

Module n°2

Retrieving date

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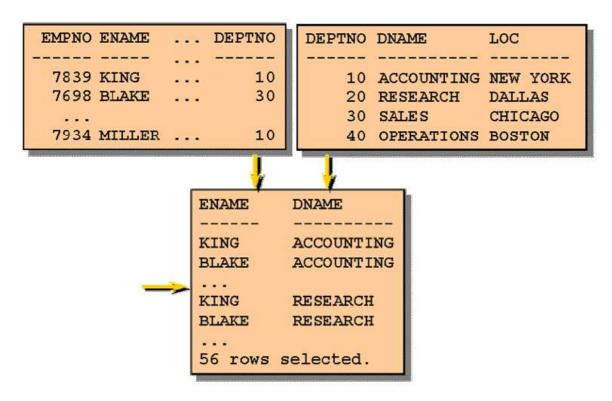
1. Displaying data from multiple tables

1.1.Obtaining data from multiple tables

1.1.1.Generating Cartesian product

A Cartesian product generates a large number of rows, and the result is not useful. When a join condition is invalid or omitted, the statement generates a Cartesian product; in which all combinations of rows are displayed.

So, if you don't want to have any Cartesian products, you must include valid join condition in the **WHERE** clause.



The Cartesian product, between the EMP and DEPT table generates 56 rows.

1.1.2. Types of joins

To retrieve information from more than one table in a single SQL statement, you MUST join tables using a join condition.

A join condition specifies an existing relation between the columns of these different tables.

Oracle Proprietary Joins (8i and prior)	SQL: 1999 compliant joins
Equijoin	Cross joins
Non-Equijoin	Natural joins
Outer join	Using clause
Self join	Full or two sided outer joins
Sen John	Arbitrary join conditions for outer joins

1.1.3. Joining tables using Oracle syntax

To display data from two or more related tables, you just have to write a simple join condition in the **WHERE** clause

Syntax:

SELECT table1.column, table2.column
FROM table1, table2
WHERE table1.column1=table2.column2

Table1.column Denotes the table and column from which data is retrieved. Table1.columnl = Is the condition that joins (or relates) the tables together. Table2.column2

When joining tables in a SQL statement:

- Precede the columns name with the table name for clarity and performance.
- Must prefix the column name with the table name if the same columns name appears in different tables.
- To join *n* tables, you MUST use *n-1* join conditions.

This statements displays employee's department names thanks to a join condition between the EMP and DEPT table.

Values of deptno in the DEPT table are equal to values of deptno on EMP table.

```
SQL> SELECT
                 emp.ename, dept.dname
 2 FROM
                 emp, dept
 3 WHERE
                       emp.deptno=dept.deptno;
             DNAME
    ENAME
          RESEARCH
    SMITH
    ALLEN
               SALES
    WARD
              SALES
             RESEARCH
    JONES
    MARTIN
               SALES
              SALES
    BLAKE
              ACCOUNTING
    CLARK
    SCOTT
              RESEARCH
    KING
               ACCOUNTING
    15 row(s) selected.
```

You should prefix the name of the columns in the **WHERE** clause with the table name to avoid ambiguity.

For example, without the table prefixes, in the previously example, the *deptno* column could be from the EMP table or the DEPT table.

1.2. Equijoins

1.2.1. Retrieving records with equijoins

An EQUIJOIN is used to retrieve information from two or more tables, when there is similarity between values from the different joined tables.

In this example:

- The **SELECT** clause specifies the column names to retrieve:
 - o Employee name, employee number and employee department number.
 - o Department number and department name.
- The **FROM** clause specifies the two tables that the database must access:
 - o EMP table
 - o DEPT table
- The WHERE clause specifies how the tables are to be joined:
 - o EMP.deptno=DEPT.deptno

We use an EQUIJOIN because the deptno column is common to the two tables.

```
SQL> SELECT
                 emp.ename, dept.dname
    FROM
                 emp, dept
 3 WHERE
                        emp.deptno=dept.deptno;
    ENAME
               DNAME
    SMITH
              RESEARCH
    ALLEN
               SALES
               SALES
    JONES
              RESEARCH
    MARTIN
              SALES
    BLAKE
               SALES
    CLARK
               ACCOUNTING
    SCOTT
               RESEARCH
               ACCOUNTING
    KING
    15 row(s) selected.
```

1.2.2.Additional search conditions using the AND operator

In addition to the join, you can restrict the rows returned using the **AND** operator. For example, if you want display only the department name of the employee SMITH, you can use the **AND** operator in the **WHERE** clause.

1.2.3. Using table aliases

You can use table aliases instead of table names, if table names are lengthy. Aliases help to keep SQL code smaller, therefore using less memory.

Guidelines:

- Table aliases can be up than 30 characters in length.
- If a table alias is used for a table name in the **FROM** clause, that alias MUST be substituted for the table name in the **SELECT** statement.
- Tables' aliases should be meaningful.
- The table alias is valid only for the current **SELECT** statement.
- The aliases are specified in the **FROM** clause after the column name, separated by a space.

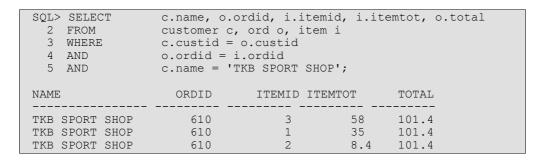
Here is an SQL statement joining the DEPT and EMP table and using table's aliases: We use "e" for the EMP table and "d" for the DEPT table.

```
SQL> SELECT
                e.ename, d.dname
 2 FROM
                emp e, dept d
  3 WHERE
                      e.deptno=d.deptno;
    ENAME
            DNAME
    SMITH RESEARCH ALLEN SALES
             SALES
    WARD
    JONES
             RESEARCH
    MARTIN
              SALES
             SALES
    BLAKE
             ACCOUNTING
    CLARK
    SCOTT
             RESEARCH
    KING
              ACCOUNTING
    15 row(s) selected.
```

1.2.4. Joining more than two tables

In some cases, you will have to join more than two tables. To create a correct join, you MUST create at least n-l join conditions for n tables.

For example, if you want to display the employee name, the department name and the department location, you have to join the EMP table with the DEPT table, and the DEPT table with the LOCATION table.

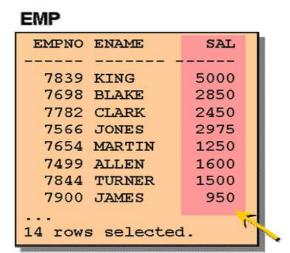


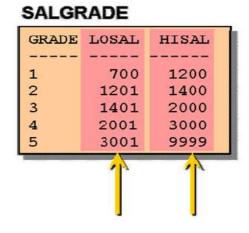
This statement displays orders, item ids, items total and the order total for the customer TBK SPORT SHOP.

1.3. Other joins

1.3.1. Retrieving records with Non-Equijoins

A Non-Equijoin is a join condition containing something other than an equality operator.





The salary in the SAL table is enclosed in the LOSAL and HISAL values in the SALGRADE table.

This statement creates a non-equijoin to evaluate an employee's salary grade. Note that all employees appear once when the statement is executed.

```
SQL> SELECT e.ename, e.sal, s.grade

2 FROM emp e, salgrade s

3 WHERE e.sal BETWEEN s.losal AND s.hisal;

ENAME SAL GRADE

JAMES 950 1
SMITH 800 1
ADAMS 1100 1
...
14 rows selected.
```

You can use other conditions, such as >= and <=; but **BETWEEN** is still the easiest way.

1.3.2. Outer joins

An outer join is used to see the rows that do not meet the join condition in addition to the rows meeting the condition.

The operator is a plus sign enclosed in parentheses (+), and placed on the side of the join that is deficient in information.

Syntax:

SELECT	table1.column, table2.column
FROM	table1, table2
WHERE	table1.column (+) =table2.column;
SELECT	table1.column, table2.column
FROM	table1, table2
WHERE	table1.column=table2.column (+);

Table1.column = Is the condition that joins the tables together.

Table2.column (+) Is the outer join symbol, which can be placed on either side of the WHERE clause.

This statement displays the employees' name, with their id and department name. The OPERATIONS department appears; in spite of the lack of employee in this department.

```
SQL> SELECT e.ename, d.deptno, d.dname
2 FROM emp e, dept d
3 WHERE e.deptno(+) = d.deptno
4 ORDER BY e.deptno;
ENAME
            DEPTNO DNAME
CLARK
                     10 ACCOUNTING
                    10 ACCOUNTING
KING
MILLER
                     10 ACCOUNTING
TURNER
                     30 SALES
WARD
                      30 SALES
                       40 OPERATIONS
                       50
. . .
```

Note that the outer join operator can appear on only ONE side of the expression, and a condition involving an outer join cannot use the **IN** operator or be linked to another condition by the **OR** operator.

1.3.3.Self joins

A self join is used to join a table to itself.

For example, to find the name of each employee's manager, you must join the EMP table to itself, using a self join.

Syntax:

SELECT	alias1.column, alias2.column
FROM	table1 alias1, table2 alias2
WHERE	alias1.column=alias2.column

For example, if you want to display the name of each employee's manager, you can execute the following SQL statement:

SQL> 2 3	SELECT FROM WHERE	<pre>w.ename,m.ename emp w,emp m w.mgr=m.empno;</pre>
	ENAME	ENAME
	SCOTT FORD ALLEN WARD	JONES JONES BLAKE BLAKE
	JAMES TURNER 14 row(s)	BLAKE BLAKE

1.3.4.Cross join

The **CROSS JOIN** returns a Cartesian product from the joined tables. The result is the same as the Cartesian product between two table. <u>Cartesian product without cross join:</u>

SQL>	SELECT	ename, dname
2	FROM	emp,dept;
	ENAME	DNAME
	SMITH	ACCOUNTING
	ALLEN	ACCOUNTING
	WARD	ACCOUNTING
	JONES	ACCOUNTING
	MARTIN	ACCOUNTING
	BLAKE	ACCOUNTING
	CLARK	ACCOUNTING
	SCOTT	ACCOUNTING
	KING	ACCOUNTING
	TURNER	ACCOUNTING
	ADAMS	ACCOUNTING
	136 row(s)	selected.

Cartesian product using cross join:

```
SQL> SELECT ename, dname
2 FROM emp
3 CROSS JOIN dept;

ENAME DNAME

SMITH ACCOUNTING
ALLEN ACCOUNTING
WARD ACCOUNTING
JONES ACCOUNTING
MARTIN ACCOUNTING
BLAKE ACCOUNTING
CLARK ACCOUNTING
SCOTT ACCOUNTING
KING ACCOUNTING
KING ACCOUNTING
TURNER ACCOUNTING
ADAMS ACCOUNTING
ADAMS ACCOUNTING

...
136 row(s) selected.
```

1.3.5.Natural join

The **NATURAL JOIN** is used to let the join be completed automatically by Oracle9i. The join can happen only on columns having the same names and data types in the two tables. If the columns have the same name, but different data types, the **NATURAL JOIN** syntax causes an error.

The **NATURAL JOIN** will produce the same result as an equijoin.

Equijoin using the WHERE clause:

```
SQL> SELECT
2 FROM
3 WHERE
                   emp.ename, dept.dname
                   emp,dept
    WHERE
                          emp.deptno=dept.deptno;
     ENAME DNAME
     SMITH RESEARCH ALLEN SALES
               SALES
RESEARCH
SALES
     WARD
     JONES
     MARTIN
     BLAKE
               SALES
     CLARK ACCOUNTING SCOTT RESEARCH
                ACCOUNTING
     KING
     15 row(s) selected.
```

Equijoin using the NATURAL JOIN clause:

```
SQL> SELECT
                   ename, dname
    FROM
                   emp
     NATURAL JOIN dept;
     ENAME
           DNAME
    SMITH RESEARCH
ALLEN SALES
WARD SALES
              RESEARCH
     JONES
     MARTIN
               SALES
SALES
    BLAKE SALES CLARK ACCOUNTING
     SCOTT
               RESEARCH
     KING
                ACCOUNTING
     15 row(s) selected.
```

1.3.6.Creating joins with the USING clause

If columns have the same name but the data types do not match, the **NATURAL JOIN** clause fails, but it can be modified with the **USING** clause to specify the columns that should be used for an equijoin.

It's important not to use table name or alias in the referenced columns.

```
SQL> SELECT e.empno,e.ename,d.loc
2 FROM emp e JOIN dept d
3 USING (deptno);

EMPNO ENAME LOC

7369 SMITH DALLAS
7499 ALLEN CHICAGO
7521 WARD CHICAGO
7521 WARD CHICAGO
7566 JONES DALLAS
7654 MARTIN CHICAGO
7698 BLAKE CHICAGO
7782 CLARK NEW YORK
7788 SCOTT DALLAS
...
15 row(s) selected.
```

1.3.7. Creating joins with the ON clause

The join condition for the NATURAL join is basically an equijoin of all columns with the same name, but you can specify arbitrary conditions or specify columns to join using the **ON** clause.

SQL> 2 3	SELECT FROM ON	<pre>e.empno,e.ename,d.loc,d emp e JOIN dept d (e.deptno=d.deptno);</pre>		N dept d	l.dname
		EMPNC	ENAME	LOC	DNAME
		7369	SMITH	DALLAS	RESEARCH
		7499	ALLEN	CHICAGO	SALES
		7521	WARD	CHICAGO	SALES
		7566	JONES	DALLAS	RESEARCH
		7654	MARTIN	CHICAGO	SALES
		7698	BLAKE	CHICAGO	SALES
		7782	CLARK	NEW YORK	ACCOUNTING
		7788	SCOTT	DALLAS	RESEARCH
		15 rc	w(s) select	ted.	

Note that the **ON** clause can also be used as follows to join columns that have different names.

```
SQL> SELECT
                 e.ename emp, r.mgr mgr
    FROM
                 emp e JOIN emp r
  3 ON
                 (e.mgr = r.empno);
    EMP
                     MGR
    SCOTT
                     7839
                     7839
    FORD
    ALLEN
                     7839
    WARD
                     7839
    JAMES
                     7839
    14 row(s) selected.
```

1.3.8.Creating three-way joins with the ON clause

A three-way join is a join of three tables. Joins are performed from left to right. Using the **ON** clause with the **JOIN** clause, you can join three tables

~	SELECT	c.name, o.ordid, i.itemid, i.itemtot, o.total				
2	FROM	customer c				
3	JOIN	ord o				
4	ON	(c.custid=	o.custid)			
5	JOIN	item t				
6	ON	(o.ordid=i.ordid);				
	NAME	ORDID	ITEMID	ITEMTOT	TOTAL	
TKB S	SPORT SHOP	610	3	58	101.4	
TKB S	SPORT SHOP	610	1	35	101.4	
TKB S	SPORT SHOP	610	2	8.4	101.4	
3 rov	vs selected.					

1.3.9.Left Outer Join and Right Outer Join

This join returns the same results as the return of the classical outer join, the only difference is just that instead of putting the plus sign on the left of the **WHERE** clause, you have to specify the **RIGHT** keyword.

This SQL statement displays all rows in the EMP table, which is the right table even if there is no match in the DEPT table.

```
SQL> SELECT
               e.ename, d.deptno, d.dname
 2 FROM
               emp e
 3 RIGTH OUTER JOIN dept d
 4 on e.deptno=d.deptno);
ENAME DEPTNO DNAME
               10 ACCOUNTING
CLARK
                10 ACCOUNTING
              10 ACCOUNTING
MILLER
TURNER
                30 SALES
                30 SALES
WARD
                40 OPERATIONS
                50
```

1.3.10.Full Outer Join

The **FULL OUTER JOIN** gives all rows from the tables even if there is not match between the joined tables. You can apply additional conditions in the **WHERE** clause using the **AND** operator.

Syntax:

SELECT *table1.column1, table2.column*

FROM table 1 FULL OUTER JOIN dept

ON(table1.column2=table2.column2).

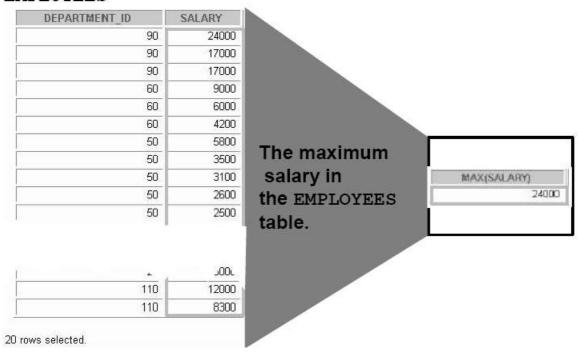
```
SQL> SELECT e.enar
2 FROM emp e
                 e.ename, e.deptno, d.dname
  3 FULL OUTER JOIN dept d
4 ON (e.deptno
          (e.deptno=d.deptno);
     ENAME
           DEPTNO DNAME
    MILLER
KING
                      10 ACCOUNTING
    KING
                        10 ACCOUNTING
                       10 ACCOUNTING
    CLARK
                       30 SALES
30 SALES
    PAPIER
     JAMES
                       30 SALES
    TURNER
                        30 SALES
    WARD
                       30 SALES
    ALLEN
    THG
     THG
                           store
                           STORE
                           OPERATIONS
                           STORE
22 row(s) selected.
```

2.Aggregating Data using Group Functions

2.1. Group functions

2.1.1. What are Group functions

EMPLOYEES



Group functions operate on sets of rows to give one result per group. These sets of rows may be the whole table or the table split into smaller groups.

Syntax:

SELECT [column,] group_function (column), ...
FROM table

[WHERE condition]

[GROUP BY column]

[ORDER BY column]

2.1.2. Types of Group Functions

Here are group functions whose accept arguments:

Function	Description
AVG([DISCTINT ALL]n)	Average value of n, ignoring null values.
COUNT({* [DISTINCT ALL] expr})	Numbers of rows, where expr evaluates to
	something other than null.
MAX([DISTINCT ALL] expr})	Maximum value of expr, ignoring null values.
MIN([DISTINCT ALL] expr})	Minimum value of expr, ignoring null values.
STDDEV([DISTINCT ALL] x)	Standard deviation of x, ignoring null values
SUM([DISTINCT ALL] x)	Sum values of x, ignoring null values.
VARIANCE([DISTINCT ALL] x)	Variance of x, ignoring null values.

2.2. Using Group Functions

2.2.1. Using the AVG and SUM functions

You can use AVG, SUM, MIN and MAX functions with columns storing numeric data.

This SQL statement displays, the average, highest, lowest, and sum of salaries of all the employees.

~	SELECT FROM	<pre>AVG(sal),MAX(sal) emp;</pre>		IN(sal),SUM(sal)	
	AVG (SAL)	MAX(SAL)	MIN(SAL)	SUM(SAL)	
	2001,66667	5000	800	30025	

2.2.2.Using the MIN and MAX functions

The MIN and MAX functions can be used with any datatype.

This statement displays the highest salary and the employee name that is last in the alphabetized list of all employees.

Notice that the **AVG**, **SUM**, **VARIANCE** and **STDDEV** functions can be used only with numeric datatypes.

2.2.3. Using the COUNT function

The **COUNT** (*) returns the number of rows in a table that satisfy the criteria of the **SELECT** statement, including duplicate rows and null values.

If a WHERE clause is included in the SELECT statement, the COUNT (*) returns number of rows that satisfy the condition.

COUNT(*expr*) returns the number of non-null values in the *expr* column. **COUNT**(**DISTINCT** *expr*) returns the number of unique, non-null values in the *expr* column.

This SQL statement displays the number of all rows in the EMP table:

```
SQL> SELECT COUNT(*)
2 FROM emp;

COUNT(*)
------
17
```

This statement displays, the number of employees working in the department 30:

2.2.4. Using the DISTINCT keyword

You can use the **DISTINCT** keyword to suppress the counting of any duplicate values within a column.

This example displays the number of distinct department values in the EMP table:

2.2.5. Using the NVL function with Group Functions

By default, group functions ignore null values, but using the **NVL** function, it's possible to force group functions to include null values.

If you need to calculate the annual salary of all employees, you have to include their commission, but some employees don't have commission.

Using the NVL function, the average is calculated even if the commission is null.

```
SQL> SELECT SAL*12+NVL(comm,0) as "SALARY"
2 FROM emp;

SALARY
-----
12600
19700
15500
35700
16400
34200
29400
```

2.3. Creating groups of data

2.3.1. Using the GROUP BY clause

You can divide the table of information into smaller groups, using the **GROUP BY** clause.

Syntax:

```
SELECT column, group_function(column)
FROM table
[WHERE condition]
[GROUP BY expression]
[ORDER BY column];
```

Guideline:

- When including a group function in a **SELECT** statement, you can't select individual results as well, UNLESS the individual column appears in the **GROUP BY** clause.
- You can exclude rows before dividing them into groups, using a **WHERE** clause.
- You must include the columns that are not used with the group functions in the **SELECT** clause into the **GROUP BY** clause.
- You can't use column alias in the **GROUP BY** clause.
- By default, rows are sorted by ascending order.

When using the **GROUP BY** clause, you have to make sure that all columns in the **SELECT** list, which are not used in the group functions, are included in the GROUP BY clause.

This SQL statement displays the number of employees working in the different departments:

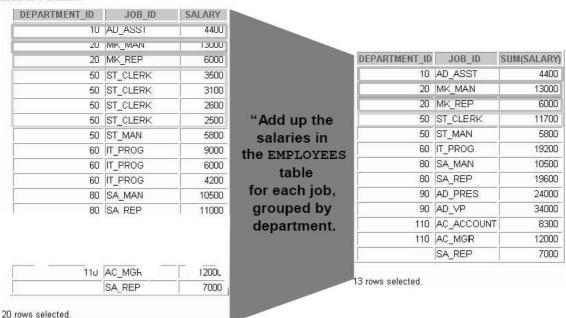
SQL> SELECT	COUNT	COUNT (ename), deptno	
2 FROM	emp		
3 GROUP BY	deptr	no;	
COUNT (ENAME)	DEPTNO	0	
		-	
	3	10	
	5	20	
	7	30	

Note that columns do not have to be in the SELECT list to be used is the GROUP BY clause.

2.3.2. Using the GROUP BY clause on multiple columns

Sometimes, you may need to see results for groups within groups.

You can return summary results for groups and subgroups by listing more than one column in the GROUP BY clause.



EMPLOYEES

In this SQL statement:

- The SELECT clause specifies the columns to retrieve.
- The FROM clause specifies tables that database must access.
- The GROUP BY clause specifies how results must be grouped:
 - First, the rows are grouped by department number.

- Second, within the department number groups, the rows are grouped by job.

```
SQL> SELECT
                   deptno,job,SUM(sal)
    FROM
  3 GROUP BY
                  deptno, job;
   DEPTNO JOB SUM(SAL)
        10 CLERK 1300
10 MANAGER 2450
10 PRESIDENT 5000
20 ANALYST 6000
        10 CLERK
        10 MANAGER
        20 ANALYST
                           1900
        20 CLERK
        20 MANAGER
                           2975
        30 CLERK
        30 MANAGER
30 SALESMAN
                             950
                            6600
            10 row(s) selected.
```

2.3.3. Excluding group results using the HAVING clause

If you want to restrict groups of rows that you select, you have to use the HAVING clause.

Syntax:

```
FROM table

[WHERE condition]

[GROUP BY group_by_expression]

[HAVING group_condition]

[ORDER BY column];
```

When using the **HAVING** clause, the Oracle Server performs the following steps:

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

It's recommended to place the HAVI NG clause after the GROUP BY clause.

This SQL statement displays department id and maximum salaries for those departments whose maximum salary is greater or equal to 3000\$.

2.3.4. Nesting group functions

If needed, group functions can be nested to a depth of two. The following statement displays the maximum average salary.

2.3.5.Illegal queries using group functions

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

```
SQL> SELECT deptno, COUNT (ename)
2 FROM emp;
SELECT deptno, COUNT (ename)
    *
ERROR at line 1:
ORA-00937: Not a single-group group function
```

You cannot use the **WHERE** to restrict groups, and group functions cannot be used in the **WHERE** clause.

Column alias cannot be used in the **GROUP BY** clause.

```
SQL> SELECT deptno department, AVG(SAL)
2 FROM emp
3 GROUP BY department;
GROUP BY department
*
ERROR at line 1:
ORA-00904: Invalid column name
```

3. Subqueries

3.1. Basic Subqueries

3.1.1. Guidelines for using Subqueries

A subquery is a **SELECT** statement that is embedded in a clause of another **SELECT** statement. Using subqueries, you can by build powerful statements out of simple ones.

Subqueries can be placed in the **WHERE** clause, the **HAVING** clause and the **FROM** clause. You can include to your statements operators to add comparison conditions such as '=' or **IN**.

In the following statement, the inner query determines the salary of SMITH, and the outer query takes the result of the inner one and uses this result to display all employee that earn more than this amount.

```
SQL> SELECT
             ename
 2 FROM
    WHERE
 3
                      sal>(SELECT sal
    FROM
                emp
 5 WHERE
                      ename='SMITH');
    ENAME
    ALLEN
    WARD
    JONES
    MARTIN
    14 row(s) selected.
```

Guidelines:

- Enclose subqueries in parentheses.
- Place subqueries on the right side of the comparison condition.
- The **ORDER BY** clause in the subquery is not needed unless you are performing Top-N analysis.
- Use single-row operator with single-row subqueries and use multiple-row operators with multiple-row subqueries.

3.1.2. Types of subqueries

Single-row subquery



· Multiple-row subquery



Type	Description	
Simple ways	Queries that return only one row from the inner	
Single-row	SELECT statement.	
Multiple row	Queries that return more than one row from the	
Multiple-row	inner SELECT statement.	

3.2. Single-Row subqueries

3.2.1. Executing a Single-Row subquerie

A single row subquery is one that returns one row from the inner **SELECT** statement. This type of subquery uses single-row operators, and are placed in the **WHERE** clause.

This statement displays employees that work in the same department as the employee number 7369.

Many subqueries can be included into a statement using operators like AND and OR.

This following statement displays employees working in the same department as the employee SMITH, and has a salary greater than the salary of the employee number 7369.

```
SQL> SELECT
                  ename
 2 FROM
                  emp
  3
    WHERE
                         deptno=(SELECT deptno
  4
                           FROM emp
                           WHERE ename='SMITH')
  6
    AND
                 sal>
                         (SELECT sal
  8
                           FROM emp
  9
                           WHERE empno=7369);
    ENAME
    JONES
    SCOTT
    ADAMS
    FORD
```

3.2.2. Using group functions in a subquery

Group functions can be used in single-row subqueries.

The following SQL statement displays the name, the job, and the salary of employees that have a salary equal to the lowest salary.

```
SQL> SELECT ename, job, sal

2 FROM emp

3 WHERE sal=(SELECT MIN(sal)

4 FROM emp);

ENAME JOB SAL

SMITH CLERK 800
```

3.2.3. The HAVING clause with subqueries

As the WHERE clause, the HAVING clause can contain subqueries.

This statement displays departments that have lowest salary greater that the lowest salary of the department 20.

```
deptno,MIN(sal)
SQL> SELECT
             emp
 2 FROM
    GROUP BY
                 deptno
                 MIN(SAL)>
    HAVING
 5
                       (SELECT MIN(SAL)
  6
                        FROM emp
  7
                        WHERE deptno=20);
               MIN(SAL)
        DEPTNO
           10
                   1300
           30
                    950
```

This SQL statement displays the job which has the lowest average salary.

3.3. Multi-Row subqueries

3.3.1. Using the ANY operator in Multi-Row subqueries

The **ANY** operator compares a specified value to each values returned by the Multiple-row subquery.

Comparison operator	Meaning
>ANY	More than the minimum
>ALL	More than the maximum
<any< th=""><th>Less than the maximum</th></any<>	Less than the maximum
<all< th=""><th>Less than the minimum</th></all<>	Less than the minimum

This SQL statement displays employees who are not CLERKS and whose salary is less than the salary of any CLERKS.

```
SQL> SELECT empno,ename,job,sal

2 FROM emp

3 WHERE sal< ANY(SELECT sal

4 FROM emp

5 WHERE job='CLERK')

6 AND job <> 'CLERK';

EMPNO ENAME JOB SAL

7521 WARD SALESMAN 1250
7654 MARTIN SALESMAN 1250
7952 PAPIER SALESMAN 1000
```

3.3.2. Using the ALL operator in Multi-Row subqueries

The **ALL** operator compares a value to every value returned by a subquery. Notice that the **NOT** operator can be used with **IN**, **ANY**, and **ALL** operators.

The following statement displays all employees whose salary is less than the salary of employees in the department 30.

3.3.3.Null values in a subquery

If the subquery returns a null value, the outer query will not return any rows.

If you want, the statement to return results, you have to use the NVL function.

3.3.4. Using subqueries in the FROM clause

Subqueries can be written in the **FROM** clause.

The subquery's result is a virtual table, which must have an alias.

Example:

SQL> 2 3 4 5 6	SELECT FROM WHERE AND	<pre>e.ename, e.sal, e.deptno, b.salavg emp e, (SELECT deptno, AVG(sal) salavg</pre>
ENAME	SAL	DEPTNO SALAVG
CLARK MILLER SMITH ADAMS PAPIER MARTIN JAMES WARD	2450 1300 800 1100 1000 1250 950 1250	10 2916,66667 10 2916,66667 20 2175 20 2175 30 1485,71429 30 1485,71429 30 1485,71429
8 row(s) s	selected.	

This SQL statement displays the name, the salary, the department number and the department salary average for every employee earning a salary less than the average salary of his department.

The subquery returns department numbers and average salary of every department, and these results are stored in the virtual table.

The EMP table and the virtual table *b* are joined.

4.Producing readable output with iSQL*PLUS

4.1. Substitution variables

4.1.1. Using the & substitution variable

In iSQL*PLUS, you can use a single ampersand (&) substitution variable to temporarily store values. You can predefine variables in iSQL*PLUS by using the **DEFINE** command, which creates and assigns a value to a variable.

Use an ampersand to identify variables in your SQL statement. You don't need to specify a value for each variable.

This statement displays the department name, and the department location of the department number given by the user. (10)

```
SQL> SELECT dname,loc
2 FROM dept
3 WHERE deptno= &deptid;
Enter a value for deptid: 10
old 3: WHERE deptno= &deptid
new 3: WHERE deptno= 10

DNAME LOC
ACCOUNTING NEW YORK
```

4.1.2. Character and date values with substitution variables

When using substitution variables with dates or characters, you must enclose values within single quotation marks so that when the user enters the value, he doesn't have to use simple quotation marks.

This SQL statement displays employees whose job is the same as the one specified by the user

```
SQL> SELECT ename
2 FROM emp
3 WHERE job='&job';
Enter a value for job : CLERK
old 3: WHERE job='&job'
new 3: WHERE job='CLERK'

ENAME
------
SMITH
ADAMS
...
4 row(s) selected.
```

Note that all values are case sensitive.

4.1.3. Using the && substitution variable

If a variable is preceded by a double ampersand (&&), iSQL*PLUS will prompt the user for its value only one time.

The user has to enter only one time a value for the *column_name* variable, which appears twice in the statement

The value entered by the user, is used twice.

```
SQL> SELECT
                 ename, job, & & column n
 2 FROM
                 emp
  3 ORDER BY
                &&column name
Enter a column for column na
    1 : SELECT ename, job, &&
    1 : SELECT ename, job, s
old 3 : ORDER BY &&column n
    3 : ORDER BY sal
new
ENAME JOB
                          SAL
SMITH CLERK
JAMES CLERK
                          950
PAPIER SALESMAN
ADAMS CLERK
                         1000
17 row(s) selected.
```

4.2. Defining substitution variables

4.2.1. Using the DEFINE command

Command	Description
DEFINE variable=variable	Creates a user variable with the CHAR data type
	and assigns it a value.
DEFINE variable	Displays the variable, its value, and its data type
DEFINE	Displays all user variables with their values and
	data types.

The first **DEFINE** command defines the *deptname* variable and attributes it a value. The second **DEFINE** command displays the value of the deptname variable.

The SQL statement displays information about the department which is specified by the deptname variable.

```
SQL> DEFINE deptname=sales
SQL> DEFINE deptname
DEFINE DEPTNAME
                       = "sales" (CHAR)
SQL> SELECT
                dept
    FROM
  3 WHERE
                        dname=UPPER('&deptname');
      3 : WHERE dname=UPPER('&deptname')
old
      3 : WHERE dname=UPPER('sales')
    DEPTNO DNAME
                          T<sub>1</sub>OC
        30 SALES
                          CHICAGO
```

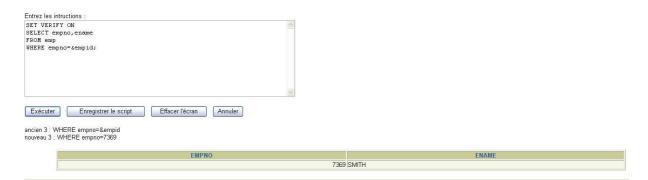
4.2.2. Using then UNDEFINE command

The **UNDIFINE** command is used to delete a user variable.

```
SQL> UNDEFINE deptname
SQL> DEFINE deptname
SP2-0135: the symbol deptname is UNDIFINED
```

4.2.3. Using the VERIFY command

To confirm the changes in the SQL statement, you can use the iSQL*PLUS **VERIFY** command. Setting **VERIFY ON**, forces iSQL*PLUS to display the text of a command before and after substitution variables are replaced with values.



4.3. Customizing the iSQL*PLUS environment

4.3.1. Using the SET command

SET command variables

SET variable and values	Description	
ARRAY [SIZE] {20 n}	Sets the database data fetch size.	
EEED ID A CW1 (6 m OEE ON)	Displays the number of records returned by a	
FEED [BACK] {6 n OFF ON}	query when the query selects at least <i>n</i> records.	
HEA[DING] {OFF ON}	Determines whether column headings are	
HEA[DING] {OFF ON}	displayed in reports.	
LONG {80 n}	Sets the maximum width for displaying LONG	
	values.	

The **SET** commands are used to control current session, so the values are available only for the current session and will not be saved.

Syntax:

SET system_variable value

In the syntax:

System variable Is a variable that controls one aspect of the session

environment.

Value Is a value for the system variable.

It is possible to verify what has been set, using the SHOW command. To see all **SET** variable values, use the **SHOW** ALL command.

4.3.2.iSQL*PLUS format commands

If you want to control the report features, you have to use the following commands:

Command	Description
COL[UMN] [column option]	Controls column format
TTITI El Itant OEE ONI	Specifies a header to appear at the top of each
TTI[TLE] [text OFF ON]	pages of the report.
BTI[TLE] [text OFF ON]	Specifies a footer to appear at the bottom of each
BII[ILE][lext OFF ON]	pages of the report.
BRE[AK] [ON report_element]	Suppresses duplicate values and divides rows of
	data into sections by using line breaks.

Format commands remain effective until the end of the iSQL*PLUS session or until the format setting is overwritten or cleared.

4.3.3. Using the COLUMN command

This command controls the display of column.

COLUMN command options:

Option	Description	
CLE[AR]	Clears any column formats	
HEA[DING] text	Sets the column heading (a vertical line forces a line feed in the heading if	
nea[Ding] lext	you do not use justification)	
FOR[MAT] format	Changes the display of the column data	
NOPRI[NT]	Hides the column	
NUL[L] text	Specifies the <i>text</i> to be displayed for null values	
PRI[NT]	Shows the column	

COLUMN format models:

Element	Description	Example	Result
9	Single Zero-suppression digit	999999	1234
0	Enforces leading zero	099999	001234
\$	Floating dollar sign	\$9999	\$1234
L	Local currency	L9999	L1234
	Position of decimal point	9999.99	1234.00
,	Thousand separator	9,999	1,234

Example:

• Create column headings:

```
o SQL> COLUMN ename HEADING 'Employee|Name'
o SQL> COLUMN sal JUSTIFY LEFT FORMAT $99,990.00
o SQL> COLUMN mgr FORMAT 999999999 NULL 'No manager'
```

• Displays the current setting for the ENAME column:

```
o SQL> COLUMN ename
o COLUMN ename ON
o HEADING 'Employee|Name' headsep '|'
```

• Clear settings for the ENAME column:

```
SQL> COLUMN ename CLEAR
```

4.3.4. Using then BREAK command

You can use the **BREAK** command to divide rows into sections and suppress duplicate values. Use the **ORDER BY** clause that you are breaking to ensure that the **BREAK** command works.

Syntax:

BREAK *on column[| alias | row]*

column [| alias | row | Suppresses the display of duplicate values for a given

column

You can clear all **BREAK** settings by using the **CLEAR** command:

CLEAR BREAK

4.3.5. Using the TTITLE and BTITLE commands

TTITLE is used to format page headers and **BTITLE** for footers, which appear at the bottom of the page.

The **BTITLE** and **TTITLE** commands have the same syntax.

Syntax:

TTI[TLE] | BTI[TLE] | [text | OFF | ON]

text: Represents the title text.

OFF | **ON**: Toggles the title either off or on. It's not visible when turned

off.

Example:

* Set the report header:

```
SQL> TTITLE 'Salary|Report'
```

* Set the report footer:

SQL> BTITLE 'Confidential'

4.3.6. Creating a Script File to run a Report

How to create a script file:

- 1. Create the SQL **SELECT** statement at the SQL prompt. You must ensure that the data required for the report is accurate before you save the statement to a file and apply formatting commands.
- 2. Save the **SELECT** statement to a script file.
- 3. Edit the script file to enter iSQPL*PLUS commands.
- 4. Add the required formatting commands before the **SELECT** statement. Be sure not to place iSQL*PLUS commands within the **SELECT** statement.
- 5. Verify that the **SELECT** statement is followed by a run character, either a semicolon (;) or a slash (/).

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- 6. Add the format-creating iSQL*PLUS commands after the run character.
- 7. Save the script file with your changes.
- 8. Load the script file into the iSQL*PLUS text window, and click the Execute button.

This script displays the job, name, and salary for every employee whose salary is less than \$3000. The script adds a centred, two-line header that reads "Employee Report" and a centred footer that reads "Confidential".

It renames the job title column to read "Job name" splits over two lines, renames the employee column name to read "Employee" and finally, renames the salary column to read "Salary" and formats it as \$2,500.00.

Note that REM represents a remark or comment in iSQL*PLUS.

```
SET FEEDBACK OFF
TTITLE 'Employee|Report'
BTITLE 'Confidential'
BREAK ON job
COLUMN job HEADING 'Job|Name'
COLUMN ename HEADING 'Employee'
COLUMN sal HEADING 'Salary' FORMAT $99,999.99
REM ** Insert SELECT statement
SELECT job, ename, sal
FROM emp
WHERE sal < 3000
ORDER BY job, ename
REM clear all formatting commands ...
SET FEEDBACK ON
COLUMN job CLEAR
COLUMN ename CLEAR
COLUMN sal CLEAR
CLEAR BREAK
```