) AND (**Password**="" or 1=1).

Now the malicious user can use the '=' operator sensibly to retrieve private and secure user information. So instead of the query mentioned above, the following query, when exhausted, retrieve protected data, not intended to be shown to users.

1. **SELECT * from** EMPLOYEE **where** (Employee_name = " " or 1=1) AND (**Password**= " " or 1=1)

SQL injection based on Batched SQL statements

Several databases support batched SQL statements. It is a group of two or more SQL statements separated by semicolons.

The SQL statement given below will return all rows from the Employee table, then delete the Employee_Add table.

1. **SELECT * From** Employee; **DROP Table** Employee_Add

How to detect SQL Injection attacks

Creating a SQL Injection attack is not difficult, but even the best and good-intentioned developers make mistakes. The detection of SQL Injection is, therefore, an essential component of creating the risk of an SQL injection attack. Web Application Firewall can detect and block basic SQL injection attacks, but we should depend on it as the sole preventive measure.

Intrusion Detection System (IDS) is both network-based and host-based. It can be tuned to detect SQL injection attacks. Network-based IDSec can monitor all connections to our database server, and flags suspicious activities. The host-based IDS can monitor web server logs and alert when something strange happens.

Impact of SQL Injection

The intruder can retrieve all the user-data present in the database, such as user details, credit card information, and social security numbers, and can also gain access to protected areas like the administrator portal. It is also possible to delete the user data from the tables. These days all the online shopping applications, bank transactions use back-end database servers. If the intruder can exploit SQL injection, the entire server is compromised.

How to prevent SQL Injection attack

- We should use user authentication to validate input from the user by pre-defining length, input type, and the input field.
- Restricting the access privileges of users and defining the amount of data any outsider can access from the database. Generally, the user cannot be granted permission to access everything in the database.
- We should not use system administrator accounts.