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# **SQL Query Cheatsheet for Postgres**

The SQL queries I use as a data scientist and software engineer



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Get started

As engineers who write lots of code, some commands will stick in our memory, but some we'll have to look up. As I heard once and like to repeat - good engineers are like indexes, they can look up information quickly.

This is my personal cheat sheet for SQL, written with Postgres in mind but roughly applicable to other relational databases. This exclusively covers queries. No inserts, deletes, indexing or other Postgres functionality. We'll start simple and work towards more interesting queries.

First, we'll create a database and insert some data, then we'll execute every SQL query on that data and investigate the output.

#### **Contents:**

- 1) Setup
- 2) Selects and Counts
- 3) Limit, Offset and Order By
- 4) Joins
- 5) Intersect, Union and Except
- 6) Aliasing
- 7) Aggregating Data
- 8) Modifying Selected Values
- 9) Where Clauses

# **Setup**

Create a few related tables with different data types. I've imagined the data around a fictional company's CRM (customer relationship management) system so you can relate it to real life.

After you've created a database. Open your favorite SQL editor and run the following to create tables for users, mailing lists, products and sales.











Get started

```
created at TIMESTAMP
);
-- users who are on the company mailing list
create table mailing lists (
id serial primary key,
first name varchar (50),
email varchar (50),
created at TIMESTAMP
);
-- products the company sells
create table products (
id serial primary key,
name varchar (50),
manufacturing cost int,
data jsonb,
created at TIMESTAMP
-- sales transactions of products by users
create table sales (
id serial primary key,
user id int,
product id int,
sale price int,
created at TIMESTAMP
);
```

# And let's populate those tables.

```
insert into users (first_name, location, created_at)
values
   ('Liam', 'Toronto', '2010-01-01'),
   ('Ava', 'New York', '2011-01-01'),
   ('Emma', 'London', '2012-01-01'),
   ('Noah', 'Singapore', '2012-01-01'),
   ('William', 'Tokyo', '2014-01-01'),
   ('Oliver', 'Beijing', '2015-01-01'),
   ('Olivia', 'Moscow', '2014-01-01'),
   ('Mia', 'Toronto', '2015-01-01');

insert into mailing_lists (first_name, email, created_at)
values
   ('Liam', 'liam@fake.com', '2010-01-01'),
   ('Toron', 'area false com', '2010-01-01'),
   ('Toron', 'area false com', '2010-01-01'),
```









Get started

```
('smart phone', 200, '{"in_stock":10}', '2010-01-01'),
  ('TV', 1000, '{}', '2010-01-01');

insert into sales (user_id, product_id, sale_price, created_at)
values
  (1, 1, 900, '2015-01-01'),
  (1, 2, 450, '2016-01-01'),
  (1, 3, 2500, '2017-01-01'),
  (2, 1, 800, '2017-01-01'),
  (2, 2, 600, '2017-01-01'),
  (3, 3, 2500, '2018-01-01'),
  (4, 3, 2400, '2018-01-01'),
  (null, 3, 2500, '2018-01-01');
```

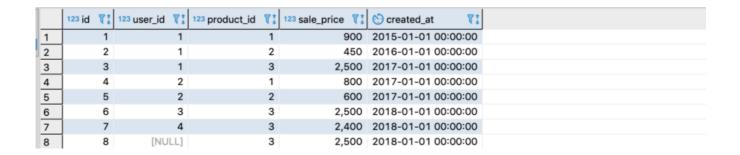
#### **Selects and Counts**

#### **Select**

This is the basic query around which everything later will be based.

Get all sales data without filtering or manipulating it. Simple.

```
select * from sales;
```



#### **Select specific columns**

Retrieve only the name and location of users, excluding other information like when a record was created.











```
select
  first_name,
  location
from users;
```



#### **Select Distinct**

Removes duplicates in a specific column from the query.

Useful if you wanted to find all users who had ever bought something once, rather than a list of every transaction from the sales table.

select distinct user id from sales;



#### Count

Count the records in a table.

I use this all the time to get a sense of the size of a table before writing any other queries.

select count(\*) from products;









Get started

#### **Count a subquery**

You can also wrap a whole query in <code>count()</code> if you want to see the number of records inclusive of a <code>join</code> or <code>where</code> clause.

Useful because sometimes the number of records can change by an order of magnitude after a join.

```
select count(*) from (
  select * from products
  left join sales on sales.product_id = products.id
) subquery;
```



# **Limit, Offset and Order By**

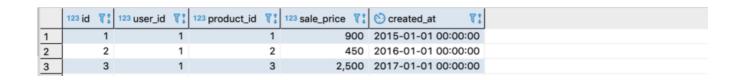
#### Limit

Limit the number of returned records to a specific count.

I've found this useful when I'm loading data-heavy records into a jupyter notebook and loading too many crashes my computer. In such a case I may add  $_{\tt limit}$  100.

We'll just get the first 3 records from sales.

```
select * from sales limit 3;
```













Useful if you want user names in alphabetical order, or a table ordered by a foreign key.

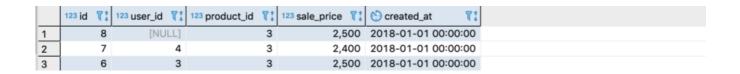
Get sales ordered by user id. Note we still have the limit here.

```
select
  *
from sales
order by user_id asc
limit 3;
```

	123 id 📆	123 user_id	T:	123 product_id	T:	123 sale_price 🟋	♦ created_at
1	2		1		2	450	2016-01-01 00:00:00
2	3		1		3	2,500	2017-01-01 00:00:00
3	1		1		1	900	2015-01-01 00:00:00

We can also order sales in the opposite direction, descending.

```
select
  *
from sales
order by user_id desc
limit 3;
```



#### Offset

Skip N records off the top, in a  $\,\,$  select .

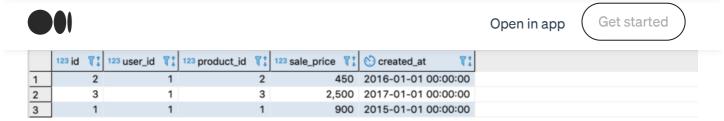
I find this very useful when loading too many records at once crashes my jupyter notebook and I want to iterate over a finite number of records at a time.

Grab the first 3 records from sales.



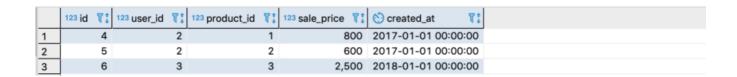






Grab the next 3 records from sales.

```
select * from sales
order by user_id asc
limit 3 offset 3;
```



Notice how we have records 1–3 in the first query and 4–6 in the second.

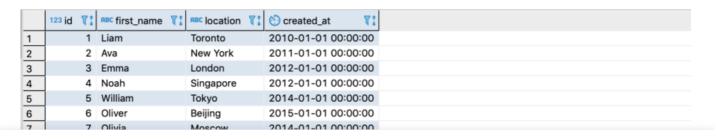
#### **Joins**

#### Left join

Starts with a base table (on the left) and tries to join records from the other table (on the right) based on a key.

Before joining, let's just examine the left table.

```
select * from users
```













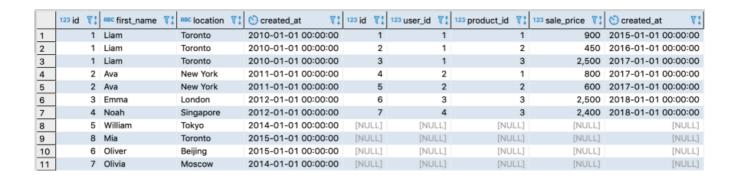
select \* from sales

	123 id 1	7:	123 user_id	T:	123 product_id	T:	123 sale_price 🟋	created_at	T:
1		1		1		1	900	2015-01-01 00:00	:00
2		2		1		2	450	2016-01-01 00:00	:00
3	]	3		1		3	2,500	2017-01-01 00:00	:00
4		4		2		1	800	2017-01-01 00:00	:00
5		5		2		2	600	2017-01-01 00:00	:00
6		6		3		3	2,500	2018-01-01 00:00	:00
7	]	7		4		3	2,400	2018-01-01 00:00	:00
8		8	[NULI	L]		3	2,500	2018-01-01 00:00	:00

Now we'll do a left join. Join sales (right) on users (left).

Notice how records on the left are always returned regardless of if they match a record on the right. And that records on the left are duplicated if they match multiple records on the right.

```
select
  *
from users
left join sales on sales.user id = users.id;
```



Left join is probably used more than any other join by developers querying databases.

#### Right join.

It's the same as the left join but in the other direction. Start with the right table (sales) and join records on the left (users) if they exist.



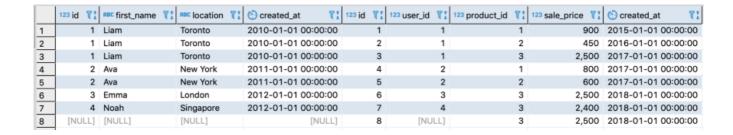






Get started

```
from users
right join sales on sales.user id = users.id;
```



#### Inner join

Only return records if a match exists on both sides. Notice we have no empty data.

```
select
  *
from users
inner join sales on sales.user id = users.id;
```



#### **Outer join**

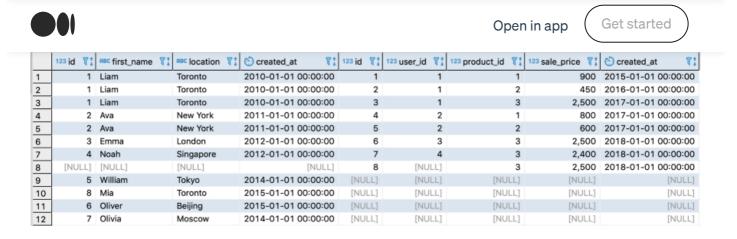
Return all records on left and right regardless of whether a they can be matched on a key. Some records on the left don't have matching records on the right, and vice versa. But all are returned anyway.

```
select
  *
from users
full outer join sales on sales.user_id = users.id;
```









### **Intersect, Union and Except**

#### Intersect

Not really a join but it can be used like one. It has the benefit of being able to match on null values, something inner join cannot do.

Here we'll just intersect names from users and the mailing\_lists. Only names existing in both tables are returned.

```
select
   first_name
from users
intersect
select
   first_name
from mailing lists;
```



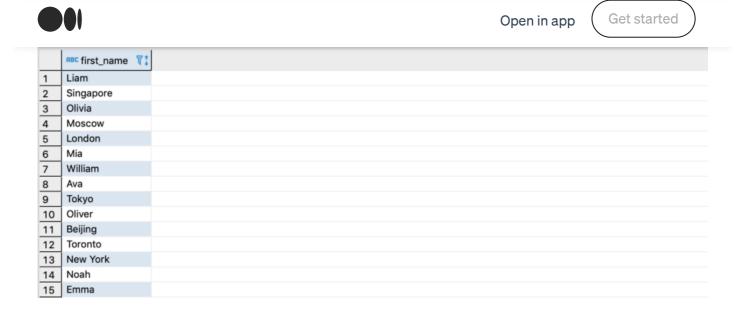
#### Union

Allows you to return data from different columns, in the same column. Notice how first\_name is a mix of user names and locations.









We can also stack 2 columns from the same table. Here we have user locations and product names.

select location from users
union
select name from products;



#### Union all

Use  ${\tt union}\ {\tt all}\ if\ you\ don't\ want\ duplicates\ removed\ automatically.$ 

select name from products
union all
select name from products









Get started

#### **Except**

We can exclude rows that exist in 2 tables, while returning the others. Return all names except those in both users and the mailing lists.

```
select
   first_name
from users
except
select
   first_name
from mailing lists;
```



# **Aliasing**

Giving a columns an alias changes the headers at the top of returned columns. Notice how the first column's name is now <code>name</code> instead of <code>first\_name</code>. Here we renamed 2 columns.

```
select
  first_name as name,
  location as city
from users;
```













We can also alias tables. We then need to refer to the alias name when selecting out columns. We've renamed  ${\tt users}$  as  ${\tt u}$ .

```
select
  u.first_name,
  u.location
from users as u;
```

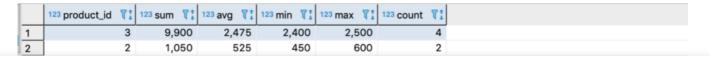


# **Aggregating Data**

Grouping and aggregating data is a pretty powerful feature. Postgres provides the standard functions like: sum(), avg(), min(), max() and count().

Here we'll calculate sum, avg, min and max of sale prices, on a per-product level.

```
select
  product_id,
  sum(sale_price),
  avg(sale_price),
  min(sale_price),
  max(sale_price),
  count(id)
from sales group by product_id;
```













```
select
  products.name,
  sum(sale_price),
  avg(sale_price),
  min(sale_price),
  max(sale_price),
  count(sales.id)
from sales
left join products on products.id = sales.product_id
group by products.name;
```

	RBC name T:	123 sum 📆 🔭	123 avg 📆	123 min 📆 🔭	123 max 📆	123 count	T:
1	TV	9,900	2,475	2,400	2,500	4	
2	laptop	1,700	850	800	900		2
3	smart phone	1,050	525	450	600		2

#### **Group by having**

This allows filtering on grouped and aggregated data. Regular where clauses won't work here but we can use having instead.

Only return aggregated data for products which sold more than 2 items.

```
select
  products.name,
  sum(sale_price),
  avg(sale_price),
  min(sale_price),
  max(sale_price),
  count(sales.id)
from sales
left join products on products.id = sales.product_id
group by products.name
having count(sales.id) > 2;
```



#### String\_agg

Can also use and functions (like string and ) in combination with aroun by to build a











```
select
  products.name,
  string_agg(users.first_name, ', ')
from products
left join sales on sales.product_id = products.id
left join users on users.id = sales.user_id
group by products.name;
```



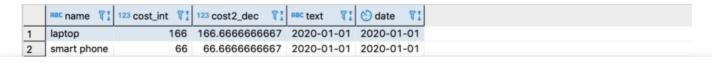
# **Modifying Selected Values**

#### Casting

Casting means converting the type of data in a column. Not all data can be converted to all datatypes. For instance, trying to cast a string to an integer would throw an error.

But casting an integer to a decimal would work. We do this below so we can see decimals after dividing manufacturing cost by 3 (an arbitrary decision). Notice how when we divide an integer, we don't get decimals places, but when we divide a decimal, we do.

```
select
  name,
  manufacturing_cost / 3 cost_int,
  manufacturing_cost::decimal / 3 as cost2_dec,
  '2020-01-01'::text,
  '2020-01-01'::date
from products;
```













We can also round to a specified number of decimals. Sometimes we don't want a 10 decimal places.

This is a modified version of the above query with an added mod().

```
select
  name,
  round(
    manufacturing_cost::decimal / 3, 2
  )
from products;
```

	RBC name ▼‡	123 round 📆
1	laptop	166.67
2	smart phone	66.67
3	TV	333.33

#### Case

Case allows conditionally applying logic or returning a different values based on a cell's value. It's SQL's equivalent of if/else. Here we return the value 100 for cells where user\_id is null.

```
select
  id,
  case
    when user_id is null then 100
    else user_id
  end
from sales;
```

	123 id	T:	123 user_id	T:
1		1		1
2		2		1
3		3		1
4		4		2
5		5		2
6		6		3
7		7		4
8		8	1	00











Coalesce allows returning the value from a different column if the first column's value is null.

Useful is data is really sparse or spread across multiple columns.

```
select
  id,
  coalesce(user_id, product_id)
from sales;
```

	123 id 📆	123 coalesce	T:
1	1		1
2	2		1
3	3		1
4	4		2
5	5		2
6	6		3
7	7		4
8	8		3

#### **Concat**

Concat simply concatenates strings. Here we concatenate names and locations.

```
select
  concat(first_name, ' ', location)
from users;
```



### **Upper and lower**

Changes the case of a string.









Get started

```
select
  upper(first_name),
  lower(first_name)
from users;
```



### **Where Clauses**

The big section.

## **Operators**

We can use all the equality operators you'd expect in a where clause: =, <, !=, <, <, <=, >=, >.

Find all records where the name is exactly "Liam".

```
select * from users where first_name = 'Liam'
```



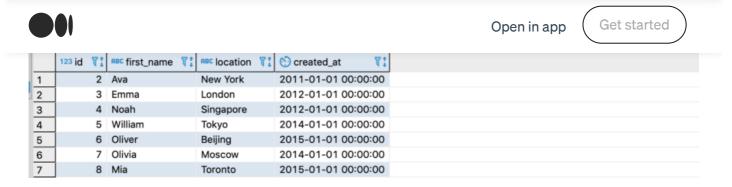
Find all records where the name is not "Liam".

```
select * from users where first_name != 'Liam'
```



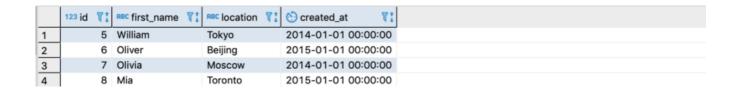






Find all records where id is greater or equal to 5.

```
select * from users where id >= 5
```

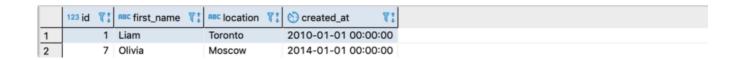


#### And, Or, Not

Chain multiple where clauses together with and, or and not. But notice we only write the where word once.

Select all records where the name is exactly "Liam" or "Olivia".

```
select * from users where first_name = 'Liam' or first_name =
'Olivia';
```



Select all records where the name is exactly "Liam" AND the id is 5. This returns none because Liam's id is not 5.

```
select * from users where first name = 'Liam' and id = 5;
```











Select all records where the name is "Liam" AND the id is NOT 5. This returns Liam now.

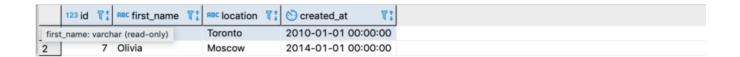
```
select * from users where first name = 'Liam' and not id = 5;
```



#### In

Rather than chaining clauses with or, or, or... you can find records where a value exists in a given array.

```
select * from users where first name in ('Liam', 'Olivia');
```



#### Null

We can also load records where a value is (or is not) null.

```
select * from sales where user_id is null;
select * from sales where user id is not null;
```













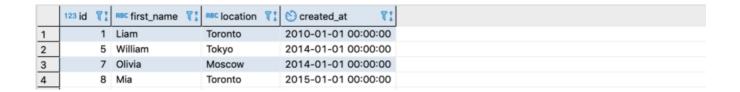
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#### **Fuzzy matching**

Sometimes we want to find values that roughly match a query. For this, we can search on partial strings or ignore capitalization.

Load any records with the characters "ia" in the name.

```
select * from users where first name like '%ia%';
```



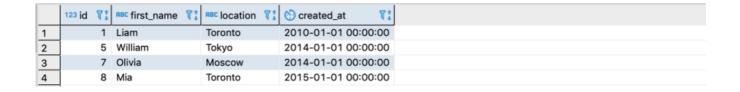
Load records with the characters "IA" in the name. This returns nothing because no names have capitalized "IA" in them.

```
select * from users where first name like '%IA%';
```



So let's do a search ignoring cases.

```
select * from users where first name ilike '%IA%';
```



#### Where in subqueries













But we can also select from this query! Note you need to provide an alias for a subquery to work or an error will be thrown.

```
select
  first_name
from (
  select * from users where id > 5
) subquery;
```



#### With

Although we can query from another query, I prefer this approach. It feels much cleaner to define the subqueries in advance.

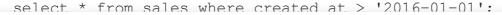
```
with cte as (
   select * from users where id > 5
)
select
  first_name
from cte
```



### **Date filtering**

We can filter by dates.

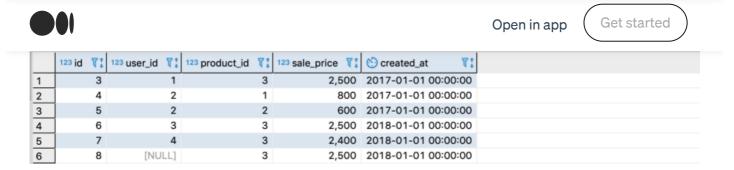
Useful if you want to find all the transactions that occurred after a specific date.











We can also find transactions between 2 dates.

```
select
   *
from sales
where created_at between '2016-01-01' and '2017-01-01';
```

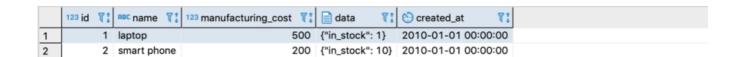
	123 id 🌹	123 user_	id 🟋:	123 product_id	T:	123 sale_price 📆	♦ created_at
1	2		1		2	450	2016-01-01 00:00:00
2	] 3		1		3	2,500	2017-01-01 00:00:00
3	4		2		1	800	2017-01-01 00:00:00
4	] 5		2		2	600	2017-01-01 00:00:00

#### JSON(B)s

Postgres has some pretty awesome functionality for working with JSON.

Find records that have the key, in stock in the data column.

```
select * from products where data -> 'in stock' is not null;
```



Find records where the value of <code>in\_stock</code> is greater than 5. Notice we need to cast JSONB to an integer to do the comparison.

```
select * from products where (data -> 'in stock')::int > 5;
```











Select out data from the JSONB, as JSONB.

```
select name, data -> 'in stock' as stock from products;
```



Select it out as text. The data type can have an impact in a more complex query where this value has other functions run on it.

```
select name, data ->> 'in stock' as stock from products;
```



#### Lag

Get a record in the table and attach the record immediately before it.

Useful when looking at events over time where previous events affect future events. You might use data queried like this to train an ML model to predict a future state given the current state.

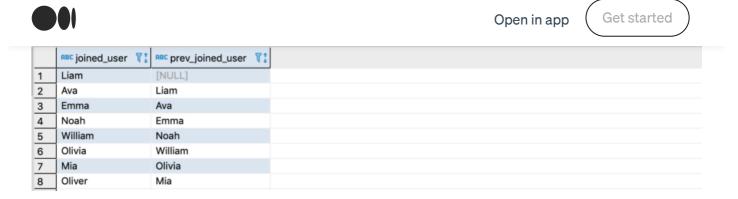
We'll use it to find the user added immediately before every other user.

```
select
  first_name as joined_user,
  lag(first_name) over (order by created_at) as prev_joined_user
from users;
```









We get null as the previous user for Liam because he was the first to be added to the database.

#### Lead

The opposite of above. Load the user that joined immediately after each other user.

```
select
  first_name as joined_user,
  lead(first_name) over (order by created_at) as next_joined_user
from users;
```



#### Conclusion

Postgres can do a million things. So even though there's a lot of commands here, we're only covering the basics.

While it's not necessary to know these by heart to be effective, understanding how they work is almost a requisite for building advanced queries and knowing what's possible.

Are there any Doctores commands that were a same changer for voul?









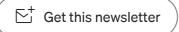
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