

SQL- Queries

Comprehensive Lesson on SQL Queries (Beginner to Advanced) [↗](#)

This lesson provides an in-depth guide to SQL queries, starting with the basics and advancing to more complex concepts like subqueries, `DISTINCT`, `LIMIT`, and advanced filtering techniques.

1. Basic SQL Queries [↗](#)

1.1. Introduction to SQL [↗](#)

- SQL (Structured Query Language) is the standard language used to interact with relational databases.
- You use SQL to retrieve, manipulate, and manage data within databases like MySQL, PostgreSQL, Oracle, SQL Server, etc.

1.2. Basic `SELECT` Queries [↗](#)

The `SELECT` statement is used to retrieve data from a database. You can specify the columns you want to fetch or use `*` to retrieve all columns.

Syntax:

```
1 SELECT column1, column2, ...
2 FROM table_name;
```

Example:

```
1 SELECT name, department, salary
2 FROM employees;
```

2. Filtering Data with `WHERE` Clause [↗](#)

The `WHERE` clause filters records based on specified conditions. You can use operators like `=`, `>`, `<`, `>=`, `<=`, `<>` (not equal).

Syntax:

```
1 SELECT column1, column2, ...
2 FROM table_name
3 WHERE condition;
```

Example:

```
1 SELECT name, salary
2 FROM employees
3 WHERE salary > 50000;
```

Common Operators:

- `=`: Equal to

- `<>` or `!=` : Not equal to
- `>` / `<` : Greater than / Less than
- `>=` / `<=` : Greater than or equal to / Less than or equal to
- `BETWEEN` : Filters within a range.
- `IN` : Matches any value in a list.
- `LIKE` : Performs pattern matching (used with wildcards `%` and `_`).

Example with `IN` and `BETWEEN` :

```
1 SELECT name, department
2 FROM employees
3 WHERE department IN ('HR', 'Finance')
4 AND salary BETWEEN 50000 AND 80000;
```

3. Sorting Results with `ORDER BY` [↗](#)

`ORDER BY` allows you to sort the result set by one or more columns. You can sort in ascending (ASC) or descending (DESC) order.

Syntax:

```
1 SELECT column1, column2, ...
2 FROM table_name
3 ORDER BY column1 ASC|DESC;
```

Example:

```
1 SELECT name, salary
2 FROM employees
3 ORDER BY salary DESC;
```

4. Eliminating Duplicates with `DISTINCT` [↗](#)

The `DISTINCT` keyword removes duplicate records from the result set. This is useful when you need to see only unique values.

Syntax:

```
1 SELECT DISTINCT column1, column2, ...
2 FROM table_name;
```

Example:

```
1 SELECT DISTINCT department
2 FROM employees;
```

5. Limiting Results with `LIMIT` [↗](#)

The `LIMIT` clause allows you to restrict the number of rows returned by the query, which is especially useful for large datasets.

Syntax (MySQL, PostgreSQL):

```
1 SELECT column1, column2, ...
```

```
2 FROM table_name
3 LIMIT number_of_rows;
```

Example:

```
1 SELECT name, salary
2 FROM employees
3 ORDER BY salary DESC
4 LIMIT 5;
```

6. Aggregating Data with Functions [↗](#)

SQL provides built-in functions to perform calculations on a set of records.

6.1. Aggregate Functions: [↗](#)

- `COUNT()` : Counts the number of rows.
- `SUM()` : Sums the values.
- `AVG()` : Calculates the average value.
- `MIN()` / `MAX()` : Finds the minimum or maximum value.

Example:

```
1 SELECT department, COUNT(*) AS num_employees, AVG(salary) AS avg_salary
2 FROM employees
3 GROUP BY department;
```

- **GROUP BY** groups records by a specified column, allowing you to perform aggregate functions like `COUNT` , `AVG` , etc.

6.2. Filtering Groups with `HAVING` [↗](#)

`HAVING` is used to filter groups based on aggregate values. It is similar to `WHERE` but applies after aggregation.

Example:

```
1 SELECT department, COUNT(*), AVG(salary)
2 FROM employees
3 GROUP BY department
4 HAVING COUNT(*) > 10;
```

7. Joining Tables [↗](#)

7.1. Inner Join [↗](#)

An `INNER JOIN` returns records that have matching values in both tables.

Syntax:

```
1 SELECT table1.column1, table2.column2, ...
2 FROM table1
3 INNER JOIN table2
4 ON table1.common_column = table2.common_column;
```

Example:

```
1 SELECT employees.name, departments.department_name
2 FROM employees
3 INNER JOIN departments
4 ON employees.department_id = departments.department_id;
```

7.2. Left Join [↗](#)

A `LEFT JOIN` returns all records from the left table and matching records from the right table. If there's no match, `NULL` is returned.

Example:

```
1 SELECT employees.name, departments.department_name
2 FROM employees
3 LEFT JOIN departments
4 ON employees.department_id = departments.department_id;
```

7.3. Right Join [↗](#)

A `RIGHT JOIN` returns all records from the right table and matching records from the left table.

Example:

```
1 SELECT employees.name, departments.department_name
2 FROM employees
3 RIGHT JOIN departments
4 ON employees.department_id = departments.department_id;
```

7.4. Full Outer Join [↗](#)

A `FULL OUTER JOIN` returns all records when there is a match in either left or right table.

Example:

```
1 SELECT employees.name, departments.department_name
2 FROM employees
3 FULL OUTER JOIN departments
4 ON employees.department_id = departments.department_id;
```

8. Subqueries [↗](#)

A **subquery** is a query within another query. Subqueries can be used in various parts of a SQL statement such as `SELECT`, `WHERE`, and `FROM` clauses.

8.1. Subquery in `WHERE` Clause [↗](#)

A subquery in the `WHERE` clause is used to filter the main query based on the results of another query.

Example:

```
1 SELECT name, salary
2 FROM employees
3 WHERE salary > (SELECT AVG(salary) FROM employees);
```

8.2. Subquery in `FROM` Clause [↗](#)

A subquery can be treated as a table in the `FROM` clause.

Example:

```
1 SELECT department, avg_salary
2 FROM (
3     SELECT department, AVG(salary) AS avg_salary
4     FROM employees
5     GROUP BY department
6 ) AS dept_avg
7 WHERE avg_salary > 60000;
```

8.3. Subquery with IN [↗](#)

The `IN` operator is often used with subqueries to filter results based on a list of values.

Example:

```
1 SELECT name
2 FROM employees
3 WHERE department_id IN (SELECT department_id FROM departments WHERE location = 'New York');
```

9. Advanced SQL: Window Functions [↗](#)

Window functions perform calculations across rows that are related to the current row.

9.1. ROW_NUMBER() [↗](#)

`ROW_NUMBER()` assigns a unique number to each row based on the specified ordering.

Example:

```
1 SELECT name, salary, ROW_NUMBER() OVER (ORDER BY salary DESC) AS row_num
2 FROM employees;
```

9.2. RANK() [↗](#)

`RANK()` provides a ranking for rows, but rows with the same values get the same rank, and the next rank is skipped.

Example:

```
1 SELECT name, salary, RANK() OVER (ORDER BY salary DESC) AS rank
2 FROM employees;
```

9.3. PARTITION BY [↗](#)

You can use `PARTITION BY` to group rows by a specific column before applying window functions.

Example:

```
1 SELECT department, name, salary, ROW_NUMBER() OVER (PARTITION BY department ORDER BY salary DESC) AS rank
2 FROM employees;
```

10. Common SQL Use Cases [↗](#)

10.1. Finding the Nth Highest Salary [↗](#)

To find the 4th highest salary using a subquery:

```
1 SELECT DISTINCT salary
2 FROM employees
3 ORDER BY salary DESC
4 LIMIT 1 OFFSET 3;
```

10.2. Deleting Duplicate Rows [↗](#)

To delete duplicate rows while keeping the first occurrence:

```
1 DELETE FROM employees
2 WHERE employee_id NOT IN (
3     SELECT MIN(employee_id)
4     FROM employees
5     GROUP BY name, department, salary
6 );
```

Summary [↗](#)

This lesson has covered the full spectrum of SQL queries, from basic `SELECT` statements and filtering data to more advanced concepts like subqueries, window functions, and joins. Here's a quick recap:

- **Basic Queries:** Using `SELECT` , `WHERE` , and `ORDER BY` .
- **Aggregating Data:** Using `COUNT()` , `SUM()` , `AVG()` , and `GROUP BY` .
- **Eliminating Duplicates:** Using `DISTINCT` .
- **Limiting Results:** Using `LIMIT` .
- **Joins:** Performing `INNER` , `LEFT` , `RIGHT` , and `FULL OUTER JOIN` .
- **Subqueries:** Using subqueries for complex filtering and aggregation.
- **Window Functions:** Using `ROW_NUMBER()` and `RANK()` for advanced ranking.

Extended Lesson: `LIKE` with Wildcards and `OFFSET` with `LIMIT` in SQL [↗](#)

In this extension of the lesson, we'll focus on how to use the `LIKE` operator with wildcards for pattern matching and explore how `LIMIT` with `OFFSET` can help paginate or skip rows in query results.

1. Using `LIKE` with Wildcards [↗](#)

The `LIKE` operator in SQL is used to search for a specified pattern in a column. It's commonly used with **wildcards** to allow partial matches within text fields.

1.1. Wildcards Used with `LIKE` [↗](#)

- `%` (percent): Matches **zero or more characters**.
- `_` (underscore): Matches **exactly one character**.

1.2. Syntax [↗](#)

```
1 SELECT column1, column2, ...
2 FROM table_name
3 WHERE column LIKE pattern;
```

1.3. Examples of LIKE with Wildcards [↗](#)

Example 1: Search for Names that Start with 'A'

- Here, the wildcard % is used to match any sequence of characters after the letter 'A'. This query finds all names that start with 'A'.

```
1 SELECT name
2 FROM employees
3 WHERE name LIKE 'A%';
```

- Explanation:** The LIKE 'A%' means "find all names where the first letter is 'A' and the rest can be anything (including nothing)."

Example 2: Search for Names that End with 'n'

- Use % at the beginning to match any sequence of characters leading up to the final letter 'n'.

```
1 SELECT name
2 FROM employees
3 WHERE name LIKE '%n';
```

- Explanation:** The LIKE '%n' means "find all names where the last letter is 'n', and there can be any number of characters before it."

Example 3: Search for Names that Contain 'an'

- Here, % is used on both sides of the search string to match names containing the substring "an" anywhere in the name.

```
1 SELECT name
2 FROM employees
3 WHERE name LIKE '%an%';
```

- Explanation:** The LIKE '%an%' means "find all names that contain 'an' anywhere."

Example 4: Search for Names with Exactly 4 Letters

- Use _ to represent any single character, repeated four times.

```
1 SELECT name
2 FROM employees
3 WHERE name LIKE '____';
```

- Explanation:** The LIKE '____' means "find all names with exactly 4 characters, where each _ matches any single character."

Example 5: Search for Names that Start with 'A' and Have Any Second Character

- The `_` wildcard is used for a single character match.

```
1 SELECT name
2 FROM employees
3 WHERE name LIKE 'A_';
```

- **Explanation:** The `LIKE 'A_'` means "find all names where the first character is 'A' and the second character can be any single character."

1.4. Case Sensitivity of `LIKE` [↗](#)

- In **MySQL**, the `LIKE` operator is **case-insensitive** by default. To make it case-sensitive, you would use the `BINARY` keyword.

Example (Case-Sensitive Search):

```
1 SELECT name
2 FROM employees
3 WHERE BINARY name LIKE 'A%';
```

- In **PostgreSQL** and **Oracle**, `LIKE` is **case-sensitive** by default, but `ILIKE` can be used for case-insensitive matches.

Example (PostgreSQL - Case-Insensitive Search):

```
1 SELECT name
2 FROM employees
3 WHERE name ILIKE 'A%';
```

2. Using `LIMIT` and `OFFSET` for Pagination [↗](#)

The `LIMIT` clause is used to limit the number of rows returned by a query, while `OFFSET` allows you to skip a specific number of rows before starting to return the results. This combination is particularly useful for **pagination**, where you retrieve results in chunks (pages).

2.1. Syntax [↗](#)

```
1 SELECT column1, column2, ...
2 FROM table_name
3 LIMIT number_of_rows OFFSET number_of_rows_to_skip;
```

- `LIMIT` : Specifies the maximum number of rows to return.
- `OFFSET` : Specifies the number of rows to skip before returning rows.

**2.2. Examples of `LIMIT` with `OFFSET` [↗](#)

Example 1: Fetch the First 5 Rows

```
1 SELECT name, salary
2 FROM employees
3 ORDER BY salary DESC
```



```
4 LIMIT 5;
```

- **Explanation:** This query returns the top 5 employees with the highest salaries by ordering the result set by salary in descending order and limiting the result to 5 rows.

Example 2: Skip the First 10 Rows and Fetch the Next 5 Rows

```
1 SELECT name, salary
2 FROM employees
3 ORDER BY salary DESC
4 LIMIT 5 OFFSET 10;
```

- **Explanation:** This query skips the first 10 rows and then returns the next 5 rows (i.e., rows 11 through 15 after ordering the employees by salary).

Example 3: Paginating Results

To paginate results, you can combine `LIMIT` and `OFFSET`. For example, if you want to display **5 rows per page**:

- **Page 1:** Fetch the first 5 rows

```
1 SELECT name, salary
2 FROM employees
3 ORDER BY salary DESC
4 LIMIT 5 OFFSET 0; -- Skip 0 rows
```

- **Page 2:** Fetch the next 5 rows

```
1 SELECT name, salary
2 FROM employees
3 ORDER BY salary DESC
4 LIMIT 5 OFFSET 5; -- Skip 5 rows
```

- **Page 3:** Fetch the next 5 rows

```
1 SELECT name, salary
2 FROM employees
3 ORDER BY salary DESC
4 LIMIT 5 OFFSET 10; -- Skip 10 rows
```

2.3. Combining `DISTINCT`, `LIMIT`, and `OFFSET` [↗](#)

If you want to limit distinct rows, you can combine the `DISTINCT`, `LIMIT`, and `OFFSET` clauses.

Example: Fetch 3 Distinct Salaries, Skipping the Top 2

```
1 SELECT DISTINCT salary
2 FROM employees
3 ORDER BY salary DESC
4 LIMIT 3 OFFSET 2;
```

- **Explanation:** This query first retrieves distinct salaries, orders them by salary in descending order, skips the top 2 salaries, and returns the next 3 distinct salaries.
-


```
14      e.id,  
15      e.first_name,  
16      e.last_name,  
17      e.salary,  
18      dms.department_name  
19 FROM  
20      employees AS e  
21 JOIN  
22      DepartmentMaxSalaries AS dms ON e.department_id = dms.department_id AND e.salary = dms.max_salary;
```