

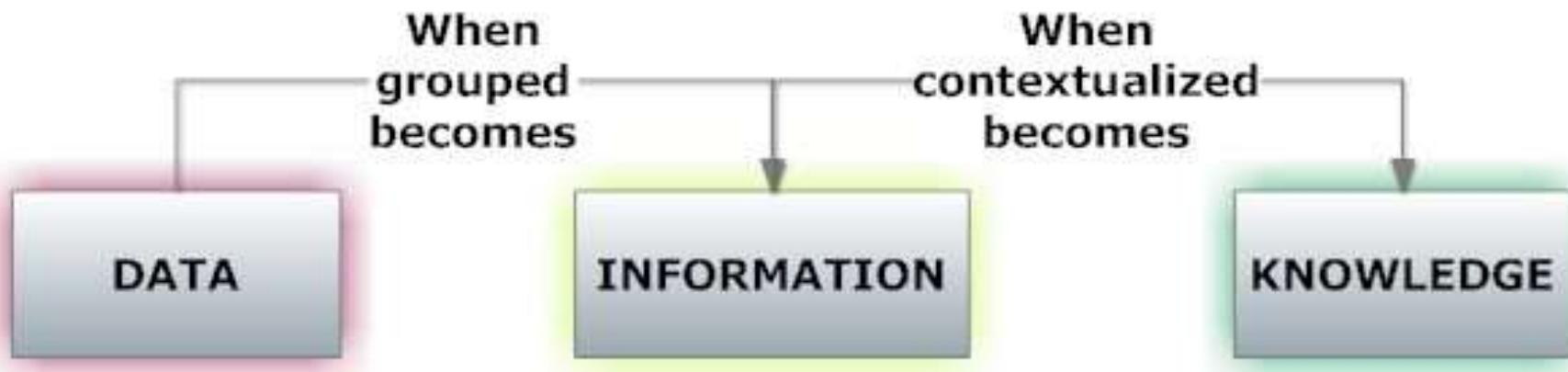
# Chapter 3

Structured Query Language:  
Creating and manipulating data

- In chapter 1, we looked at how databases are used in various business applications

- Create and process forms
- Process user queries
- Create and process reports
- Execute application logic
- Control application

- In chapter 2, we see how databases are helpful in decision making



- Words
- Images
- Numbers



- Purpose
- Meaning
- Process



- Structure
- Growth
- System

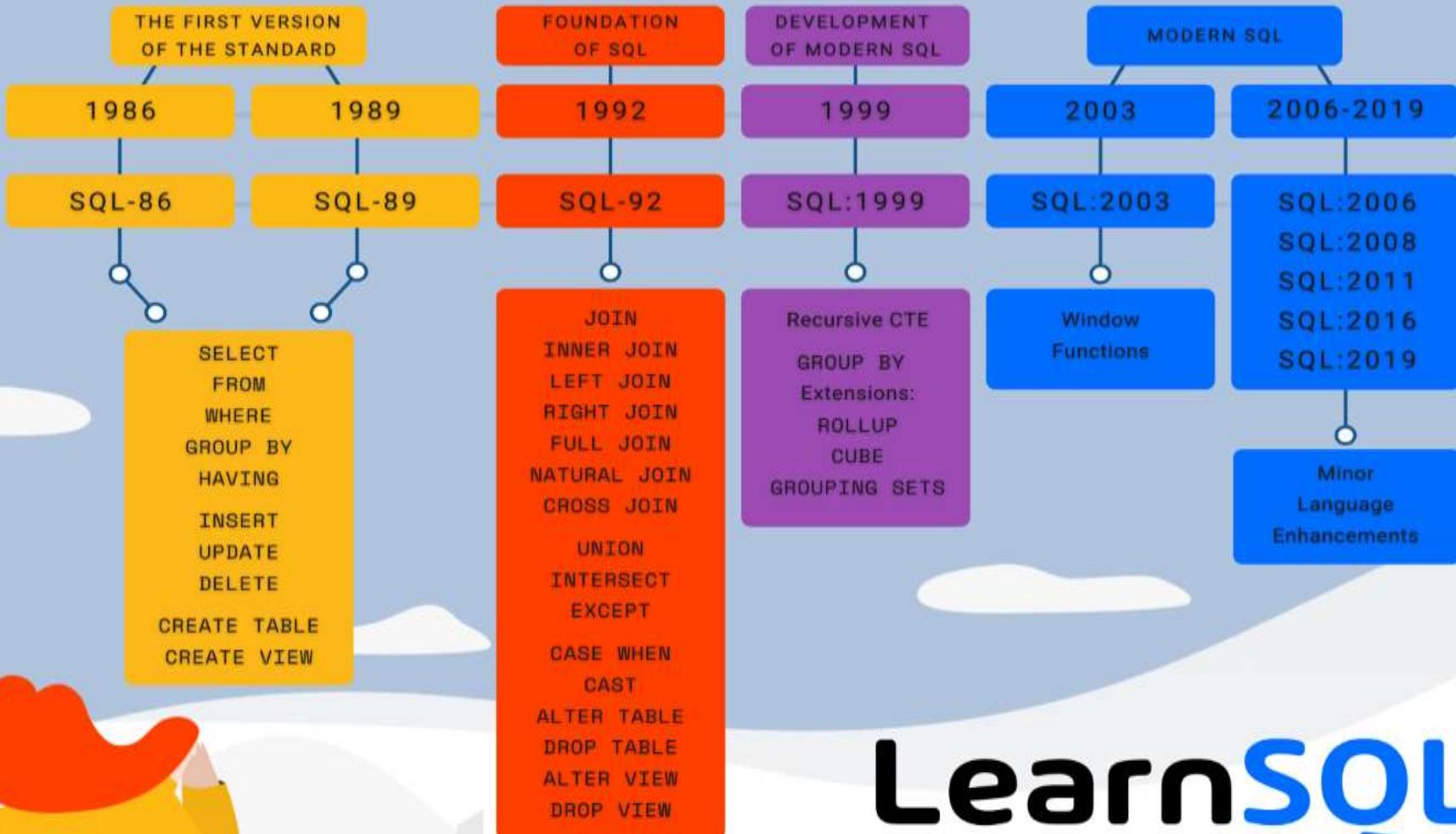


- In this chapter, we learn how to create, load data and extract information from a database
- This is accomplish using Structured Query Language (SQL)

## SQL Statements

SELECT INSERT UPDATE DELETE MERGE	Data manipulation language (DML)
CREATE ALTER DROP RENAME TRUNCATE COMMENT	Data definition language (DDL)
GRANT REVOKE	Data control language (DCL)
COMMIT ROLLBACK SAVEPOINT	Transaction control

# The History of SQL Standards



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# SQL FAMILY TREE

Relational Algebra  
(Codd)

Relational Calculus  
= Alpha (Codd)

⋮  
Square  
(Chamberlin & Boyce)

⋮  
QUEL  
Query language for  
Ingres, and originally  
for Postgres

⋮  
Sequel  
(Chamberlin & Boyce)

Renamed to SQL

$$\pi_{e.name} \left( \sigma_{e.salary > m.salary} \left( \rho_e(\text{employee}) \bowtie_{e.manager = m.name} \rho_m(\text{employee}) \right) \right)$$

(a) Relational Algebra version

```
RANGE employee e;  
RANGE employee m;  
GET w (e.name): ∃m((e.manager = m.name) ∧ (e.salary > m.salary))
```

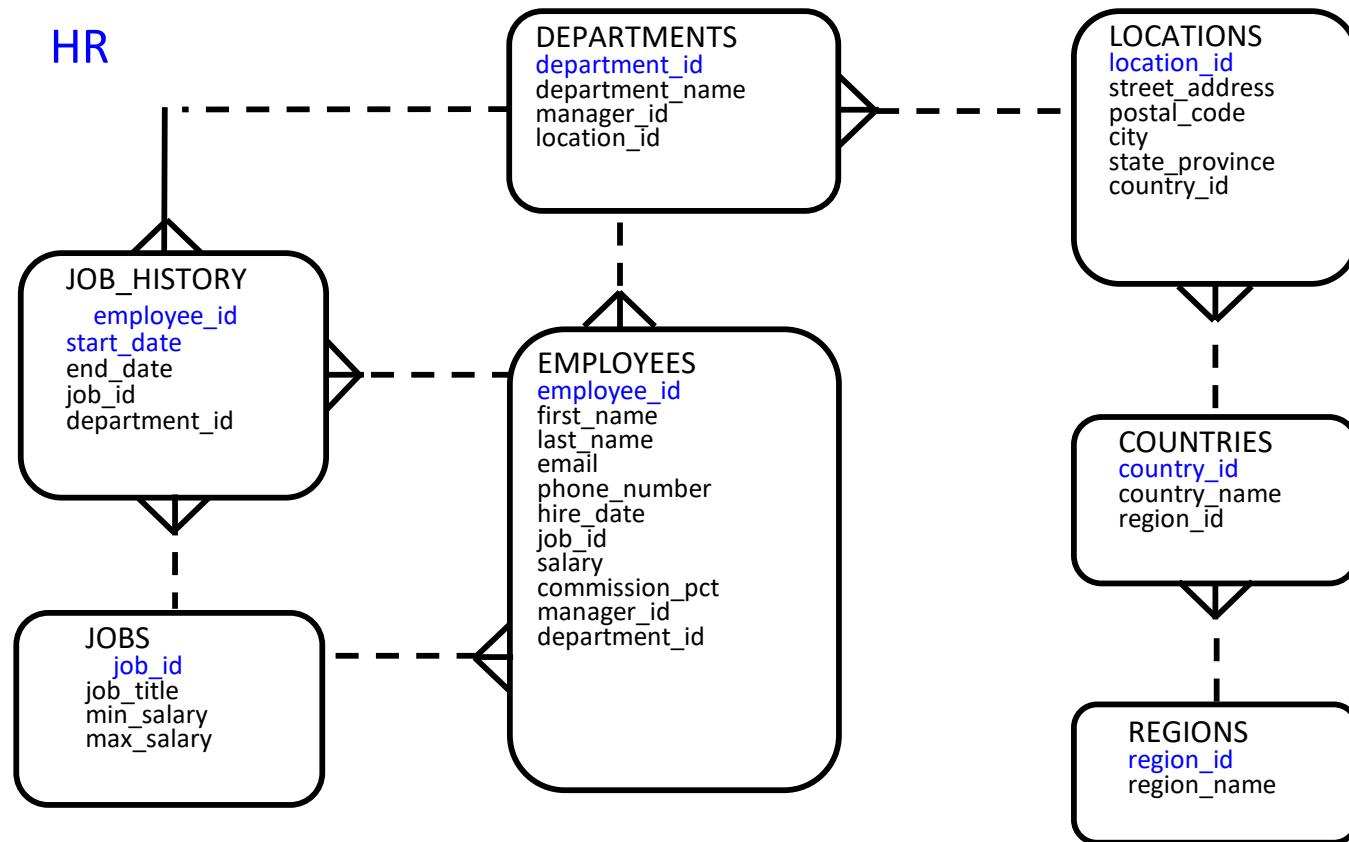
(b) Relational Calculus version

```
select e.name  
from employee e, employee m  
where e.manager = m.name and e.salary > m.salary
```

(c) Sequel (SQL) version

Figure 2. Three versions of the query, "Find names of employees who earn more than their managers."

# The HR Entity Relationship Diagram



Note:

Please create the HR database to facilitate your learning for Tutorials 3-5.  
Execute the Create\_HR.txt and In\_HR.txt script.

# Basic SELECT Statement

- SELECT identifies the columns to be displayed
- FROM identifies the table that contains those columns

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

# Selecting All Columns

- All columns of a table can be displayed by placing an \* after keyword SELECT

```
SELECT *
FROM    departments;
```

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

# Selecting Specific Columns - Projection

- You can use the SELECT statement to display specific columns of the table by indicating the column names in the order you would like to see them, separated by commas

```
SELECT department_id, location_id  
FROM departments;
```

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

# Database Foundations

6-7

## Restricting Data Using WHERE

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# Objectives

- This lesson covers the following objectives:
  - Limit rows with:
    - WHERE clause
    - Comparison operators using =, <=,>=, <>, <, !=, ^=, BETWEEN, IN, LIKE and NULL conditions
    - Logical conditions using AND, OR and NOT operators
  - Describe the rules of precedence for operators in an expression



# Limiting Rows Using Selection (WHERE)

EMPLOYEES

EMPLOYEE_ID	FIRST_NAME	LAST_NAME	JOB_ID	SALARY	DEPARTMENT_ID
100	Steven	King	AD_PRES	24000	90
101	Neena	Kochhar	AD_VP	17000	90
102	Lex	De Haan	AD_VP	17000	90
200	Jennifer	Whalen	AD_ASST	4400	10
205	Shelley	Higgins	AC_MGR	12000	110
206	William	Gietz	AC_ACCOUNT	8300	110
149	Eleni	Zlotkey	SA_MAN	10500	80
174	Ellen	Abel	SA_REP	11000	80

...

"retrieve all employees in department 90"



EMPLOYEE_ID	FIRST_NAME	LAST_NAME	JOB_ID	SALARY	DEPARTMENT_ID
100	Steven	King	AD_PRES	24000	90
101	Neena	Kochhar	AD_VP	17000	90
102	Lex	De Haan	AD_VP	17000	90

# Limiting the Rows That Are Selected

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

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

- If the logical expression evaluates to true, the row meeting the condition is returned
- The WHERE clause follows the FROM clause

# Using the WHERE Clause

- Retrieve all employees in department 90

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

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

# Character Strings and Dates

- Character strings and date values are enclosed in single quotation marks
- Character values are case-sensitive, and date values are format-sensitive

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

# Character Strings and Dates

- The default date display format is DD-Mon-YYYY

```
SELECT last_name  
FROM employees  
WHERE hire_date = '29-Jan-2000';
```

# Using the ORDER BY Clause

- Sort the retrieved rows with the ORDER BY clause:
  - ASC: Ascending order (default)
  - DESC: Descending order
- The ORDER BY clause comes last in the SELECT statement:

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

# ORDER BY Clause

- Numeric values are displayed lowest to highest
- Date values are displayed with the earliest value first
- Character values are displayed in alphabetical order
- Null values are displayed last in ascending order and first in descending order
- NULLS FIRST specifies that NULL values should be returned before non-NUL values
- NULLS LAST specifies that NULL values should be returned after non-NUL values

# Sorting

- Sorting in descending order:

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

- Sorting by column alias:

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

# Sorting

- Sorting by using the column's numeric position:

```
SELECT last_name, job_id, department_id, hire_date  
FROM employees  
ORDER BY 3;
```

- Sorting by multiple columns:

```
SELECT last_name, department_id, salary  
FROM employees  
ORDER BY department_id, salary DESC;
```

# Order of Execution

- The order of execution of a SELECT statement is as follows:
  - FROM clause:
    - locates the table that contains the data
  - WHERE clause:
    - restricts the rows to be returned
  - SELECT clause:
    - selects from the reduced data set the columns requested
  - ORDER BY clause:
    - orders the result set



# Comparison Operators

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

# Using Comparison Operators

- Retrieve records from the EMPLOYEES table where the salary is less than or equal to \$3,000

```
SELECT last_name, salary  
FROM employees  
WHERE salary <= 3000;
```

LAST_NAME	SALARY
Matos	2600
Vargas	2500

# Range Conditions: BETWEEN Operator

- Use the BETWEEN operator to display rows based on a range of values:

```
SELECT last_name, salary Lower limit Upper limit  
FROM employees  
WHERE salary BETWEEN 2500 AND 3500 ;
```

LAST_NAME	SALARY
Rajs	3500
Davies	3100
Matos	2600
Vargas	2500

\*\* Note – when using BETWEEN lower value must be specified first

# Membership Conditions: IN Operator

- Use the IN operator to test for values in a list:

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

EMPLOYEE_ID	LAST_NAME	SALARY	MANAGER_ID
101	Kochhar	17000	100
102	De Haan	17000	100
149	Zlotkey	10500	100
124	Mourgos	5800	100
201	Hartstein	13000	100

...

\*\* Note: items in list can be in any order

# Membership Conditions: NOT IN Operator

- Use the NOT IN operator to test for values not in a list:

```
SELECT employee_id, last_name, salary, manager_id  
FROM employees  
WHERE department_id NOT IN (60, 90, 100) ;
```

EMPLOYEE_ID	LAST_NAME	SALARY	MANAGER_ID
200	Whalen	4400	101
205	Higgins	12000	101
206	Gietz	8300	205
149	Zlotkey	10500	100
174	Abel	11000	149
176	Taylor	8600	149

...

# Pattern Matching: LIKE Operator

- Use the LIKE operator to perform wildcard searches of valid search string values
- Search conditions can contain literal characters or numbers:
  - % denotes zero or more characters
  - \_ denotes one character

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

FIRST\_NAME

Shelley

Steven

# Combining Wildcard Characters

- You can combine the two wildcard characters (%, \_) with literal characters for pattern matching:

```
SELECT last_name  
FROM   employees  
WHERE  last_name LIKE '_o%' ;
```

LAST_NAME
Kochhar
Lorentz
Mourgos

# Combining Wildcard Characters

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

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

- This will return records with SA\_ in their job\_id

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

# Using the NULL Conditions

- Test for nulls with the IS NULL or IS NOT NULL operators:

```
SELECT last_name, manager_id  
FROM employees  
WHERE manager_id IS NULL;
```

LAST_NAME	MANAGER_ID
King	-

- You cannot test with = because a null cannot be equal or unequal to any value

# Defining Conditions Using the Logical Operators

- A logical condition combines the result of two component conditions to produce a single result based on those conditions or if using NOT it inverts the result of a single condition

Operator	Meaning
AND	Returns TRUE if both component conditions are TRUE
OR	Returns TRUE if either component condition is TRUE
NOT	Returns TRUE if the condition is FALSE Returns FALSE if the condition is TRUE

# Using the AND Operator

- AND requires both component conditions to be true:

```
SELECT employee_id, last_name, job_id, salary  
FROM employees  
WHERE salary >= 10000  
AND job_id LIKE '%MAN%' ;
```

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

- Note: All character searches are case sensitive and must be enclosed in quotation marks

# Using the OR Operator

- OR requires either component condition to be true:

```
SELECT employee_id, last_name, job_id, salary  
FROM   employees  
WHERE  salary >= 10000  
OR     job_id LIKE '%MAN%' ;
```

EMPLOYEE_ID	LAST_NAME	JOB_ID	SALARY
100	King	AD_PRES	24000
101	Kochhar	AD_VP	17000
102	De Haan	AD_VP	17000
205	Higgins	AC_MGR	12000
149	Zlotkey	SA_MAN	10500
...			

# Using the NOT Operator

- NOT reverses the value of the condition:

```
SELECT last_name, job_id  
FROM employees  
WHERE job_id NOT IN ('IT_PROG', 'ST_CLERK', 'SA_REP') ;
```

LAST_NAME	JOB_ID
King	AD_PRES
Kochhar	AD_VP
De Haan	AD_VP
Whalen	AD_ASST
Higgins	AC_MGR
Gietz	AC_ACCOUNT
Zlotkey	SA_MAN

# Rules of Precedence

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

**Use parentheses to override rules of precedence**

# Rules of Precedence

```
SELECT last_name, job_id, salary  
FROM   employees  
WHERE  job_id = 'SA_REP'  
OR     job_id = 'AD_PRES'  
AND    salary > 15000;
```

Precedence of  
the AND Operator

LAST_NAME	JOB_ID	SALARY
King	AD_PRES	24000
Abel	SA_REP	11000
Taylor	SA_REP	8600
Grant	SA_REP	7000

# Rules of Precedence

```
SELECT last_name, job_id, salary  
FROM employees  
WHERE (job_id = 'SA_REP'  
OR job_id = 'AD_PRES')  
AND salary > 15000;
```

**Parentheses**

LAST_NAME	JOB_ID	SALARY
King	AD_PRES	24000

# Arithmetic Expressions

- Create expressions with number and date data by using arithmetic operators
- Column names, numeric constants and arithmetic operators can be used in an arithmetic expression
- Arithmetic operators can be used in any clause of a SQL statement except FROM

Operator	Description
+	Add
-	Subtract
*	Multiply
/	Divide

# Using Arithmetic Operators

- Here the addition operator is used to calculate a salary increase of \$300 for all employees
- SALARY + 300 is displayed as the column heading

```
SELECT last_name, salary, salary + 300  
FROM   employees;
```

LAST_NAME	SALARY	SALARY+300
King	24000	24300
Kochhar	17000	17300
De Haan	17000	17300
Whalen	4400	4700

...

# Operator Precedence

- Use parentheses to reinforce the standard order of precedence and to improve clarity

```
SELECT last_name, salary, 12*salary+100  
FROM employees;
```

LAST_NAME	SALARY	12*SALARY+100
King	24000	288100
Kochhar	17000	204100
De Haan	17000	204100
Whalen	4400	52900
Higgins	12000	144100
Gietz	8300	99700

...

# Operator Precedence

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

```
SELECT last_name, salary, 12*(salary+100)  
FROM employees;
```

LAST_NAME	SALARY	12*(SALARY+100)
King	24000	289200
Kochhar	17000	205200
De Haan	17000	205200
Whalen	4400	54000
Higgins	12000	145200
Gietz	8300	100800
Zlotkey	10500	127200

# Defining a Null Value

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

```
SELECT last_name, job_id, salary, commission_pct  
FROM employees;
```

LAST_NAME	JOB_ID	SALARY	COMMISSION_PCT
King	AD_PRES	24000	-
Gietz	AC_ACCOUNT	8300	-
Zlotkey	SA_MAN	10500	.2
Abel	SA_REP	11000	.3
Taylor	SA_REP	8600	.2
Grant	SA_REP	7000	.15
Mourgos	ST_MAN	5800	-

# Null Values in Arithmetic Expressions

- Any arithmetic expression containing a null value will evaluate to null

```
SELECT last_name, 12*salary*commission_pct  
FROM employees;
```

LAST_NAME	12*SALARY*COMMISSION_PCT
King	-
Gietz	-
Zlotkey	25200
Abel	39600
Taylor	20640
Grant	12600
Mourgos	-

...

# Defining a Column Alias

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

# Using Column Aliases

- Keyword AS is optional
- Column names appear uppercase by default

```
SELECT last_name AS name,  
commission_pct comm  
FROM employees;
```

- Column names enclosed in parenthesis will appear as entered

```
SELECT last_name "Name" ,  
      salary*12 "Annual Salary"  
FROM employees;
```

NAME	COMM
King	-
Kochhar	-
Whalen	-
Higgins	-
.....	

Name	Annual Salary
King	288000
Kochhar	204000
Whalen	204000
Higgins	52800
.....	

# Concatenation Operator

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

```
SELECT last_name || job_id AS "Employees"  
FROM employees;
```

- Concatenating a NULL with a character results in a character string

Employees
KingAD_PRES
KochharAD_VP
De HaanAD_VP
WhalenAD_ASST

# Literal Character Strings

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

# Using Literal Character Strings

- In the example, the last name and job\_id for each employee are concatenated with a literal to give the returned rows more meaning

```
SELECT last_name || ' is a ' || job_id  
      AS "Employee Details"  
FROM   employees;
```

## Employee Details

King is a AD\_PRES

Kochhar is a AD\_VP

De Haan is a AD\_VP

Whalen is a AD\_ASST

Higgins is a AC\_MGR

Gietz is a AC\_ACCOUNT



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# Duplicate Rows

- The default display of queries is all rows, including duplicate rows

```
SELECT department_id  
FROM employees;
```

DEPARTMENT_ID
90
90
90
10
110
110
80
80
80

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# Duplicate Rows

- To eliminate duplicate rows in the result, include the DISTINCT keyword in the SELECT clause immediately after the SELECT keyword

```
SELECT DISTINCT department_id  
FROM employees;
```

DEPARTMENT_ID
-
90
20
110
80
50
...

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...

# SELECT Statement

- Used for queries on single or multiple tables
- Clauses of the SELECT statement:
  - **SELECT**
    - List the columns (and expressions) that should be returned from the query
  - **FROM**
    - Indicate the table(s) or view(s) from which data will be obtained
  - **WHERE**
    - Indicate the conditions under which a row will be included in the result
  - **GROUP BY**
    - Indicate categorization of results
  - **HAVING**
    - Indicate the conditions under which a category (group) will be included
  - **ORDER BY**
    - Sorts the result according to specified criteria

# Summary

- In this lesson, you should have learned how to:
  - Write and execute SELECT statement that:
    - Uses arithmetic and concatenation operators
    - Uses literal character strings
    - Eliminate duplicate rows
    - Use the WHERE clause to restrict rows of output:
      - Use the comparison conditions
      - Use the BETWEEN, IN, LIKE, and NULL operators
      - Apply the logical AND, OR, and NOT operators
    - Use the ORDER BY clause to sort rows of output

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

# Displaying Data from Multiple Tables

SQL provides join conditions that enable information to be queried from separate tables and combined in one report.

# ON Clause Example

- In this example, the ON clause is used to join the employees table with the jobs table

```
SELECT last_name, job_title  
FROM employees e JOIN jobs j  
ON (e.job_id = j.job_id);
```

- A join ON clause is required when the common columns have different names in the two tables

LAST_NAME	JOB_TITLE
King	President
Kochhar	Administration Vice President
De Haan	Administration Vice President
Whalen	Administration Assistant
Higgins	Accounting Manager
Gietz	Public Accountant
Zlotkey	Sales Manager
Abel	Sales Representative
Taylor	Sales Representative
...	

## ON Clause Example

- When using an ON clause on columns with the same name in both tables, you need to add a qualifier (either the table name or alias) otherwise an error will be returned
- The example above uses table aliases as a qualifier `e.job_id = j.job_id`, but could also have been written using the table names  
`(employees.job_id = jobs.job_id)`

```
SELECT last_name, job_title
FROM employees e JOIN jobs j
    ON (e.job_id = j.job_id);
```

LAST_NAME	JOB_TITLE
King	President
Kochhar	Administration Vice President
De Haan	Administration Vice President
Whalen	Administration Assistant
Higgins	Accounting Manager
Gietz	Public Accountant
Zlotkey	Sales Manager
Abel	Sales Representative
Taylor	Sales Representative
...	

# Retrieving Records with the ON Clause

- You can also use the ON clause to join columns that have different names or data types

```
SELECT e.employee_id, e.last_name, e.department_id,  
       d.department_id, d.location_id  
FROM   employees e JOIN departments d  
ON     (e.department_id = d.department_id);
```

EMPLOYEE_ID	LAST_NAME	DEPARTMENT_ID	DEPARTMENT_ID	LOCATION_ID
200	Whalen	10	10	1700
201	Hartstein	20	20	1800
202	Fay	20	20	1800
124	Mourgos	50	50	1500
141	Rajs	50	50	1500
142	Davies	50	50	1500

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# Creating Three-Way Joins with the ON Clause

- There must be 2 join statements when joining 3 tables as shown:

```
SELECT employee_id, city, department_name  
FROM employees e JOIN departments d  
ON d.department_id = e.department_id  
JOIN locations l  
ON d.location_id = l.location_id;
```

EMPLOYEE_ID	CITY	DEPARTMENT_NAME
201	Toronto	Marketing
202	Toronto	Marketing
149	Oxford	Sales
174	Oxford	Sales
176	Oxford	Sales
103	Southlake	IT

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# Applying Additional Conditions to a Join

- Use the AND clause or the WHERE clause to apply additional conditions:

```
SELECT e.employee_id, e.last_name, e.department_id,  
       d.department_id, d.location_id  
FROM   employees e JOIN departments d  
ON     (e.department_id = d.department_id)  
AND    e.manager_id = 149 ;
```

Or

```
SELECT e.employee_id, e.last_name, e.department_id,  
       d.department_id, d.location_id  
FROM   employees e JOIN departments d  
ON     (e.department_id = d.department_id)  
WHERE  e.manager_id = 149 ;
```

# Joining a Table to Itself

EMPLOYEES (WORKER)

EMPLOYEE_ID	LAST_NAME	MANAGER_ID
100	King	-
101	Kochhar	100
102	De Haan	100
200	Whalen	101
205	Higgins	101
206	Gietz	205
149	Zlotkey	100
174	Abel	149
176	Taylor	149
201	Hartstein	100
202	Fay	201

...

EMPLOYEES (MANAGER)

EMPLOYEE_ID	LAST_NAME
100	King
101	Kochhar
102	De Haan
200	Whalen
205	Higgins
206	Gietz
149	Zlotkey
174	Abel
176	Taylor
201	Hartstein
202	Fay

...

MANAGER\_ID in the WORKER table is equal to  
EMPLOYEE\_ID in the MANAGER table

# Self-Joins Using the ON Clause

- The ON clause can also be used to join columns that have different names, within the same table or in a different table

```
SELECT worker.last_name emp, manager.last_name mgr  
FROM employees worker JOIN employees manager  
ON (worker.manager_id = manager.employee_id);
```

EMP	MGR
Kochhar	King
De Haan	King
Zlotkey	King
Mourgos	King
Hartstein	King

...

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# Nonequi joins

- The JOB\_GRADES table defines the LOWEST\_SAL and HIGHEST\_SAL range of values for each GRADE\_LEVEL

```
SELECT *  
FROM job_grades;
```

GRADE_LEVEL	LOWEST_SAL	HIGHEST_SAL
A	1000	2999
B	3000	5999
C	6000	9999
D	10000	14999
E	15000	24999
F	25000	40000

# Nonequi joins

- Therefore, the GRADE\_LEVEL column can be used to assign grade levels to each employee based on their salary

EMPLOYEES

EMPLOYEE_ID	SALARY
100	24000
101	17000
102	17000
200	4400
205	12000
206	8300
149	10500
174	11000
176	8600
178	7000

JOB\_GRADES

GRADE_LEVEL	LOWEST_SAL	HIGHEST_SAL
A	1000	2999
B	3000	5999
C	6000	9999
D	10000	14999
E	15000	24999
F	25000	40000

# Retrieving Records with NonequiJoins

- This example creates a nonequijoin to evaluate an employee's salary grade. The salary must be between any pair of the low and high salary ranges

```
SELECT e.last_name, e.salary, j.grade_level  
FROM employees e JOIN job_grades j  
ON e.salary BETWEEN j.lowest_sal AND j.highest_sal;
```

LAST_NAME	SALARY	GRADE_LEVEL
Vargas	2500	A
Matos	2600	A
Davies	3100	B
Rajs	3500	B
Lorentz	4200	B
Whalen	4400	B

**ORACLE** ...

Academy

# Cartesian Products

- A Cartesian product is when all combinations of rows are displayed. All rows in the first table are joined to all rows in the second table

```
SELECT last_name, department_name  
FROM employees, departments;
```

- A Cartesian product is formed when a join condition is omitted or invalid
- Always include a valid join condition if you want to avoid a Cartesian product

```
SELECT last_name, department_name  
FROM employees e, departments d  
ON (e.department_id = d.department_id);
```

# Generating a Cartesian Product

**EMPLOYEES (40 rows)**

EMPLOYEE_ID	LAST_NAME	DEPARTMENT_ID
100	King	90
149	Zlotkey	80
103	Ernst	60
...		

**DEPARTMENTS (9 rows)**

DEPARTMENT_ID	DEPARTMENT_NAME	LOCATION_ID
60	IT	1400
80	Sales	2500
90	Executive	1700
...		

**Cartesian product:**  
 **$40 \times 9 = 360$  rows**

EMPLOYEE_ID	LAST_NAME	DEPARTMENT_ID	DEPARTMENT_NAME	LOCATION_ID
100	King	90	Administration	1700
101	Kochhar	90	Administration	1700
102	De Haan	90	Administration	1700
200	Whalen	10	Administration	1700
205	Higgins	110	Administration	1700
206	Gietz	110	Administration	1700
149	Zlotkey	80	Administration	1700
...				

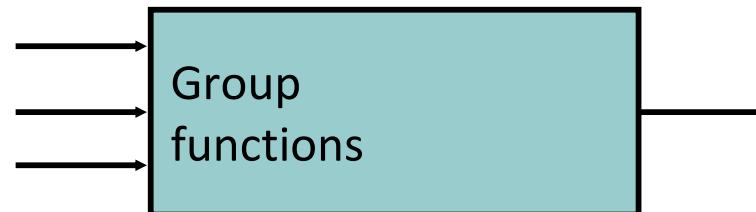
# Summary

- In this lesson, you should have learned how to:
  - Write SELECT statement to access data from more than one table using equijoins and non-equijoins
  - Use a self-join to join a table to itself
  - Generate a Cartesian product (cross join) of all rows from two or more tables

# Reporting Aggregated Data Using the Group Functions

# Types of Group Functions

- In SQL, the following group functions can operate on a whole table or on a specific grouping of rows.
- Each function returns ONE result
  - **AVG**
  - **COUNT**
  - **MAX**
  - **MIN**
  - **SUM**



Function	Description
AVG([DISTINCT ALL] <i>n</i> )	Average value of <i>n</i> , ignoring null values
COUNT([* [DISTINCT ALL] <i>expr</i> )	Number of rows, where <i>expr</i> evaluates to

# GROUP Functions List

- MIN: Used with columns that store any data type to return the minimum value
- MAX: Used with columns that store any data type to return the maximum value

DEPT_ID	SALARY
90	24000
90	17000
90	17000
60	9000
60	6000
60	4200
50	5800
50	3500
50	3100
50	2600
50	2500
...	...
	7000
10	4400

```
SELECT MAX(salary)  
FROM employees;
```

MAX (SALARY)
24000

# GROUP Functions List

- SUM: Used with columns that store numeric data to find the total or sum of values
- AVG: Used with columns that store numeric data to compute the average

DEPT_ID	SALARY
90	24000
90	17000
90	17000
60	9000
60	6000
60	4200
50	5800
50	3500
50	3100
50	2600
50	2500
...	...
	7000
10	4400

```
SELECT MAX(salary)  
FROM employees;
```

MAX (SALARY)
24000

## GROUP Functions List

- COUNT: Returns the number of rows
- VARIANCE: Used with columns that store numeric data to calculate the spread of data around the mean
  - For example, if the average grade for the class on the last test was 82% and the student's scores ranged from 40% to 100%, the variance of scores would be greater than if the student's scores ranged from 78% to 88%
- STDDEV: Similar to variance, standard deviation measures the spread of data
  - For two sets of data with approximately the same mean, the greater the spread, the greater the standard deviation

Standard deviation and variance measure the spread of data around the mean or average. For the purpose of this course, it is important to be able to recognize and use them as group functions. Understanding how they work is beyond the scope of this course.

# GROUP Functions SELECT Clause

- Group functions are written in the SELECT clause:

```
SELECT column,  
group_function(column),  
..  
FROM table  
WHERE condition  
GROUP BY column;
```

- What are Group Functions?
- Group Functions operate on sets of rows to give one result per group

DEPT_ID	SALARY
90	24000
90	17000
90	17000
60	9000
60	6000
60	4200
50	5800
50	3500
50	3100
50	2600
50	2500
60	10500
60	11000
60	8600
	7000
10	4400

The minimum salary in the EMPLOYEES table

MIN(SALARY)
2500

The WHERE clause can be included to perform a group function on a sub-set of the table, for example  
WHERE department\_id = 90.

The GROUP BY clause will be discussed in a later lesson.

## GROUP Function Cautions

- Important things you should know about group functions:
  - Group functions cannot be used in the WHERE clause:

```
SELECT last_name, first_name  
FROM employees  
WHERE salary = MIN(salary);
```



ORA-00934: group function is not allowed here

We will cover how to resolve this issue in a later lesson.

## GROUP Function examples

- MIN: Used with columns that store any data type to return the minimum value

Example:	Result
<pre>SELECT MIN(life_expect_at_birth)       AS "Lowest Life Exp"    FROM wf_countries;</pre>	32.62
<pre>SELECT MIN(country_name)    FROM wf_countries;</pre>	Anguilla
<pre>SELECT MIN(hire_date)    FROM employees;</pre>	17-Jun-1987

Example 1 returns the lowest number in the life\_expect\_at\_birth column.

Example 2 uses a character data column, and returns the county whose name is first in the alphabetic list of country names.

Example 3 uses a date data type column and returns the earliest hire date.

## GROUP Function examples

- MAX: Used with columns that store any data type to return the maximum value

Example:	Result
<pre>SELECT MAX(life_expect_at_birth)       AS "Highest Life Exp"    FROM wf_countries;</pre>	83.51
<pre>SELECT MAX(country_name)    FROM wf_countries</pre>	Western Sahara
<pre>SELECT MAX(hire_date)    FROM employees;</pre>	29-Jan-2000

Example 1 returns the highest number in the life\_expect\_at\_birth column.

Example 2 uses a character data column, and returns the country whose name is last in the alphabetic list of country names.

Example 3 uses a date data type column and returns the most recent hire date.

## GROUP Function examples

- **SUM:** Used with columns that store numeric data to find the total or sum of values

Example:	Result
<pre>SELECT SUM(area) FROM wf_countries</pre>	241424
<pre>SELECT SUM (salary) FROM employees WHERE department_id = 90;</pre>	58000

You can restrict the group function to a subset of the table using a WHERE clause.

Example 1 returns the total (sum) of all the areas of countries in region 29 (Caribbean).

Example 2 returns the total salary for employees in department 90.

## GROUP Function examples

- AVG: Used with columns that store numeric data to compute the average

Example:	Result
<pre>SELECT AVG(area) FROM wf_countries WHERE region_id = 29;</pre>	9656.96
<pre>SELECT ROUND(AVG(salary), 2) FROM employees WHERE department_id = 90;</pre>	19333.33

Example 1 returns the average of all the areas of countries in region 29 (Caribbean).

Example 2 returns the average salary for employees in department 90, rounded to two decimal places.

- **VARIANCE:** Used with columns that store numeric data to calculate the spread of data around the mean
- **STDDEV:** Similar to variance, standard deviation measures the spread of data

Example:	Result
<pre>SELECT ROUND(VARIANCE(life_expect_at_birth),4) FROM wf_countries;</pre>	143.2394
<pre>SELECT ROUND(STDDEV(life_expect_at_birth), 4) FROM wf_countries;</pre>	11.9683

# GROUP Function and NULL

- Group functions ignore NULL values
- In the example below, the null values were not used to find the average commission\_pct

```
SELECT AVG(commission_pct)
FROM employees;
```

AVG(COMMISSION_PCT)
.2125

LAST_NAME	COMMISSION_PCT
King	-
Kochhar	-
De Haan	-
Whalen	-
Higgins	-
Gietz	-
Zlotkey	.2
Abel	.3
Taylor	.2
Grant	.15
Mourgos	-
...	...

The employees table has 20 rows. Only 4 employees have a commission\_pct, the other 16 rows contain NULL. The average is calculated by finding the SUM of the not-null rows, and dividing by the COUNT of the not null rows.

This topic will be covered in more depth in the next lesson.

## More Than One Group Function

- You can have more than one group function in the SELECT clause, on the same or different columns

```
SELECT MAX(salary), MIN(salary), MIN(employee_id)  
FROM employees  
WHERE department_id = 60;
```

MAX(SALARY)	MIN(SALARY)	MIN(EMPLOYEE_ID)
9000	4200	103

## Rules for Group Functions

- Group functions ignore null values
- Group functions cannot be used in the WHERE clause
- MIN, MAX and COUNT can be used with any data type; SUM, AVG, STDDEV, and VARIANCE can be used only with numeric data types



# Summary

- In this lesson, you should have learned how to:
  - Define and give an example of the seven group functions: SUM, AVG, COUNT, MIN, MAX, STDDEV, VARIANCE
  - Construct and execute a SQL query using group functions
  - Construct and execute group functions that operate only with numeric data types

- Group functions:

- Types and syntax
- Use AVG, SUM, MIN, MAX, COUNT
- Use DISTINCT keyword within group functions
- NULL values in a group function

- Grouping rows:

- GROUP BY clause
- HAVING clause

- Nesting group functions

# GROUP BY Use

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

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

DEPARTMENT_ID	AVG(SALARY)
10	4400
20	9500
50	3500
60	6400
80	10033.3333333333333333
90	19333.3333333333333333
110	10150
-	7000

## GROUP BY Use

- In the SELECT statement shown, the rows are being grouped by department\_id
- The AVG function is then applied to each group

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

DEPARTMENT_ID	AVG(SALARY)
10	4400
20	9500
50	3500
60	6400
80	10033.3333333333333333
90	19333.3333333333333333
110	10150
-	7000

## GROUP BY Example

- What if we wanted to find the maximum salary of employees in each department?
- We use a GROUP BY clause stating which column to use to group the rows

```
SELECT MAX(salary)  
FROM employees  
GROUP BY department_id;
```

DEPT_ID	SALARY	MAX(SALARY)
90	24000	7000
90	17000	24000
90	17000	13000
60	9000	...
60	6000	
60	4200	
50	5800	
50	3500	
50	3100	
50	2600	
50	2500	
...	...	

## GROUP BY Example

- But how can we tell which maximum salary belongs to which department?

DEPT_ID	SALARY	MAX(SALARY)
90	24000	7000
90	17000	24000
90	17000	13000
60	9000	
60	6000	
60	4200	
50	5800	
50	3500	
50	3100	
50	2600	
50	2500	
...	...	...

## GROUP BY in SELECT

- Usually we want to include the GROUP BY column in the SELECT list

```
SELECT department_id, MAX(salary)  
FROM employees  
GROUP BY department_id;
```

DEPT_ID	SALARY
90	24000
90	17000
90	17000
60	9000
60	6000
60	4200
...	...

DEPT_ID	MAX(SALARY)
-	7000
90	24000
20	13000
...	...

## GROUP BY Clause

- Group functions require that any column listed in the SELECT clause that is not part of a group function must be listed in a GROUP BY clause
- What is wrong with this example?

```
SELECT job_id, last_name, AVG(salary)
FROM employees
GROUP BY job_id;
```



ORA-00979: not a GROUP BY expression

Job\_id is fine in the SELECT list, but last\_name is not, because each unique group of job\_id's produces only one row of output (as it is the GROUP BY column). However, there may be many different employees having that same job\_id, for example there are three employees with a job\_id of SA\_REP.

# COUNT

- This example shows how many countries are in each region
- Remember that group functions ignore null values, so if any country does not have a country name, it will not be included in the COUNT

```
SELECT COUNT(country_name), region_id  
FROM wf_countries  
GROUP BY region_id  
ORDER BY region_id;
```

COUNT(COUNTRY_NAME)	REGION_ID
15	5
28	9
21	11
8	13
7	14
8	15
5	17
17	18

## COUNT

- Of course this is unlikely, but when constructing SQL statements, we have to think about all of the possibilities
- It would be better to write the query using COUNT(\*):

```
SELECT COUNT(*), region_id  
FROM wf_countries  
GROUP BY region_id  
ORDER BY region_id;
```

- This would count all of the rows in each region group, without the need to check which columns contained NULL values

## WHERE Clause

- We can also use a WHERE clause to exclude rows before the remaining rows are formed into groups

```
SELECT department_id, MAX(salary)
FROM employees
WHERE last_name != 'King'
GROUP BY department_id;
```

LAST_NAME	DEPT_ID	SALARY
King	90	24000
Kochhar	90	17000
De Haan	90	17000
Hunold	60	9000
Ernst	60	6000
Lorentz	60	4200
...	...	...

DEPT_ID	MAX(SALARY)
-	7000
90	17000
20	13000
...	...

As employee King is excluded by the WHERE clause, the MAX(salary) for department 90 is returned as 17000.

## More GROUP BY Examples

- Show the average population of all countries in each region
- Round the average to a whole number

```
SELECT region_id, ROUND(AVG(population)) AS population  
FROM wf_countries  
GROUP BY region_id  
ORDER BY region_id;
```

- Count the number of spoken languages for all countries

```
SELECT country_id, COUNT(language_id) AS "Number of  
languages"  
FROM wf_spoken_languages  
GROUP BY country_id;
```

## GROUP BY Guidelines

- Important guidelines to remember when using a GROUP BY clause are:
  - If you include a group function (AVG, SUM, COUNT, MAX, MIN, STDDEV, VARIANCE) in a SELECT clause along with any other individual columns, each individual column must also appear in the GROUP BY clause
  - You cannot use a column alias in the GROUP BY clause
  - The WHERE clause excludes rows before they are divided into groups

## Groups Within GROUPS

- Sometimes you need to divide groups into smaller groups
- For example, you may want to group all employees by department; then, within each department, group them by job
- This example shows how many employees are doing each job within each department

```
SELECT department_id, job_id,  
count(*)  
FROM employees  
WHERE department_id > 40  
GROUP BY department_id, job_id;
```

DEPT_ID	JOB_ID	COUNT(*)
110	AC_ACCOUNT	1
50	ST_CLERK	4
80	SA_REP	2
90	AD_VP	2
50	ST_MAN	1
...	...	...

# Nesting Group Functions

- Group functions can be nested to a depth of two when GROUP BY is used

```
SELECT max(avg(salary))
FROM employees
GROUP by department_id;
```

- How many values will be returned by this query?
- The answer is one – the query will find the average salary for each department, and then from that list, select the single largest value

## HAVING

- Suppose we want to find the maximum salary in each department, but only for those departments which have more than one employee?
- What is wrong with this example?

```
SELECT department_id, MAX(salary)
FROM employees
WHERE COUNT(*) > 1
GROUP BY department_id;
```



ORA-00934: group function is not allowed here

A WHERE clause can be used only to include/exclude individual rows, not groups of rows. Therefore we cannot use group functions in a WHERE clause.

# HAVING

- In the same way you used the WHERE clause to restrict the rows that you selected, you can use the HAVING clause to restrict groups
- In a query using a GROUP BY and HAVING clause, the rows are first grouped, group functions are applied, and then only those groups matching the HAVING clause are displayed



# HAVING

- The WHERE clause is used to restrict rows; the HAVING clause is used to restrict groups returned from a GROUP BY clause

```
SELECT department_id,MAX(salary)
FROM employees
GROUP BY department_id
HAVING COUNT(*)>1
ORDER BY department_id;
```



DEPARTMENT_ID	MAX(SALARY)
20	13000
50	5800
60	9000
80	11000
90	24000
110	12000

The query first finds the MAX salary for each department in the employees table. The HAVING clause then restricts the groups returned to those departments that have more than 1 employee.

# HAVING

- This query finds the average population of the countries in each region
- It then only returns the region groups with a lowest population greater than three hundred thousand

```
SELECT region_id,  
       ROUND (AVG (population))  
FROM wf_countries  
GROUP BY region_id  
HAVING MIN (population) > 300000  
ORDER BY region_id;
```



REGION_ID	ROUND(AVG(POPULATION))
14	27037687
17	18729285
30	193332379
34	173268273
143	12023602
145	8522790
151	28343051

The HAVING and GROUP BY clauses can use different columns. The example on the slide GROUPS BY region\_id, but the HAVING clause restricts groups based on population.

# HAVING

- Although the HAVING clause can precede the GROUP BY clause in a SELECT statement, it is recommended that you place each clause in the order shown
- The ORDER BY clause (if used) is always last!

```
SELECT column, group_function  
FROM table  
WHERE  
GROUP BY  
HAVING  
ORDER BY
```

# Summary

- In this lesson, you should have learned how to:
  - Construct and execute a SQL query using GROUP BY
  - Construct and execute a SQL query using GROUP BY HAVING
  - Construct and execute a GROUP BY on more than one column
  - Nest group functions

# Manipulating Data

- Adding new rows in a table
  - [INSERT statement](#)
- Changing data in a table
  - [UPDATE statement](#)
- Removing rows from a table:
  - [DELETE statement](#)

# Data Manipulation Language

- A DML statement is executed when you:
  - Add new rows to a table
  - Modify existing rows in a table
  - Remove existing rows from a table
- A *transaction* consists of a collection of DML statements that form a logical unit of work.

# Adding a New Row to a Table

DEPARTMENTS

	DEPARTMENT_ID	DEPARTMENT_NAME	MANAGER_ID	LOCATION_ID
1	10	Administration	200	1700
2	20	Marketing	201	1800
3	50	Shipping	124	1500
4	60	IT	103	1400
5	80	Sales	149	2500
6	90	Executive	100	1700
7	110	Accounting	205	1700
8	190	Contracting	(null)	1700

70 Public Relations

100

1700

New  
row

Insert new row  
into the  
DEPARTMENTS table.

	DEPARTMENT_ID	DEPARTMENT_NAME	MANAGER_ID	LOCATION_ID
1	10	Administration	200	1700
2	20	Marketing	201	1800
3	50	Shipping	124	1500
4	60	IT	103	1400
5	80	Sales	149	2500
6	90	Executive	100	1700
7	110	Accounting	205	1700
8	190	Contracting	(null)	1700
9	70	Public Relations	100	1700

# INSERT Statement Syntax

- Add new rows to a table by using the `INSERT` statement:

```
INSERT INTO table [(column [, column...])]  
VALUES          (value [, value...]);
```

- With this syntax, only one row is inserted at a time.

# Inserting New Rows

- Insert a new row containing values for each column.
- List values in the default order of the columns in the table.

```
INSERT INTO departments(department_id,  
                      department_name, manager_id, location_id)  
VALUES (70, 'Public Relations', 100, 1700);
```

- Enclose character and date values within single quotation marks.

# Inserting Rows with Null Values

- Implicit method: Omit the column from the column list.

```
INSERT INTO departments (department_id,  
                        department_name)  
VALUES            (30, 'Purchasing');
```

- Explicit method: Specify the NULL keyword in the VALUES clause.

```
INSERT INTO departments  
VALUES            (100, 'Finance', NULL, NULL);
```

Method	Description
Implicit	Omit the column from the column list.
Explicit	Specify the NULL keyword in the VALUES list; specify the empty string (' ') in the VALUES list for character strings and dates.

# Inserting Special Values

- The SYSDATE function records the current date and time.

```
INSERT INTO employees (employee_id,
                      first_name, last_name,
                      email, phone_number,
                      hire_date, job_id, salary,
                      commission_pct, manager_id,
                      department_id)
VALUES (113,
        'Louis', 'Popp',
        'LPOPP', '515.124.4567',
        SYSDATE, 'AC_ACCOUNT', 6900,
        NULL, 205, 110);
```

# Inserting Specific Date and Time Values

— Add a new employee.

```
INSERT INTO employees  
VALUES (114,  
        'Den', 'Raphealy',  
        'DRAPHEAL', '515.127.4561',  
        TO_DATE('FEB 3, 1999', 'MON DD,  
YYYY'),  
        'SA REP', 11000, 0.2, 100, 60);
```

EMPLOYEE_ID	FIRST_NAME	LAST_NAME	EMAIL	PHONE_NUMBER	HIRE_DATE	JOB_ID	SALARY	COMMISSION_PCT
114	Den	Raphealy	DRAPHEAL	515.127.4561	03-FEB-99	SA REP	11000	0.2

# Copying Rows from Another Table

- Write your `INSERT` statement with a subquery:

```
INSERT INTO sales_reps(id, name, salary, commission_pct)
SELECT employee_id, last_name, salary, commission_pct
FROM employees
WHERE job_id LIKE '%REP%';
```

- Do not use the `VALUES` clause.
- Match the number of columns in the `INSERT` clause to those in the subquery.
- Inserts all the rows returned by the subquery in the table, `sales_reps`.

# Changing Data in a Table

EMPLOYEES

EMPLOYEE_ID	FIRST_NAME	LAST_NAME	SALARY	MANAGER_ID	COMMISSION_PCT	DEPARTMENT_ID
100	Steven	King	24000	(null)	(null)	90
101	Neena	Kochhar	17000	100	(null)	90
102	Lex	De Haan	17000	100	(null)	90
103	Alexander	Hunold	9000	102	(null)	60
104	Bruce	Ernst	6000	103	(null)	60
107	Diana	Lorentz	4200	103	(null)	60
124	Kevin	Mourgos	5800	100	(null)	50

Update rows in the EMPLOYEES table:



EMPLOYEE_ID	FIRST_NAME	LAST_NAME	SALARY	MANAGER_ID	COMMISSION_PCT	DEPARTMENT_ID
100	Steven	King	24000	(null)	(null)	90
101	Neena	Kochhar	17000	100	(null)	90
102	Lex	De Haan	17000	100	(null)	90
103	Alexander	Hunold	9000	102	(null)	80
104	Bruce	Ernst	6000	103	(null)	80
107	Diana	Lorentz	4200	103	(null)	80
124	Kevin	Mourgos	5800	100	(null)	50

# UPDATE Statement Syntax

- Modify existing values in a table with the UPDATE statement:

```
UPDATE      table
SET          column = value [, column = value,
... ]
[WHERE       condition];
```

- Update more than one row at a time (if required).

# Updating Rows in a Table

- Values for a specific row or rows are modified if you specify the WHERE clause:

```
UPDATE employees
SET department_id = 50
WHERE employee_id = 113;
```

- Values for all the rows in the table are modified if you omit the WHERE clause:

```
UPDATE copy_emp
SET department_id = 110;
```

- Specify SET *column\_name*=NULL to update a column value to NULL.

# Updating Two Columns with a Subquery

- Update employee 113's job and salary to match those of employee 205.

```
UPDATE      employees
SET        job_id   = (SELECT    job_id
                      FROM      employees
                      WHERE     employee_id = 205) ,
           salary    = (SELECT    salary
                      FROM      employees
                      WHERE     employee_id = 205)
WHERE     employee_id    = 113;
```

# Updating Rows Based on Another Table

- Use the subqueries in the UPDATE statements to update row values in a table based on values from another table:

```
UPDATE copy.emp
```

```
SET department_id = (SELECT department_id  
                      FROM employees  
                      WHERE employee_id =  
                            100)  
WHERE job_id = (SELECT job_id  
                  FROM employees  
                  WHERE employee_id =  
                        200);
```

# Removing a Row from a Table

DEPARTMENTS

	DEPARTMENT_ID	DEPARTMENT_NAME	MANAGER_ID	LOCATION_ID
1	10	Administration	200	1700
2	20	Marketing	201	1800
3	50	Shipping	124	1500
4	60	IT	103	1400
5	80	Sales	149	2500
6	90	Executive	100	1700
7	110	Accounting	205	1700
8	190	Contracting	(null)	1700

Delete a row from the DEPARTMENTS table:

	DEPARTMENT_ID	DEPARTMENT_NAME	MANAGER_ID	LOCATION_ID
1	10	Administration	200	1700
2	20	Marketing	201	1800
3	50	Shipping	124	1500
4	60	IT	103	1400
5	80	Sales	149	2500
6	90	Executive	100	1700
7	110	Accounting	205	1700

# DELETE Statement

- You can remove existing rows from a table by using the DELETE statement:

```
DELETE [FROM]          table
[WHERE   condition];
```

# Deleting Rows from a Table

- Specific rows are deleted if you specify the

```
DELETE FROM departments  
WHERE department_name = 'Finance';
```

- All rows in the table are deleted if you omit the WHERE clause:

```
DELETE FROM copy_emp;
```

# Deleting Rows Based on Another Table

- Use the subqueries in the DELETE statements to remove rows from a table based on values from another table:

```
DELETE FROM employees
WHERE department_id =
      (SELECT department_id
       FROM   departments
       WHERE  department_name
              LIKE  '%Public%');
```

Remove employees from departments that has the word 'Public' in their name

# Summary

- In this lesson, you should have learned how to use the following statements:

Function	Description
<b>INSERT</b>	Adds a new row to the table
<b>UPDATE</b>	Modifies existing rows in the table
<b>DELETE</b>	Removes existing rows from the table