

## **Database Management Systems Lab**

**Subject Code : 18CS4SP04L**

**Credits : 01**

**L-T-P : 0-0-2**

### **List of Experiments:**

1. Create User in Oracle Database and grant and revoke the privileges and use of commit savepoint and rollback command.
2. Create the following:
  - (a) Synonym sequences and Index
  - (b) Create alter and update views.
3. Create PL/SQL program using cursors, control structure, exception handling
4. Create following:
  - (a) Simple Triggers
  - (b) Package using procedures and functions.
5. Create the table for
  - (a) COMPANY database
  - (b) STUDENT database and Insert five records for each attribute.
6. Illustrate the use of SELECT statement
7. Conditional retrieval - WHERE clause
8. Query sorted - ORDER BY clause
9. Perform following:
  - (a) UNION, INTERSECTION and MINUS operations on tables.
  - (b) UPDATE, ALTER, DELETE, DROP operations on tables
10. Query multiple tables using JOIN operation.
11. Grouping the result of query - GROUP BY clause and HAVING clause
12. Query multiple tables using NATURAL and OUTER JOIN operation.

1. Create User in Oracle Database and grant and revoke the privileges, and use of commit savepoint and rollback command.

**plsql\_online\_lab\_across\_sections**

## **Data Control Language (DCL) Statements DDL, DML, **DCL** (COMMIT, ROLLBACK, SAVEPOINT, GRANT, REVOKE)**

Any relational database must be able to pass the ACID test: it must guarantee atomicity, consistency, isolation, and durability. The principle of atomicity states that all parts of a transaction must complete or none of them. The principle of consistency states that the results of a query must be consistent with the state of the database at the time the query started. The principle of isolation states that an incomplete (that is, uncommitted) transaction must be invisible to the rest of the world. The principle of durability states that once a transaction completes, it must be impossible for the database to lose it.

After DML commands we have to commit transaction in order for the changes to take effect in the DB.

### **TRANSACTIONS**

COMMIT: to explicitly save the database state

TO undo the changes we have made with the COMMIT statement we can use

ROLLBACK

We can also make certain points in our code that will let us ROLLBACK only to that point.

**SAVEPOINT name\_of\_savepoint;**

**SAVEPOINT BEFORELABPROGRM;**

**Student, dept, 5 rows each, RESTART; COMMIT;**

**SAVEPOINT POGRAMLAB;**

**ROLLBACK TO BEFORELABPROGRM;**

**ROLLBACK TO name\_of\_savepoint;**

### **FOR UPDATE**

There is an option to do select on some table and lock it for changes, so that we can do update on it.

**SELECT \* FROM table\_name FOR UPDATE;**

### **PRIVILEGES**

GRANT: gives user and roles rights and privileges on database objects or schema.

**GRANT privilege\_name TO user\_name\_or\_role\_name;**

Privileges:

SESSION – allows user to connect to the DB

RESOURCE – allows user to work with objects on his schema

SELECT ANY TABLE

INSERT ANY TABLE

UPDATE ANY TABLE

DELETE ANY TABLE

We can also use the command to GRANT a role to a user

**GRANT role\_name TO user\_name;**

REVOKE: removes or restricts user rights or privileges on database objects.

Data Control Language Statements are used to grant privileges on tables, views, sequences, synonyms, procedures to other users or roles.

The DCL statements are

**GRANT:** Use to grant privileges to other users or roles.

**REVOKE:** Use to take back privileges granted to other users and roles.

Privileges are of two types :

- System Privileges
- Object privileges

System Privileges are normally granted by a DBA to users. Examples of system privileges are CREATE SESSION, CREATE TABLE, CREATE USER etc.

Object privileges means privileges on objects such as tables, views, synonyms, procedure. These are granted by owner of the object.

Object Privileges are

ALTER	Change the table definition with the ALTER TABLE statement.
DELETE	Remove rows from the table with the DELETE statement.  Note: You must grant the SELECT privilege on the table along with the DELETE privilege.
INDEX	Create an index on the table with the CREATE INDEX statement.
INSERT	Add new rows to the table with the INSERT statement.
REFERENCES	Create a constraint that refers to the table. You cannot grant this privilege to a role.

SELECT	Query the table with the SELECT statement.
UPDATE	Change data in the table with the UPDATE statement.
	Note: You must grant the SELECT privilege on the table along with the UPDATE privilege.

## Grant

Grant is use to grant privileges on tables, view, procedure to other users or roles

### Examples

Suppose you own emp table. Now you want to grant select,update,insert privilege on this table to other user "SAMI".

```
grant select, update, insert on emp to sami;
```

Suppose you want to grant all privileges on emp table to sami. Then

```
grant all on emp to sami;
```

Suppose you want to grant select privilege on emp to all other users of the database. Then

```
grant select on emp to public;
```

Suppose you want to grant update and insert privilege on only certain columns not on all the columns then include the column names in grant statement. For example you want to grant update privilege on ename column only and insert privilege on empno and ename columns only. Then give the following statement

```
grant update (ename),insert (empno, ename) on emp to sami;
```

To grant select statement on emp table to sami and to make sami be able further pass on this privilege you have to give WITH GRANT OPTION clause in GRANT statement like this.

```
grant select on emp to sami with grant option;
```

## REVOKE

Use to revoke privileges already granted to other users.

For example to revoke select, update, insert privilege you have granted to Sami then give the following statement.

```
revoke select, update, insert on emp from sami;
```

To revoke select statement on emp granted to public give the following command.

```
revoke select on emp from public;
```

To revoke update privilege on ename column and insert privilege on empno and ename columns give the following revoke statement.

**revoke** update, insert on emp from sami;

Note :You cannot take back column level privileges. Suppose you just want to take back insert privilege on ename column then you have to first take back the whole insert privilege and then grant privilege on empno column.

## ROLES

A role is a group of Privileges. A role is very handy in managing privileges, Particularly in such situation when number of users should have the same set of privileges.

For example you have four users :Sami, Scott, Ashi, Tanya in the database. To these users you want to grant select ,update privilege on emp table, select,delete privilege on dept table. To do this first create a role by giving the following statement

**create role** clerks

Then grant privileges to this role.

grant select,update on emp to clerks;

grant select,delete on dept to clerks;

Now grant this clerks role to users like this

grant clerks to sami, scott, ashi, tanya ;

Now Sami, Scott, Ashi and Tanya have all the privileges granted on clerks role.

Suppose after one month you want grant delete on privilege on emp table all these users then just grant this privilege to clerks role and automatically all the users will have the privilege.

grant delete on emp to clerks;

If you want to take back update privilege on emp table from these users just take it back from clerks role.

**revoke** update on emp from clerks;

To Drop a role

Drop role clerks;

## LISTING INFORMATION ABOUT PRIVILEGES

To see which table privileges are granted by you to other users.

SELECT \* FROM USER\_TAB\_PRIVS\_MADE

To see which table privileges are granted to you by other users

```
SELECT * FROM USER_TAB_PRIVS_RECD;
```

To see which column level privileges are granted by you to other users.

```
SELECT * FROM USER_COL_PRIVS_MADE
```

To see which column level privileges are granted to you by other users

```
SELECT * FROM USER_COL_PRIVS_RECD;
```

To see which privileges are granted to roles

```
SELECT * FROM USER_ROLE_PRIVS;
```

### **Queries:**

Tables Used: Consider the following tables namely “DEPARTMENTS” and “EMPLOYEES”

Their schemas are as follows , Departments ( dept\_no , dept\_name , dept\_location ); Employees ( emp\_id , emp\_name , emp\_salary );

Q1: Develop a query to grant all privileges of employees table into departments table

Ans: SQL> Grant all on employees to departments;

Grant succeeded.

Q2: Develop a query to grant some privileges of employees table into departments table

Ans: SQL> Grant select, update , insert on departments to departments with grant option;

Grant succeeded.

Q3: Develop a query to revoke all privileges of employees table from departments table

Ans: SQL> Revoke all on employees from departments;

Revoke succeeded.

Q4: Develop a query to revoke some privileges of employees table from departments table

Ans: SQL> Revoke select, update , insert on departments from departments;

Revoke succeeded.

Q5: Write a query to implement the save point

Ans: SQL> SAVEPOINT S1;

Savepoint created.

```
SQL> select * from emp;
```

```
EMPNO ENAME JOB DEPTNO SAL
```

-----

1 Mathi AP 1 10000

2 Arjun ASP 2 15000

3 Gudan ASP 1 15000

4 Karthik Prof 2 30000

SQL> INSERT INTO EMP VALUES(5,'Akalya','AP',1,10000); 1 row created.

SQL> select \* from emp;

EMPNO ENAME JOB DEPTNO SAL

-----

1 Mathi AP 1 10000

2 Arjun ASP 2 15000

3 Gudan ASP 1 15000

4 Karthik Prof 2 30000

5 Akalya AP 1 10000

Q6: Write a query to implement the rollback

Ans: SQL> rollback s1;

SQL> select \* from emp;

EMPNO ENAME JOB DEPTNO SAL

-----

1 Mathi AP 1 10000

2 Arjun ASP 2 15000

3 Gudan ASP 1 15000

4 Karthik Prof 2 30000 CS1032

Q6: Write a query to implement the commit

Ans: SQL> COMMIT;

Commit complete.

**2. Create the following:**

**(a) Synonym, sequences and Index**

## **(b) Create alter and update views.**

### **SEQUENCES**

A sequence is used to generate numbers in sequence. You can use sequences to insert unique values in Primary Key and Unique Key columns of tables. To create a sequence gives the CREATE SEQUENCE statement.

#### **CREATING SEQUENCES**

**create sequence** bills

**start with** 1

**increment by** 1

**minvalue** 1

**maxvalue** 100

**cycle**

cache 10;

The above statement creates a sequence bills it will start with 1 and increment by 1. It's maxvalue is 100 i.e. after 100 numbers are generated it will stop if you say NOCYCLE, otherwise if you mention CYCLE then again it will start with no. 1. You can also specify NOMAXVALUE in that case the sequence will generate infinite numbers.

The CACHE option is used to cache sequence numbers in System Global Area (SGA). If you say **CACHE** 10 then Oracle will cache next 10 numbers in SGA. If you access a sequence number then oracle will first try to get the number from cache, if it is not found then it reads the next number from disk. Since reading the disk is time consuming rather than reading from SGA it is always recommended to cache sequence numbers in SGA. If you say **NOCACHE** then Oracle will not cache any numbers in SGA and every time you access the sequence number it reads the number from disk.

#### **Accessing Sequence Numbers.**

To generate Sequence Numbers you can use NEXTVAL and CURRVAL for example to get the next sequence number of bills sequence type the following command.

**Select bills.nextval from dual;**

BILLS

-----

1

NEXTVAL gives the next number in sequence. Whereas, CURRVAL returns the current number of the sequence. This is very handy in situations where you have insert records in Master Detail tables. For example to insert a record in SALES master table and SALES\_DETAILS detail table.

**insert into sales (billno,custname,amt) values (bills.nextval,'Sami',2300);**

**insert into sales\_details (billno,itemname,qty,rate) values (bills.currval,'Onida',10,13400);**



Sequences are usually used as DEFAULT Values for table columns to automatically insert unique numbers.

For Example,

```
create table invoices (invoice_no number(10) default bills.nextval,  
    invoice_date date default sysdate,  
    customer varchar2(100),  
    invoice_amt number(12,2));
```

Now whenever you insert rows into invoices table omitting invoice\_no as follows

```
insert into invoices (customer,invoice_amt) values ('A to Z Traders',5000);
```

Oracle will insert invoice\_no from bills sequence

### **ALTERING SEQUENCES**

To alter sequences use ALTER SEQUENCE statement. For example to alter the bill sequence MAXVALUE give the following command.

```
ALTER SEQUENCE BILLS
```

```
    MAXVALUE 200;
```

Except Starting Value, you can alter any other parameter of a sequence. To change START WITH parameter you have to drop and recreate the sequence.

### **DROPPING SEQUENCES**

To drop sequences use DROP SEQUENCE command. For example to drop bills sequence give the following statement

```
drop sequence bills;
```

### **SYNONYMS**

A synonym is an alias for a table, view, snapshot, sequence, procedure, function, or package.

There are two types to SYNONYMS they are

PUBLIC SYNONYM

PRIVATE SYNONYM

If you create a synonym as public then it can be accessed by any other user with qualifying the synonym name i.e. the user doesn't have to mention the owner name while accessing the synonym. Nevertheless the other user should have proper privilege to access the synonym. Private synonyms need to be qualified with owner names.

### **CREATING SYNONYMS**

To create a synonym for SCOTT emp table give the following command.

```
create synonym employee for scott.emp;
```

A synonym can be referenced in a DML statement the same way that the underlying object of the synonym can be referenced. For example, if a synonym named EMPLOYEE refers to a table or view, then the following statement is valid:

```
select * from employee;
```

Suppose you have created a function known as TODAY which returns the current date and time. Now you have granted execute permission on it to every other user of the database. Now these users can execute this function but when they call they have to give the following command:

```
select scott.today from dual;
```

Now if you create a public synonym on it then other users don't have to qualify the function name with owner's name. To define a public synonym give the following command.

```
create public synonym today for scott.today;
```

Now the other users can simply type the following command to access the function.

```
select today from dual;
```

### **Dropping Synonyms**

To drop a synonym use the DROP SYNONYM statement. For example, to drop EMPLOYEE synonym give the statement

```
drop synonym employee;
```

### **Listing information about synonyms**

To see synonyms information give the following statement.

```
select * from user_synonyms;
```

## **INDEXES**

Use indexes to speed up queries. Indexes speed up searching of information in tables. So create indexes on those columns which are frequently used in WHERE conditions. Indexes are helpful if the operations return only small portion of data i.e. less than 15% of data is retrieved from tables.

Follow these guidelines for creating indexes

- Do not create indexes on small tables i.e. where number of rows are less. (Full table scan itself will be faster if table is small)
- Do not create indexes on those columns which contain many null values.
- Do not create BTree index on those columns which contain many repeated values. In this case create BITMAP indexes on these columns.

- Limit the number of indexes on tables because, although they speed up queries, but at the same time DML operations becomes very slow as all the indexes have to be updated whenever an Update, Delete or Insert takes place on tables.

### **Creating Indexes**

To create an Index give the create index command. For example the following statement creates an index on empno column of emp table.

```
create index empno_ind on emp (empno);
```

If two columns are frequently used together in WHERE conditions then create a composite index on these columns. For example, suppose we use EMPNO and DEPTNO oftenly together in WHERE condition. Then create a composite index on these column as given below

```
create index empdept_ind on emp (empno,deptno);
```

The above index will be used whenever you use empno or deptno column together, or you just use empno column in WHERE condition. The above index will not be used if you use only deptno column alone

### **BITMAP INDEXES**

Create Bitmap indexes on those columns which contains many repeated values and when tables are large. City column in EMP table is a good candidate for Bitmap index because it contains many repeated values. To create a composite index give the following command.

```
create bitmap index city_ind on emp (city);
```

### **FUNCTION BASED Indexes**

Function Based indexes are built on expressions rather than on column values. For example if you frequently use the expression SAL+COMM in WHERE conditions then create a Function base index on this expression like this

```
create index salcomm_ind on emp (sal+comm);
```

Now, whenever you use the expression SAL+COMM in where condition then oracle will use SALCOMM\_IND index.

### **DROPPING INDEXES**

To drop indexes use DROP INDEX statement. For example to drop SALCOMM\_IND give the following statement

```
drop index salcomm_ind;
```

### **Listing Information about indexes**

To see how many indexes are there in your schema and its information, give the following statement.

```
select * from user_indexes;
```

## Views

Views are known as logical tables. They represent the data of one or more tables. A view derives its data from the tables on which it is based. These tables are called base tables. Views can be based on actual tables or another view also.

Whatever DML operations you performed on a view they actually affect the base table of the view. You can treat views same as any other table. You can Query, Insert, Update and delete from views, just as any other table.

Views are very powerful and handy since they can be treated just like any other table but do not occupy the space of a table.

The following sections explain how to create, replace, and drop views using SQL commands.

### Creating Views

Suppose we have EMP and DEPT table. To see the empno, ename, sal, deptno, department name and location we have to give a join query like this.

```
select e.empno,e.ename,e.sal,e.deptno,d.dname,d.loc  
      from emp e, dept d where e.deptno=d.deptno;
```

So everytime we want to see emp details and department names where they are working we have to give a long join query. Instead of giving this join query again and again, we can create a view on these table by using a CREATE VIEW command given below

```
create view emp_det as select e.empno,  
e.ename,e.sal,e.deptno,d.dname,d.loc  
      from emp e, dept d where e.deptno=d.deptno;
```

Now to see the employee details and department names we don't have to give a join query, we can just type the following simple query.

```
select * from emp_det;
```

This will show same result as you have type the long join query. Now you can treat this EMP\_DET view same as any other table.

For example, suppose all the employee working in Department No. 10 belongs to accounts department and most of the time you deal with these people. So every time you have to give a DML or Select statement you have to give a WHERE condition like .....WHERE DEPTNO=10. To avoid this, you can create a view as given below

```
CREATE VIEW accounts_staff AS  
  SELECT Empno, Ename, Deptno  
  FROM Emp
```

```
WHERE Deptno = 10  
WITH CHECK OPTION CONSTRAINT ica_Accounts_cnst;
```

Now to see the account people you don't have to give a query with where condition you can just type the following query.

```
select * from accounts_staff;  
select sum(sal) from accountst_staff;  
select max(sal) from accounts_staff;
```

### **Replacing/Altering Views**

To alter the definition of a view, you must replace the view using one of the following methods:

- A view can be dropped and then re-created. When a view is dropped, all grants of corresponding view privileges are revoked from roles and users. After the view is re-created, necessary privileges must be regranted.
- A view can be replaced by redefining it with a CREATE VIEW statement that contains the OR REPLACE option. This option replaces the current definition of a view, but preserves the present security authorizations.

For example, assume that you create the ACCOUNTS\_STAFF view, as given in a previous example. You also grant several object privileges to roles and other users. However, now you realize that you must redefine the ACCOUNTS\_STAFF view to correct the department number specified in the WHERE clause of the defining query, because it should have been 30. To preserve the grants of object privileges that you have made, you can replace the current version of the ACCOUNTS\_STAFF view with the following statement:

```
CREATE OR REPLACE VIEW Accounts_staff AS  
  SELECT Empno, Ename, Deptno  
  FROM Emp  
  WHERE Deptno = 30  
  WITH CHECK OPTION CONSTRAINT ica_Accounts_cnst;
```

Replacing a view has the following effects:

- Replacing a view replaces the view's definition in the data dictionary. All underlying objects referenced by the view are not affected.
- If previously defined but not included in the new view definition, then the constraint associated with the WITH CHECK OPTION for a view's definition is dropped.
- All views and PL/SQL program units dependent on a replaced view become invalid.

With some restrictions, rows can be inserted into, updated in, or deleted from a base table using a view. The following statement inserts a new row into the EMP table using the ACCOUNTS\_STAFF view:

```
INSERT INTO Accounts_staff  
VALUES (199, 'ABID', 30);
```

Restrictions on DML operations for views use the following criteria in the order listed:

1. If a view is defined by a query that contains SET or DISTINCT operators, a GROUP BY clause, or a group function, then rows cannot be inserted into, updated in, or deleted from the base tables using the view.
2. If a view is defined with WITH CHECK OPTION, then a row cannot be inserted into, or updated in, the base table (using the view), if the view cannot select the row from the base table.
3. If a NOT NULL column that does not have a DEFAULT clause is omitted from the view, then a row cannot be inserted into the base table using the view.
4. If the view was created by using an expression, such as DECODE(deptno, 10, "SALES", ...), then rows cannot be inserted into or updated in the base table using the view.

The constraint created by WITH CHECK OPTION of the ACCOUNTS\_STAFF view only allows rows that have a department number of 10 to be inserted into, or updated in, the EMP table. Alternatively, assume that the ACCOUNTS\_STAFF view is defined by the following statement (that is, excluding the DEPTNO column):

```
CREATE VIEW Accounts_staff AS
  SELECT Empno, Ename
  FROM Emp
  WHERE Deptno = 10
  WITH CHECK OPTION CONSTRAINT ica_Accounts_cnst;
```

Considering this view definition, you can update the EMPNO or ENAME fields of existing records, but you cannot insert rows into the EMP table through the ACCOUNTS\_STAFF view because the view does not let you alter the DEPTNO field. If you had defined a DEFAULT value of 10 on the DEPTNO field, then you could perform inserts.

If you don't want any DML operations to be performed on views, create them WITH READ ONLY option. Then no DML operations are allowed on views.

### **Modifying a Join View**

Oracle allows you, with some restrictions, to modify views that involve joins. Consider the following simple view:

```
CREATE VIEW Emp_view AS
  SELECT Ename, Empno, deptno FROM Emp;
```

This view does not involve a join operation. If you issue the SQL statement:

```
UPDATE Emp_view SET Ename = 'SHAHRYAR' WHERE Empno = 109;
```

then the EMP base table that underlies the view changes, and employee 109's name changes from ASHI to SHAHRYAR in the EMP table.

However, if you create a view that involves a join operation, such as:

```
CREATE VIEW Emp_dept_view AS
SELECT e.Empno, e.Ename, e.Deptno, e.Sal, d.Dname, d.Loc
FROM Emp e, Dept d /* JOIN operation */
WHERE e.Deptno = d.Deptno
AND d.Loc IN ('HYD', 'BOM', 'DEL');
```

then there are restrictions on modifying either the EMP or the DEPT base table through this view.

A modifiable join view is a view that contains more than one table in the top-level FROM clause of the SELECT statement, and that does not contain any of the following:

- DISTINCT operator
- Aggregate functions: AVG, COUNT, GLB, MAX, MIN, STDDEV, SUM, or VARIANCE
- Set operations: UNION, UNION ALL, INTERSECT, MINUS
- GROUP BY or HAVING clauses
- START WITH or CONNECT BY clauses
- ROWNUM pseudocolumn

Any UPDATE, INSERT, or DELETE statement on a join view can modify only one underlying base table. The following example shows an UPDATE statement that successfully modifies the EMP\_DEPT\_VIEW view:

```
UPDATE Emp_dept_view
SET Sal = Sal * 1.10
WHERE Deptno = 10;
```

The following UPDATE statement would be disallowed on the EMP\_DEPT\_VIEW view:

```
UPDATE Emp_dept_view
SET Loc = 'BOM'
WHERE Ename = 'SAMI';
```

This statement fails with an ORA-01779 error ("cannot modify a column which maps to a non key-preserved table"), because it attempts to modify the underlying DEPT table, and the DEPT table is not key preserved in the EMP\_DEPT view.

### 3. Create PL/SQL program using cursors, control structure, exception handling.

PL/SQL is a combination of SQL along with the procedural features of programming languages. It was developed by Oracle Corporation in the early 90's to enhance the capabilities of SQL. PL/SQL is one of three key programming languages embedded in the Oracle Database, along with SQL itself and Java.

PL/SQL is not a standalone programming language; it is a tool within the Oracle programming environment. **SQL\* Plus** is an interactive tool that allows you to type SQL and PL/SQL statements at the command prompt. These commands are then sent to the database for processing. Once the statements are processed, the results are sent back and displayed on screen.

To run PL/SQL programs, you should have the Oracle RDBMS Server installed in your machine. This will take care of the execution of the SQL commands. The most recent version of Oracle RDBMS is 11g.

Basic Syntax of PL/SQL which is a **block-structured** language; this means that the PL/SQL programs are divided and written in logical blocks of code. Each block consists of three sub-parts –

S.No	Sections & Description
1	<b>Declarations</b> This section starts with the keyword <b>DECLARE</b> . It is an optional section and defines all variables, cursors, subprograms, and other elements to be used in the program.
2	<b>Executable Commands</b> This section is enclosed between the keywords <b>BEGIN</b> and <b>END</b> and it is a mandatory section. It consists of the executable PL/SQL statements of the program. It should have at least one executable line of code, which may be just a <b>NULL command</b> to indicate that nothing should be executed.
3	<b>Exception Handling</b> This section starts with the keyword <b>EXCEPTION</b> . This optional section contains <b>exception(s)</b> that handle errors in the program.

Every PL/SQL statement ends with a semicolon (;). PL/SQL blocks can be nested within other PL/SQL blocks using **BEGIN** and **END**. Following is the basic structure of a PL/SQL block –

```
DECLARE
    <declarations section>
BEGIN
```



```

    <executable command(s)>
EXCEPTION
    <exception handling>
END;
The 'Hello World' Example
DECLARE
    message varchar2(20):= 'Hello, World!';
BEGIN
    dbms_output.put_line(message);
END;
/

```

The **end;** line signals the end of the PL/SQL block. To run the code from the SQL command line, you may need to type / at the beginning of the first blank line after the last line of the code. When the above code is executed at the SQL prompt, it produces the following result –

```

Hello World
PL/SQL procedure successfully completed.

```

Oracle creates a memory area, known as the context area, for processing an SQL statement, which contains all the information needed for processing the statement; for example, the number of rows processed, etc.

A **cursor** is a pointer to this context area. PL/SQL controls the context area through a cursor. A cursor holds the rows (one or more) returned by a SQL statement. The set of rows the cursor holds is referred to as the **active set**.

You can name a cursor so that it could be referred to in a program to fetch and process the rows returned by the SQL statement, one at a time. There are two types of cursors –

- Implicit cursors
- Explicit cursors

#### Implicit Cursors

Implicit cursors are automatically created by Oracle whenever an SQL statement is executed, when there is no explicit cursor for the statement. Programmers cannot control the implicit cursors and the information in it.

Whenever a DML statement (INSERT, UPDATE and DELETE) is issued, an implicit cursor is associated with this statement. For INSERT operations, the cursor holds the data that needs to be inserted. For UPDATE and DELETE operations, the cursor identifies the rows that would be affected.

In PL/SQL, you can refer to the most recent implicit cursor as the **SQL cursor**, which always has attributes such as **%FOUND**, **%ISOPEN**, **%NOTFOUND**, and **%ROWCOUNT**. The SQL cursor has additional attributes, **%BULK\_ROWCOUNT** and **%BULK\_EXCEPTIONS**, designed for use with the **FORALL** statement. The following table provides the description of the most used attributes –

S.No	Attribute & Description
------	-------------------------

1	<b>%FOUND</b> Returns TRUE if an INSERT, UPDATE, or DELETE statement affected one or more rows or a SELECT INTO statement returned one or more rows. Otherwise, it returns FALSE.
2	<b>%NOTFOUND</b> The logical opposite of %FOUND. It returns TRUE if an INSERT, UPDATE, or DELETE statement affected no rows, or a SELECT INTO statement returned no rows. Otherwise, it returns FALSE.
3	<b>%ISOPEN</b> Always returns FALSE for implicit cursors, because Oracle closes the SQL cursor automatically after executing its associated SQL statement.
4	<b>%ROWCOUNT</b> Returns the number of rows affected by an INSERT, UPDATE, or DELETE statement, or returned by a SELECT INTO statement.

Any SQL cursor attribute will be accessed as **sql%attribute\_name** as shown below in the example.

Example

We will be using the CUSTOMERS table we had created and used in the previous chapters.

Select \* from customers;

```
+---+-----+---+-----+-----+
| ID | NAME   | AGE | ADDRESS | SALARY |
+---+-----+---+-----+-----+
| 1 | Ramesh | 32  | Ahmedabad | 2000.00 |
| 2 | Khilan | 25  | Delhi     | 1500.00 |
| 3 | kaushik | 23  | Kota      | 2000.00 |
| 4 | Chaitali | 25  | Mumbai    | 6500.00 |
| 5 | Hardik | 27  | Bhopal    | 8500.00 |
| 6 | Komal  | 22  | MP        | 4500.00 |
+---+-----+---+-----+-----+
```

The following program will update the table and increase the salary of each customer by 500 and use the **SQL%ROWCOUNT** attribute to determine the number of rows affected –

```
DECLARE
    total_rows number(2);
BEGIN
    UPDATE customers
    SET salary = salary + 500;
    IF sql%notfound THEN
        dbms_output.put_line('no customers selected');
    ELSIF sql%found THEN
        total_rows := sql%rowcount;
```

```

        dbms_output.put_line( total_rows || ' customers selected ');
    END IF;
END;
/

```

When the above code is executed at the SQL prompt, it produces the following result –  
6 customers selected

PL/SQL procedure successfully completed.

If you check the records in customers table, you will find that the rows have been updated –  
Select \* from customers;

```

+----+-----+-----+-----+-----+
| ID | NAME   | AGE | ADDRESS | SALARY |
+----+-----+-----+-----+
| 1 | Ramesh | 32 | Ahmedabad | 2500.00 |
| 2 | Khilan | 25 | Delhi     | 2000.00 |
| 3 | kaushik | 23 | Kota      | 2500.00 |
| 4 | Chaitali | 25 | Mumbai    | 7000.00 |
| 5 | Hardik | 27 | Bhopal     | 9000.00 |
| 6 | Komal   | 22 | MP         | 5000.00 |
+----+-----+-----+-----+

```

### Explicit Cursors

Explicit cursors are programmer-defined cursors for gaining more control over the **context area**. An explicit cursor should be defined in the declaration section of the PL/SQL Block. It is created on a SELECT Statement which returns more than one row.

The syntax for creating an explicit cursor is –

```
CURSOR cursor_name IS select_statement;
```

Working with an explicit cursor includes the following steps –

- Declaring the cursor for initializing the memory
- Opening the cursor for allocating the memory
- Fetching the cursor for retrieving the data
- Closing the cursor to release the allocated memory

### Declaring the Cursor

Declaring the cursor defines the cursor with a name and the associated SELECT statement.

For example –

```
CURSOR c_customers IS
```

```
    SELECT id, name, address FROM customers;
```

### Opening the Cursor

Opening the cursor allocates the memory for the cursor and makes it ready for fetching the rows returned by the SQL statement into it. For example, we will open the above defined cursor as follows –

```
OPEN c_customers;
```

### Fetching the Cursor

Fetching the cursor involves accessing one row at a time. For example, we will fetch rows from the above-opened cursor as follows –

```
FETCH c_customers INTO c_id, c_name, c_addr;
```

Closing the Cursor

Closing the cursor means releasing the allocated memory. For example, we will close the above-opened cursor as follows –

```
CLOSE c_customers;
```

### **Example**

Following is a complete example to illustrate the concepts of explicit cursors &minua;

```
DECLARE
```

```
    c_id customers.id%type;
```

```
    c_name customerS.No.ame%type;
```

```
    c_addr customers.address%type;
```

```
    CURSOR c_customers is
```

```
        SELECT id, name, address FROM customers;
```

```
BEGIN
```

```
    OPEN c_customers;
```

```
    LOOP
```

```
        FETCH c_customers into c_id, c_name, c_addr;
```

```
        EXIT WHEN c_customers%notfound;
```

```
        dbms_output.put_line(c_id || ' ' || c_name || ' ' || c_addr);
```

```
    END LOOP;
```

```
    CLOSE c_customers;
```

```
END;
```

```
/
```

When the above code is executed at the SQL prompt, it produces the following result –

1 Ramesh Ahmedabad

2 Khilan Delhi

3 kaushik Kota

4 Chaitali Mumbai

5 Hardik Bhopal

6 Komal MP

PL/SQL procedure successfully completed.

### **CURSOR PROGRAM FOR ELECTRICITY BILL CALCULATION:**

```
SQL> create table bill(name varchar2(10), address varchar2(20), city varchar2(20), unit  
number(10));
```

Table created.

```
SQL> insert into bill values('&name','&address','&city','&unit');
```

Enter value for name: yuva

Enter value for address: srivi

Enter value for city: srivilliputur

```

Enter value for unit: 100
old 1: insert into bill values('&name','&address','&city','&unit')
new 1: insert into bill values('yuva','srivi','srivilliputur','100')
1 row created.
SQL> /
Enter value for name: nithya
Enter value for address: Lakshmi nagar
Enter value for city: sivakasi
Enter value for unit: 200
old 1: insert into bill values('&name','&address','&city','&unit')
new 1: insert into bill values('nithya','Lakshmi nagar','sivakasi','200')
1 row created.
SQL> /
Enter value for name: maya
Enter value for address: housing board
Enter value for city: sivakasi
Enter value for unit: 300
old 1: insert into bill values('&name','&address','&city','&unit')
new 1: insert into bill values('maya','housing board','sivakasi','300')
1 row created.
SQL> /
Enter value for name: jeeva
Enter value for address: RRR nagar
Enter value for city: sivaganagai
Enter value for unit: 400
old 1: insert into bill values('&name','&address','&city','&unit')
new 1: insert into bill values('jeeva','RRR nagar','sivaganagai','400')
1 row created.
SQL> select * from bill;
NAME ADDRESS CITY UNIT
-----
yuva srivi srivilliputur 100
nithya Lakshmi nagar sivakasi 200
maya housing board sivakasi 300
jeeva RRR nagar sivaganagai 400

SQL> declare
2 cursor c is select * from bill;
3 b bill %ROWTYPE;
4 begin
5 open c;
6 dbms_output.put_line('Name Address city Unit Amount');
7 loop
8 fetch c into b;

```

```

9 if(c % notfound) then
10 exit;
11 else
12 if(b.unit<=100) then
13 dbms_output.put_line(b.name||' '||b.address||' '||b.city||' '||b.unit||' '||b.unit*1);
14 elsif(b.unit>100 and b.unit<=200) then
15 dbms_output.put_line(b.name||' '||b.address||' '||b.city||' '||b.unit||' '||b.unit*2);
16 elsif(b.unit>200 and b.unit<=300) then
17 dbms_output.put_line(b.name||' '||b.address||' '||b.city||' '||b.unit||' '||b.unit*3);
18 elsif(b.unit>300 and b.unit<=400) then
19 dbms_output.put_line(b.name||' '||b.address||' '||b.city||' '||b.unit||' '||b.unit*4);
20 else
21 dbms_output.put_line(b.name||' '||b.address||' '||b.city||' '||b.unit||' '||b.unit*5);
22 end if;
23 end if;
24 end loop;
25 close c;
26 end;
27 /

```

```

Name Address city Unit Amount
yuva srivi srivilliputur 100 100
nithya Lakshmi nagar sivakasi 200 400
maya housing board sivakasi 300 900
jeeva RRR nagar sivaganagai 400 1600
PL/SQL procedure successfully completed.

```

An **exception** is an error condition during a program execution. PL/SQL supports programmers to catch such conditions using EXCEPTION block in the program and an appropriate action is taken against the error condition. There are two types of exceptions –

- System-defined exceptions
- User-defined exceptions

### **Syntax for Exception Handling**

The general syntax for exception handling is as follows. Here you can list down as many exceptions as you can handle. The default exception will be handled using *WHEN others THEN* –

```

DECLARE
    <declarations section>
BEGIN
    <executable command(s)>
EXCEPTION
    <exception handling goes here >
    WHEN exception1 THEN
        exception1-handling-statements

```

```

WHEN exception2 THEN
    exception2-handling-statements
WHEN exception3 THEN
    exception3-handling-statements
.....
WHEN others THEN
    exception3-handling-statements
END;

```

#### **4. Create following:**

**(a) Simple Triggers**

**(b) Package using procedures and functions.**

#### **SIMPLE TRIGGER FOR DISPLAYING GRADE OF THE STUDENT**

```

SQL> create table stdn(rollno number(3),name varchar(2),m1 number(3),m2 number(3),m3
number(3),tot num

```

```

ber(3),avrg number(3),result varchar(10));

```

Table created.

```

SQL> create or replace trigger t1 before insert on stdn

```

```

2 for each row

```

```

3 begin

```

```

4 :new.tot:=:new.m1+:new.m2+:new.m3;

```

```

5 :new.avrg:=:new.tot/3;

```

```

6 if(:new.m1>=50 and :new.m2>=50 and :new.m3>=50) then

```

```

7 :new.result:='pass';

```

```

8 else

```

```

9 :new.result:='Fail';

```

```

10 end if;

```

```

11 end;

```

12 /

Trigger created.

```
SQL> insert into stdn values(101,'SM',67,89,99,"","");
```

1 row created.

```
SQL> select * from stdn;
```

ROLLNO	NA	M1	M2	M3	TOT	AVRG	RESULT
--------	----	----	----	----	-----	------	--------

101	SM	67	89	99	255	85	pass
-----	----	----	----	----	-----	----	------

### PROCEDURE TO INSERT NUMBER

```
SQL> create table emp1(id number(3),First_name varchar2(20));
```

Table created.

```
SQL> insert into emp1 values(101,'Nithya');
```

1 row created.

```
SQL> insert into emp1 values(102,'Maya');
```

1 row created.

```
SQL> select * from emp1;
```

ID	FIRST_NAME
----	------------

101	Nithya
-----	--------

102	Maya
-----	------

```
SQL> set serveroutput on;
```

```
SQL> create or replace
```

```
2 procedure insert_num(p_num number)is
```

```
3 begin
```

```
4 insert into emp1(id,First_name) values(p_num,user);
```

```
5 end insert_num;
```

```
6 /
```

Procedure created.

```
SQL> exec insert_num(3);
```

PL/SQL procedure successfully completed.

```
SQL> select * from emp1;
```

ID	FIRST_NAME
----	------------

101	Nithya
-----	--------

102	Maya
-----	------

103	SCOTT
-----	-------

### FUNCTION TO FIND FACTORIAL

```
SQL> create or replace function fact(n number)
```

```
2 return number is
```

```
3 i number(10);
```

```
4 f number:=1;
```

```
5 begin
```



```
6 for i in 1..N loop
```

```
7 f:=f*i;
```

```
8 end loop;
```

```
9 return f;
```

```
10 end;
```

```
11 /
```

Function created.

```
SQL> select fact(2) from dual;
```

```
FACT(2)
```

```
-----
```

```
2
```

**Program 5. Create the table for**

**(a) COMPANY database**

**(b) STUDENT database and Insert five records for each attributes.**

**Creation of DATABASE for COMPANY.**

Create database COMPANY;

**Creation of tables:**

```
CREATE TABLE employee (  
    emp_id INT PRIMARY KEY,  
    first_name VARCHAR(40),  
    last_name VARCHAR(40),  
    birth_day DATE,  
    sex VARCHAR(1),  
    salary INT,  
    super_id INT,  
    branch_id INT);
```

```
CREATE TABLE branch (  
    branch_id INT PRIMARY KEY,  
    branch_name VARCHAR(40),  
    mgr_id INT,  
    mgr_start_date DATE,  
    FOREIGN KEY(mgr_id) REFERENCES employee(emp_id) ON DELETE SET NULL);
```

```
ALTER TABLE employee  
ADD FOREIGN KEY(branch_id)  
REFERENCES branch(branch_id)  
ON DELETE SET NULL;
```

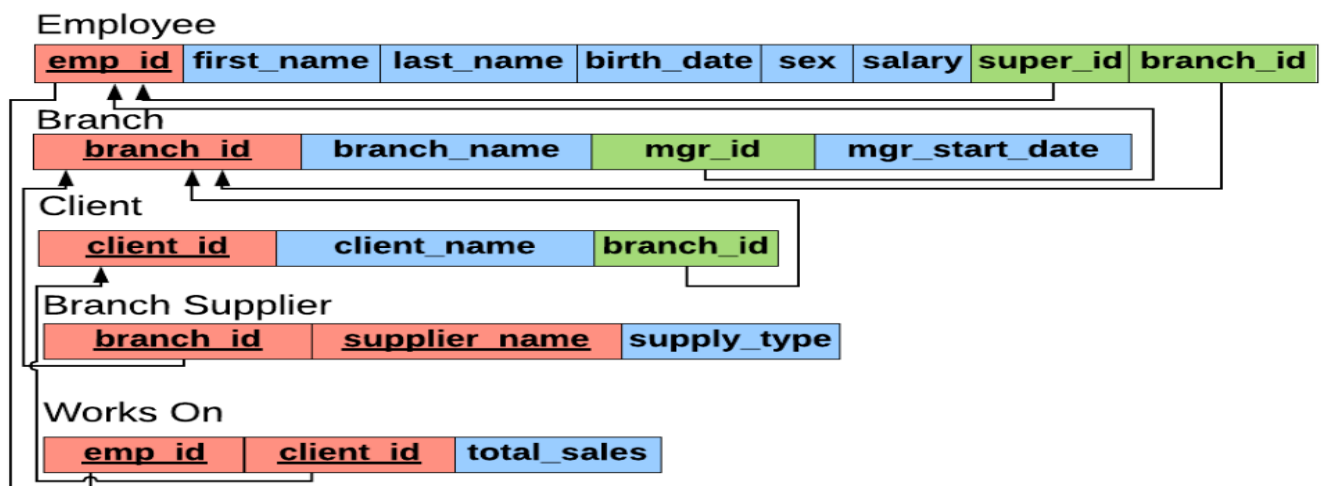
```
ALTER TABLE employee  
ADD FOREIGN KEY(super_id)  
REFERENCES employee(emp_id)  
ON DELETE SET NULL;
```

```
CREATE TABLE client (  
    client_id INT PRIMARY KEY,  
    client_name VARCHAR(40),  
    branch_id INT,  
    FOREIGN KEY(branch_id) REFERENCES branch(branch_id) ON DELETE SET NULL);
```

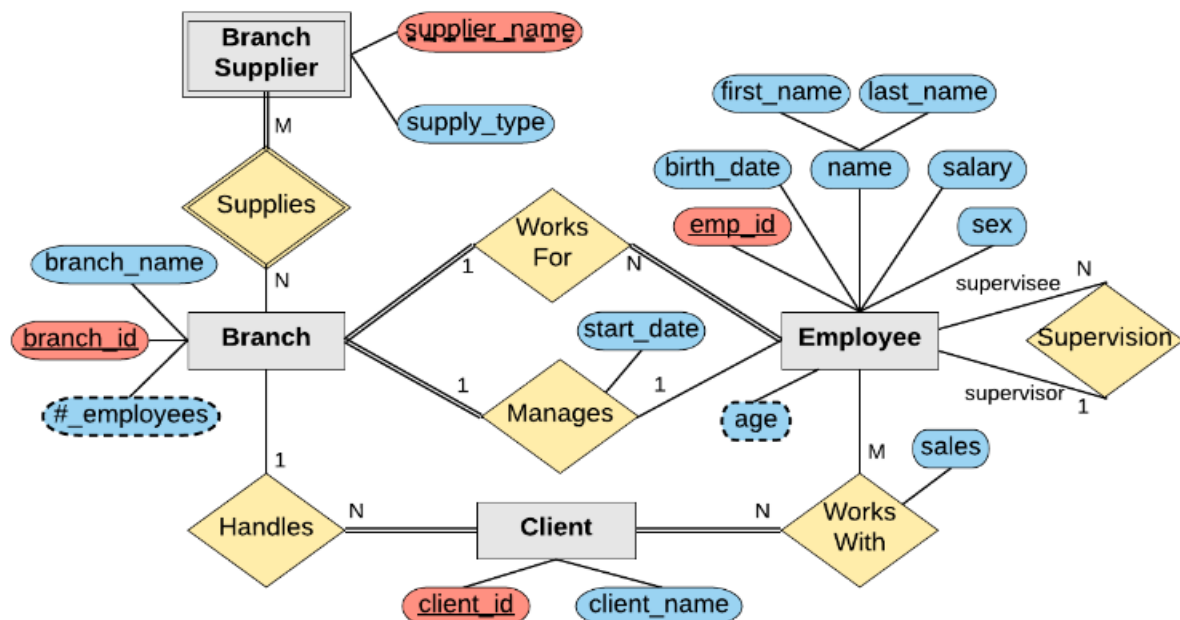
```
CREATE TABLE works_with (  
    emp_id INT,  
    client_id INT,  
    total_sales INT,  
    PRIMARY KEY(emp_id, client_id),  
    FOREIGN KEY(emp_id) REFERENCES employee(emp_id) ON DELETE CASCADE,  
    FOREIGN KEY(client_id) REFERENCES client(client_id) ON DELETE CASCADE);
```

```
CREATE TABLE branch_supplier (
  branch_id INT,
  supplier_name VARCHAR(40),
  supply_type VARCHAR(40),
  PRIMARY KEY(branch_id, supplier_name),
  FOREIGN KEY(branch_id) REFERENCES branch(branch_id) ON DELETE CASCADE);
```

## Company Database Schema



## Company ER Diagram



**Insertion of rows to the tables employee, branch,branch supplier, clients and works with respectively:**

```

INSERT INTO employee VALUES(100, 'K L ', 'Rahul', '1-JAN-17', 'M', 250000, NULL,
NULL);
INSERT INTO employee VALUES(101, 'Virat', 'Kohli', '9-FEB-7', 'M', 450000, NULL,
NULL);
INSERT INTO employee VALUES(102, 'Rahul', 'Dravid', '19-MAR-20', 'M', 650000,
NULL, NULL);
INSERT INTO employee VALUES(103, 'Sachin', 'Tendulkar', '10-MAY-21', 'M', 850000,
NULL, NULL);
INSERT INTO employee VALUES(104, 'M S', 'Dhoni', '1-SEP-05', 'M', 750000, NULL,
NULL);

```

```

INSERT INTO branch VALUES(3, 'Stamford', 106, '1-APR-17');
INSERT INTO branch VALUES(3, 'Stamford', 106, '1-MAY-19');
INSERT INTO branch VALUES(3, 'Stamford', 106, '1-FEB-20');
INSERT INTO branch VALUES(3, 'Stamford', 106, '1-JAN-21');
INSERT INTO branch VALUES(3, 'Stamford', 106, '1-DEC-20');

```

```

INSERT INTO branch_supplier VALUES(2, 'Hammer Mill', 'Paper');
INSERT INTO branch_supplier VALUES(2, 'Uni-ball', 'Writing Utensils');
INSERT INTO branch_supplier VALUES(3, 'Patriot Paper', 'Paper');
INSERT INTO branch_supplier VALUES(2, 'J.T. Forms & Labels', 'Custom Forms');
INSERT INTO branch_supplier VALUES(3, 'Uni-ball', 'Writing Utensils');
INSERT INTO branch_supplier VALUES(3, 'Hammer Mill', 'Paper');

```

```

INSERT INTO client VALUES(400, 'Dunmore Highschool', 2);
INSERT INTO client VALUES(401, 'Lackawana Country', 2);
INSERT INTO client VALUES(402, 'FedEx', 3);
INSERT INTO client VALUES(403, 'John Daly Law, LLC', 3);
INSERT INTO client VALUES(404, 'Scranton Whitepages', 2);

```

```

INSERT INTO works_with VALUES(105, 400, 55000);
INSERT INTO works_with VALUES(102, 401, 267000);
INSERT INTO works_with VALUES(108, 402, 22500);
INSERT INTO works_with VALUES(107, 403, 5000);
INSERT INTO works_with VALUES(108, 403, 12000);

```

### **Creation of DATABASE for STUDENT.**

Create database STUDENT;

Creation of tables:

```
CREATE TABLE student( sid int not null,name text not null, primary key(sid));
```

```
CREATE TABLE teachers(tid int not null,name text not null,primary key(tid));
```

```
CREATE TABLE subjects(subid int not null,name text not null,primary key(subid));
```

```
CREATE TABLE grades(studentID int not null references students(sid),teacherID int not null references teachers(tid),subjectID int not null references subjects(subid),grade varchar(3),primary key(studentID, teacherID, subjectID));
```

**Insertion of rows to the tables student,teachers,subjects and grades respectively:**

```
INSERT INTO student (sid, name) VALUES(1, 'Simon');
INSERT INTO student (sid, name) VALUES(2, 'Alvin');
INSERT INTO student (sid, name) VALUES(3, 'Theo');
INSERT INTO student (sid, name) VALUES(4, 'Brittany');
INSERT INTO student (sid, name) VALUES(5, 'Jenette');
INSERT INTO student (sid, name) VALUES(6, 'Elenor');
INSERT INTO student (sid, name) VALUES(7, 'Stu');
```

```
INSERT INTO teachers (tid, name) VALUES (1, 'Washington');
INSERT INTO teachers (tid, name) VALUES (2, 'Adams');
INSERT INTO teachers (tid, name) VALUES (3, 'Jefferson');
INSERT INTO teachers (tid, name) VALUES (4, 'Lincoln');
```

```
INSERT INTO subjects (subid, name) VALUES (1, 'History');
INSERT INTO subjects (subid, name) VALUES (2, 'Biology');
INSERT INTO subjects (subid, name) VALUES (3, 'SF');
```

```
INSERT INTO grades (studentID, teacherID, subjectID, grade) VALUES (1, 2, 1, 'A');
INSERT INTO grades (studentID, teacherID, subjectID, grade) VALUES (1, 2, 2, 'B');
INSERT INTO grades (studentID, teacherID, subjectID, grade) VALUES (7, 4, 3, 'C+');
INSERT INTO grades (studentID, teacherID, subjectID, grade) VALUES (7, 3, 2, 'F');
INSERT INTO grades (studentID, teacherID, subjectID, grade) VALUES (6, 2, 1, 'B+');
INSERT INTO grades (studentID, teacherID, subjectID, grade) VALUES (2, 4, 3, 'C');
```

## **PROGRAM 6: Illustrate the use of SELECT statement**

The SQL SELECT statement is used to fetch the data from a database table which returns this data in the form of a result table.

**Syntax :** The basic syntax of the SELECT statement is as follows. SELECT column1, column2, columnN FROM table\_name;

Here, column1, column2... are the fields of a table whose values you want to fetch. If you want to fetch all the fields available in the field, then you can use the following syntax.

```
SELECT * FROM table_name;
```

### **SQL DISTINCT Clause**

```
SELECT DISTINCT column1, column2....columnN
```

```
FROM table_name;
```

### **SQL WHERE Clause**

```
SELECT column1, column2....columnN
```

```
FROM table_name WHERE CONDITION;
```

### **SQL AND/OR Clause**

```
SELECT column1, column2....columnN
```

```
FROM table_name
```

```
WHERE CONDITION-1 {AND|OR} CONDITION-2;
```

### **SQL IN Clause**

```
SELECT column1, column2....columnN
```

```
FROM table_name
```

```
WHERE column_name IN (val-1, val-2,...val-N);
```

### **SQL BETWEEN Clause**

```
SELECT column1, column2....columnN
```

```
FROM table_name
```

```
WHERE column_name BETWEEN val-1 AND val-2;
```

### **SQL LIKE Clause**

```
SELECT column1, column2....columnN  
  
FROM table_name  
  
WHERE column_name LIKE { PATTERN };
```

### **SQL ORDER BY Clause**

```
SELECT column1, column2....columnN  
  
FROM table_name  
  
WHERE CONDITION ORDER BY column_name {ASC|DESC};
```

### **SQL GROUP BY Clause**

```
SELECT SUM(column_name)  
  
FROM table_name  
  
WHERE CONDITION  
  
GROUP BY column_name;
```

### **SQL COUNT Clause**

```
SELECT COUNT(column_name)  
  
FROM table_name  
  
WHERE CONDITION;
```

### **Queries for company DATABASE**

#### **1)Find all employees**

```
SELECT *  
  
FROM employee;
```

#### **2)Find all clients**

```
SELECT *  
  
FROM clients;
```

#### **3)Find all employees ordered by salary**

SELECT \*

from employee

ORDER BY salary ASC/DESC;

**4)Find all employees ordered by sex then name**

SELECT \*

from employee

ORDER BY sex, name;

**5)Find the first 5 employees in the table**

SELECT \*

from employee

LIMIT 5;

**6)Find the first and last names of all employees**

SELECT first\_name, employee.last\_name

FROM employee;

**7)Find the forename and surnames names of all employees**

SELECT first\_name AS forename, employee.last\_name AS surname

FROM employee;

**8)Find out all the different genders**

SELECT DISCINCT sex

FROM employee;

**9)Find all male employees**

SELECT \*

FROM employee

WHERE sex = 'M';

**10)Find all employees at branch 2**



SELECT \*

FROM employee

WHERE branch\_id = 2;

**11) Find all employee's id's and names who were born after 1969**

SELECT emp\_id, first\_name, last\_name

FROM employee

WHERE birth\_day >= 1970-01-01;

**12) Find all female employees at branch 2**

SELECT \*

FROM employee

WHERE branch\_id = 2 AND sex = 'F';

**13) Find all employees who are female & born after 1969 or who make over 80000**

SELECT \*

FROM employee

WHERE (birth\_day >= '1970-01-01' AND sex = 'F') OR salary > 80000;

**14) Find all employees born between 1970 and 1975**

SELECT \*

FROM employee

WHERE birth\_day BETWEEN '1970-01-01' AND '1975-01-01';

**15) Find all employees named Jim, Michael, Johnny or David**

SELECT \*

FROM employee

WHERE first\_name IN ('Jim', 'Michael', 'Johnny', 'David');

**16) Find the number of employees**

SELECT COUNT(super\_id)

FROM employee;

**17)Find the average of all employee's salaries**

SELECT AVG(salary)

FROM employee;

**18)Find the sum of all employee's salaries**

SELECT SUM(salary)

FROM employee;

**19)Find out how many males and females there are**

SELECT COUNT(sex), sex

FROM employee

GROUP BY sex

**20)Find the total sales of each salesman**

SELECT SUM(total\_sales), emp\_id

FROM works\_with

GROUP BY client\_id;

**21)Find the total amount of money spent by each client**

SELECT SUM(total\_sales), client\_id

FROM works\_with

GROUP BY client\_id;

**22)Find a list of employee and branch names**

SELECT employee.first\_name AS Employee\_Branch\_Names

FROM employee

UNION

SELECT branch.branch\_name

FROM branch;

**23)Find a list of all clients & branch suppliers' names**

```
SELECT client.client_name AS Non-Employee_Entities, client.branch_id AS Branch_ID  
FROM client  
UNION  
SELECT branch_supplier.supplier_name, branch_supplier.branch_id  
FROM branch_supplier;
```

**Queries for student DATABASE**

**1)Find all Students**

```
select *  
from Students;
```

**2) Find all teachers**

```
select *  
from teachers;
```

**3) Find all subjects**

```
select *  
from subjects;
```

**4) Find all grades**

```
select *  
from grades;
```

**5) Students in order by name:**

```
select *  
from students  
order by name ASC;
```

**6)Names of students in any class taught by Adams:**

```
select name
```

```
from students
where sid in
(select studentID
from grades
where teacherID in
(select tid
from teachers
where name = 'Adams')
);
```

**7)Names of teachers who taught Biology:**

```
select name
from teachers
where tid in
(select teacherID
from grades
where subjectID in
(select subid
from subjects
where name = 'Biology')
);
```

**8)Names of teachers who have not yet taught:**

```
select name
from teachers
where tid not in
(select teacherID
```

from grades);

**9)Names of students who have not yet taken any classes:**

select name

from students

where sid not in

(select studentID

from grades);

**10)Names of students in the same class:**

select name

from students

where sid in

(SELECT studentID

FROM grades g1

WHERE

(SELECT COUNT(\*)

FROM grades g2

WHERE g1.subjectID = g2.subjectID

AND g1.teacherID = g2.teacherID ) > 1

ORDER BY subjectID

);

select t.name as "Teacher",

sub.name as "Subject",

s.name as "Student"

from grades g1,

```
grades g2,  
students s,  
teachers t,  
subjects sub  
where g1.teacherID = g2.teacherID  
and g1.subjectID = g2.subjectID  
and g1.studentID = s.sid  
and g1.teacherID = t.tid  
and g1.subjectID = sub.subid  
order by t.name, sub.name, s.name;
```

## Program 7: Conditional retrieval - WHERE clause

**Where clause** is used to fetch a particular row or set of rows from a table. This clause filters records based on given conditions and only those row(s) comes out as result that satisfies the condition defined in WHERE clause of the SQL query.

```
SELECT Column_name1, Column_name2, ....
```

```
FROM Table_name
```

```
WHERE Condition;
```

**Types of conditions:**

Condition	SQL Operators
Comparison	=, >, >=, <, <=, <>
Range filtering	BETWEEN
Match a character pattern	LIKE
List filtering [Match any of a list of values]	IN
Null testing	IS NULL

**Comparison Operators:**

SQL Operators	Meaning
=	Equal to
>, <	Greater than, less than
>= , <=	Greater than or equal to, Less than or equal to
<>	Not equal to

Let an **employee** table has the following columns:

(employee\_id,first\_name,last\_name,email,phone\_number,hire\_date,job\_id,  
salary,commission\_pct,manager\_id,department\_id)

The following query display the employee\_id, first\_name, last\_name, department\_id of employees whose departmet\_id=100 :

```
SELECT employee_id, first_name,
```

```
last_name, department_id
```

```
FROM employees
```

```
WHERE department_id=100;
```

The following query displays the employee\_id, job\_id, salary of employees whose last\_name='Lorentz'.

```
SELECT employee_id, job_id, salary
```

```
FROM employees
```

```
WHERE last_name = 'Lorentz';
```

**Example: WHERE clause using comparison conditions in SQL**

The following query displays the employee\_id, first\_name, last\_name and salary of employees whose salary is greater than or equal to 4000 :

```
SELECT employee_id, first_name, last_name, salary
```

```
FROM employees
```

```
WHERE salary>=4000;
```

**Example: WHERE clause using expression in SQL**

The following query displays the first\_name, last\_name , salary and (salary+(salary\*commission\_pct)) as Net Salary of employees whose Net Salary is in the range 10000 and 15000 and who gets atleast a percentage of commission\_pct.

```

SELECT first_name,last_name,salary,
(salary+(salary*commission_pct)) AS "Net Salary"
FROM employees
WHERE
(salary+(salary*commission_pct))
BETWEEN 10000 AND 15000
AND commission_pct>0

```

**Example: WHERE clause using BETWEEN condition in SQL**

The following query displays the employee\_id, first\_name, last\_name and salary of employees whose salary is greater than or equal to 4000 and less than equal to 6000 where 4000 is the lower limit and 6000 is the upper limit of the salary.

```

SELECT employee_id, first_name, last_name, salary
FROM employees
WHERE salary BETWEEN 4000 AND 6000;

```

**Example: WHERE clause using IN condition in SQL**

The following query displays the employee\_id, first\_name, last\_name, department\_id and salary of employees whose department\_id 60, 90 or 100.

```

SELECT employee_id, first_name, last_name,
department_id, salary
FROM employees
WHERE department_id IN(60,90,100);

```

**Example: WHERE clause using LIKE condition in SQL**

The following query displays the employee\_id, first\_name, last\_name and salary of employees whose first\_name starting with 'S'.

```

SELECT employee_id, first_name, last_name,
department_id, salary
FROM employees
WHERE first_name LIKE('S%');

```

**Example : WHERE clause using NULL condition in SQL**

The following query displays the employee\_id, first\_name, last\_name and salary of employees whose department\_id is null.

```

SELECT employee_id, first_name, last_name,
department_id, salary
FROM employees
WHERE department_id IS NULL;

```

**Example : WHERE clause using the AND operator in SQL**

The following query displays the employee\_id, first\_name, last\_name and salary of employees whose first\_name starting with 'S' and salary greater than or equal to 4000.

```

SELECT employee_id, first_name, last_name,
department_id, salary
FROM employees
WHERE first_name LIKE('S%')
AND salary>=4000;

```



**Example: WHERE clause using the OR operator in SQL**

The following query displays the employee\_id, first\_name, last\_name and salary of employees whose first\_name starting with 'S' or 'A'.

```
SELECT employee_id, first_name, last_name,  
department_id, salary  
FROM employees  
WHERE first_name LIKE('S%')  
OR first_name LIKE('A%')
```

**Example: WHERE clause using the NOT operator in SQL**

The following query displays the employee\_id, first\_name, last\_name and salary of employees except the department\_id 90, 60 or 100 :

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

## Program 8: Query sorted - ORDER BY clause

The ORDER BY clause is used in a SELECT statement to sort results either in ascending or descending order. Oracle sorts query results in ascending order by default.

Syntax for using SQL ORDER BY clause to sort data is:

```
SELECT column-list
```

```
FROM table_name [WHERE condition]
```

```
[ORDER BY column1 [, column2, .. columnN] [DESC]];
```

database table "employee";

id	name	dept	age	salary	location
100	Ramesh	Electrical	24	25000	Bangalore
101	Hrithik	Electronics	28	35000	Bangalore
102	Harsha	Aeronautics	28	35000	Mysore
103	Soumya	Electronics	22	20000	Bangalore
104	Priya	InfoTech	25	30000	Mangalore

**For Example:** If you want to sort the employee table by salary of the employee, the sql query would be.

```
SELECT name, salary FROM employee ORDER BY salary;
```

The output would be like

name	salary
-----	-----
Soumya	20000
Ramesh	25000
Priya	30000
Hrithik	35000
Harsha	35000

The query first sorts the result according to name and then displays it.

You can also use more than one column in the ORDER BY clause.

If you want to sort the employee table by the name and salary, the query would be like,

```
SELECT name, salary FROM employee ORDER BY name, salary;
```

The output would be like:

name	salary
-----	-----
Soumya	20000
Ramesh	25000

Priya	30000
Harsha	35000
Hrithik	35000

**NOTE:** The columns specified in ORDER BY clause should be one of the columns selected in the SELECT column list.

You can represent the columns in the ORDER BY clause by specifying the position of a column in the SELECT list, instead of writing the column name.

The above query can also be written as given below,

```
SELECT name, salary FROM employee ORDER BY 1, 2;
```

By default, the ORDER BY Clause sorts data in ascending order. If you want to sort the data in descending order, you must explicitly specify it as shown below.

```
SELECT name, salary
```

```
FROM employee
```

```
ORDER BY name, salary DESC;
```

The above query sorts only the column 'salary' in descending order and the column 'name' by ascending order.

If you want to select both name and salary in descending order, the query would be as given below.

```
SELECT name, salary
```

```
FROM employee
```

```
ORDER BY name DESC, salary DESC;
```

How to use expressions in the ORDER BY Clause?

Expressions in the ORDER BY clause of a SELECT statement.

**For example:** If you want to display employee name, current salary, and a 20% increase in the salary for only those employees for whom the percentage increase in salary is greater than 30000 and in descending order of the increased price, the SELECT statement can be written as shown below

```
SELECT name, salary, salary*1.2 AS new_salary
```

```
FROM employee
```

```
WHERE salary*1.2 > 30000
```

```
ORDER BY new_salary DESC;
```

The output for the above query is as follows.

name	salary	new_salary
------	--------	------------

Hrithik	35000	37000
---------	-------	-------

Harsha	35000	37000
--------	-------	-------

Priya	30000	36000
-------	-------	-------

**NOTE:** Aliases defined in the SELECT Statement can be used in ORDER BY Clause.

## 9 (a) UNION, INTERSECTION and MINUS operations on tables.

### SQL Set Operation

The SQL Set operation is used to combine the two or more SQL SELECT statements.

### Types of Set Operation

1. Union
2. UnionAll
3. Intersect
4. Minu

#### Union

- The SQL Union operation is used to combine the result of two or more SQL SELECT queries.
- In the union operation, all the number of datatype and columns must be same in both the tables on which UNION operation is being applied.
- The union operation eliminates the duplicate rows from its resultset.

```
SELECT column_name FROM table1  
UNION  
SELECT column_name FROM table2;
```

### Example:

#### The First table

ID	NAME
1	Jack
2	Harry

3	Jackson
---	---------

### The Second table

ID	NAME
3	Jackson
4	Stephan
5	David

Union SQL query will be:

```
SELECT * FROM First
UNION
SELECT * FROM Second;
```

The resultset table will look like:

ID	NAME
1	Jack
2	Harry
3	Jackson
4	Stephan
5	David

## 2. Union All

Union All operation is equal to the Union operation. It returns the set without removing duplication and sorting the data.

```
SELECT column_name FROM table1
UNION ALL
SELECT column_name FROM table2;
```

**Example:** Using the above First and Second table.  
Union All query will be like:

```
SELECT * FROM First
UNION ALL
SELECT * FROM Second;
```

The result set table will look like:

ID	NAME
1	Jack
2	Harry
3	Jackson
3	Jackson
4	Stephan
5	David

### **Intersect**

- It is used to combine two SELECT statements. The Intersect operation returns the common rows from both the SELECT statements.
- In the Intersect operation, the number of datatype and columns must be the same.
- It has no duplicates and it arranges the data in ascending order by default.

```
SELECT column_name FROM table1
INTERSECT
SELECT column_name FROM table2;
```

### **Example:**

**Using the above First and Second table.**

Intersect query will be:

```
SELECT * FROM First
INTERSECT
SELECT * FROM Second;
```

The resultset table will look like:

ID	NAME
3	Jackson

### Minus

- It combines the result of two SELECT statements. Minus operator is used to display the rows which are present in the first query but absent in the second query.
- It has no duplicates and data arranged in ascending order by default.

```
SELECT column_name FROM table1  
MINUS  
SELECT column_name FROM table2;
```

### Example

**Using the above First and Second table.**

Minus query will be:

```
SELECT * FROM First  
MINUS  
SELECT * FROM Second;
```

The resultset table will look like:

ID	NAME
1	Jack
2	Harry

## 9 (b) UPDATE, ALTER, DELETE, DROP operations on tables



## UPDATE:

### The SQL UPDATE Statement

The UPDATE statement is used to modify the existing records in a table.

### UPDATE Syntax

UPDATE *table\_name*

SET *column1 = value1, column2 = value2, ...*

WHERE *condition*;

### Example:

Below is a Customers sample database:

CustomerID	CustomerName	ContactName	Addresses	City	Postal Code	Country
1	Alfreds Futterkiste	Maria Anders	Obere Str. 57	Berlin	12209	Germany
2	Ana Trujillo Emparedados y helados	Ana Trujillo	Avda. de la Constitución 2222	México D.F.	05021	Mexico
3	Antonio Moreno Taquería	Antonio Moreno	Mataderos 2312	México D.F.	05023	Mexico
4	Around the Horn	Thomas Hardy	120 Hanover Sq.	London	WA1 1DP	UK
5	Berglunds snabbköp	Christina Berglund	Berguvsvägen 8	Luleå	S-958 22	Sweden

	p	d				
--	---	---	--	--	--	--

### UPDATE Table

The following SQL statement updates the first customer (CustomerID = 1) with a new contact person *and* a new city.

#### Example

UPDATE Customers

SET ContactName = 'Alfred Schmidt', City= 'Frankfurt'

WHERE CustomerID = 1;

The selection from the "Customers" table will now look like this:

CustomerID	CustomerName	ContactName	Address	City	Postal Code	Country
1	Alfreds Futterkiste	Alfred Schmidt	Obere Str. 57	Frankfurt	12209	Germany
2	Ana Trujillo Emparedados y helados	Ana Trujillo	Avda. de la Constitución 2222	México D.F.	05021	Mexico
3	Antonio Moreno Taquería	Antonio Moreno	Mataderos 2312	México D.F.	05023	Mexico
4	Around the Horn	Thomas Hardy	120 Hanover Sq.	London	WA1 1DP	UK
5	Berglunds snabbköp	Christina Berglund	Berguvsvägen 8	Luleå	S-958 22	Sweden

	p	nd				
--	---	----	--	--	--	--

## UPDATE Multiple Records

It is the WHERE clause that determines how many records will be updated.

The following SQL statement will update the contactname to "Juan" for all records where country is "Mexico":

### Example

```
UPDATE Customers
SET ContactName='Juan'
WHERE Country='Mexico';
```

The selection from the "Customers" table will now look like this:

CustomerID	CustomerName	ContactName	Addresses	City	Postal Code	Country
1	Alfreds Futterkiste	Alfred Schmidt	Obere Str. 57	Frankfurt	12209	Germany
2	Ana Trujillo Emparedados y helados	Juan	Avda. de la Constitución 2222	México D.F.	05021	Mexico
3	Antonio Moreno Taquería	Juan	Mataderos 2312	México D.F.	05023	Mexico
4	Around the	Thomas Hardy	120 Hanover	London	WA1 1DP	UK

	Horn		r Sq.			
5	Berglunds snabbköp	Christina Berglund	Berguvsvägen 8	Luleå	S-958 22	Sweden

## ALTER:

### SQL ALTER TABLE Statement

The ALTER TABLE statement is used to add, delete, or modify columns in an existing table.

The ALTER TABLE statement is also used to add and drop various constraints on an existing table.

### ALTER TABLE - ADD Column

To add a column in a table, use the following syntax:

ALTER TABLE *table\_name*

ADD *column\_name datatype*;

The following SQL adds an "Email" column to the "Customers" table:

#### Example

```
ALTER TABLE Customers
```

```
ADD Email varchar(255);
```

### ALTER TABLE - DROP COLUMN

To delete a column in a table, use the following syntax (notice that some database systems don't allow deleting a column):

ALTER TABLE *table\_name*

DROP COLUMN *column\_name*;

The following SQL deletes the "Email" column from the "Customers" table:

## Example

```
ALTER TABLE Customers  
DROP COLUMN Email;
```

## ALTER TABLE - ALTER/MODIFY COLUMN

To change the data type of a column in a table, use the following syntax:

### SQL Server / MS Access:

```
ALTER TABLE table_name  
ALTER COLUMN column_name datatype;
```

### My SQL / Oracle (prior version 10G):

```
ALTER TABLE table_name  
MODIFY COLUMN column_name datatype;
```

### Oracle 10G and later:

```
ALTER TABLE table_name  
MODIFY column_name datatype;
```

## SQL ALTER TABLE Example

Look at the "Persons" table:

ID	LastName	FirstName	Address	City
1	Hansen	Ola	Timoteivn 10	Sandnes
2	Svendson	Tove	Borgvn 23	Sandnes
3	Pettersen	Kari	Storgt 20	Stavanger

Now we want to add a column named "DateOfBirth" in the "Persons" table.

We use the following SQL statement:

```
ALTER TABLE Persons  
ADD DateOfBirth date;
```

The "Persons" table will now look like this:

<b>ID</b>	<b>LastName</b>	<b>FirstName</b>	<b>Address</b>	<b>City</b>	<b>DateOfBirth</b>
1	Hansen	Ola	Timoteivn 10	Sandnes	
2	Svendson	Tove	Borgvn 23	Sandnes	
3	Pettersen	Kari	Storgt 20	Stavanger	

### **Change Data Type Example**

Now we want to change the data type of the column named "DateOfBirth" in the "Persons" table.

We use the following SQL statement:

```
ALTER TABLE Persons
```

```
ALTER COLUMN DateOfBirth year;
```

### **DROP COLUMN Example**

Next, we want to delete the column named "DateOfBirth" in the "Persons" table.

We use the following SQL statement:

```
ALTER TABLE Persons
```

```
DROP COLUMN DateOfBirth;
```

The "Persons" table will now look like this:

<b>ID</b>	<b>LastName</b>	<b>FirstName</b>	<b>Address</b>	<b>City</b>
1	Hansen	Ola	Timoteivn 10	Sandnes
2	Svendson	Tove	Borgvn 23	Sandnes
3	Pettersen	Kari	Storgt 20	Stavanger

### **DELETE:**

## SQL DELETE Statement

The SQL DELETE statement is used to delete rows from a table. Generally, DELETE statement removes one or more records from a table.

### Syntax

DELETE FROM table\_name WHERE some\_condition;

### Sample Table

EMPLOYEE				
EMP_ID	EMP_NAME	CITY	SALARY	AGE
1	Angelina	Chicago	200000	30
2	Robert	Austin	300000	26
3	Christian	Denver	100000	42
4	Kristen	Washington	500000	29
5	Russell	Los angels	200000	36
6	Marry	Canada	600000	48

### Deleting Single Record

Delete the row from the table EMPLOYEE where EMP\_NAME = 'Kristen'. This will delete only the fourth row.

### Query

```
DELETE FROM EMPLOYEE  
WHERE EMP_NAME = 'Kristen';
```

**Output:** After executing this query, the EMPLOYEE table will look like:

EMP_ID	EMP_NAME	CITY	SALARY	AGE
--------	----------	------	--------	-----

1	Angelina	Chicago	200000	30
2	Robert	Austin	300000	26
3	Christian	Denver	100000	42
5	Russell	Los angels	200000	36
6	Marry	Canada	600000	48

## Deleting Multiple Record

Delete the row from the EMPLOYEE table where AGE is 30. This will delete two rows(first and third row).

## Query

DELETE FROM EMPLOYEE WHERE AGE= 30;

**Output:** After executing this query, the EMPLOYEE table will look like:

EMP_ID	EMP_NAME	CITY	SALARY	AGE
2	Robert	Austin	300000	26
3	Christian	Denver	100000	42
5	Russell	Los angels	200000	36
6	Marry	Canada	600000	48

## Delete all of the records

Delete all the row from the EMPLOYEE table. After this, no records left to display. The EMPLOYEE table will become empty.

## Syntax

DELETE \* FROM table\_name;

or

DELETE FROM table\_name;



## Query

```
DELETE FROM EMPLOYEE;
```

**Output:** After executing this query, the EMPLOYEE table will look like:

EMP_ID	EMP_NAME	CITY	SALARY	AGE
--------	----------	------	--------	-----

## DROP :

### SQL DROP Keyword

#### DROP COLUMN

The DROP COLUMN command is used to delete a column in an existing table.

The following SQL deletes the "ContactName" column from the "Customers" table:

#### Example

```
ALTER TABLE Customers  
DROP COLUMN ContactName;
```

#### DROP a UNIQUE Constraint

To drop a UNIQUE constraint, use the following SQL:

**SQL Server / Oracle / MS Access:**

```
ALTER TABLE Persons  
DROP CONSTRAINT UC_Person;
```

**MySQL:**

```
ALTER TABLE Persons  
DROP INDEX UC_Person;
```

**DROP a PRIMARY KEY Constraint**

To drop a PRIMARY KEY constraint, use the following SQL:

**SQL Server / Oracle / MS Access:**

```
ALTER TABLE Persons  
DROP CONSTRAINT PK_Person;
```

**MySQL:**

```
ALTER TABLE Persons  
DROP PRIMARY KEY;
```

**DROP a FOREIGN KEY Constraint**

To drop a FOREIGN KEY constraint, use the following SQL:

**SQL Server / Oracle / MS Access:**

```
ALTER TABLE Orders  
DROP CONSTRAINT FK_PersonOrder;
```

**MySQL:**

```
ALTER TABLE Orders  
DROP FOREIGN KEY FK_PersonOrder;
```

**DROP a CHECK Constraint**

To drop a CHECK constraint, use the following SQL:

**SQL Server / Oracle / MS Access:**

```
ALTER TABLE Persons
```

```
DROP CONSTRAINT CHK_PersonAge;
```

### **MySQL:**

```
ALTER TABLE Persons  
DROP CHECK CHK_PersonAge;
```

## **DROP DEFAULT**

The DROP DEFAULT command is used to delete a DEFAULT constraint.

To drop a DEFAULT constraint, use the following SQL:

**SQL Server / Oracle / MS Access:**

```
ALTER TABLE Persons  
ALTER COLUMN City DROP DEFAULT;
```

### **MySQL:**

```
ALTER TABLE Persons  
ALTER City DROP DEFAULT;
```

## **DROP INDEX**

The DROP INDEX command is used to delete an index in a table.

**MS Access:**

```
DROP INDEX index_name ON table_name;
```

**SQL Server:**

```
DROP INDEX table_name.index_name;
```

**DB2/Oracle:**

```
DROP INDEX index_name;
```

### **MySQL:**

```
ALTER TABLE table_name  
DROP INDEX index_name;
```

## **DROP DATABASE**

The DROP DATABASE command is used to delete an existing SQL database.

The following SQL drops a database named "testDB":

**Example**

```
DROP DATABASE testDB;
```

**DROP TABLE**

The DROP TABLE command deletes a table in the database.

The following SQL deletes the table "Shippers":

**Example**

```
DROP TABLE Shippers;
```

**DROP VIEW**

The DROP VIEW command deletes a view.

The following SQL drops the "Brazil Customers" view:

**Example**

```
DROP VIEW [Brazil Customers];
```

**10) Query multiple tables using JOIN operation.**

**SQL JOIN**

A SQL Join statement is used to combine data or rows from two or more tables based on a common field between them. Different types of Joins are:

1. INNER JOIN
2. LEFT JOIN

- 3. RIGHT JOIN
- 4. FULL JOIN

Consider the two tables below:

**Student**

ROLL_NO	NAME	ADDRESS	PHONE	Age
1	HARSH	DELHI	XXXXXXXXXX	18
2	PRATIK	BIHAR	XXXXXXXXXX	19
3	RIYANKA	SILIGURI	XXXXXXXXXX	20
4	DEEP	RAMNAGAR	XXXXXXXXXX	18
5	SAPTARHI	KOLKATA	XXXXXXXXXX	19
6	DHANRAJ	BARABAJAR	XXXXXXXXXX	20
7	ROHIT	BALURGHAT	XXXXXXXXXX	18
8	NIRAJ	ALIPUR	XXXXXXXXXX	19

**StudentCourse**

COURSE_ID	ROLL_NO
1	1
2	2
2	3
3	4
1	5
4	9
5	10
4	11

The simplest Join is INNER JOIN.

**INNER JOIN:** The INNER JOIN keyword selects all rows from both the tables as long as the condition satisfies. This keyword will create the result-set by combining all rows from both the tables where the condition satisfies i.e value of the common field will be same.

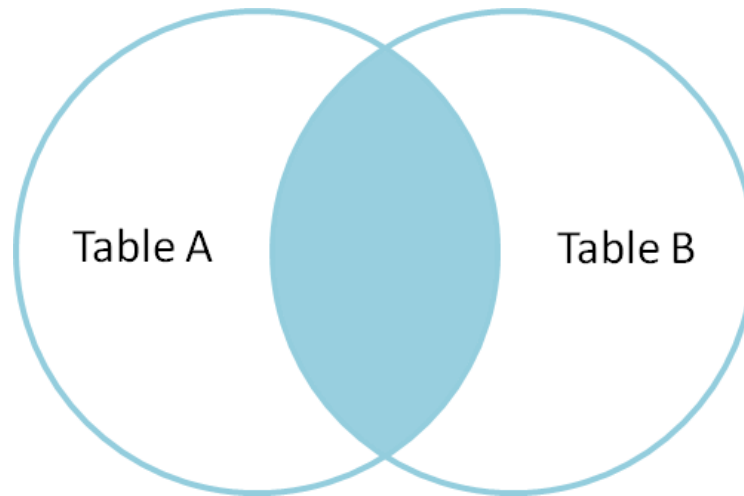
**Syntax:** SELECT  
table1.column1,table1.column2,table2.column1,...  
FROM table1  
INNER JOIN table2  
ON table1.matching\_column = table2.matching\_column;

**table1:** First table.

**table2:** Second table

**matching\_column:** Column common to both the tables.

**Note:** We can also write JOIN instead of INNER JOIN. JOIN is same as INNER JOIN.



### Example Queries(INNER JOIN)

This query will show the names and age of students enrolled in different courses. `SELECT StudentCourse.COURSE_ID, Student.NAME, Student.AGE FROM Student INNER JOIN StudentCourse ON Student.ROLL_NO = StudentCourse.ROLL_NO;`

**Output:**

COURSE_ID	NAME	Age
1	HARSH	18
2	PRATIK	19
2	RIYANKA	20
3	DEEP	18
1	SAPTARHI	19

**LEFT JOIN:** This join returns all the rows of the table on the left side of the join and matching rows for the table on the right side of join. The rows for which there is no matching row on right side, the result-set will contain null. LEFT JOIN is also known as LEFT OUTER JOIN.

**Syntax:** SELECT

table1.column1,table1.column2,table2.column1,....

FROM table1

LEFT JOIN table2

ON table1.matching\_column = table2.matching\_column;

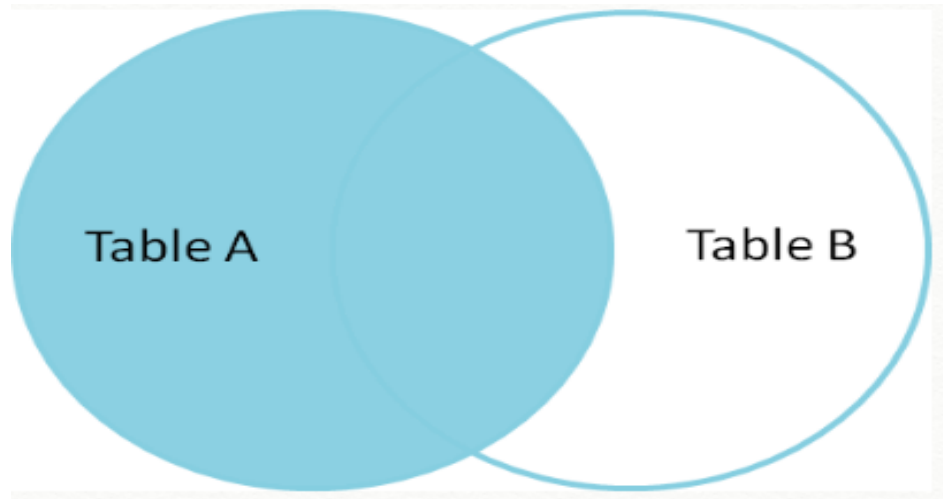
table1: First table.

table2: Second table

matching\_column: Column common to both the tables.

SEP





**Example Queries(LEFT JOIN):**  
SELECT  
Student.NAME,StudentCourse.COURSE\_ID  
FROM Student  
LEFT JOIN StudentCourse  
ON StudentCourse.ROLL\_NO = Student.ROLL\_NO;

**Output:**

NAME	COURSE_ID
HARSH	1
PRATIK	2
RIYANKA	2
DEEP	3
SAPTARHI	1
DHANRAJ	NULL
ROHIT	NULL
NIRAJ	NULL

**RIGHT JOIN:** RIGHT JOIN is similar to LEFT JOIN. This join returns all the rows of the table on the right side of the join and matching rows for the table on the left side of join. The rows for which there is no matching row on left side, the result-set will contain null. RIGHT JOIN is also known as RIGHT OUTER JOIN.

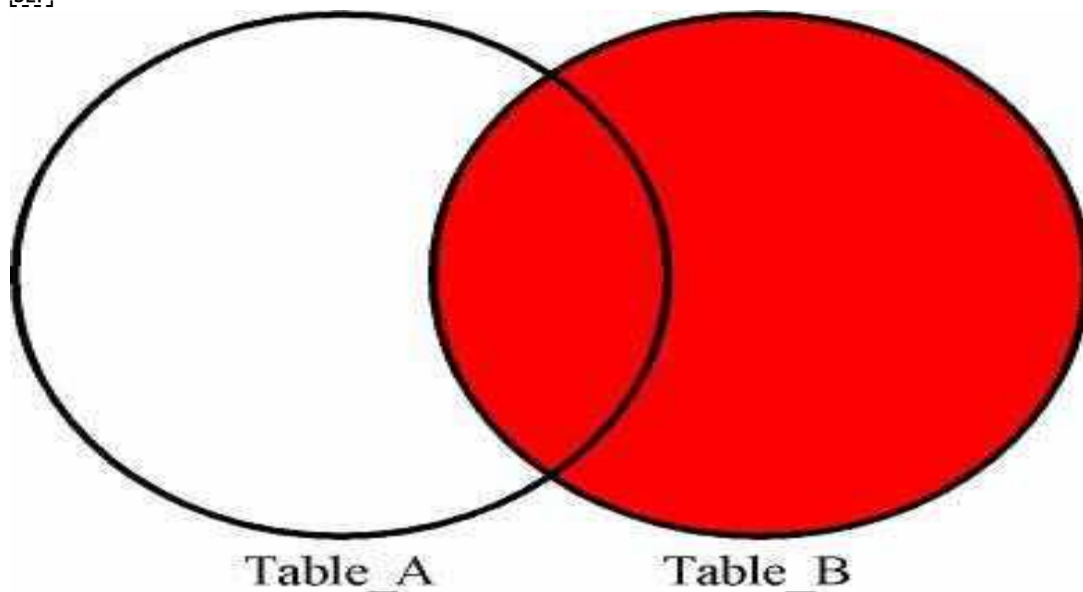
**Syntax:** SELECT  
table1.column1,table1.column2,table2.column1,...  
FROM table1  
RIGHT JOIN table2  
ON table1.matching\_column = table2.matching\_column;

table1: First table.

table2: Second table

matching\_column: Column common to both the tables.

[L  
SEP]



[L  
SEP]

**Example Queries(RIGHT JOIN):** [L  
SEP] SELECT  
Student.NAME,StudentCourse.COURSE\_ID  
FROM Student

RIGHT JOIN StudentCourse

ON StudentCourse.ROLL\_NO = Student.ROLL\_NO;

**Output:**

NAME	COURSE_ID
HARSH	1
PRATIK	2
RIYANKA	2
DEEP	3
SAPTARHI	1
NULL	4
NULL	5
NULL	4

**FULL JOIN:** FULL JOIN creates the result-set by combining result of both LEFT JOIN and RIGHT JOIN. The result-set will contain all the rows from both the tables. The rows for which there is no matching, the result-set will contain NULL values.

**Syntax:** SELECT

table1.column1,table1.column2,table2.column1,....

FROM table1

FULL JOIN table2

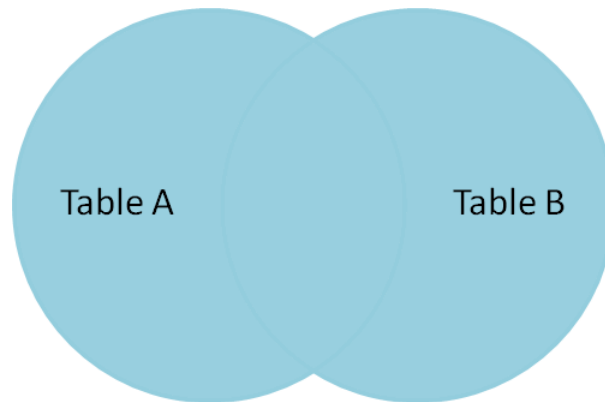
ON table1.matching\_column = table2.matching\_column;

table1: First table.

table2: Second table

matching\_column: Column common to both the tables.

[L]  
[SEP]



[L]  
[SEP]

**Example Queries(FULL JOIN):** [L]  
[SEP] SELECT  
Student.NAME, StudentCourse.COURSE\_ID  
FROM Student  
FULL JOIN StudentCourse  
ON StudentCourse.ROLL\_NO = Student.ROLL\_NO;

[L]  
[SEP]

**Output:** [L]  
[SEP]

NAME	COURSE_ID
HARSH	1
PRATIK	2
RIYANKA	2
DEEP	3
SAPTARHI	1
DHANRAJ	<i>NULL</i>
ROHIT	<i>NULL</i>
NIRAJ	<i>NULL</i>
<i>NULL</i>	9
<i>NULL</i>	10
<i>NULL</i>	11

Consider the following relations containing student class information:

Student (snum: integer, sname: string, major: string, level: string, age: integer)

Class (cname: string, meets at: time, room: string, fid: integer)

Enrolled (snum: integer, cname: string)

Faculty (fid: integer, fname: string, deptid: integer)

## 11. Grouping the result of query - GROUP BY clause and HAVING clause

The **GROUP BY Clause** is used to **group** rows with same values.

The **GROUP BY Clause** is used together with the SQL **SELECT** statement.

The **SELECT** statement used in the **GROUP BY clause** can only be used contain column names, aggregate functions, constants and expressions.

### Syntax

SELECT statements... GROUP BY column\_name1 [, column\_name2,...] [HAVING condition];

### **Example:**

Find the names of all classes that either meet in room R128 or have five or more students enrolled.

```
SQL>SELECT C.cname FROM Class C
```

```
WHERE C.room = 'R128' OR C.cname IN (SELECT E.cname
```

```
FROM Enrolled E GROUP BY E.cname HAVING COUNT (*) >= 5)
```

## 12. Query multiple tables using NATURAL and OUTER JOIN operation.

### Natural JOIN

Natural Join is a type of Inner join which is based on column having same name and same datatype present in both the tables to be joined.

**The syntax for Natural Join is,**

```
SELECT ATTRIBUTE
```

```
FROM TABLE1 NATURAL JOIN TABLE2;
```

**EXAMPLE:**

```
SELECT C. cname FROM Class C, faculty f  
faculty NATURAL JOIN class;
```

**OUTER JOIN**

Outer Join is based on both matched and unmatched data. Outer Joins subdivide further into,

Left Outer Join

Right Outer Join

Full Outer Join

**RIGHT Outer Join**

The right outer join returns a result set table with the matched data from the two tables being joined, then the remaining rows of the right table and null for the remaining left table's columns

**SYNTAX**

```
SELECT * FROM Table Name RIGHT OUTER JOIN class ON (Table1.attribute = Table2.attribute);
```

**EXAMPLE****LEFT Outer Join**

The left outer join returns a result set table with the matched data from the two tables and then the remaining rows of the left table and null from the right table's columns.

**SYNTAX:**

```
SELECT * FROM table1 Left OUTER JOIN table2 ON (Table1.attribute = Table2.attribute);
```

**EXAMPLE:**

```
SELECT * FROM faculty Left OUTER JOIN class ON (class.fid = faculty.fid);
```

**Full Outer Join**

The full outer join returns a result set table with the matched data of two table then remaining rows of both left table and then the right table.

**SYNTAX**

```
SELECT * FROM table1 FULL OUTER JOIN table2 ON (Table1.attribute = Table2.attribute);
```

**EXAMPLE**

```
SELECT * FROM faculty FULL OUTER JOIN class ON (class.fid = faculty.fid);
```





ROLL_NO	NAME	ADDRESS	PHONE	Age
1	HARSH	DELHI	XXXXXXXXXX	18
2	PRATIK	BIHAR	XXXXXXXXXX	19
3	RIYANKA	SILIGURI	XXXXXXXXXX	20
4	DEEP	RAMNAGAR	XXXXXXXXXX	18
5	SAPTARHI	KOLKATA	XXXXXXXXXX	19
6	DHANRAJ	BARABAJAR	XXXXXXXXXX	20
7	ROHIT	BALURGHAT	XXXXXXXXXX	18
8	NIRAJ	ALIPUR	XXXXXXXXXX	19

### Student

COURSE_ID	ROLL_NO
1	1
2	2
2	3
3	4
1	5
4	9
5	10
4	11

### StudentCourse

The simplest Join is INNER JOIN.

1. **INNER JOIN:** The INNER JOIN keyword selects all rows from both the tables as long as the condition satisfies. This keyword will create the result-set by combining all rows from both the tables where the condition satisfies i.e value of the common field will be same.

#### Syntax:

```
SELECT table1.column1,table1.column2,table2.column1,....
FROM table1
INNER JOIN table2
```

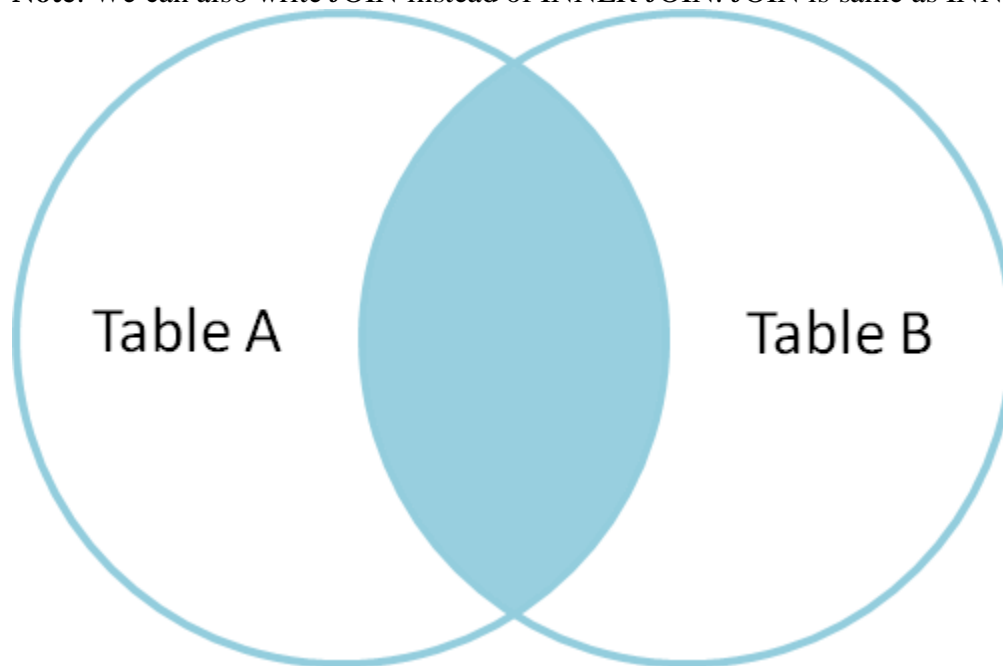
ON table1.matching\_column = table2.matching\_column;

**table1:** First table.

**table2:** Second table

**matching\_column:** Column common to both the tables

**Note:** We can also write JOIN instead of INNER JOIN. JOIN is same as INNER JOIN.



#### Example Queries(INNER JOIN)

- This query will show the names and age of students enrolled in different courses.

```
SELECT StudentCourse.COURSE_ID, Student.NAME, Student.AGE FROM Student  
INNER JOIN StudentCourse
```

```
ON Student.ROLL_NO = StudentCourse.ROLL_NO;
```

Output:

COURSE_ID	NAME	Age
1	HARSH	18
2	PRATIK	19
2	RIYANKA	20
3	DEEP	18
1	SAPTARHI	19

**LEFT JOIN:** This join returns all the rows of the table on the left side of the join and matching rows for the table on the right side of join. The rows for which there is no matching row on right side, the result-set will contain *null*. LEFT JOIN is also known as LEFT OUTER JOIN.**Syntax:**

```
SELECT table1.column1,table1.column2,table2.column1,....  
FROM table1
```

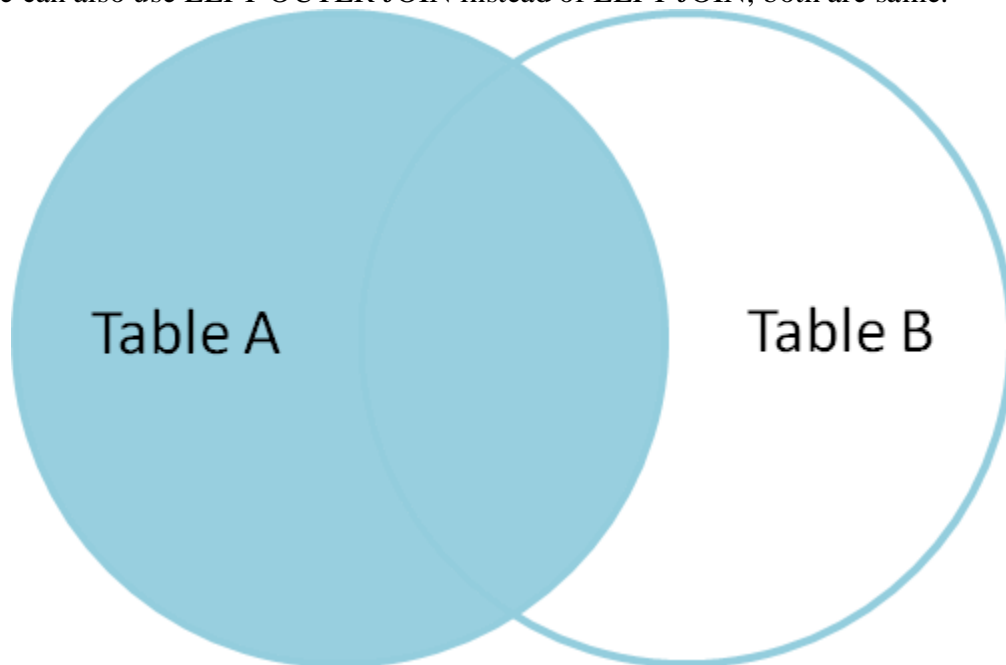
LEFT JOIN table2  
ON table1.matching\_column = table2.matching\_column;

table1: First table.

table2: Second table

matching\_column: Column common to both the tables.

**Note:** We can also use LEFT OUTER JOIN instead of LEFT JOIN, both are same.



**Example Queries(LEFT JOIN):**

```
SELECT Student.NAME, StudentCourse.COURSE_ID  
FROM Student  
LEFT JOIN StudentCourse  
ON StudentCourse.ROLL_NO = Student.ROLL_NO;
```

OUTPUT:

NAME	COURSE_ID
HARSH	1
PRATIK	2
RIYANKA	2
DEEP	3
SAPTARHI	1
DHANRAJ	NULL
ROHIT	NULL
NIRAJ	NULL

**RIGHT JOIN:** RIGHT JOIN is similar to LEFT JOIN. This join returns all the rows of the table on the right side of the join and matching rows for the table on the left side of join. The rows for which there is no matching row on left side, the result-set will contain *null*. RIGHT JOIN is also known as RIGHT OUTER JOIN.

**Syntax:**

SELECT table1.column1,table1.column2,table2.column1,....

FROM table1

RIGHT JOIN table2

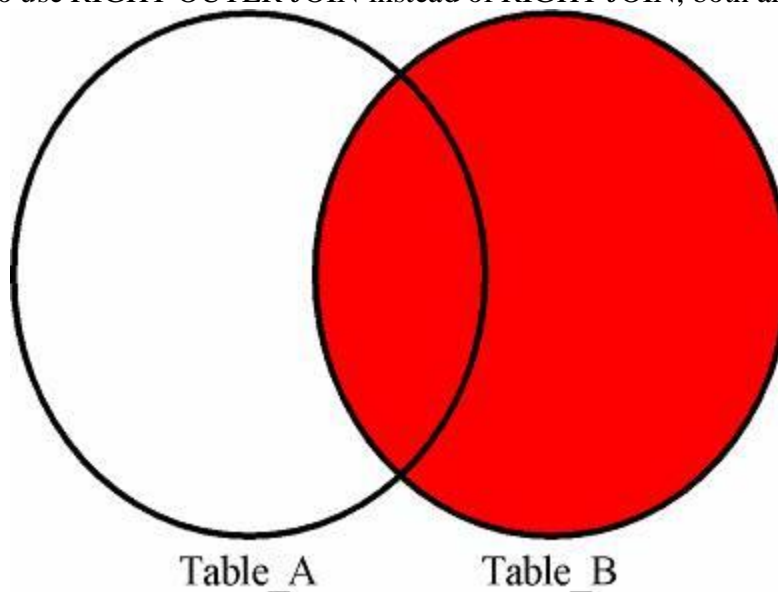
ON table1.matching\_column = table2.matching\_column;

table1: First table.

table2: Second table

matching\_column: Column common to both the tables.

**Note:** We can also use RIGHT OUTER JOIN instead of RIGHT JOIN, both are same.



**Example Queries(RIGHT JOIN):**

```
SELECT Student.NAME,StudentCourse.COURSE_ID
FROM Student
RIGHT JOIN StudentCourse
ON StudentCourse.ROLL_NO = Student.ROLL_NO;
```

OUTPUT:

NAME	COURSE_ID
HARSH	1
PRATIK	2
RIYANKA	2
DEEP	3
SAPTARHI	1
NULL	4
NULL	5
NULL	4

**FULL JOIN:** FULL JOIN creates the result-set by combining result of both LEFT JOIN and RIGHT JOIN. The result-set will contain all the rows from both the tables. The rows for which there is no matching, the result-set will contain *NULL* values.**Syntax:**

```
SELECT table1.column1,table1.column2,table2.column1,....
```

```
FROM table1
```

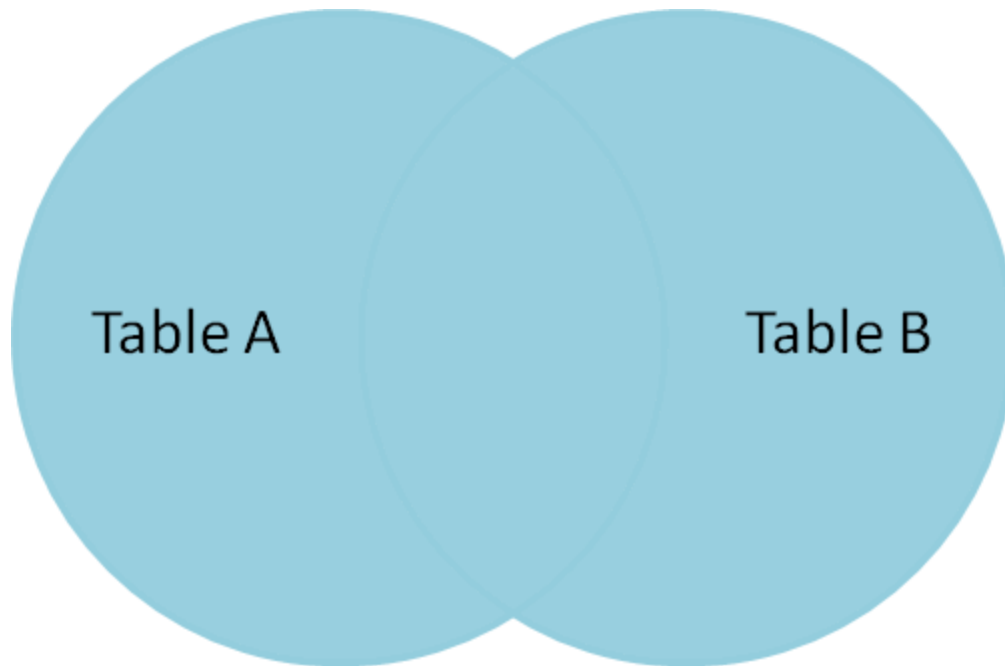
```
FULL JOIN table2
```

```
ON table1.matching_column = table2.matching_column;
```

table1: First table.

table2: Second table

matching\_column: Column common to both the tables.



**Example Queries(FULL JOIN):**

```
SELECT Student.NAME,StudentCourse.COURSE_ID  
FROM Student  
FULL JOIN StudentCourse  
ON StudentCourse.ROLL_NO = Student.ROLL_NO;
```

OUTPUT:

NAME	COURSE_ID
HARSH	1
PRATIK	2
RIYANKA	2
DEEP	3
SAPTARHI	1
DHANRAJ	NULL
ROHIT	NULL
NIRAJ	NULL
NULL	9
NULL	10
NULL	11