# MYSQL NOTES

**What is Database?**

Database is a collection of interrelated data.

* Database is collection of data in a format that can be easily accessed (Digital).
* A software application used to manage our DB is called DBMS (Database Management System).

**Types of Databases:**

1. Relational: data stored in tables:

* MySQL
* ORACLE
* Microsoft SQL Server
* PostgreSQL

1. Non Relational (NoSQL): data not stored in tables:

* MongoDB

\*\*We use SQL to work with relational DBMS\*\*

**What is DBMS?**

DBMS (Database Management System) is a software used to create, manage, and organize database.

**What is RDBMS?**

* RDBMS (Relational Database Management System) is a DBMS based on the concept of tables (also called relations.)
* Data is organized into tables (also known as relations) with rows (records) and
* columns (attributes).
* Eg - MySQL, PostgreSQL, Oracle etc.
* RDBMS is the basis for SQL, and for all modern database systems such as MS SQL Server, IBM DB2, Oracle, MySQL, and Microsoft Access.
* The data in RDBMS is stored in database objects called tables. A table is a collection of related data entries and it consists of columns and rows.

**What is SQL?**

SQL is Structured Query Language - used to store, manipulate and retrieve data from

RDBMS.

* SQL stands for Structured Query Language
* SQL lets you access and manipulate databases
* SQL became a standard of the American National Standards Institute (ANSI) in 1986, and of the International Organization for Standardization (ISO) in 1987

(It is not a database, it is a language used to interact with database)

We use SQL for CRUD Operations :

● **CREATE** - To create databases, tables, insert tuples in tables etc

● **READ** - To read data present in the database.

● **UPDATE** - Modify already inserted data.

● **DELETE** - Delete database, table or specific data point/tuple/row or multiple rows.

\*Note - SQL keywords are NOT case sensitive. Eg: select is the same as SELECT in SQL.

**Some of The Most Important SQL Commands**

* SELECT - extracts data from a database
* UPDATE - updates data in a database
* DELETE - deletes data from a database
* INSERT INTO - inserts new data into a database
* CREATE DATABASE - creates a new database
* ALTER DATABASE - modifies a database
* CREATE TABLE - creates a new table
* ALTER TABLE - modifies a table
* DROP TABLE - deletes a table
* CREATE INDEX - creates an index (search key)
* DROP INDEX - deletes an index

**SQL v/s MySQL**

SQL is a language used to perform CRUD operations in Relational DB, while MySQL is a

RDBMS that uses SQL.

**SQL Data Types**

In SQL, data types define the kind of data that can be stored in a column or variable.

|  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- |
| DATATYPE | DESCRIPTION | USAGE |
| CHAR | string(0-255), can store characters of fixed length | CHAR(50) |
| VARCHAR | string(0-255), can store characters up to given length | VARCHAR(50) |
| BLOB | string(0-65535), can store binary large object | BLOB(1000) |
| INT | integer( -2,147,483,648 to 2,147,483,647 ) | INT |
| TINYINT | integer(-128 to 127) | TINYINT |
| BIGINT | integer( -9,223,372,036,854,775,808 to  9,223,372,036,854,775,807 ) | BIGINT |
| BIT | can store x-bit values. x can range from 1 to 64 | BIT(2) |
| FLOAT | Decimal number - with precision to 23 digits | FLOAT |
| DOUBLE | Decimal number - with 24 to 53 digits | DOUBLE |
| BOOLEAN | Boolean values 0 or 1 | BOOLEAN |
| DATE | date in format of YYYY-MM-DD ranging from  1000-01-01 to 9999-12-31 | DATE |
| TIME | HH:MM:SS | TIME |
| YEAR | year in 4 digits format ranging from 1901 to 2155 | YEAR |

\*Note - CHAR is for fixed length & VARCHAR is for variable length strings. Generally,

VARCHAR is better as it only occupies necessary memory & works more efficiently.

We can also use UNSIGNED with datatypes when we only have positive values to add.

Eg - UNSIGNED INT

**Types of SQL Commands:**

1. **DQL (Data Query Language)** : Used to retrieve data from databases. (SELECT)

2. **DDL (Data Definition Language)** : Used to create, alter, and delete database objects

like tables, indexes, etc. (CREATE, DROP, ALTER, RENAME, TRUNCATE)

3. **DML (Data Manipulation Language)**: Used to modify the database. (INSERT,

UPDATE, DELETE)

4. **DCL (Data Control Language)**: Used to grant & revoke permissions. (GRANT,

REVOKE)

5. **TCL (Transaction Control Language)**: Used to manage transactions. (COMMIT,

ROLLBACK, START TRANSACTIONS, SAVEPOINT)

# Data Definition Language (DDL)

Data Definition Language (DDL) is a subset of SQL (Structured Query Language)

responsible for defining and managing the structure of databases and their objects.

DDL commands enable you to create, modify, and delete database objects like tables, indexes, constraints, and more.

**Key DDL Commands are:**

**● CREATE TABLE:**

○ Used to create a new table in the database.

○ Specifies the table name, column names, data types, constraints, and more.

○ Example:

CREATE TABLE employees (id INT PRIMARY KEY, name VARCHAR(50),

salary DECIMAL(10, 2));

**● ALTER TABLE:**

○ Used to modify the structure of an existing table.

○ You can add, modify, or drop columns, constraints, and more.

○ Example: ALTER TABLE employees ADD COLUMN email VARCHAR(100);

**● DROP TABLE:**

○ Used to delete an existing table along with its data and structure.

○ Example: DROP TABLE employees;

**● CREATE INDEX:**

○ Used to create an index on one or more columns in a table.

○ Improves query performance by enabling faster data retrieval.

○ Example: CREATE INDEX idx\_employee\_name ON employees (name);

**● DROP INDEX:**

○ Used to remove an existing index from a table.

○ Example: DROP INDEX idx\_employee\_name;

● **CREATE CONSTRAINT:**

○ Used to define constraints that ensure data integrity.

○ Constraints include PRIMARY KEY, FOREIGN KEY, UNIQUE, NOT NULL,

and CHECK.

○ Example: ALTER TABLE orders ADD CONSTRAINT fk\_customer FOREIGN

KEY (customer\_id) REFERENCES customers(id);

**● DROP CONSTRAINT:**

○ Used to remove an existing constraint from a table.

○ Example: ALTER TABLE orders DROP CONSTRAINT fk\_customer;

**● TRUNCATE TABLE:**

○ Used to delete the data inside a table, but not the table itself.

○ Syntax – TRUNCATE TABLE table\_name

# DATA QUERY/RETRIEVAL LANGUAGE (DQL or DRL)

DQL (Data Query Language) is a subset of SQL focused on retrieving data from databases.

The SELECT statement is the foundation of DQL and allows us to extract specific columns

from a table.

**Key DQL OR DRL Commands are:**

**● SELECT:**

The SELECT statement is used to select data from a database.

Syntax: SELECT column1, column2, ... FROM table\_name;

Here, column1, column2, ... are the field names of the table.

If you want to select all the fields available in the table, use the following syntax:

SELECT \* FROM table\_name;

Ex: SELECT CustomerName, City FROM Customers;

**● WHERE:**

The WHERE clause is used to filter records.

Syntax: SELECT column1, column2, ... FROM table\_name WHERE condition;

Ex: SELECT \* FROM Customers WHERE Country='Mexico';

Operators used in WHERE are:

* + Equal
  + Greater than
  + Less than
  + Greater than or equal
  + Less than or equal
  + Not equal.

Note: In some versions of SQL this operator may be written as !=

**● AND, OR and NOT:**

* The WHERE clause can be combined with AND, OR, and NOT operators.
* The AND and OR operators are used to filter records based on more than one
* condition:
* The AND operator displays a record if all the conditions separated by AND are
* TRUE.
* The OR operator displays a record if any of the conditions separated by OR is TRUE.
* The NOT operator displays a record if the condition(s) is NOT TRUE.

Syntax:

SELECT column1, column2, ... FROM table\_name WHERE condition1 AND condition2 AND

condition3 ...;

SELECT column1, column2, ... FROM table\_name WHERE condition1 OR condition2 OR

condition3 ...;

SELECT column1, column2, ... FROM table\_name WHERE NOT condition;

Example:

SELECT \* FROM Customers WHERE Country=’India’ AND City=’Japan’;

SELECT \* FROM Customers WHERE Country=’America’ AND (City=’India’ OR

City=’Korea’);

**● DISTINCT:**

Removes duplicate rows from query results.

Syntax: SELECT DISTINCT column1, column2 FROM table\_name;

**● LIKE:**

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

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

- The percent sign (%) represents zero, one, or multiple characters

- The underscore sign (\_) represents one, single character

Example: SELECT \* FROM employees WHERE first\_name LIKE 'J%';

WHERE CustomerName LIKE 'a%'

- Finds any values that start with "a"

WHERE CustomerName LIKE '%a'

- Finds any values that end with "a"

WHERE CustomerName LIKE '%or%'

- Finds any values that have "or" in any position

WHERE CustomerName LIKE '\_r%'

- Finds any values that have "r" in the second position

WHERE CustomerName LIKE 'a\_%'

- Finds any values that start with "a" and are at least 2 characters in length

WHERE CustomerName LIKE 'a\_\_%'

- Finds any values that start with "a" and are at least 3 characters in length

WHERE ContactName LIKE 'a%o'

- Finds any values that start with "a" and ends with "o"

**● IN:**

Filters results based on a list of values in the WHERE clause.

Example: SELECT \* FROM products WHERE category\_id IN (1, 2, 3);

**● BETWEEN:**

Filters results within a specified range in the WHERE clause.

Example: SELECT \* FROM orders WHERE order\_date BETWEEN '2023-01-01' AND

'2023-06-30';

**● IS NULL:**

Checks for NULL values in the WHERE clause.

Example: SELECT \* FROM customers WHERE email IS NULL;

Renames columns or expressions in query results.

Example: SELECT first\_name AS "First Name", last\_name AS "Last Name" FROM

employees;

**● ORDER BY**

The ORDER BY clause allows you to sort the result set of a query based on one or more columns.

**Basic Syntax:**

The ORDER BY clause is used after the SELECT statement to sort query results.

Syntax: SELECT column1, column2 FROM table\_name ORDER BY column1

[ASC|DESC];

**Ascending and Descending Order:**

- By default, the ORDER BY clause sorts in ascending order (smallest to largest).

- You can explicitly specify descending order using the DESC keyword.

- Example: SELECT product\_name, price FROM products ORDER BY price DESC;

**Sorting by Multiple Columns:**

- You can sort by multiple columns by listing them sequentially in the ORDER BY

clause.

- Rows are first sorted based on the first column, and for rows with equal values,

subsequent columns are used for further sorting.

- Example: SELECT first\_name, last\_name FROM employees ORDER BY last\_name,

first\_name;

**Sorting by Expressions:**

- It's possible to sort by calculated expressions, not just column values.

- Example: SELECT product\_name, price, price \* 1.1 AS discounted\_price FROM

products ORDER BY discounted\_price;

**Sorting NULL Values:**

- By default, NULL values are considered the smallest in ascending order and the

largest in descending order.

- You can control the sorting behaviour of NULL values using the NULLS FIRST or

NULLS LAST options.

- Example: SELECT column\_name FROM table\_name ORDER BY column\_name

NULLS LAST;

**Sorting by Position:**

- Instead of specifying column names, you can sort by column positions in the ORDER

BY clause.

- Example: SELECT product\_name, price FROM products ORDER BY 2 DESC, 1

ASC;

**● GROUP BY**

The GROUP BY clause in SQL is used to group rows from a table based on one or more

columns.

Syntax:

- The GROUP BY clause follows the SELECT statement and is used to group rows

based on specified columns.

- Syntax: SELECT column1, aggregate\_function(column2) FROM table\_name

GROUP BY column1;

**- Aggregation Functions:**

○ Aggregation functions (e.g., COUNT, SUM, AVG, MAX, MIN) are often used

with GROUP BY to calculate values for each group.

○ Example: SELECT department, AVG(salary) FROM employees GROUP BY

department;

**- Grouping by Multiple Columns:**

○ You can group by multiple columns by listing them in the GROUP BY clause.

○ This creates a hierarchical grouping based on the specified columns.

○ Example: SELECT department, gender, AVG(salary) FROM employees

GROUP BY department, gender;

**- HAVING Clause:**

○ The HAVING clause is used with GROUP BY to filter groups based on

aggregate function results.

○ It's similar to the WHERE clause but operates on grouped data.

○ Example: SELECT department, AVG(salary) FROM employees GROUP BY

department HAVING AVG(salary) > 50000;

**- Combining GROUP BY and ORDER BY:**

○ You can use both GROUP BY and ORDER BY in the same query to control

the order of grouped results.

○ Example: SELECT department, COUNT(\*) FROM employees GROUP BY

department ORDER BY COUNT(\*) DESC;

**● AGGREGATE FUNCTIONS**

These are used to perform calculations on groups of rows or entire result sets. They provide

insights into data by summarising and processing information.

**Common Aggregate Functions:**

**COUNT():**Counts the number of rows in a group or result set.

**SUM():**Calculates the sum of numeric values in a group or result set.

**AVG():**Computes the average of numeric values in a group or result set.

**MAX():**Finds the maximum value in a group or result set.

**MIN():**Retrieves the minimum value in a group or result set.

# DATA MANIPULATION LANGUAGE

Data Manipulation Language (DML) in SQL encompasses commands that manipulate data

within a database. DML allows you to insert, update, and delete records, ensuring the

accuracy and currency of your data.

**● INSERT:**

- The INSERT statement adds new records to a table.

- Syntax: INSERT INTO table\_name (column1, column2, ...) VALUES (value1, value2,

...);

- Example: INSERT INTO employees (first\_name, last\_name, salary) VALUES ('John',

'Doe', 50000);

**● UPDATE:**

- The UPDATE statement modifies existing records in a table.

- Syntax: UPDATE table\_name SET column1 = value1, column2 = value2, ... WHERE

condition;

- Example: UPDATE employees SET salary = 55000 WHERE first\_name = 'John';

**● DELETE:**

- The DELETE statement removes records from a table.

- Syntax: DELETE FROM table\_name WHERE condition;

- Example: DELETE FROM employees WHERE last\_name = 'Doe';

# Data Control Language (DCL)

Data Control Language focuses on the management of access rights, permissions, and

security-related aspects of a database system.

DCL commands are used to control who can access the data, modify the data, or perform

administrative tasks within a database.

DCL is an important aspect of database security, ensuring that data remains protected and

only authorised users have the necessary privileges.

There are two main DCL commands in SQL: GRANT and REVOKE.

**1. GRANT:**

The GRANT command is used to provide specific privileges or permissions to users or roles.

Privileges can include the ability to perform various actions on tables, views, procedures,

and other database objects.

Syntax:

GRANT privilege\_type

ON object\_name

TO user\_or\_role;

In this syntax:

● privilege\_type refers to the specific privilege or permission being granted (e.g.,

SELECT, INSERT, UPDATE, DELETE).

● object\_name is the name of the database object (e.g., table, view) to which the

privilege is being granted.

● user\_or\_role is the name of the user or role that is being granted the privilege.

Example: Granting SELECT privilege on a table named "Employees" to a user named

"Analyst":

GRANT SELECT ON Employees TO Analyst;

**2. REVOKE:**

The REVOKE command is used to remove or revoke specific privileges or permissions that

have been previously granted to users or roles.

Syntax:

REVOKE privilege\_type

ON object\_name

FROM user\_or\_role;

In this syntax:

● privilege\_type is the privilege or permission being revoked.

● object\_name is the name of the database object from which the privilege is being

revoked.

● user\_or\_role is the name of the user or role from which the privilege is being

revoked.

Example: Revoking the SELECT privilege on the "Employees" table from the "Analyst" user:

REVOKE SELECT ON Employees FROM Analyst;

**DCL and Database Security:**

DCL plays a crucial role in ensuring the security and integrity of a database system.

By controlling access and permissions, DCL helps prevent unauthorised users from

tampering with or accessing sensitive data. Proper use of GRANT and REVOKE commands

ensures that only users who require specific privileges can perform certain actions on

database objects.

# Transaction Control Language (TCL)

Transaction Control Language (TCL) deals with the management of transactions within a

database. TCL commands are used to control the initiation, execution, and termination of transactions, which are sequences of one or more SQL statements that are executed as a single unit of work. Transactions ensure data consistency, integrity, and reliability in a database by grouping related operations together and either committing or rolling back changes based on the success or failure of those operations.

There are three main TCL commands in SQL: COMMIT, ROLLBACK, and SAVEPOINT.

**1. COMMIT:**

The COMMIT command is used to permanently save the changes made during a

transaction.

It makes all the changes applied to the database since the last COMMIT or ROLLBACK

command permanent.

Once a COMMIT is executed, the transaction is considered successful, and the changes are

made permanent.

Example: Committing changes made during a transaction:

UPDATE Employees

SET Salary = Salary \* 1.10

WHERE Department = 'Sales';

COMMIT;

**2. ROLLBACK:**

The ROLLBACK command is used to undo changes made during a transaction.

It reverts all the changes applied to the database since the transaction began.

ROLLBACK is typically used when an error occurs during the execution of a transaction,

ensuring that the database remains in a consistent state.

Example: Rolling back changes due to an error during a transaction:

BEGIN;

UPDATE Inventory

SET Quantity = Quantity - 10

WHERE ProductID = 101;

-- An error occurs here

ROLLBACK;

**3. SAVEPOINT:**

The SAVEPOINT command creates a named point within a transaction, allowing you to set a

point to which you can later ROLLBACK if needed.

SAVEPOINTs are useful when you want to undo part of a transaction while preserving other

changes.

Syntax: SAVEPOINT savepoint\_name;

Example: Using SAVEPOINT to create a point within a transaction:

BEGIN;

UPDATE Accounts

SET Balance = Balance - 100

WHERE AccountID = 123;

SAVEPOINT before\_withdrawal;

UPDATE Accounts

SET Balance = Balance + 100

WHERE AccountID = 456;

-- An error occurs here

ROLLBACK TO before\_withdrawal;

-- The first update is still applied

COMMIT;

**TCL and Transaction Management:**

Transaction Control Language (TCL) commands are vital for managing the integrity and

consistency of a database's data.

They allow you to group related changes into transactions, and in the event of errors, either

commit those changes or roll them back to maintain data integrity.

TCL commands are used in combination with Data Manipulation Language (DML) and other

SQL commands to ensure that the database remains in a reliable state despite unforeseen

errors or issues.

# JOINS

# 

In a DBMS, a join is an operation that combines rows from two or more tables based on a

related column between them.

Joins are used to retrieve data from multiple tables by linking them together using a common

key or column.

**Types of Joins:**

1. Inner Join

2. Outer Join

3. Cross Join

4. Self Join

**1) Inner Join**

An inner join combines data from two or more tables based on a specified condition, known

as the join condition.

The result of an inner join includes only the rows where the join condition is met in all

participating tables.

It essentially filters out non-matching rows and returns only the rows that have matching

values in both tables.

Syntax:

SELECT columns

FROM table1

INNER JOIN table2

ON table1.column = table2.column;

Here:

● columns refers to the specific columns you want to retrieve from the tables.

● table1 and table2 are the names of the tables you are joining.

● column is the common column used to match rows between the tables.

● The ON clause specifies the join condition, where you define how the tables are

related.

**Inner Join Query:**

SELECT Customers.CustomerName, Orders.Product

FROM Customers

INNER JOIN Orders ON Customers.CustomerID = Orders.CustomerID;

**2) Outer Join**

Outer joins combine data from two or more tables based on a specified condition, just like

inner joins. However, unlike inner joins, outer joins also include rows that do not have

matching values in both tables.

Outer joins are particularly useful when you want to include data from one table even if there

is no corresponding match in the other table.

**Types:**

There are three types of outer joins: left outer join, right outer join, and full outer join.

**1. Left Outer Join (Left Join):**

A left outer join returns all the rows from the left table and the matching rows from the right

table.

If there is no match in the right table, the result will still include the left table's row with NULL

values in the right table's columns.

Example:

SELECT Customers.CustomerName, Orders.Product

FROM Customers

LEFT JOIN Orders ON Customers.CustomerID = Orders.CustomerID;

**2. Right Outer Join (Right Join):**

A right outer join is similar to a left outer join, but it returns all rows from the right table and

the matching rows from the left table.

If there is no match in the left table, the result will still include the right table's row with NULL

values in the left table's columns.

Example: Using the same Customers and Orders tables.

SELECT Customers.CustomerName, Orders.Product

FROM Customers

RIGHT JOIN Orders ON Customers.CustomerID = Orders.CustomerID;

**3. Full Outer Join (Full Join):**

A full outer join returns all rows from both the left and right tables, including matches and

non-matches.

If there's no match, NULL values appear in columns from the table where there's no

corresponding value.

Example: Using the same Customers and Orders tables.

SELECT Customers.CustomerName, Orders.Product

FROM Customers

FULL OUTER JOIN Orders ON Customers.CustomerID = Orders.CustomerID;

**4. Cross Join**

A cross join, also known as a Cartesian product, is a type of join operation in a Database

Management System (DBMS) that combines every row from one table with every row from

another table.

Unlike other join types, a cross join does not require a specific condition to match rows

between the tables. Instead, it generates a result set that contains all possible combinations

of rows from both tables.

Cross joins can lead to a large result set, especially when the participating tables have many

rows.

Syntax:

SELECT columns

FROM table1

CROSS JOIN table2;

In this syntax:

● columns refers to the specific columns you want to retrieve from the cross-joined

tables.

● table1 and table2 are the names of the tables you want to combine using a cross

join.

Cross Join Query:

SELECT Students.StudentName, Courses.CourseName

FROM Students

CROSS JOIN Courses;

**5. Self Join**

A self join involves joining a table with itself.

This technique is useful when a table contains hierarchical or related data and you need to

compare or analyse rows within the same table.

Self joins are commonly used to find relationships, hierarchies, or patterns within a single

table.

In a self join, you treat the table as if it were two separate tables, referring to them with

different aliases.

Syntax:

The syntax for performing a self join in SQL is as follows:

SELECT columns

FROM table1 AS alias1

JOIN table1 AS alias2 ON alias1.column = alias2.column;

In this syntax:

● columns refers to the specific columns you want to retrieve from the self-joined table.

● table1 is the name of the table you're joining with itself.

● alias1 and alias2 are aliases you assign to the table instances for differentiation.

● column is the column you use as the join condition to link rows from the same table.

# SET OPERATIONS

Set operations in SQL are used to combine or manipulate the result sets of multiple SELECT

queries. They allow you to perform operations similar to those in set theory, such as union,

intersection, and difference, on the data retrieved from different tables or queries.

Set operations provide powerful tools for managing and manipulating data, enabling you to

analyse and combine information in various ways.

There are four primary set operations in SQL:

● UNION

● INTERSECT

● EXCEPT (or MINUS)

● UNION ALL

**1. UNION:**

The UNION operator combines the result sets of two or more SELECT queries into a single

result set.

It removes duplicates by default, meaning that if there are identical rows in the result sets,

only one instance of each row will appear in the final result.

UNION Query:

SELECT CustomerName FROM Customers

UNION

SELECT SupplierName FROM Suppliers;

**2. INTERSECT:**

The INTERSECT operator returns the common rows that exist in the result sets of two or

more SELECT queries.

It only returns distinct rows that appear in all result sets.

SELECT CustomerName FROM Customers

INTERSECT

SELECT SupplierName FROM Suppliers;

**3. EXCEPT (or MINUS):**

The EXCEPT operator (also known as MINUS in some databases) returns the distinct rows

that are present in the result set of the first SELECT query but not in the result set of the

second SELECT query.

Example: Using the same tables as before.

SELECT CustomerName FROM Customers

EXCEPT

SELECT SupplierName FROM Suppliers;

**4. UNION ALL:**

The UNION ALL operator performs the same function as the UNION operator but does not

remove duplicates from the result set. It simply concatenates all rows from the different

result sets.

Example: Using the same tables as before.

SELECT CustomerName FROM Customers

UNION ALL

SELECT SupplierName FROM Suppliers;

Difference between set operations and joins:

|  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- |
| ASPECT | SET OPERATIONS | JOINS |
| Purpose | Manipulate result sets based on  set theory principles. | Combine data from related  tables based on specified  conditions. |
| Data Source | Result sets of SELECT queries.  Tables that are related by | Tables that are related by  common columns. |
| Combining Rows | Combine rows from different  result sets. May remove  duplicates. | Combine rows from different  tables based on specified  conditions. |
| Output Columns | Require the SELECT queries to  have the same number of output  columns and compatible data  types. | Can combine columns from  different tables, regardless of  data types or column numbers. |
| Common  Operations | UNION, INTERSECT, EXCEPT  (MINUS). | INNER JOIN, LEFT JOIN, RIGHT  JOIN, FULL JOIN. |
| Conditional  Requirements | No specific join conditions are  required. | Require specified join conditions  for combining data. |
| Handling  Duplicates | UNION removes duplicates by  default. | Joins do not inherently handle  duplicates; it depends on the join  type and data. |
| Usage Scenarios | Useful for combining and  analysing related data from  different queries or tables. | Used to retrieve and relate data  from different tables based on  their relationships. |
| Result Set  Structure | Result sets may have different  column names, but data types and  counts must match. | Result sets can have different  column names, data types, and  counts. |
| Performance  Considerations | Generally faster and less complex  than joins. | Joins can be more complex and  resource-intensive, especially for  larger datasets. |

# SUB QUERIES

Subqueries, also known as nested queries or inner queries, allow you to use the result of

one query (the inner query) as the input for another query (the outer query).

Subqueries are often used to retrieve data that will be used for filtering, comparison, or

calculation within the context of a larger query.

They are a way to break down complex tasks into smaller, manageable steps.

Syntax:

SELECT columns

FROM table

WHERE column OPERATOR (SELECT column FROM table WHERE condition);

In this syntax:

● columns refers to the specific columns you want to retrieve from the outer query.

● table is the name of the table you're querying.

● column is the column you're applying the operator to in the outer query.

● OPERATOR is a comparison operator such as =, >, <, IN, NOT IN, etc.

● (SELECT column FROM table WHERE condition) is the subquery that provides the

input for the comparison.

Differences Between Subqueries and Joins:

|  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- |
| Aspect | Subqueries | Joins |
| Purpose | Retrieve data for filtering,  comparison, or calculation  within the context of a larger  query. | Combine data from related tables  based on specified conditions. |
| Data Source | Result of one query used as  input for another query. | Data from multiple related tables. |
| Combining Rows | Not used for combining rows;  used to filter or evaluate data. | Combines rows from different tables  based on specified join conditions. |
| Result Set  Structure | Subqueries return scalar  values, single-column results,  or small result sets. | Joins return multi-column result  sets. |
| Performance  Considerations | Subqueries can be slower and  less efficient, especially when  dealing with large datasets. | Joins can be more efficient for  combining data from multiple tables. |
| Complexity | Subqueries can be easier to  understand for simple tasks or  smaller datasets. | Joins can become complex, but are  more suited for handling large-scale  data retrieval and combination  tasks. |
| Versatility | Subqueries can be used in  various clauses: WHERE,  FROM, HAVING, etc. | Joins are primarily used in the  FROM clause for combining tables. |