
Database Session 4

Mohamed Emary

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1 DQL (Data Query Language)

DQL is used to display data from the database. The most common DQL command is **SELECT**.

DQL doesn't affect the actual data in the DB.

Important Note:

When reading a SQL query read it with the order in which it gets executed (This is important in interviews).

You should also know how to divide the query into parts because this will help you understand complex queries later.

Data in DB is stored in ascending ordered with the primary key.

In the examples here we will use adventureworks database. You can [download it here](#)

2 Example SELECT Statements

To specify I want to use adventureworks database I will use the following command:

```
1 | -- This depends on how you named it when you restored the database
2 | USE adventureworks;
```

Select all columns from Product table in SalesLT schema.

```
1 | SELECT *
2 | FROM SalesLT.Product;
```

Select ProductID, Name and ProductNumber columns from Product table in SalesLT schema.

```
1 | SELECT ProductID, Name, ProductNumber
2 | FROM SalesLT.Product;
```

Select ProductID, Name and ProductCategoryID columns from Product table in SalesLT schema where ProductCategoryID is greater than or equal to 40.

2 Example SELECT Statements

```
1 | SELECT ProductID, Name, ProductCategoryID
2 | FROM SalesLT.Product
3 | WHERE ProductCategoryID >= 40;
```

Select ProductID, Name and ProductCategoryID columns from Product table in SalesLT schema where ProductCategoryID is greater than or equal to 40 and less than or equal to 50.

```
1 | SELECT ProductID, Name, ProductCategoryID
2 | FROM SalesLT.Product
3 | WHERE ProductCategoryID >= 40 AND ProductCategoryID <= 50;
4 |
5 | -- OR use the BETWEEN operator
6 | SELECT ProductID, Name, ProductCategoryID
7 | FROM SalesLT.Product
8 | WHERE ProductCategoryID BETWEEN 40 AND 50;
```

Select ProductID, Name and ProductCategoryID columns from Product table in SalesLT schema where ProductCategoryID is **NOT** greater than or equal to 40 and less than or equal to 50.

```
1 | SELECT ProductID, Name, ProductCategoryID
2 | FROM SalesLT.Product
3 | WHERE ProductCategoryID NOT BETWEEN 40 AND 50;
```

Select ProductID, Name and Color columns from Product table in SalesLT schema where Color is either Black or Red.

Note:

SQL can only use single quotes ' with strings.

SQL is case-insensitive so Black and black are the same.

```
1 | SELECT ProductID, Name, Color
2 | FROM SalesLT.Product
3 | WHERE Color = 'Black' OR Color = 'Red' OR Color = 'Silver';
```

As an alternative to the above query you can use the IN operator.

```
1 | SELECT ProductID, Name, Color
2 | FROM SalesLT.Product
3 | WHERE Color IN ('Black', 'Red', 'Silver');
4 |
5 | -- NOT IN
6 | SELECT ProductID, Name, Color
7 | FROM SalesLT.Product
8 | WHERE Color NOT IN ('Black', 'Red', 'Silver');
```

If we want to get rows where SellEndDate is NULL we can use the IS NULL operator. We can't use = operator with NULL.

```
1 | SELECT ProductID, Name, SellEndDate
2 | FROM SalesLT.Product
3 | WHERE SellEndDate IS NULL;
```

The LIKE operator is used to search for a specified pattern in a column.

2 Example SELECT Statements

With LIKE you can use the following wildcards:

1. % - Zero or more characters.
2. _ - A single character.

You can also use [] to specify a range/set of characters:

1. [a-z] - Any lowercase letter.
2. [A-Z] - Any uppercase letter.
3. [0-9] - Any digit.
4. [a-zA-Z] - Any letter.
5. [^a-z] - Any character that is not a lowercase letter.
6. [^0-9] - Any character that is not a digit.
7. [^a-zA-Z] - Any character that is not a letter.
8. [abc] - Any character that is a, b or c.
9. [%] - The % inside [] is treated as a normal percentage character, while outside it is a wildcard.
10. [_] - The _ inside [] is treated as a normal underscore, while outside it is a wildcard.

Examples:

```
1  -- Products that have 'e' or 'E' as a second character in the name
2  SELECT ProductID, Name
3  FROM SalesLT.Product
4  WHERE Name LIKE '_E%';
5
6  -- Ends with 'Wheel'
7  SELECT ProductID, Name
8  FROM SalesLT.Product
9  WHERE Name LIKE '%Wheel';
10
11 -- Starts with 'Road'
12 SELECT ProductID, Name
13 FROM SalesLT.Product
14 WHERE Name LIKE 'Road%';
15
16 -- Contains 'Road' anywhere in the name
17 SELECT ProductID, Name
18 FROM SalesLT.Product
19 WHERE Name LIKE '%Road%';
```

More examples:

- 'a%h': Starts with a and ends with h.
- '%a_': a is the second last character.
- '[ahm]': Starts with a, h or m.
- '[^ahm]': Doesn't start with a, h or m.
- '[a-h]': Starts with any character from a to h.
- '[^a-h]': Doesn't start with any character from a to h.
- '[356]': Starts with 3, 5 or 6.
- '%[%]': Ends with %.

Cross Join (Cartesian Product)

- '%[_]%' : Contains _.
- '[_]%' : Starts and ends with _.

To Select just unique values you can use the DISTINCT keyword.

```
1 SELECT DISTINCT Color
2 FROM SalesLT.Product;
```

To order the result:

```
1 SELECT ProductID, Name, Color
2 FROM SalesLT.Product
3 ORDER BY Color;
4
5 -- DESC for descending order
6 SELECT ProductID, Name, Color
7 FROM SalesLT.Product
8 ORDER BY Color DESC;
9
10 -- Multiple columns
11 -- If two rows have the same value for the first column,
12 -- the order of the primary key is used to determine the order.
13 -- But here we are using the second column `Name` to determine the order
14 -- if the values in the first column (Color) are the same.
15 SELECT ProductID, Name, Color
16 FROM SalesLT.Product
17 ORDER BY Color, Name;
18
19 -- Different order for each column
20 SELECT ProductID, Name, Color
21 FROM SalesLT.Product
22 ORDER BY Color DESC, Name;
23
24 -- Use the number of the column instead of the name
25 SELECT ProductID, Name, Color
26 FROM SalesLT.Product
27 ORDER BY 3, 2; -- 3rd column then 2nd column in the selection
```

3 Joins

We need to use Joins when we need to select data from multiple tables.

3.1 Cross Join (Cartesian Product)

It's named cartesian product because it similar to the cartesian product in mathematics. Cartesian product of two sets is the set of all possible combinations of the elements of the two sets, which what happens in the cross join.

Suppose we have those two tables:

Table 1: Departments Table

ID	Name
10	Sales
20	IS
30	HR
40	Admin

Table 2: Employees Table

ID	Name	DeptID
1	Ahmed	10
2	Aya	10
3	Ali	20
4	Osama	NULL

ID is the primary key in both tables.

DeptID is a foreign key that references the ID column in the `Departments` table.

The cross join of those two tables, gives us this combination:

Table 3: Cross Join Result

E.Name	D.Name
Ahmed	Sales
Aya	Sales
Ali	Sales
Osama	Sales
Ahmed	IS
Aya	IS
Ali	IS
Osama	IS
Ahmed	HR
Aya	HR
Ali	HR
Osama	HR
Ahmed	Admin
Aya	Admin
Ali	Admin
Osama	Admin

Cross join has two different ways to write in SQL server:

1. ANSI Syntax:

```
1 | SELECT E.Name, D.Name
2 | FROM Employee E, Department D;
```

2. Microsoft T-SQL Syntax:

```
1 | SELECT E.Name, D.Name
2 | FROM Employee E CROSS JOIN
   | ↪ Department D;
```

3.2 Inner Join (Equi Join)

It's used to get the intersection of two tables.

The syntax of inner join is similar to cross join but with a **WHERE** condition. In the condition we have **PK = FK** (Primary Key = Foreign Key).

The result of the inner join of the two tables above is:

Table 4: Inner Join Result

E.Name	D.Name
Ahmed	Sales
Aya	Sales
Ali	IS

Inner join has two different ways to write in SQL server:

1. ANSI Syntax:

```
1 | SELECT E.Name, D.Name
2 | FROM Employee E, Department D
3 | WHERE E.DeptID = D.ID;
```

2. Microsoft T-SQL Syntax:

```
1 | SELECT E.Name, D.Name
2 | FROM Employee E CROSS JOIN
   | ↪ Department D
3 | ON E.DeptID = D.ID;
```

Notice that in T-SQL syntax we used **ON** instead of **WHERE**.

3.3 Outer Join

We have three types of outer joins:

1. Left Outer Join
2. Right Outer Join
3. Full Outer Join

3.3.1 Left Outer Join

A Left Outer Join returns all rows from the left table (Employee), and the matched rows from the right table (Department). If there is no match, the result is **NULL** on the side of the right table.

The result of the left outer join of the two tables above is:

Table 5: Left Outer Join Result

E.Name	D.Name
Ahmed	Sales
Aya	Sales
Ali	IS
Osama	NULL

Syntax:

```
1 | SELECT E.Name, D.Name
2 | FROM Employee E LEFT OUTER JOIN Department D
3 | ON E.DeptID = D.ID;
```

3.3.2 Right Outer Join

Right Outer Join is the opposite of the left outer join. It returns all rows from the right table (Department), and the matched rows from the left table (Employee). If there is no match, the result is NULL on the side of the left table.

The result of the right outer join of the two tables above is:

E.Name	D.Name
Ahmed	Sales
Aya	Sales
Ali	IS
NULL	HR
NULL	Admin

Syntax:

```
1 | SELECT E.Name, D.Name
2 | FROM Employee E RIGHT OUTER JOIN Department D
3 | ON E.DeptID = D.ID;
```

3.3.3 Full Outer Join

A Full Outer Join returns all rows when there is a match in either left (Employee) or right (Department) table. This means it returns all rows from both tables, with NULLs in places where there is no match.

The result of the full outer join of the two tables above is:

E.Name	D.Name
Ahmed	Sales
Aya	Sales
Ali	IS

E.Name	D.Name
Osama	NULL
NULL	HR
NULL	Admin

Syntax:

```
1 | SELECT E.Name, D.Name
2 | FROM Employee E FULL OUTER JOIN Department D
3 | ON E.DeptID = D.ID;
```

3.4 Joins Diagram

This diagram shows the different types of joins:

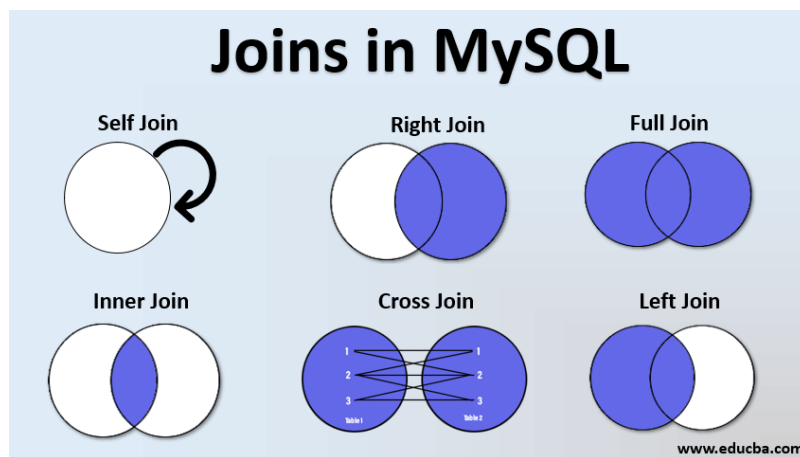


Figure 1: Joins Diagram

3.5 Examples From AdventureWorks Database

In Adventure Works database we have Product, and ProductCategory tables. ProductCategoryID in the Product table is a foreign key that references the ProductCategoryID in the ProductCategory table.

```
1 | -- Cross Join
2 | SELECT P.Name, PC.Name
3 | FROM SalesLT.Product P, SalesLT.ProductCategory PC;
4 |
5 | -- OR
6 | SELECT P.Name, PC.Name
7 | FROM SalesLT.Product P CROSS JOIN SalesLT.ProductCategory PC;
8 |
9 | -- =====
10 |
11 | -- Inner Join
12 | SELECT P.Name, PC.Name
13 | FROM SalesLT.Product P, SalesLT.ProductCategory PC
```



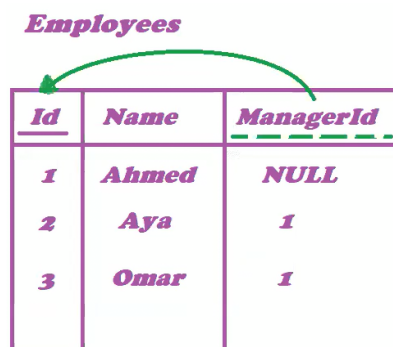
```
14 WHERE P.ProductCategoryID = PC.ProductCategoryID;
15
16 -- OR
17 SELECT P.Name, PC.Name
18 FROM SalesLT.Product P INNER JOIN SalesLT.ProductCategory PC
19 ON P.ProductCategoryID = PC.ProductCategoryID;
20
21 -- =====
22
23 -- Left Outer Join
24 SELECT P.Name, PC.Name
25 FROM SalesLT.Product P LEFT OUTER JOIN SalesLT.ProductCategory PC
26 ON P.ProductCategoryID = PC.ProductCategoryID;
27
28 -- =====
29
30 -- Right Outer Join
31 SELECT P.Name, PC.Name
32 FROM SalesLT.Product P RIGHT OUTER JOIN SalesLT.ProductCategory PC
33 ON P.ProductCategoryID = PC.ProductCategoryID;
34
35 -- =====
36
37 -- Full Outer Join
38 SELECT P.Name, PC.Name
39 FROM SalesLT.Product P FULL OUTER JOIN SalesLT.ProductCategory PC
40 ON P.ProductCategoryID = PC.ProductCategoryID;
```

3.6 Self Join

Self join is a join of a table with itself. It can be cross join, inner join, left outer join, right outer join or full outer join.

Suppose we have that Employees table:

Employees



<u>Id</u>	<u>Name</u>	<u>ManagerId</u>
1	Ahmed	NULL
2	Aya	1
3	Omar	1

Figure 2: Employees Table

And we want to get the names of the employees who are managers.

To do that we suppose that we have two copies of Employees table with different aliases, one for the employees and the other for the managers.

Multi Table Join

```
1 SELECT Emps.Name, Managers.Name
2 FROM Employees Emps, Employees
   ↳ Managers
3 WHERE Emps.ManagerID = Managers.ID;
```

This is how the two tables look like:

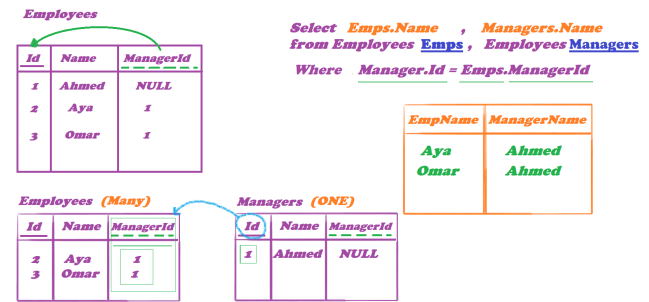


Figure 3: Self Join

Suppose you have [this ITI DB](#) which has this Students table:

	St_Id	St_Fname	St_Lname	St_Address	St_Age	Dept_Id	St_super
1	1	Ahmed	Hassan	Alex	22	10	NULL
2	2	Amr	Magdy	Cairo	21	10	1
3	3	Mona	Saleh	Alex	44	10	1
4	5	Khalid	Moahmed	Alex	24	10	1
5	6	Heba	Farouk	Cairo	25	20	NULL
6	7	Ali	Hussien	Alex	25	20	6
7	8	Mohamed	Fars	Alex	28	20	6
8	9	Saly	Ahmed	Mansoura	24	30	NULL
9	10	Fady	Ali	Alex	24	30	9
10	11	Marwa	Ahmed	Cairo	24	30	9
11	12	Noha	Omar	Cairo	21	40	NULL
12	13	Said	NULL	NULL	NULL	40	12
13	14	Amr	Saleh	Tanta	30	NULL	NULL
14	15	HASSAN	Ali	NULL	NULL	NULL	NULL
15	16	Hassan	Mohmed	NULL	NULL	NULL	NULL

Figure 4: Student Table

There is a self relation here between the St_Id and St_Super columns, as the St_Super column references the St_Id column.

To apply self join here:

```
1 -- Cross Join
2 SELECT Stds.St_Fname 'Student Name', Supers.St_Fname 'Supervisor Name'
3 FROM Student Stds, Student Supers
4
5 -- Inner Join
6 SELECT Stds.St_Fname 'Student Name', Supers.St_Fname 'Supervisor Name'
7 FROM Student Stds INNER JOIN Student Supers
8 ON Stds.St_Id = Supers.St_super
```

3.7 Multi Table Join

This is the schema of the ITI database:

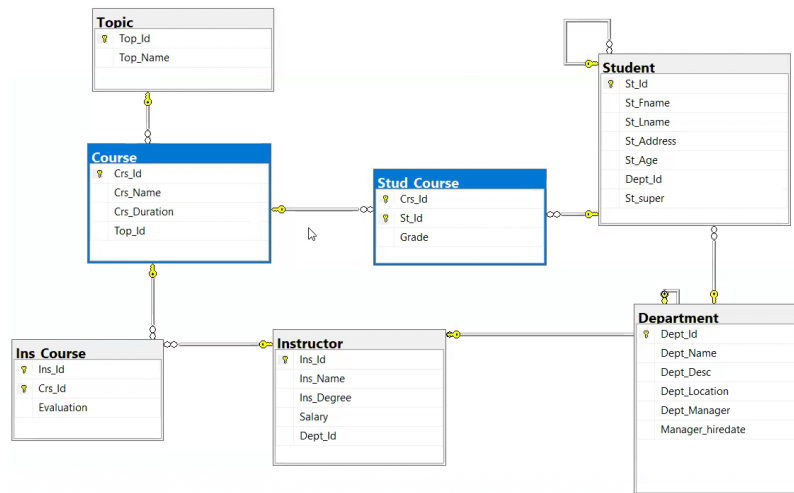


Figure 5: ITI DB Schema

As you can see we have a 3 tables: **Student**, **Course**, and **Stud_Course**. The **Stud_Course** represents the relation between the **Student** and **Course** tables. Each course the student takes has a grade which is a column in the **Stud_Course** table.

To get the names of the students and the names of the courses they are taking with their grades:

```
1 SELECT S.St_Fname 'Student Name', C.Crs_Name 'Course Name', SC.Grade
2 FROM Student S, Course C, Stud_Course SC
3 WHERE S.St_Id = SC.St_Id AND C.Crs_Id = SC.Crs_Id;
4
5 -- Using Inner Join Keyword
6 SELECT S.St_Fname 'Student Name', C.Crs_Name 'Course Name', SC.Grade
7 FROM Student S INNER JOIN Stud_Course SC
8 ON S.St_Id = SC.St_Id
9 INNER JOIN Course C
10 ON C.Crs_Id = SC.Crs_Id;
11
12 -- You can also apply a condition on the grade
13 SELECT S.St_Fname 'Student Name', C.Crs_Name 'Course Name', SC.Grade
14 FROM Student S, Course C, Stud_Course SC
15 WHERE S.St_Id = SC.St_Id AND C.Crs_Id = SC.Crs_Id AND SC.Grade >= 90;
16
17 -- OR
18 SELECT S.St_Fname 'Student Name', C.Crs_Name 'Course Name', SC.Grade
19 FROM Student S INNER JOIN Stud_Course SC
20 ON S.St_Id = SC.St_Id
21 INNER JOIN Course C
22 ON C.Crs_Id = SC.Crs_Id
23 WHERE SC.Grade >= 90;
24 -- Instead of using `WHERE` you can use `AND` in the `ON` clause
```

3.8 Join With DML

You can use joins with DML (Data Manipulation Language) statements like **INSERT**, **UPDATE**, and **DELETE**.

Self Study

In this session we will only discuss UPDATE and DELETE statements with joins, and you should study INSERT statement with joins on your own.

Update grades of students who live in Cairo:

```

1 UPDATE SC
2 SET Grade *= 1.1
3 FROM Student S, Stud_Course SC
4 WHERE S.St_Id = SC.St_Id AND S.St_Address = 'Cairo';
5
6 -- OR
7 UPDATE SC
8 SET Grade *= 1.1
9 FROM Stud_Course SC INNER JOIN Student S
10 ON S.St_Id = SC.St_Id
11 WHERE S.St_Address = 'Cairo';

```

This increases the grades of the students who live in Cairo by 10%.

Delete the grade of students who live in Cairo:

```

1 DELETE SC
2 FROM Student S, Stud_Course SC
3 WHERE S.St_Id = SC.St_Id AND S.St_Address = 'Cairo';
4
5 -- OR
6 DELETE SC
7 FROM Stud_Course SC INNER JOIN Student S
8 ON S.St_Id = SC.St_Id
9 WHERE S.St_Address = 'Cairo';

```

4 Function

Function is a DB object like table, view, or stored procedure. It's a set of SQL statements that perform a specific task, and when we want to perform that task we call the function.

Functions prevent us from writing the same code multiple times, and makes the code more readable and maintainable.

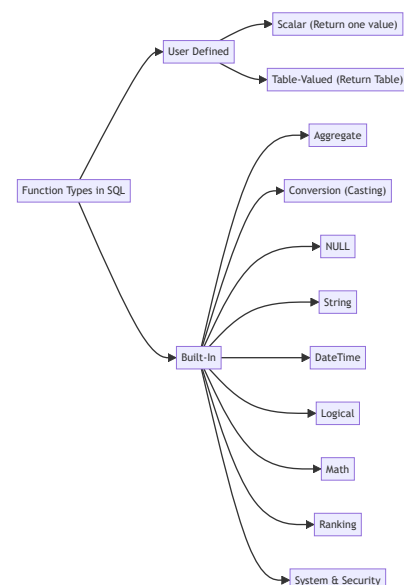


Figure 6: Function Types in SQL

4.1 String Functions

String functions are used to manipulate strings.

4.1.1 FORMAT

Format function returns a value formatted with the specified format and optional culture

It can be used to format date, time, DateTime, and strings.

Syntax:

`FORMAT(value , format [, culture])`

Examples:

```
1  -- `GETDATE()` is a function that returns the current date and time
2
3  SELECT FORMAT(GETDATE(), 'dddd dd MMMM yyyy') -- Sunday 08 December 2024
4  SELECT FORMAT(GETDATE(), 'ddd dd MMMM yyyy') -- Sun 08 December 2024
5  SELECT FORMAT(GETDATE(), 'd') -- 12/8/2024
6  SELECT FORMAT(GETDATE(), 'dd') -- 08
7  SELECT FORMAT(GETDATE(), 'ddd') -- Sun
8  SELECT FORMAT(GETDATE(), 'ddd', 'ar') -- Day name in Arabic
9  SELECT FORMAT(GETDATE(), 'ddd', 'fr') -- Day name in French
10 SELECT FORMAT(GETDATE(), 'MMMM', 'ar') -- Month name in Arabic
11 SELECT FORMAT(GETDATE(), 'HH') -- 24 hours
12 SELECT FORMAT(GETDATE(), 'hh') -- 12 hours
13 SELECT FORMAT(GETDATE(), 'mm') -- minutes
14 SELECT FORMAT(GETDATE(), 'ss') -- seconds
15 SELECT FORMAT(GETDATE(), 'hh:mm') -- 12:00
16 SELECT FORMAT(GETDATE(), 'hh:mm:ss') -- 12:00:00
17 SELECT FORMAT(GETDATE(), 'hh:mm tt') -- 12:00 AM
18 SELECT FORMAT(123456789, '###,###,###') -- 123,456,789
19 SELECT FORMAT(CAST('2022-12-31' AS DATE), N'dd/MMM/yyyy') -- 31/Dec/2022
20 SELECT FORMAT(CAST('22:30' AS TIME), N'hh\mm') -- 22:30 (Notice the
    ↪ escape character on the colon)
21 SELECT FORMAT(SYSDATETIME(), 'hh:mm tt') -- 12:00 AM
22 SELECT FORMAT(SYSDATETIME(), 'HH:mm:ss tt') -- 00:00:00 AM
```

Options used to format the date:

- d: Short date pattern 12/8/2024
- D: Long date pattern Sunday, December 8, 2024
- f: Full date/time pattern (without seconds) Sunday, December 8, 2024 12:00 AM
- F: Full date/time pattern (with seconds) Sunday, December 8, 2024 12:00:00 AM
- g: General date/time pattern 12/8/2024 12:00 AM
- G: General date/time pattern 12/8/2024 12:00:00 AM
- M: Month day pattern December 8
- t: Short time pattern 12:00 AM
- T: Long time pattern 12:00:00 AM
- Y: Year month pattern December, 2024
- yyyy: Year 2024

- yy: Year 24
- MM: Month 12
- MMM: Month Dec
- MMMM: Month December
- dd: Day 08
- ddd: Day Sun
- dddd: Day Sunday
- HH: 24 hours 00
- hh: 12 hours 12
- mm: Minutes 00
- ss: Seconds 00
- tt: AM/PM AM

4.1.2 UPPER, LOWER, and LEN

UPPER function converts a string to uppercase.

LOWER function converts a string to lowercase.

LEN function returns the length of the string.

Examples:

```
1 SELECT UPPER('Hello') -- HELLO
2 SELECT LOWER('Hello') -- hello
3 SELECT LEN('Hello') -- 5
4
5 SELECT UPPER(St_Fname) 'First Name'
6 FROM Student;
```

4.1.3 SUBSTRING, ASCII, and CHAR

SQL is 1-based index language. SUBSTRING function returns part of a string.

ASCII function returns the ASCII value of the first character of the string.

CHAR function returns the character based on the ASCII value.

Syntax:

SUBSTRING(string, start, length)

ASCII(string)

CHAR(ASCII_value)

Examples:

```
1 SELECT SUBSTRING('Hello', 2, 3) -- ell
2 SELECT SUBSTRING('Hello', 2, 100) -- ello
3 SELECT SUBSTRING('Hello', 2, LEN('Hello')) -- ello
4
5 SELECT ASCII('A') -- 65
6 SELECT ASCII('Ahmed') -- 65
7
8 SELECT CHAR(65) -- A
```

4.1.4 LEFT, and RIGHT

LEFT function returns the left part of a string.

RIGHT function returns the right part of a string.

Syntax:

LEFT(string, length)

RIGHT(string, length)

Examples:

```
1 | SELECT LEFT('Hello', 2) -- He
2 | SELECT RIGHT('Hello', 2) -- lo
```

4.1.5 LTRIM, RTRIM, and TRIM

LTRIM function removes spaces from the left side of a string.

RTRIM function removes spaces from the right side of a string.

TRIM function removes spaces from both sides of a string.

Examples:

```
1 | -- Single quotes in comments are just to show the result,
2 | -- they are not part of the result
3 | SELECT LTRIM(' Hello ') -- 'Hello '
4 | SELECT RTRIM(' Hello ') -- ' Hello'
5 | SELECT TRIM(' Hello ') -- 'Hello'
```

4.1.6 REPLACE, and REVERSE

REPLACE function replaces a substring with another substring.

REVERSE function reverses a string.

Syntax:

REPLACE(string, old_substring, new_substring)

REVERSE(string)

Examples:

```
1 | SELECT REPLACE('Hello World', 'World', 'Ahmed') -- Hello Ahmed
2 | SELECT REVERSE('Hello') -- olleH
```

4.1.7 CONCAT, and CONCAT_WS

CONCAT function concatenates two or more strings.

CONCAT_WS function concatenates two or more strings with a separator.

CONCAT, and CONCAT_WS handle NULL values by converting them into an empty string.

Syntax:

CONCAT(string1, string2 [, string3, ...])

CONCAT_WS(separator, string1, string2 [, string3, ...])

Examples:

```
1 | SELECT CONCAT('Hello', ' ', 'World') -- Hello World
2 | SELECT CONCAT('Hello', '-', 'World') -- Hello-World
3 |
4 | SELECT CONCAT_WS(' ', 'Hello', 'SQL', 'and', 'World') -- Hello SQL and
   | ↪ World
5 | SELECT CONCAT_WS('-', 'Hello', 'SQL', 'and', 'World') --
   | ↪ Hello-SQL-and-World
6 |
7 | SELECT CONCAT_WS(' ', St_Fname, St_Lname) -- Student Full Name
8 |
9 | SELECT CONCAT_WS(' ', St_Fname, St_Lname) AS 'Full Name'
10 | FROM Student
```

4.2 Aggregate Functions

Aggregate functions are called scalar functions as they return a single value.

4.2.1 COUNT

COUNT function returns the number of rows in a table.

Syntax:

```
COUNT( * )
COUNT( column_name )
```

*Note: If the row has a NULL value in the column, it **will not be counted***

__That is why if you want to count the number of rows you should use COUNT(__), or use COUNT with a NOT NULL column.__

Examples:

```
1 | SELECT COUNT(*)
2 | FROM Student;
```

4.2.2 SUM

SUM function returns the sum of the values in a column.

Syntax:

```
SUM( column_name )
```

The column has to be of a numeric type. If the column has a NULL value, it will be ignored.

Examples:

```
1 | SELECT SUM(Grade) 'Total Grade'
2 | FROM Stud_Course;
```

4.2.3 AVG

AVG function returns the average of the values in a column.

Syntax:

AVG(column_name)

The column has to be of a numeric type. If the column has a NULL value, it will be ignored.

Examples:

```
1 SELECT AVG(Grade) 'Average Grade'
2 FROM Stud_Course;
3
4 -- You can also use `SUM` and `COUNT` to get the average
5 -- Note: this gets the average of the non-NULL values only, just like
6 -- ↪ `AVG`
7 -- if you want to include the NULL values you should use `COUNT(*)`
8 SELECT SUM(Grade) / COUNT(Grade) 'Average Grade'
9 FROM Stud_Course;
```

4.2.4 MIN, and MAX

MIN function returns the minimum value in a column.

MAX function returns the maximum value in a column.

If you pass a string column to MIN or MAX it will give you the minimum or maximum value based on the ASCII values.

NULL values are ignored in both functions.

If all values in the column are NULL, the result will be NULL, but it doesn't mean that the column has a NULL value, it means that there is no minimum or maximum value.

Syntax:

MIN(column_name)

MAX(column_name)

Examples:

```
1 SELECT MIN(Grade) 'Lowest Grade'
2 FROM Stud_Course;
3
4 SELECT MAX(Grade) 'Highest Grade'
5 FROM Stud_Course;
```

There is more aggregate functions you can see them in the SQL Server documentation.

4.3 NULL Functions

NULL functions is not a category in MS SQL Server Docs, the functions we will discuss here are system functions that deal with NULL values.

4.3.1 ISNULL

ISNULL function returns the first value if it's not NULL, otherwise it returns the second value.

The replace value should be of the same type as the first value.

Syntax:

ISNULL(value, replacement_value)

Examples:

```
1 SELECT ISNULL(NULL, 'No Value') 'Value' -- No Value
2 SELECT ISNULL('Hello', 'No Value') 'Value' -- Hello
3
4 SELECT ISNULL(St_Fname, 'No First Name') 'First Name'
5 FROM Student;
6
7 -- If student has no first name, return the last name
8 -- even if the last name is NULL
9 SELECT ISNULL(St_Fname, St_Lname) 'Name'
10 FROM Student;
11
12 -- If student has no first name, return the last name
13 -- if the last name is NULL return 'No Name'
14 SELECT ISNULL(St_Fname, ISNULL(St_Lname, 'No Name')) 'Name'
15 FROM Student;
```

4.3.2 COALESCE

COALESCE function returns the first non-NULL value in the list.

Syntax:

COALESCE(value1, value2, ...)

Examples:

```
1 SELECT COALESCE(NULL, 'No Value', 'Hello') -- No Value
2 SELECT COALESCE(NULL, NULL, 'Hello') -- Hello
3
4 -- If student's first name is NULL return last name
5 -- if the last name is NULL return 'No Name'
6 SELECT COALESCE(St_Fname, St_Lname, 'No Name')
7 FROM Student;
8 -- The statement above is equivalent to:
9 SELECT ISNULL(St_Fname, ISNULL(St_Lname, 'No Name'))
```

Note:

If you want to concatenate two columns and one of them is NULL, it will return NULL, even if the other column has a value.

To avoid this you can use ISNULL or COALESCE functions.

```
1 SELECT St_Fname + ' ' + St_Lname
2 FROM Student;
3
4 -- Use ISNULL to replace NULL values with an empty string
5 SELECT ISNULL(St_Fname, '') + ' ' + ISNULL(St_Lname, '')
6 FROM Student;
```

4.4 Casting Functions

Casting functions are used to convert a value from one data type to another.

4.4.1 CONVERT

CONVERT function converts a value from one data type to another.

Syntax:

```
CONVERT( data_type, value [, style ] )
```

data_type is the target data type.

value is the value you want to convert.

style is an optional parameter that specifies the format of the result.

Examples:

```
1 SELECT St_Fname + ' ' + CONVERT(VARCHAR(max),St_Age)
2 FROM Student;
3
4 -- To handle NULL values
5 SELECT ISNULL(St_Fname, 'No Name') + ' ' +
   ↪   CONVERT(VARCHAR(max),ISNULL(St_Age, 0))
6 FROM Student
```

4.4.2 CAST

CAST function converts a value from one data type to another.

Syntax:

```
CAST( value AS data_type )
```

value is the value you want to convert.

data_type is the target data type.

Examples:

```
1 SELECT St_lname + ' ' + CAST(St_Age AS VARCHAR(MAX))
2 FROM Student;
```

Both CAST and CONVERT functions do the same thing, with just a different syntax.

The only difference is when converting from date to string, CONVERT function has more options to format the date, but anyway it's better to use FORMAT function in this case.

```
1 -- Declare and set the date variable
2 DECLARE @Today DATE = '2024-12-18';
3
4 -- Using CAST
5 SELECT CAST(@Today AS VARCHAR(MAX)); -- 2024-12-18
6
7 -- Using CONVERT with different style numbers
8 SELECT CONVERT(VARCHAR(MAX), @Today, 101); -- 12/18/2024
9 SELECT CONVERT(VARCHAR(MAX), @Today, 102); -- 24.12.18
```

```
10 SELECT CONVERT(VARCHAR(MAX), @Today, 110); -- 12-18-24
11 SELECT CONVERT(VARCHAR(MAX), @Today, 111); -- 24/12/18
```

4.4.3 PARSE

PARSE function only converts a string to date/time and number types. For general type conversion use CAST or CONVERT.

Syntax:

```
PARSE( string_value AS data_type [ USING culture ] )
```

string_value is the value you want to convert.

data_type is the target data type.

culture is an optional parameter that specifies the culture of the result.

Examples:

```
1 SELECT PARSE('2024-12-08' AS DATE) -- 2024-12-08
2
3 SELECT PARSE('123' AS INT) -- 123
4
5 SELECT PARSE('12/08/2024' AS DATE USING 'en-US') -- 2024-12-08
6
7
8 -- Usage with money:
9 SELECT PARSE('€345,98' AS MONEY USING 'de-DE'); -- 345,98
10 SELECT PARSE('345,98' AS MONEY USING 'de-DE'); -- 345,98
11 SELECT FORMAT(
12     PARSE('345,98' AS MONEY USING 'de-DE'),
13     'C',
14     'de-DE'
15 ); -- 345,98 €
```

4.4.4 TRY_PARSE, TRY_CONVERT, and TRY_CAST

TRY_PARSE, TRY_CONVERT, and TRY_CAST are similar to PARSE, CONVERT, and CAST functions, but they return NULL if the conversion fails instead of throwing an error.

```
1 SELECT PARSE('Mohamed Ahmed' AS DATE) -- Error
2 SELECT TRY_PARSE('Mohamed Ahmed' AS DATE) -- NULL
3
4 SELECT CAST('Mohamed Ahmed' AS DATE) -- Error
5 SELECT TRY_CAST('Mohamed Ahmed' AS DATE) -- NULL
6
7 SELECT CONVERT(DATE, 'Mohamed Ahmed') -- Error
8 SELECT TRY_CONVERT(DATE, 'Mohamed Ahmed') -- NULL
```

4.5 DateTime Functions

4.5.1 GETDATE

GETDATE function returns the current date and time.

```
1 | SELECT GETDATE(); // 2024-12-15 17:26:10.550
2 | // The time is 5:26 PM and 10.550 seconds
```

4.5.2 GETUTCDATE

GETUTCDATE function returns the current UTC date and time.

```
1 | SELECT GETUTCDATE(); // 2024-12-15 15:26:10.550
```

Since Egypt is in the +2 timezone, the time in UTC is 2 hours less than the local time.

4.5.3 Day, Month, Year

Day, Month, and Year functions return the day, month, and year of a date.

```
1 | SELECT DAY(GETDATE()) -- 15
2 | SELECT MONTH(GETDATE()) -- 12
3 | SELECT YEAR(GETDATE()) -- 2024
```

4.5.4 DATEPART

DATEPART function returns the specified part of a date.

Syntax:

DATEPART(datepart, date)

datepart is the part you want to get.

date is the date you want to get the part from.

Examples:

```
1 | SELECT DATEPART(DAY, GETDATE()) -- 15
2 | SELECT DAY(GETDATE()) -- 15
3 |
4 | SELECT DATEPART(MONTH, GETDATE()) -- 12
5 | SELECT MONTH(GETDATE()) -- 12
6 |
7 | SELECT DATEPART(YEAR, GETDATE()) -- 2024
8 | SELECT YEAR(GETDATE()) -- 2024
9 |
10 | SELECT DATEPART(QUARTER, GETDATE()) -- 4 -> We are in the 4th quarter
11 | SELECT DATEPART(QQ, GETDATE()) -- 4 -> QQ is Quarter abbreviation
12 |
13 | SELECT DATEPART(WEEK, GETDATE()) -- 51
14 |
15 | SELECT DATEPART(HOUR, GETDATE()) -- 17
```

Each one of HOUR, DAY, MONTH, YEAR, and QUARTER has an abbreviation. You can see all abbreviations [here](#).

4.5.5 DATENAME

DATENAME is similar to DATEPART but it returns the name of the part. The difference appears with MONTH, as DATEPART returns the number of the month, while DATENAME returns the name of the month.

Syntax:

DATENAME(datepart, date)

datepart is the part you want to get.

date is the date you want to get the part from.

Examples:

```
1 | SELECT DATENAME(MONTH, GETDATE()) -- December
```

4.5.6 ISDATE

ISDATE returns whether the value is a valid date. It returns 1 if it's a valid date, otherwise it returns 0.

It can be used in IF statements to check if the value is a valid date.

```
1 | IF ISDATE('2024-12-15') = 1
2 |     SELECT 'Valid Date';
3 | ELSE
4 |     SELECT 'Invalid Date';
```

4.5.7 EOMONTH (End Of Month)

EOMONTH returns the last day of the month that contains the specified date.

Syntax:

EOMONTH(date)

date is the date you want to get the last day of its month.

Examples:

```
1 | SELECT EOMONTH('2024-12-15') -- 2024-12-31
```

4.5.8 DATEDIFF (Date Difference)

DATEDIFF returns the difference between two dates.

Syntax:

DATEDIFF(datepart, start_date, end_date)

datepart is the part you want to get the difference in.

start_date is the start date.

end_date is the end date.

Examples:

```
1 | SELECT DATEDIFF(DAY, '2024-12-15', '2024-12-31') -- 16
2 | SELECT DATEDIFF(MONTH, '2024-10-15', '2024-12-31') -- 2
3 | SELECT DATEDIFF(YEAR, '2025-12-15', '2025-12-31') -- 0
```