

SQL SERVER NOTES

INTRODUCTION TO DBMS

Why DBMS: Human needs have increased tremendously. Now people are doing much more composite tasks than ever before. The society has become very complex; a person has to work with huge amount of information every day. In order to work with the enormous information, we must have a system where we can store, manipulate and share the information all over the world. It is one of the core reasons for introducing Database Management Systems (DBMS) as well as Relational Database Management Systems (RDBMS) now-a-days.

So, one thing is clear to us that we store and manipulate data / information into a database, where the database contains various types of tables for storing various types of data / information.

Data:

- Whatever we are inputting from the keyboard is known as Data. It can also be called as RAWFACTS / FIGURES
- Data never provides any meaning for us

Information:

- Processed Data is known as Information
- Information always gives meaning for us

Database:

- Collection of information belongs to a particular topic (an organization) written in a predetermined manner stored at a particular place so, as per easy retrieval

DBMS (Data Base Management System):

- It is a software which is present inside the database, which can maintain and manage the data within the database

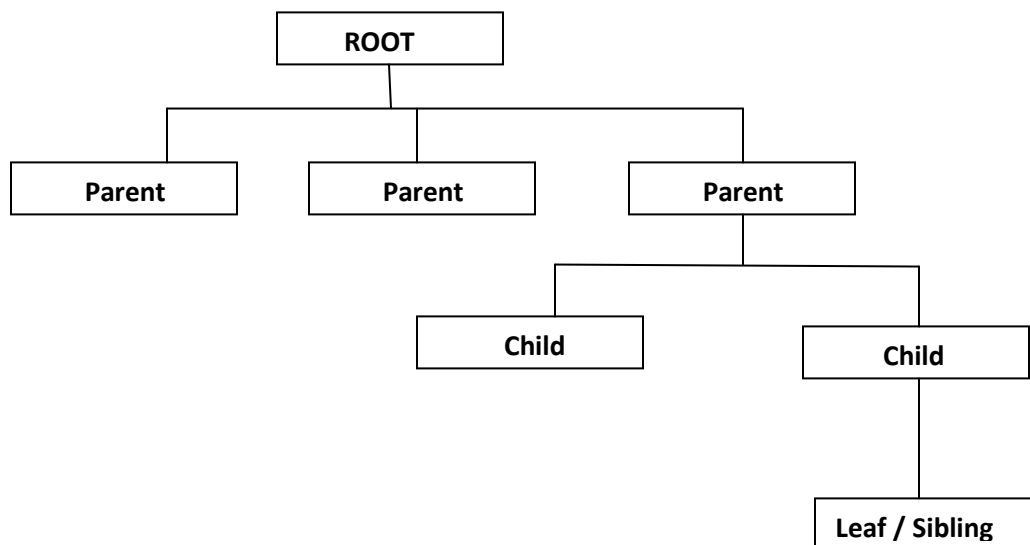
Types of DBMS:

1) FMS / FDMS (File Management System /File Management Database System):

- This is first model the released into the market in 1950's. In this model there is always arranged in a continue stream of character (or) in a sequential fashion (or) manner
- The Main disadvantage of this model is whenever we need to retrieve any data we have to start the searching from the beginning of the file so, it automatically leads to increases the searching time

2) HMS/HDMS (Hierarchy Management System / Hierarchy Database Management System):

- This model was developed by IBM in 1960's, When they developed a project called IMS (Information Management System)
- In this model data is always arranged in the form of a tree structure in different levels
- The top level can be called as root. The 2nd, 3rd, 4th Level can be called as parent, child and sibling levels respectively
- The main advantage of this model is we can easily retrieve the value without wasting much time



Drawback:

- Only one person can share the database simultaneously
- If you want to add the new level in between the existing levels. The user has to reconstruct the entire tree structure but it is “tedious and time taking process”

3) NDBS (Network Database Management System):

- This model was developed by IBM in 1969, when developing a project is called IMS (Information Management System)
- This model was developed on the basis of an Operating System called MULTICS (Multiplex Information Computing System)
- The main advantage of this model is more than one person can share the database concurrently (Simultaneously)

Disadvantage:

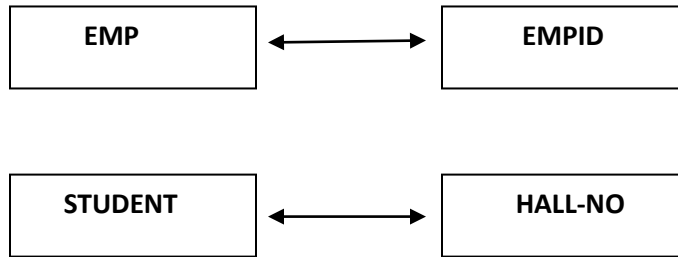
- There is no proper security for the centralized database
- Redundancy of the database is increased
- It occupies lot of memory and it leads to decrease system performance and increase the inconsistency

4) RDMS (Relational Database Management System):

- This model was developed by a German scientist Mr. EF.CODD in 1970
- Here relation can be defined as commonness between objects these relations are classified into 3 types
 - One to One relation
 - One to Many relation / Many to One relation
 - Many to Many relation

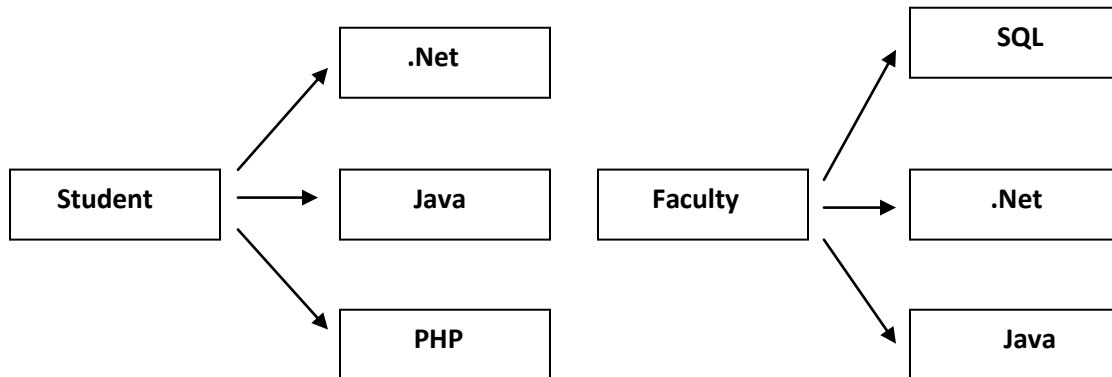
One – One relationship:

- In this relationship one object can have a relationship with another object



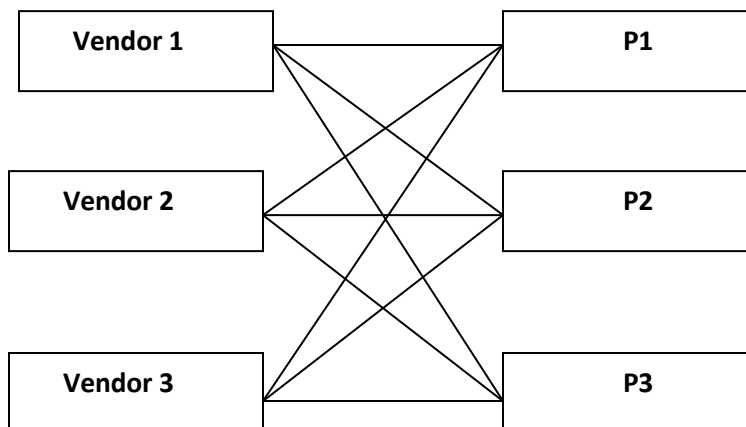
One - Many relationships:

- In this relationship one object can have a relationship with many objects



Many – Many relationship:

- In this relationship many vendors (or) many objects can have the relationship with many other objects



- All the above relationships can be called as “Degree of Relationships”
- This model was developed on the basis of a mathematical concept can be called as “Relation Algebra” (i.e. sets & Relations)

CODD RULES: **E.F. Codd**, the famous mathematician has introduced 12 rules for the relational model for databases commonly known as **Codd's rules**. The rules mainly define what is required for a DBMS for it to be considered relational, i.e., an RDBMS. The rules are as follows:-

1. Information Rule
2. Guaranteed Access Rule
3. Systematic treatment of null values
4. Dynamic On-line Catalog Based on the Relational Model
5. Data Sublanguage Rule
6. View Updating Rule
7. High-level Insert, Update, and Delete
8. Physical Data Independence
9. Logical Data Independence
10. Integrity Independence
11. Distribution Independence
12. No subversion Rule

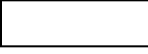

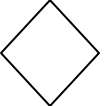

Properties of RDBMS:

- In this model data should be stored in the form of tables
- A table can be defined as collection of rows & columns
- The horizontal lines are known as rows/ records / tuples
- The vertical lines are known as columns / fields / Attributes
- The intersection of rows & columns is known as cell
- A cell is a place where we can store our actual data
- The other name of table can be called as “Entity”
- Table should not contain any duplicate columns
- When we define the column in the table user no need to follow any specific order
- When we insert the records into the table user no need to follow any specific order
- Database should not contain duplicate values

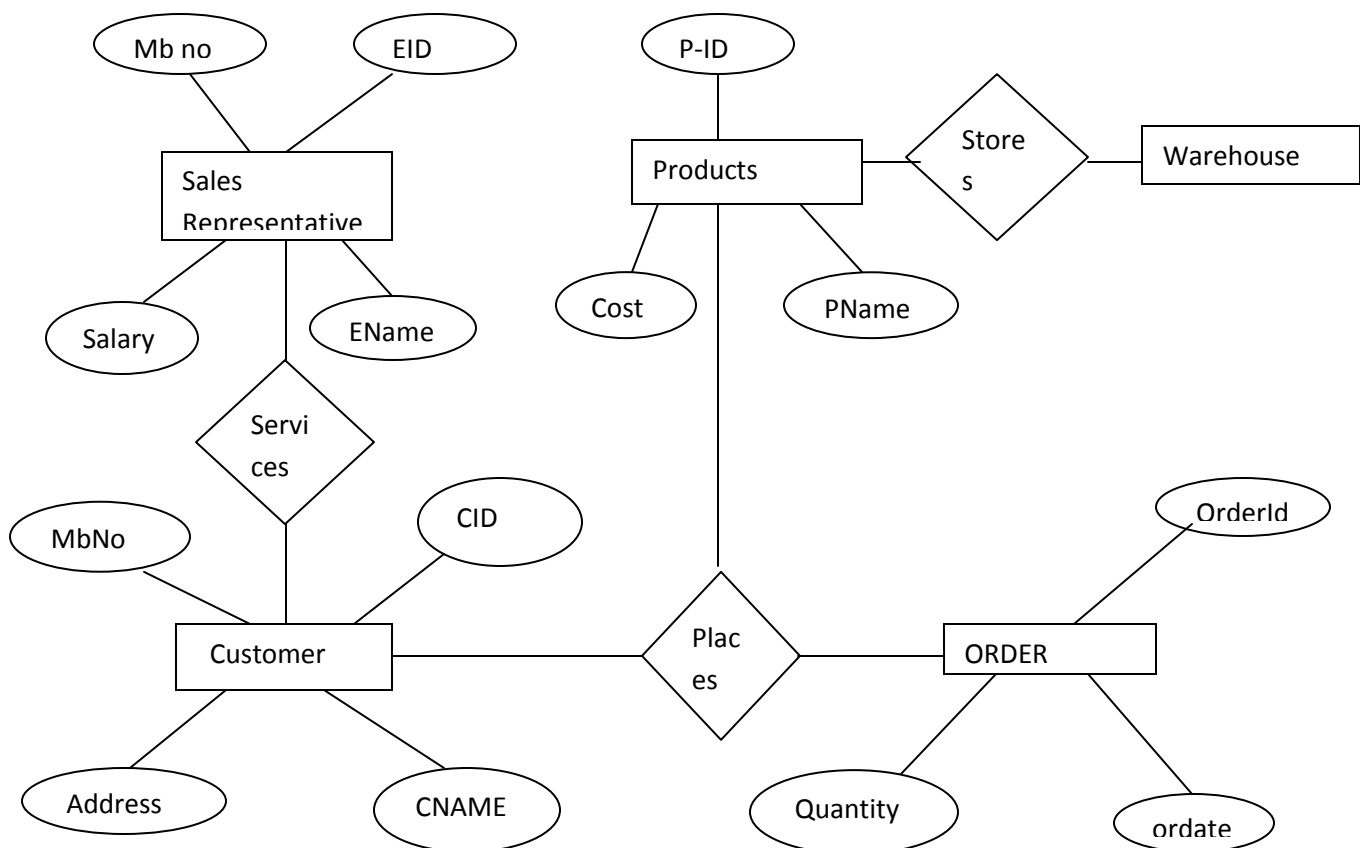
ER Diagram (Entity & Relationship diagram):

This is the pictorial representation of Manual database. This concept was developed by a US Scientist Mr.Chen

➤ Whenever we design ERD's the user has to follow the following symbols

-  Rectangle box represent Entity
-  Oval represent Attribute
-  Diamond represents Relationship Name
-  Arrow represent Connection

➤ Draw an ER-Diagram to represent the relationship between sales representative & the customer



INTRODUCTION TO SQL SERVER

SQL SERVER: SQL Server is an RDBMS product which was designed and developed by Microsoft Company.

SQL Server will provide Graphical User Interface (GUI) facilities it means that user can interact with the database using icons without remember any commands.

SQL Server will run only windows operating system i.e. it is a platform dependent.

The first version of SQL SERVER is 1.0 was released in 1989 and up to now 11.0 versions are available. Those are...

VERSIONS	YEAR	RELEASE NAME	CODE NAME
1.0	1989	SQL Server 1.0	-
1.1	1991	SQL Server 1.1	-
4.21	1993	SQL Server 4.21	SQLNT
6.0	1995	SQL Server 6.0	SQL95
6.5	1996	SQL Server 6.5	Hydra
7.0	1998	SQL Server 7.0	Sphinx
8.0	2000	SQL Server 2000	Shiloh
9.0	2005	SQL Server 2005	Yukon
10.0	2008	SQL Server 2008	Katmai
10.5	2010	SQL Server 2008 R2	Kilimanjaro
11.0	2012	SQL Server 2012	Denali

Working with SQL SERVER: SQL Server is a collection of databases where database is a collection of various objects like Tables, Views, Procedures and Functions etc.

To work on SQL Server we use SQL Server Management Studio. It is a tool used for the SQL server. If we connect to server it shows a window with

- Server Type
- Server Name
- Server Authentication
- Username & Password

Server Type: SQL server contains five types of servers those are

- **Database Engine:** The Database Engine is the core service for storing, processing, and securing data (or) it is used to store, manage and to access the data from the database.
- **Analysis Services:** It is used for data warehouse it will show the data in three dimensions (Rows, Columns and New dimension).
- **Reporting Services:** It is a reporting tool used to generate reports in various formats such as creating interactive, tabular, graphical, multidimensional, or XML-based data sources. Reports can include rich data visualization, including charts, maps etc.
- **Integration Services:** It is used to convert tables from relational database to another relational database for e.g. If we want to convert SQL Server tables to ORACLE tables or My SQL tables then will be used.
- **SQL Server Compact Edition:** It is used to develop mobile application or mobile software.

Server Authentication: We have two types of authentications are

Windows Authentication: Windows Authentication work on the user admin and when we work on window authentication there is no required user name and password because operating system will generate User Id and Password by default.

SQL Server Authentication: SQL Server will work on the current user and when we work on SQL Server authentication then user should enter User Id and Password (These User ID and Password will give at the time of SQL Server installation).

Step To Connect To SQL SERVER:

Go to start → Go to programs → Go to Microsoft SQL Server 2008 R2/12 → Click on SQL server management studio → Click on connect button.

Object Explorer Window: This window contain Database, Security, Server Objects, Replication and Management options.

SQL Server contains two types of databases these are

- **System Database:** The system database include the following four databases
 - **Master:** It is used to manage system level information of SQL server.
 - **Model:** It is used as a template for all new creating databases in SQL Server.
 - **Msdb:** It is used to store the alerts and job information contains the SQL commands which are executed by user.
 - **Tempdb:** When ever SQL server is started tempdb will be created in SQL server. It is used to store temporary tables once we restart the server the tempdb database is destroyed.
- **User Database:** These databases are created and manage by the user for storing their objects like tables, views, procedure etc.

Steps to Create User Database:

Go to open SQL server management studio→Click on Connect button to connect server→Go to Object Explorer window→Select Database and click on right mouse button→ Click on new database option→ Type database name in database name textbox control→Click on Ok button

- Whenever we create a database on SQL Server, it will generate two database files are

Primary Data file: It contain the start up information of the database and used to store database objects like tables, views .This file will saved with an extension .mdf(Master Data file).

Log File: This file contains transaction query information will saved with an extension .Ldf (Log Data file).

Root Location for .mdf and .Ldf files:

C:\Program Files\Microsoft SQL

Server\MSSQL10.MSSQLSERVER\MSSQL\DATA

Data Types in SQL Server: A data type is an attribute that specifies what types of data enter by the user such as integer, character, decimal, date time etc.

- Integer Data Types
- Decimal Data Types
- Money (or) Currency Data Types
- Date & Time Data Types
- Character Data Types
- Binary Data Types

Integer data type: It will allows integer values only such as EID, SID etc

Data Type	Range	Stored Memory
Tiny Int	0-255	1 byte
SmallInt	-32768 to 32767	2 bytes
Int	-2,147,483,648 to 2,147,483,647	4 bytes
Bigint	-9,223,372,036,854,775,808 to 9,223,372,036,854,775,807	8 bytes

Decimal Data Types: These data types will allow only decimal numbers and it can divide into two types but both are same.

- Decimal (P,S) -----> P=Precision & D= Scale
- Numeric (P,S)

Precision: It allows the total number of decimal digits i.e. both left and right side of the decimal point. The default precision is 18 and maximum 38.

Ex of Precision: 3457.78543 ----- Precision =9

Scale: It allows right side digits of decimal point only. The default value of scale is 0.

Ex OF Scale : 3457.78543 ----- Scale = 5

Precision	Stored Memory
1-9	5 bytes
10-19	9 bytes
20-28	13 bytes
29-38	17 bytes

Money Data Type: This data type will allows currency values and it contain two type these are

Data Type	Range	Stored Memory
Small money	-214,748,3648 To 214,748,3647	4 bytes
Money	- 922,337,203,685,477,5808 to 922,337,203,685,477,5807	8 bytes

Date and Time Data Type: These data types are define a particular date and time of the day.

Date: It defines date only the default format of date data type is “yy/mm/dd”

Time: It defines time of the day the default format is “hh/mm/ss.ms”

Date & Time: This will allows the both date and time of the day.

“Yy/mm/dd hh/mm/ss.ms”

Character Data Types:

It allows to enter character values and these are classified into six types.

- **Char (n):** It is a fixed length data type, store the string values in non-Unicode manner i.e.it will take 1 char per 1 byte.
The maximum length of char data type is from 1-8000 bytes
- **Varchar (n/max):** It is a variable length data type, store the string values in non-Unicode manner i.e.it will take 1 char per 1 byte.
The maximum length of Varchar data type is from 1-8000 bytes
- **Text:** It is same as Varchar(max) data type
- **Nchar (n):** It is a fixed length data type, store the string values in Unicode manner i.e.it will take 1 char per 2 bytes.
The maximum length of char data type is from 1-4000 bytes
- **Nvarchar (n/max):** It is a variable length data type, store the string values in Unicode manner i.e.it will take 1 char per 2 byte.
The maximum length of char data type is from 1-4000 bytes
- **Ntext:** It is same as Nvarchar (max) data type .

Binary Data Type: Binary data types are used to store images, videos and audio data. These can be divided into the following types

- **Binary (n):** It is a fixed length data type. The maximum length of binary data type is 1-8000 bytes.
- **Varbinary (n/max):** It is a variable length data type. The maximum length of binary data type is 1-8000 bytes.
- **Image:** it is same as a Varbinary (max)

Note: Instead of text, Ntext and image data types we are using Varchar (max), Nvarchar (max) and Varbinary (max) data types in latest versions of Microsoft SQL server.

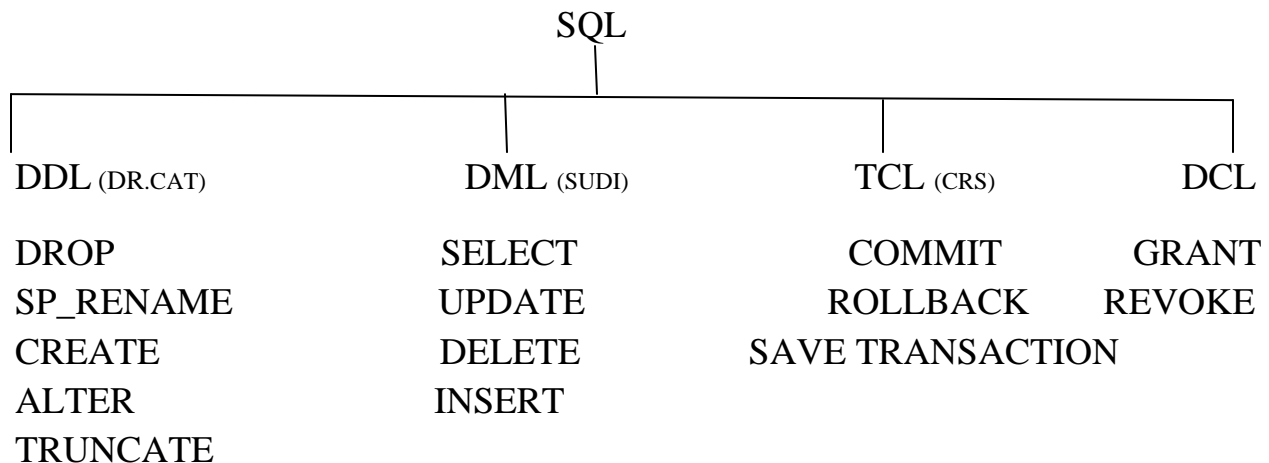
STRUCTURE QUERY LANGUAGE:

It is a non procedural language which is used to communicate with any database such as Oracle, sqlserver etc.

- This Language was developed by the German Scientist Mr. E.F.Codd in 1968
- ANSI (American National Standard Institute) approved this concept and in 1972 sql was released into the market

Features of SQL:

- SQL is not a case sensitive language it means that all the commands of Sql are not case sensitive
- Every command of sql should ends with a semicolon (;) (It is exemption for SQL Server)
- SQL can be pronounced as Sequel (Structured English Query Language)
- SQL can be called as Common Language Interface, which is used to communicate with any type of database
- SQL can be called as NLI (Natural Language Interface). It means that all the SQL Commands are almost similar to normal English language
- Structured query language is mainly divided into 4 sub languages
 1. DDL (Data Definition Language)
 2. DML (Data Manipulation Language)
 3. TCL (Transaction Control Language)
 4. DCL(Data Control Language)



DATA DEFINITION LANGUAGE

Data Definition Language: This is a 1st sub Language in SQL which is used to define the database objects such as table, view etc.

➤ This language contains five commands

1. Create
2. Alter
3. SP_Rename
4. Truncate
5. Drop

1. Create:

➤ This command is used to create the database objects within the database

Syntax: CREATE TABLE <TABLE NAME>

(COL 1 DATA TYPE (size),

COL2 DATA TYPE (size),

:

:

:

:

COLN DATA TYPE (size));

Ex: CREATE TABLE EMP (EID Int, ENAME Varchar (15), SAL
DECIMAL (6, 2));

Rules for Creating a Table:

- Table name must be unique under the database.
- Never start table name with numeric or special characters except underscore '_ '.
- Do not use space in table name if we want give space in table name then use underscore symbol only.
- Every table name should contain minimum one character to maximum 128 characters.
- The maximum no. of columns a table can have 1024 columns.

2. ALTER:

- This command is used to modify the structure of a table using this command, we can perform four different operations
 - Using this command we can increase (or) decrease the size of the data type & also we can change the data type from old data type to new data type
 - We can add a new column to the existing table
 - We can change the column name from old column name to new column name
 - We can remove the column from the existing table
- This command contains 4 sub commands
 1. ALTER- ALTER COLUMN
 2. ALTER- ADD
 3. SP_RENAME
 4. ALTER- DROP

a. ALTER-ALTER COLUMN:

- **Syntax:** ALTER TABLE <TABLE NAME> ALTER COLUMN <COLUMN NAME> DATA TYPE (SIZE)
- **Ex:** ALTER TABLE EMP ALTER COLUMN ENAME char (25);

b. ALTER-ADD:

- **Syntax:** ALTER TABLE <TABLE NAME> ADD <COLUMNNAME> DATA TYPE(size);
- **Ex:** ALTER TABLE EMP ADD DEPTNO int;

c. ALTER-DROP:

- **Syntax:** ALTER TABLE <TABLE NAME> DROP COLUMN <COLUMN NAME>;
- **Ex:** ALTER TABLE EMP DROP COLUMN SAL;

d. SP_RENAME:

- **Syntax:** SP_RENAME 'TABLENAME.OLDCOLUMN', 'NEW COLUMN NAME', 'COLUMN',;
- **Ex:** SP_RENAME 'EMP.SAL', 'SALARY', 'COLUMN'

3. SP_RENAME:

- This command is used to change the table name from old table name to new table name
- **Syntax:** SP_Rename 'old table name', 'New table name'
- **Ex:** SP_Rename 'EMP', 'EMP1'

4. TRUNCATE:

- This command is used for to delete all the records from existing table permanently
- **Syntax:** TRUNCATE TABLE <TABLE NAME>
- **Ex:** TRUNCATE TABLE EMP;

5. DROP:

- This command is used to remove the table permanently from the database
- **Syntax:** DROP TABLE <TABLE NAME>
- **Ex:** DROP TABLE EMP;

Note: SP_help: This command is used to see the structure of table

- **Syntax:** SP_help <table name>
- **Ex:** SP_help EMP

Note: Syntax to view tables in the current database.

- **select * from sysobjects where XTYPE='u'**

DATA MANIPULATING LANGUAGE

Data Manipulating Language: This is the 2nd sub language in SQL, which is used to manipulate the data within database. This Language contains 4 commands

1. Insert
2. Update
3. Delete
4. Select

1. INSERT:

- Using this command we can Insert the records into the existing table
- We can insert the records into the table in two methods
 - Explicit method
 - Implicit method

Explicit method:

- In this method user has to enter all the values into all the columns without anything omitting (or) left any column data
- **Syntax:** INSERT INTO <TABLE NAME> VALUES <VAL1, VAL2,VALN>;
- **Ex:** INSERT INTO EMP VALUES (101,'RAJ',9500);
1 Row(s) affected

Implicit method:

- In this method we can enter the values into the required columns in the table, so that user can omit (or) left some columns data while he enters the records into the table
- If the user omit any column data in the table then it automatically takes NULL
- **Syntax:** INSERT INTO <TABLE NAME> (COL1, COL2....COLN) VALUES (VAL1, VAL2,... VALN);
- **Ex:** INSERT INTO EMP (EID, SAL) VALUES (106,9999);

2. UPDATE:

- This command is used to modify the data in the existing table
- By using this command we can modify all the records in the table & also specific records in the table (Using 'where' clause)
- **Syntax:** UPDATE <TABLE NAME> SET COL=VALUE;
- **Ex:** UPDATE EMP SET SAL=10000;

Syntax change for more than one data simultaneously

- **Syntax:** UPDATE <TABLE NAME> SET COL1=VALUE, COL2=VALUE.....COLN=VALUE;
- **Ex:** UPDATE EMP SET EID=007,SAL=10000;

3. DELETE:

- This command is used to delete the records from existing table
- Using this command we can delete all the records and also to delete specific record (by using 'where' clause)
- **Syntax:** DELETE FROM <TABLE NAME>
- **Ex:** DELETE FROM EMP;
10 row(s) affected

SRNO	TRUNCATE	DELETE
01	It is a DDL command	It is a DML command
02	It is a permanent deletion	It is temporary deletion
03	Specific record deletion is not possible	We can delete the specific record

4. SELECT:

- This command is used to retrieve the data from existing table.
- Using this command we can retrieve all the records & also specific records from existing table (by using 'where' clause)
- Using this command we can retrieve the data from the table in 3 ways
 1. Projection
 2. Selection
 3. Joins
- **Syntax:** SELECT * FROM <TABLE NAME>
- **Ex:** SELECT * FROM EMP;
- * represents all columns

Projection:

- Retrieving the data from specific columns is known as Projection
- **Syntax:** SELECT COL1,COL2.....COLN FROM <TABLE NAME>
- **Ex:** SELECT EID,ENAME FROM EMP;

Selection:

- Retrieving the data based on some condition is called selection
- In SQL, whenever we need to check a condition, we need to use a special clause called 'where'
- **Syntax:** SELECT * FROM <TABLENAME> WHERE (CONDITION);
- **Ex:** SELECT * FROM EMP WHERE EID=101;

WHERE CLAUSE:

- This clause is used to check the condition based on the condition, we can retrieve, update, delete specific records in the table
- So we can apply the where clause only in select, update & delete

Select Command With Where clause:

- **Syntax:** SELECT * FROM <TABLE NAME> WHERE <CONDITION>
- **Ex:** SELECT * FROM EMP WHERE EID=102;

Update Command With Where clause:

- **Syntax:** UPDATE <TABLE NAME> SET <COLUMN NAME>=VALUE WHERE (CONDITION);
- **Ex:** UPDATE EMP SET ENAME="sai" WHERE EID=102;

Delete Command With Where clause:

- **Syntax:** DELETE FROM <TABLE NAME>WHERE <CONDITION>
- **Ex:** DELETE FROM EMP WHERE EID=102;

ALIAS:

- ALIAS is a duplicate name (or) alternate name for the original column name (or) Table name (or) an expression name.

- **Column level Alias:**
- **Syntax:** SELECT COLUMN NAME AS “ALIAS NAME”,
COLUMN NAME AS “ALIAS NAME”,
:
:
COLUMN NAME AS “ALIAS NAME” FROM <TABLE NAME>;
- **EX:** SELECT EID AS “EMPLOYEE ID”, ENAME AS “EMPLOYEE NAME”, SAL AS “SALARY” FROM EMP;
- **NOTE:** In the above example the keyword ‘as’ is optional
- **EX:** SELECT EID “EMPLOYEE ID”, ENAME “EMPLOYEE NAME”, SAL “SALARY” FROM EMP;
- **NOTE:** In the above example quotations is also optional but there should not be space between column name
- **EX:** SELECT EID EMPLOYEEID, ENAME EMPLOYEENAME, SAL SALARY FROM EMP;
- **Ex:** SELECT EID EMPLOYEEID, ENAME EMPLOYEENAME, SAL SALARY, SAL*12 ANNUALSALARY FROM EMP;
- **EX:** SELECT EID EMPLOYEEID, ENAME EMPLOYEENAME, SAL SALARY FROM EMP WHERE ANNUALSALARY > 115000
- In the above example returns the runtime error message invalid column name ‘annual salary’ because we cannot check the conditions on Alias name

IDENTITY: It is use to generate unique values in sequential order without user interaction. The default value of identity is Identity (1, 1).

Syntax: Identity (seed, increment)

Ex: CREATE TABLE EMP (EID INT IDENTITY (100, 1), ENAME VARCHAR (50));

Built In Functions(System Functions) IN SQL: SQL server provide number of built in functions like mathematical functions, character functions, date and time functions, aggregative functions,conversion functions etc.these can be used to perform certain operations and return a value.

Syntax: SELECT <Function Name> [Expressions]

Mathematical Functions: These functions perform a calculation based on input values provided as arguments, and return a numeric value.

ABS (): Returns the absolute, positive value of the given numeric expression.

Ex: select ABS(-15)---- 15
select ABS(45)----- 45

CEILING (): Returns the smallest integer greater than, or equal to, the given numeric expression.

Ex: select ceiling(15.000)----15
select ceiling(15.0001)----16
select ceiling(-12.34)-----(-12)

FLOOR (): Returns the largest integer less than or equal to the given numeric expression.

Ex: select floor(15.000)---15
select floor(15.0001)----15
select floor(-12.34)----(-13)

SQUARE (): Returns the square of the given expression.

Ex: select SQUARE(5)---25

SQRT (): Returns the square root of the given expression.

Ex: select SQUARE(25)---5

SIGN (): Returns the positive (+1), zero (0), or negative (-1) sign of the given expression.

Ex: select SIGN(42)-----1
select SIGN(0)-----0
select SIGN(-42)-----(-1)

PI (): Returns the constant value of PI.

Ex: select PI()-----3.14159265358979

LOG (): Returns the natural logarithm of the given expression.

Ex: select LOG(2)----- 0.693147180559945

LOG 10(): Returns the base-10 logarithm of the given expression.

Ex: select LOG10(10)----1

SIN (): Returns the trigonometric sine of the given angle (in radians) in an approximate numeric expression.

Ex: select SIN (0) -----0

COS (): A mathematic function that returns the trigonometric cosine of the given angle (in radians) in the given expression.

Ex: select COS (0) -----1

TAN (): Returns the tangent of the input expression.

Ex: select TAN (0) -----0

String Functions: These functions perform an operation on a string input value and return a string or numeric value.

ASCII (): Returns the ASCII code value of the leftmost character of a character expression.

Ex: Select ASCII ('Z') -----90

CHAR (): A string function that converts an **int** ASCII code to a character.

Ex: Select CHAR (90) -----Z

CHARINDEX (): Returns the starting position of the specified expression in a character string.

Ex: Select CHARINDEX ('S','SUDHAKAR') -----1

LEFT (): Returns the left part of a character string with the specified number of characters.

Ex: Select LEFT ('SUDHAKAR', 5) ----SUDHA

RIGHT (): Returns the right part of a character string with the specified number of characters.

Ex: Select RIGHT ('SUDHAKAR', 3) -----KAR

LEN (): Returns the number of characters, rather than the number of bytes, of the given string expression.

Ex: Select LEN ('WELCOME') -----7

LOWER (): Returns a character expression after converting uppercase character data to lowercase.

Ex: Select LOWER ('SAI') -----sai

UPPER (): Returns a character expression with lowercase character data converted to uppercase.

Ex: Select UPPER ('sai') -----SAI

LTRIM (): Returns a character expression after removing leading blanks.

Ex: Select LTRIM (' HELLO') -----HELLO

RTRIM (): Returns a character string after truncating all trailing blanks.

Ex: Select RTRIM ('HELLO ') -----HELLO

REPLACE (): Replaces all occurrences of the second given string expression in the first string expression with a third expression.

Ex: Select REPLACE ('JACK AND JUE', 'J', 'BL') -----BLACK AND BLUE

REPLICATE (): Repeats a character expression for a specified number of times.

Ex: Select REPLICATE ('SAI', 3) -----SAISAI

REVERSE (): Returns the reverse of a character expression.

Ex: Select REVERSE ('HELLO') -----OLLEH

SPACE (): Returns a string of repeated spaces.

Ex: Select ('SAI'+SPACE (50) +'SUDHAKAR') -----SAI SUDHAKAR

Date and Time Functions: These functions perform an operation on a date and time input value and return a string, numeric, or date and time value.

GETDATE (): Returns the current system date and time in the SQL Server standard internal format for date time values.

Ex: Select GETDATE () ----- 2014-02-15 15:35:22.670

DAY (): Returns an integer representing the day date part of the specified date.

Ex: Select DAY (get date ())

MONTH (): Returns an integer that represents the month part of a specified date.

Ex: Select MONTH (get date ())

YEAR (): Returns an integer that represents the year part of a specified date.

Ex: Select YEAR (get Date ())

GETUTCDATE (): Returns the date time value representing the current UTC time (Coordinated Universal Time).

Ex: Select GETUTCDATE ();

DATE NAME (): Returns a character string representing the specified date part of the specified date.

Ex: Select DATE NAME (DW, get date ())

DATE PART (): Returns an integer representing the specified date part of the specified date.

Ex: Select DATEPART (DD, get date ())

DATE ADD (): Returns a new date time value based on adding an interval to the specified date.

Ex: Select DATEADD (DD, 5, get date ())

DATE DIFF (): Returns the difference between the start and end dates in the give date part format.

Ex: Select DATEDIFF (MM, '2012-12-15', get date ())

Conversion Functions: These functions are used to convert one data type to another. We have two conversion functions are CAST and CONVERT both provide similar functionality.

CAST (): Convert to one data type to another type.

Syntax: CAST (Expression as data type [size])

Ex: Select CAST (10.2587 as Int) -----10

CONVERT (): Convert function can be used to display date time data in different format.

Syntax: Convert (Data type [size], Expression, Style value)

Ex: Select Convert (Varchar (24), get date (), 113)

The table below represents the style values for date time or small date time conversion to character data:

Sno	Value	Output	Standard
-	0 or 100	mon dd yyyy hh:mi AM (or PM)	Default
1	101	mm/dd/yy	USA
2	102	yy.mm.dd	ANSI
3	103	dd/mm/yy	British/French
4	104	dd.mm.yy	German
5	105	dd-mm-yy	Italian
6	106	dd mon yy	
7	107	Mon dd, yy	
8	108	hh:mm:ss	
-	9 or 109	mon dd yyyy hh:mi:ss:mmmAM (or PM)	Default+millisec
10	110	mm-dd-yy	USA
11	111	yy/mm/dd	Japan
12	112	Yymmdd	ISO
-	13 or 113	dd mon yyyy hh:mi:ss:mmm (24h)	
14	114	hh:mi:ss:mmm (24h)	
-	20 or 120	yyyy-mm-dd hh:mi:ss (24h)	
-	21 or 121	yyyy-mm-dd hh:mi:ss:mmm (24h)	
-	126	yyyy-mm-ddThh:mi:ss:mmm (no spaces)	ISO8601
-	130	dd mon yyyy hh:mi:ss:mmmAM	Hijiri
-	131	dd/mm/yy hh:mi:ss:mmmAM	Hijiri

Aggregate functions/Group functions: Aggregate functions perform a calculation on a set of values and return a single value. Aggregate functions are often used with the GROUP BY clause of the SELECT statement.

SUM (): Returns the sum of all the values .Sum can be used with numeric columns only. Null values are ignored.

Ex: SELECT SUM (SALARY) FROM EMP

AVG (): Returns the average of the values in a group. Null values are ignored.

Ex: SELECT AVG (SALARY) FROM EMP

MAX (): Returns the maximum value in the expression.

Ex: SELECT MAX (SALARY) FROM EMP

MIN (): Returns the minimum value in the expression.

Ex: SELECT MIN (SALARY) FROM EMP

COUNT (): Returns the number of records in a table. This function again use in three ways.

1. **COUNT (*):** It Returns total number of records in a table

Ex: SELECT COUNT (*) FROM EMP

2. **COUNT (Expression/Column name):** It returns number of records including duplicate values but not null vales.

Ex: SELECT COUNT (ENAME) FROM EMP

3. **COUNT (Distinct Column name):** It returns number of records without null and duplicate values.

Ex: SELECT COUNT (Distinct ENAME) FROM EMP

Distinct Key: If we use this key word on a column with in a query then it will retrieve the values of the column without duplicates.

OPERATORS IN SQL: Operator is a symbol which performs some specific operation on operands or expressions. These operands are classified into 6 types in SQL.

1. Assignment operator
2. Arithmetic operator
3. Comparison operator
4. Logical operator
5. Set operator

Assignment operator: Assignment operator contain only one operator is known as equal '=' operator.

Ex1: Write a Query to display the employee details whose salary is equal to 10000

- SELECT * FROM EMP WHERE SAL=10000

Ex2: Write a query to change the deptno as '10' whose employee id is 101

- UPDATE EMP SET DEPTNO=10 WHERE EID=101

Ex3: Write a query to delete a record whose employee id is 107

- DELETE FROM EMP WHERE EID=107

Arithmetic operator: Arithmetic operators perform mathematical operations on two expressions. The lists of arithmetic operators are + (Add), - Subtraction, * Multiplication, / (Divide) Division, % (Modulo) Returns the integer remainder of a division. For example, $12 \% 5 = 2$ because the remainder of 12 divided by 5 is 2.

Ex1: Select 100+250

Select 245-400

Select 20*20

Select 25/5

Select 37%6

Select 20/5+20/5

Select 35.50+20

Ex2: WAQ to find student TOTAL, AVERAGE AND CLASS OF a table

Step1: Create table student (Sid int, sname varchar (50), math's int, phy int, che int, total int, average int, class varchar (max))

Step2: Update student set total=maths+phy+che

Step3: Update student set average=total/3

Step4: Update student set class=

Case

When average>=60 then 'First class'

When average>=50 then 'second class'

When average>=40 then 'third class'

Else

'Fail'

End

Comparison operators: Comparison operators test whether two expressions are the same. Comparison operators can be used on all expressions except expressions of the text, ntext, or image data types. The following table lists the Transact-SQL comparison operators are > (Greater Than), < (Less Than), >= (Greater Than or Equal To), <= (Less Than or Equal To), != (Not Equal To), !< (Not Less Than), !> (Not Greater Than)

Examples:

- Select ename from EMP where salary<50000
- Update EMP set salary=1000 where salary>90000
- Update EMP set ename='joshitha' where salary<=25000
- Update EMP set salary=98000 where salary>=1000

- Select ename from Emp where salary !=>98000
- Select ename from Emp where salary !=<98000
- Select ename from Emp where salary !=98000

Logical operator: Logical operators test for the truth of some condition.

Logical operators, like comparison operators, return a Boolean data type with a value of TRUE or FALSE. Logical operators are AND , OR , NOT, BETWEEN, NOT BETWEEN, LIKE, NOT LIKE, IN, NOT IN, EXISTS,NOT EXISTS, ANY, ALL, SOME.

Examples:

- Select * from EMP where ename='siddhu' and salary=45000
- Select * from EMP where ename='joshitha' or salary=98000
- Select * from EMP where not ename='joshitha'
- Select * from EMP where salary between 10000 and 50000
- Update EMP set ename='SAI' where eid=101 and salary=25000

Queries Using 'Select' with 'where' clause:

- Write a Query to display the employee details whose salary is less than 10000
 - SELECT * FROM EMP WHERE SAL<10000
- Write a Query to display the employee details whose salary is greater than or equal to 9000 and less than 15000
 - SELECT * FROM EMP WHERE SAL>=9000 AND SAL<=15000
(OR)
 - SELECT * FROM EMP WHERE SAL BETWEEN 9000 AND 15000
- Write a Query to display the employee details whose salary is not between 9000 and 15000
 - SELECT * FROM EMP WHERE SAL NOT BETWEEN 9000 AND15000
- Write a Query to display the employee details whose name starts with 'r'
 - SELECT * FROM EMP WHERE ENAME LIKE 'r%'

- Write a Query to display the employee details whose name ends with 'y'
- SELECT * FROM EMP WHERE ENAME LIKE '%Y'

- Write a Query to display the employee details whose name contains the letter 'a'
- SELECT * FROM EMP WHERE ENAME LIKE '%A%'

- Write a Query to display the employee details whose names contains only three letters
- SELECT * FROM EMP WHERE ENAME LIKE '---'

- Write a Query to display the employee details whose names contain 'r' and salary greater than 9000
- SELECT * FROM EMP WHERE ENAME LIKE '%R%' AND SAL>9000

- Write a Query to display the employee details whose greater than ram
- SELECT * FROM EMP WHERE ENAME>'RAM'

- Write a Query to display the employee details whose employee id starts with 1 and ends with 1
- SELECT * FROM EMP WHERE EID LIKE '1%1'

(SQL commands are not case sensitive and also data available in SQL also not case sensitive, in oracle Data available is case sensitive)

Queries using 'Update' with 'where' clause:

- Write a query to change the deptno as '10' whose employee id is 101, 103, 107
- UPDATE EMPSET DEPTNO=10 WHERE EID=101 OR EID=103 OR EID=107

- Write a query to change the deptno as 20 who does not have deptno
- UPDATE EMPSET DEPTNO=20 WHERE DEPTNO IS NULL

- Write a query to change the employee salaries as 12000 who are working under 10 dept and their names starts with 'r'

- UPDATE EMPSET SAL=12000 WHERE DEPTNO=10 AND ENAME LIKE 'R%'
- Write a query to change the deptno as 30 whose second letter is 'a'
- UPDATE EMPSET DEPTNO=30 WHERE ENAME='-A%'
- Write a query to change the employee salaries as 8500 who are working under 10 and 20 deptno
- UPDATE EMPSET SAL=8500 WHERE DEPTNO=10 OR DEPTNO=20
(OR)
- UPDATE EMPSET SAL=8500 WHERE DEPTNO IN(10,20)
- Write a query to change the employee salaries as 8500 who are not working under 10 and 20 deptno
- UPDATE EMPSET SAL=8500 WHERE DEPTNO NOT IN (10,20)
- Write a query to change the employee salaries as 15000 and names ends with 'm' & working under 10 deptno
- UPDATE EMPSET SAL=15000 WHERE ENAME='%M' AND DEPTNO=10
- Write a query to change the employee salaries as 5500 whose employee id ends with 4 and deptno starts with 2
- UPDATE EMPSET SAL=5500 WHERE EID LIKE '%4' AND DEPTNO LIKE '2%'
- Write a query to change the employee salaries as 25000 whose salary less than 10000 and the name contains letter 'a' and working under dept 20
- UPDATE EMPSET SAL=25000 WHERE SAL<10000 AND ENAME LIKE '%A%' AND DEPTNO IN (20)

- Write a query to change the employee salaries as 10000 whose salary is greater than or equal to 8500 and less than or equal to 9000
- UPDATE EMPSET SAL=10000 WHERE SAL BETWEEN 8500 AND 9000

Set Operators: Set operators combine results from two or more queries into a single result set. SQL Server provides the following set operators.

- UNION
- UNION ALL
- INTERSECT
- EXCEPT

To combine the results of two queries we need to follow the below basic rules.

- The number and the order of the columns must be the same in all queries.
- The data types must be compatible(Well-Matched)

UNION: it combines the result of two or more select statements into a single result set that includes all the records belongs to all queries except duplicate values.

Create table sample (eno int, ename varchar (10), sal int)

Insert into sample values (10,'ganesh', 2400)

Create table sample1 (eno int, ename varchar (10), sal int)

Insert into sample1 values (10,'ganesh', 2400)

Ex: Select ename from sample

Union

Select ename from sample1

UNION ALL: it is same as union but returns duplicate values

Ex: Select ename from sample

Union All

Select ename from sample1

INTERSECT: INTERSECT returns any distinct values that are common in left and right tables.

Ex: Select ename from sample

Intersect

Select ename from sample1

EXCEPT: EXCEPT returns any distinct values from the left query that are not found on the right query.

Ex: Select ename from sample

Except

Select ename from sample1

CLAUSES IN SQL: We can add these to a query for adding additional options like filtering the records, sorting records and grouping the records with in a table. These clauses contains the following clauses are,

WHERE: This clause is used for filter or restricts the records from the table.

Ex: SELECT * FROM EMP WHERE SAL=10000

ORDER BY: The order by clause is used to sort or arrange the data in ascending or descending order with in table. By default order by clause arrange or sort the data in ascending order only.

- If we want to arrange the records in a descending order then we use Desc keyword.
- We can apply order by clause on integer and string columns.

Ex: SELECT * FROM EMP ORDER BY EID (For Ascending Order)

Ex: SELECT * FROM EMP ORDER BY ENAME DESC (For Descending Order)

TOP N CLAUSE: This clause is used to fetch a top n number of records from a table.

Ex: SELECT TOP 3 * FROM EMP

GROUP BY: Group by clause will use for to arrange similar data into groups. when we apply group by clause in the query then we use group functions like count(),sum(),max(),min(),avg().

If we use group by clause in the query, first the data in the table will be divided into different groups based on the columns and then execute the group function on each group to get the result.

Ex1: WAQ to find out the number of employees working in the organization

Sol: SELECT COUNT (*) FROM EMP

Ex2: WAQ to find out the number of employees working in each group in the organization.

Sol: SELECT DEPT, COUNT=COUNT (*) FROM EMP GROUP BY DEPT

Ex3: WAQ to find out the total salary of each department in the organization

Sol: SELECT DEPT, TOTALSALARY=SUM (SALARY) FROM EMP GROUP BY DEPT (Like this we can find max, min, avg salary in the organization)

HAVING CLAUSE: Having clause is also used for filtering and restricting the records in a table just like where clause.

Ex: WAQ to find out the number of employees in each department only if the count is greater than 3

Sol: SELECT DEPT, COUNT=COUNT (*) FROM EMP GROUP BY DEPT HAVING COUNT (*) >3

Differences Between WHERE and HAVING Clause:

WHERE	HAVING
WHERE clause is used to filter and restrict the records before grouping	HAVING clause is used to filter and restrict the records after grouping
If restriction column associated with A aggregative function then we cannot use WHERE clause there	But we can use HAVING clause at this situations
WHERE clause can apply without group by clause	HAVING clause cannot be applied without a group by clause
WHERE clause can be used for restricting individual rows	Where as HAVING clause is used along with group by clause to filter or restrict groups
WHERE clause cannot support group functions	HAVING clause support group function

SYNONYM: synonym is database object which can be created as an “alias” for any object like table, view, procedure etc.

- If we apply any DML operations on synonym the same operations automatically effected to corresponding base table and vice versa.
- If we create a synonym, the synonym will be created on entire table. It is not possible to create the synonym on partial table.
- When we create synonym based on another the new synonym does not allow us to perform any DML operations because Synonym chaining is not allowed.
- Synonym will become invalid into two cases,
 1. When we drop the base table
 2. When we change the base table name
- On invalid synonym we cannot apply any DML operations and we cannot create synonym based on more than one table at a time.
- When we change the structure of the base table the corresponding synonym automatically reflected with same changes.
- But, if we change the structure of the synonym that is not reflected to the base table because we cannot change the structure of the synonym.

Syntax: Create synonym <synonym name> for <object name>

Ex: Create synonym synemp for employee

Syntax to drop a synonym: Drop synonym <synonym name>

Ex: Drop synonym synemp

Syntax to Creating a table from an existing table:

we can create a table from an existing table and maintain a copy of the actual table before manipulating the table.

Syntax: Select * into <New Table Name> from <Old Table Name>

Ex1: Select * into New_Emp from Employee

In this case it creates a table New_Emp by copying all the rows and columns of the Employee table.

Ex2: Select EID, ENAME into Test_Emp from Employee

In this case it creates a table Test_Emp with only the specified columns from the employee table.

Ex3: Select * into Dummy_Emp from employee where 1=2

In this case it creates the Dummy table without any data in it.

Copying data from one existing table to another table:

We can copy the data from one table to another table by using a combination of insert and select statement as following

Syntax: Insert into <Dummy Table name> select * from <Table Name>

Ex: Insert into Dummy_Emp select * from Employee

Constraint in SQL:

Why Constraint in SQL: Constraint is used to restrict the insertion of unwanted data in any columns. We can create constraints on single or multiple columns of any table. It maintains the data integrity i.e. accurate data or original data of the table. Data integrity rules fall into three categories:

- Entity integrity
- Referential integrity
- Domain integrity

Entity Integrity: Entity integrity ensures each row in a table is a uniquely identifiable entity. You can apply entity integrity to a table by specifying a PRIMARY KEY constraint.

Ex: the Product ID column of the Products table is a primary key for the table.

Referential Integrity: Referential integrity ensures the relationships between tables remain preserved as data is inserted, deleted, and modified. You can apply referential integrity using a FOREIGN KEY constraint.

Ex: The ProductID column of the Order Details table has a foreign key constraint applied referencing the Orders table. The constraint prevents an Order Detail record from using a ProductID that does not exist in the database.

Also, you cannot remove a row from the Products table if an order detail references the ProductID of the row.

Domain Integrity: Domain integrity ensures the data values inside a database follow defined rules for values, range, and format. A database can enforce these rules using a variety of techniques, including CHECK constraints, UNIQUE constraints, and NOT NULL constraints.

The following list gives a sampling of domain integrity constraints.

- A product name cannot be NULL.
- A product name must be unique.

There are 5 types of constraints in SQL Server:-

1. Unique Key constraint.
2. Not Null constraint.
3. Check constraint
4. Primary key constraint.
5. Foreign Key constraint.

1. Unique Key:- Unique key constraint is used to make sure that there is no duplicate value in that column. Both unique key and primary key both enforce the uniqueness of column but there is one difference between them; unique key constraint allows null values but primary key does not allow null values.

In a table we create one primary key but we can create more than one unique key in SQL Server.

Ex: create table **EMP** (EID int unique, ENAME varchar(50) unique, SALARY money);

2. Not null constraint: - Not null constraint is used to restrict the insertion of null values at that column but allow duplicate values. Not null constraint is used for that column which is not ignorable.

Ex: create table **EMP** (EID int not null, ENAME varchar(50) not null, SALARY money);

3. Check Constraint: - This constraint is used to check values at the time of insertion like as salary of any employee is always greater than zero. So we can create a check constraint on employee table which is greater than zero.

Ex: create table **emp4** (eno int, ename varchar(50), age int check (age between 20 and 30))

4. Primary Key:- Primary key is a combination of unique and not null which does not allow duplicate as well as null values into a column. In a table we create one primary key only.

Ex: create table **emp** (EID int primary key, ENAME varchar(50), SALARY money)

Adding primary key after creating of table: When we adding primary key in any table before adding primary key we have to create that column is not null if the column is not null then we have to create not null constraint on the column after that we will create primary key constraint on that table.

Syntax:-

Alter table <table name> alter column <column name> <data type> not null

Alter table <table name> add constraint <constraint name> primary key (column name)

Eg:-

Alter table EMP alter column EID int not null

Alter table EMP add constraint pk_Emp primary key (EID)

5. Foreign Key: - One of the most important concepts in database is creating relationships between database tables. These relationships provide a mechanism for linking data stored in multiple tables and retrieving it in an efficient manner.

In order to create a link between two tables we must specify a foreign key in one table that references a column in another table.

Foreign key constraint is used for relating or binding two tables with each other and then verifies the existence of one table data in the other.

To impose a foreign key constraint we require the following things.

We require two tables for binding with each other and those two tables must have a common column for linking the tables.

To create Department Table (PARENT TABLE):-

```
create table Department(Deptno int primary key,DNAME  
varchar(50),LOCATION varchar(max))
```

Insert Records Into Department Table:

```
insert into Department values(10,'Sales','Chennai')  
insert into Department values(20,'Production','Mumbai')  
insert into Department values(30,'Finance','Delhi')  
insert into Department values(40,'Research','Hyderabad')
```

To create Employee Table(CHILD TABLE):-

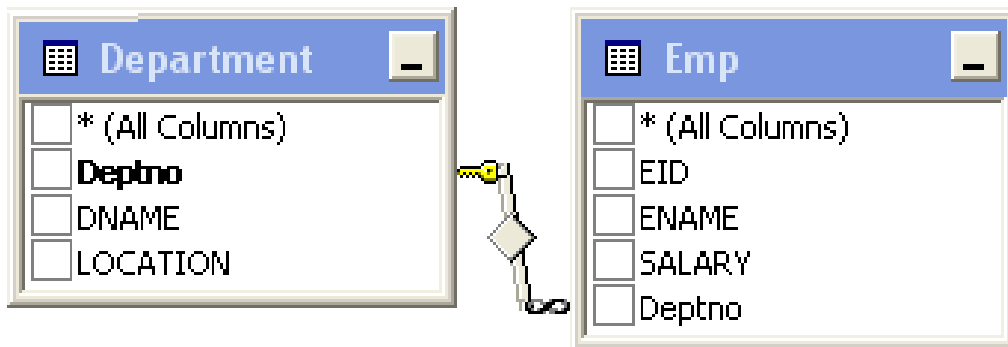
```
create table Employee(EID int,ENAME varchar(50),SALARY money,Deptno int  
foreign key references Department(Deptno))
```

Insert Records Into Department Table:

```
insert into Employee values(101,'Sai',35000,10)  
insert into Employee values(102,'Pavan',45000,20)  
insert into Employee values(103,'Kamal',74000,30)  
insert into Employee values(104,'Ravi',58000,40)
```

The below records are not allowed in to employee table:

```
insert into Employee values(105,'Kamal',74000,50)  
insert into Employee values(106,'Ravi',58000,60)
```



When we impose the foreign key constraint and establish relation between the table, the following three rules will come into picture.

Rule1:- Cannot insert a value into the foreign key column provided that value is not existing under the reference key column of the parent table.

Rule2:- Cannot update the reference key value of a parent table provided that value has corresponding child record in the child table without addressing what to do with the child record.

Rule3:- Cannot delete a record from the parent table provided that records reference key value has child record in the child table without addressing what to do with the child record.

If we want to delete or update a record in the parent table when they have corresponding child records in the child table we are provided with a set of rules to perform delete and update operations known as cascade rules.

On delete cascade:- It is used to delete a key value in the parent table which is referenced by foreign key in other table all rows that contain those foreign keys in child table are also deleted.

On Update cascade:- It is used to update a key value in the parent table which is referenced by foreign key in other table all rows that contain those foreign keys in child table are also updated.

If we apply this rule while creating the child table like below

create table **Emp**(EID int,ENAME varchar(50),SALARY money,Deptno int
foreign key references **Department**(Deptno)on delete cascade on update cascade)

Ex:-

- update **Department** set **Deptno**=222 where **Deptno**=20
- delete from **Department** where **Deptno**=222

JOINS IN SQL: Joins are used for retrieving the data from one or more tables at a time. Joins can be classified into the following types.

- EQUI JOIN
- INNER JOIN
- OUTER JOIN
- LEFT OUTER JOIN
- RIGHT OUTER JOIN
- FULL OUTER JOIN
- NON EQUI JOIN
- SELF JOIN
- CROSS JOIN
- NATURAL JOIN

EQUI JOIN: If two or more tables are combined using equality condition then we call as a Equi join.

Ex: WAQ to get the matching records from EMP and DEPT tables

Sol: SELECT * FROM EMP, DEPT WHERE (EMP.EID=DEPT.DNO) (NON-ANSI STANDARD)

Sol: SELECT E.EID, E.ENAME, E.SALARY, D.DNO, D.DNAME FROM EMP E, DEPT D WHERE E.EID=D.DNO (ANSI STANDARD)

INNER JOIN: Inner join return only those records that match in both table

Ex: SELECT * FROM EMP E INNER JOIN DEPT D ON E.EID=D.DNO

OUTTER JOIN: It is an extension for the equi join. In equi join condition we will be getting the matching data from the tables only. So we loss un matching data from the tables.

To overcome the above problem we use outer join which are used to getting matching data as well as UN matching data from the tables. This outer join again classified into three types

LEFT OUTER JOIN: It will retrieve or get matching data from both table as well as un matching data from left hand side table

Ex: SELECT * FROM EMP LEFT OUTER JOIN DEPT ON
EMP.EID=DEPT.DNO;

RIGHT OUTER JOIN: It will retrieve or get matching data from both table as well as un matching data from right hand side table

Ex: SELECT * FROM EMP RIGHT OUTER JOIN DEPT ON
EMP.EID=DEPT.DNO;

FULL OUTER JOIN: It will retrieve or get matching data from both table as well as un matching data from left hand side table plus right hand side table also.

Ex: SELECT * FROM EMP FULL OUTER JOIN DEPT ON
EMP.EID=DEPT.DNO;

NON EQUI JOIN: If we join tables with any condition other than equality condition then we call as a non equi join.

Ex: SELECT * FROM EMP, SALGRADE WHERE (SALARY > LOWSAL)
AND (SALARY < HIGHSAL)

SELF JOIN: Joining a table by itself is known as self join. Whenever we having some relations between the columns within the table then we use self join.

Ex: SELECT E.EID, E.ENAME MANAGERS, M.SALARY FROM EMP E, EMP
M WHERE E.EID=M.EID.

CROSS JOIN: Cross join is used to join more than two tables without any condition we call as a cross join. In cross join each row of the first table join with each row of the second table.

So, if the first table contain 'm' rows and second table contain 'n' rows then output will be 'm*n' rows.

Ex: SELECT * FROM EMP, DEPT

Ex: SELECT * FROM EMP CROSS JOIN DEPT

NATURAL JOIN: It is not support for SQL SERVER but supports ORACLE

Joins with Three Tables:

select * from **Employee**

select * from **Dept**

select * from **student**

select * from **Employee**,**Dept**,**student** where
(**Employee**.Deptno=**Dept**.Deptno) and
(**Dept**.Deptno=**student**.sid)(Equijoin example)

select **e**.EmpID,**e**.EmpName,**e**.Deptno,**d**.Deptno,**d**.Dname,**d**.Location,**s**.sid,**s**.sname,**s**.fee from **Employee e** inner join **Dept d** on
(**e**.Deptno=**d**.Deptno)join **student s** on(**e**.Deptno=**s**.sid)(Innerjoin
example)

select **e**.EmpID,**e**.EmpName,**e**.Deptno,**d**.Deptno,**d**.Dname,**d**.Location,**s**.sid,**s**.sname,**s**.fee from **Employee e** left outer join **Dept d** on
(**e**.Deptno=**d**.Deptno)join **student s** on(**e**.Deptno=**s**.sid)(Leftouterjoin
example)

select **e**.EmpID,**e**.EmpName,**e**.Deptno,**d**.Deptno,**d**.Dname,**d**.Location,**s**.sid,**s**.sname,**s**.fee from **Employee e** right join **Dept d** on
(**e**.Deptno=**d**.Deptno)join **student s** on(**d**.Deptno=**s**.sid)((Rightouterjoin
example)

select **e**.EmpID,**e**.EmpName,**e**.Deptno,**d**.Deptno,**d**.Dname,**d**.Location,**s**.sid,**s**.sname,**s**.fee from **Employee e** full outer join **Dept d** on
(**e**.Deptno=**d**.Deptno)join **student s** on(**e**.Deptno=**s**.sid)((Fullouterjoin
example)

TRANSACTION CONTROLL LANGUAGE

TRANSACTION: A transaction is a unit of work that is performed against a database or set of statement (Insert, Update and Delete) which should be executed as one unit.

- A transaction is the propagation of one or more changes to the database. For example, if you are inserting a record or updating a record or deleting a record from the table, then you are performing transaction on the table. It is important to control transactions to ensure data integrity and to handle database errors.
- The rule of transaction tells that either all the statements in the transaction should be executed successfully or none of those statements to be executed.

To manage transaction we have provided with transaction control language that provides commands like

- BEGIN TRANSACTION
- COMMIT
- ROLLBACK
- SAVE POINT

BEGIN TRANSACTION: Begin Transaction command is used to start the transaction. Begin Transaction with name is used to add nested transactions.

Syntax: **Begin transaction**
 <Write Statements>

COMMIT: Commit command is used to end the transaction and save the data permanent part of the database (or) it is used to make the transaction permanent so we cannot undo or recall the records.

- Commit is used for saving the data that has been changed permanently because whenever you perform any DML (Data Manipulation Language) like UPDATE, INSERT OR DELETE then you are required to write Commit at the end of all or every DML operation in order to save it permanently.

- If you do not write Commit then your data will be restored into its previous condition.

Syntax: **Begin Transaction**
 <Write Statements>

Commit

Ex: **BEGIN TRANSACTION**

```
INSERT INTO EMPLOYEE VALUES(105,'KAMAL',62000,'MUMBAI')  
INSERT INTO EMPLOYEE VALUES(106,'SUJATHA',82000,'DELHI')  
  
COMMIT
```

- The above records are stored permanently into a table because we committed that records.so we cannot roll back in to its previous position.

ROLLBACK: Rollback command is used to undo the transactions and gets back to the initial state where transaction started.

- Whereas if you want to restore your data into its previous condition then you can write Rollback at any time after the DML queries has been written but remember once Commit has been written then you cannot rollback the data.
- Moreover you can only rollback the DML queries that have been written after the last commit statement. The concept of commit and rollback is designed for data consistency because many users manipulate data of the same table, using the same database so the user must get updated data. That is why commit and rollback are used.

Syntax: **Begin Transaction**
 Rollback

Ex: **BEGIN TRANSACTION**
 DELETE FROM **EMPLOYEE WHERE **EID**=105**
 DELETE FROM **EMPLOYEE WHERE **EID**=106**

 BEGIN TRANSACTION
 ROLLBACK

- The above records we can rollback into a table because those records are not committed.

SAVEPOINT: Save point is used for dividing (or) breaking a transaction into multiple units. So that user will have a chance of roll backing a transaction up to a location.

- When a user sets a save point with in a transaction the save point defines a location to which a transaction can return if part of the transaction conditionally canceled.
- If a transaction is roll back to a save point, it must be proceed to completion of the transaction with commit statement or it must be cancelled altogether by rolling the transaction back to its beginning

Syntax: **Begin Transaction**

Save transaction < transaction name>
<Write Statements>

Ex: **BEGIN TRANSACTION**

UPDATE EMPLOYEE SET SALARY=99000 WHERE EID=101
UPDATE EMPLOYEE SET SALARY=88000 WHERE EID=102
SAVE TRANSACTION S1
UPDATE EMPLOYEE SET SALARY=77000 WHERE EID=103
UPDATE EMPLOYEE SET SALARY=66000 WHERE EID=104
SAVE TRANSACTION S2
UPDATE EMPLOYEE SET SALARY=55000 WHERE EID=105
UPDATE EMPLOYEE SET SALARY=44000 WHERE EID=106

- In the above case we are dividing or breaking the transaction into three units.so we have a chance of rollbacking either completely i.e six statements get roll back (or) roll back save point S1 i.e four statements(103 to 106) (or) rollback save point S2 i.e two records (105,106) only

CASE 1: **BEGIN TRANSACTION**
 ROLLBACK

- All records will roll back i.e complete records(six records)

CASE 2: BEGIN TRANSACTION
ROLLBACK TRANSACTION S1

- We can roll back four records only i.e 103 to 106.

CASE 3: BEGIN TRANSACTION
ROLLBACK TRANSACTION S2

- We can roll back two records only i.e 105 and 106

Sub Query: A query contains another query is called sub Query. In between the inner query and outer query. First inner query will be executed and then finally outer query will be executed.

Syntax: select * from <Table Name> where (condition) (select * from..... (Select * from..... (select * from.....))));

Examples:

- 1) WAQ to find the details of employee who is earning the highest salary.

Sol: select * from **tab2** where **Salary**=(select MAX(salary) from **tab2**)

- 2) WAQ to find the details of employee who is earning second highest salary.

select * from **tab2** where **Salary**=(select MAX(salary)from **tab2** where **Salary**<(select MAX(salary) from **tab2**))

- 3) WAQ to find the details of employee who is earning third highest salary.

select * from **tab2** where **Salary**=(select MAX(salary)from **tab2** where **Salary**<(select MAX(salary) from **tab2** where **Salary** <(select MAX(salary) from **tab2**)))

- 4) How find first and last record from table row in SQL one query?

- Use below query for select first record in table.

SELECT * FROM EMP WHERE EID = (SELECT Min (EID) FROM EMP)

➤ Use below query for select Last record in table.

```
SELECT * FROM EMP WHERE EID = (SELECT Max (EID) FROM EMP)
```

Syntax to Find Any Position Record From A table

```
SELECT * FROM (SELECT *, ROW_NUMBER() OVER (ORDER BY empid) AS RowNum FROM Employee) employee WHERE RowNum =15
```

Syntax to Delete Duplicate Records from a table contains more than two same duplicate values:

SID	SNAME	FEE	rownum
10	Sai	12000	1
20	Siddhu	45000	1
30	Meena	65000	1
30	Meena	65000	2
30	Meena	65000	3
30	Meena	65000	4
30	Meena	65000	5

with **duplicates** as

```
(select *, ROW_NUMBER() over(partition by sid,sname, fee order by sid,sname,fee) rownum from student)
```

```
delete from duplicates where rownum > 1
```

select the complete above query and execute then we delete all duplicate records which are greater than 1 i.e.output is like below

SID	SNAME	FEE	rownum
10	Sai	12000	1
20	Siddhu	45000	1
30	Meena	65000	1

INDEXES IN SQL:

Why We Need Indexes:

1. Generally a library has a huge collection of books, files, etc... A student requests the librarian for a book of Microsoft SQL Server 2008, if we think without an index the librarian had to find this without any help she/he has to search one by one! This must be time consuming; so with a proper arrangement, that is with the help of an index, it very much easier and faster to find out the desired one.
2. One of the most important routes to high performance in a SQL Server database is the index. Indexes speed up the querying process by providing quickly access to rows in the data tables, similarly to the way a book's index helps you find information quickly within that book.

What is INDEX:

- **Index** is a database object which is used for the quick retrieving of the data from the table.
- An index contains keys built from one or more columns in the table and map to the storage location of the specified data.
- By using indexes we can save time and can improve the performance of database queries and applications.
- When we create an indexes on any column, SQL server internally maintain a separate table called index table. So that when ever user trying to retrieve the data from existing table depends on index table SQL server directly go to the table and retrieve required data very quickly.
- In a table we can use max 250 indexes. The index type refers to the way the index is stored internally by SQL Server. So a table can contain the two types of indexes.
 1. Clustered
 2. Non-Clustered

Clustered Index:

- The only time the data rows in a table are stored in sorted (ascending order only) order structure is when the table contains a clustered index. When a table has a clustered index then is called a clustered table. If a table has no clustered index, its data rows are stored in an unordered structure.
- A table can have only 1 clustered index on it, which will be created when primary key constraint is used in a table.

Non-Clustered Indexes:

- Non-clustered indexes will not have any arrangement order (Unordered structure) of the data in the table. In a table we can create 249 non-clustered indexes.
- If we don't mention clustered indexes in a table then default is stored as non-clustered indexes.

Syntax: Create Index <Index Name> on <Table Name> (Column Name);

EX: Create index demo index on EMP (Eid)

VIEWS IN SQL: View is database object which is like table but logical. We can call it as a logical or virtual table because it does not has a physical existence.

- It is a logical table use to get the required information from the table. View will be created by using select statement and table used for the creation of the view is called as base table.
- View will not store records in it and will not occupy memory space with help of structure existing in it and records will be displayed from table.
- View is logical representation or virtual representation .it is a dependent where as table an independent is because view is extracted from the table.
- If we want to access the data from the table it's not necessary to change the data direct to the table but we can access by having a view.
- Views are used for security purpose in databases, views restricts the user from viewing certain column and rows means by using view we can apply

the restriction on accessing the particular rows and columns for specific user.

- Views display only those data which are mentioned in the query, so it shows only data which is returned by the query that is defined at the time of creation of the View.
- To protect the data. If you have a table containing sensitive data in certain columns, you might wish to hide those columns from certain groups of users. For instance, customer names, addresses and their social security numbers might all be stored in the same table; however, for lower level employees like shipping clerks, you can create a view that only displays customer name and address. You can grant permissions to a view without allowing users to query the original tables.
- A view is a logical table but what it stores internally is a select statement that is used for creating the view. So that whenever a user performs any operation on the view like select, insert, update or delete internally the view performs those operations on a table.
- Simply we can say that view will act as an interface between the data provider (Table) and the User.

View is created based on a table any changes that are performed on the table reflects into the view any changes performed on the view reflect into the table also. View is classified into two types. These are

- Simple view(Updatable view)
- Complex view(Non-Updatable view)

Simple view: we create a view based on one table is called simple view or Updatable view.

Complex view: we create a view based on more than one table is called complex view or Non-Updatable view.

Syntax: **create view <view name> as select * from <table name>**

Ex1: create view **simpleview** as select * from **emp**;

Ex2: CREATE VIEW COMPLEXVIEW AS SELECT
E.EID,E.ENAME,D.DNO,D.DNAME FROM EMP E INNER JOIN DEPT
D ON E.DEPTNO=D.DEPTNO

T/SQL Programming

- T/SQL stands for “Transact Structure Query Language. It is an extension of SQL language. This T/SQL is same as PL/SQL in oracle.
- In SQL we can execute single line statement only where as in T/SQL we can execute block of statements at a time.
- SQL does not support conditional and looping statements like IF-Else and While loop. But we can implement these conditional and looping statements in T/SQL.
- SQL language will not provide reusability facilities where as T/SQL language will provide reusability facilities by defining objects such as Procedures and Functions.
- T/SQL commands can be embedded inside the programs where program is a block of code.
- T/SQL Program blocks can be divided into two types. Those are
 1. Anonymous Blocks
 2. Sub-Program Blocks

Anonymous Blocks: Anonymous Blocks are called as unnamed block of code which is executed at any point of time and does not store on database. These blocks can be written on a query window and execute.

Sub-Programs: Sub program Blocks are called as named block of code which is executed at any point of time and stored on database. These blocks are providing reusability of code.

Declaring Variables In T/SQL Program:

Syntax: Declare @ <var> [as] <data type > [size].....

Ex: declare @ eid int; declare @ename varchar (50)....

While declaring variable, we should be prefixed with @ symbol.

Assigning Values to variables: Values can be assigned by using a SET statement.

Syntax: Set @ <var>=<value>

Ex: Set @Eid=101; Set @ename='SAI';

Printing Values of Variables: If we want to print the values we can use the PRINT statement.

Syntax: Print @ <var>

Ex: Print @Eid;

Structure of T/SQL Program:

Syntax: Declare @ <var1> [data type][size].....

Set @ <var>=<values>

<Statements>;

Print @<var>.....

Ex1: Write a T/SQL program to input two values and interchange the variable values.

```
declare @a int,@b int,@c int;
```

```
set @a=10;
```

```
set @b=20;
```

```
set @c=@a;
```

```
set @a=@b;
```

```
set @b=@c;
```

```
print @a;
```

```
print @b;
```

Ex2: Write a T/SQL program to input student id,name,marks and find the total marks of a student.

```
declare @stdno int,@stdname varchar(50),@m1 int,@m2 int,@m3 int,@tm int;
```

```
set @stdno=101;
```

```
set @stdname='SAI';
```



```
set @m1=75;
set @m2=85;
set @m3=65;
set @tm=@m1+@m2+@m3;
print @stdno
print @stdname;
print @tm
```

Ex3: Write a T/SQL programmer to perform arithmetic operation.

```
declare @a int,@b int,@c int,@d int,@e int,@f int;
set @a=10;
set @b=12;
set @c=@a+@b;
set @d=@a-@b;
set @e=@a*@b;
set @f=@a/@b;
print @c;
print @d;
print @e;
print @f;
```

Conditional Statements: It is a block of code, which executes based on a condition.

If-Else Statement: In if-else conditional control statement, statements in if block gets executed only when the condition is true and statements in else block gets executed only when the condition is false.

Syntax:

If (condition)

{

Statements

}

Else

{

Statements

```
}
```

Ex: Write T/SQL program to find big number from two variables.

```
declare @a int,@b int;  
set @a=30;  
set @b=20;  
if(@a>@b)  
print 'a is big'  
else if(@a=@b)  
print 'Both are equal'  
else  
print 'B is big';
```

Ex: To find positive and negative.

```
declare @a int;  
set @a=10;  
  
if(@a>0)  
print 'a is positive'  
else  
if(@a=0)  
print 'a is neutral'  
else  
print 'a is negative'
```

Ex: To find the number is even or odd.

```
declare @a int  
set @a=4  
if((@a%2)=0)  
print 'a is even';  
else  
print 'a is odd';
```

While loop: In while loop statements get executed as long as condition is true.

In While it checks the condition first and executes the statements later.

Syntax:

While (condition)

{

Statements;

}

Ex: Write A T/SQL program to print from 1 to 10 digits

```
declare @a int
set @a=0;
while(@a<10)
begin
set @a=@a+1;
print @a;
end;
```

SUB PROGRAMS: A sub program is a named block of code that is directly saved on the server and it can be executed when and where it is required. We have two types of sub programs in SQL server.

- Stored Procedures/Procedure
- Stored Functions/Functions

Stored Procedures/Procedure: A stored procedure is a database object which contains precompiled queries. Stored Procedures are a block of code designed to perform a task whenever we called.

Why we need stored procedure: Whenever we want to execute a SQL query from an application the SQL query will be first parsed (i.e. complied)

for execution where the process of parsing is time consuming because parsing occurs each and every time we execute the query or statement.

To overcome the above problem we write SQL statements or query under stored procedure and execute, because a stored procedure is a pre compiled block of code without parsing the statements gets executed whenever the procedures are called which can increase the performance of an application.

Advantages of Stored Procedure:

- As there is no unnecessary compilation of queries, this will reduce burden on database.
- Application performance will be improved
- User will get quick response
- Code reusability facility

How to Create Stored Procedures/Procedure (Without parameter):

Syntax: Create Procedures <Procedures Name>

As

Begin

<Statements>

End

Once the Procedure is created it is physically saved on the server as a Database Object which can be called whenever we required to the user.

We can call the above procedure from anywhere and from any application that is developed using JAVA (or) .NET languages

How to Call a Stored Procedures/Procedure:

Syntax: Exec <Procedure name>

Examples on without parameters Procedures:

1) Write a simple procedure program (with out parameters) to print WELCOME statement on the query window.

```
create procedure Test1
as
begin
print 'WELCOME TO STOREDPROCEDURES'
end
```

Passing Parameters to Procedures: If we want to pass parameters to procedures then we are using the below syntax.

Syntax: Create Procedures <Procedures Name>

(Passing parameters)

As

Begin

<Statements>

End

Examples on Parameter Procedures:

1) Write a program to add the two values with Parameters Procedure.

```
create procedure test2(@a int,@b int)
as
begin
declare @c int
set @c=@a+@b;
print 'Addition of two variables are:-'+cast(@c as varchar);
end
```

2) Write a program to perform arithmetic operations of two values with Parameters Procedure.

```
create procedure test3(@a int,@b int)
as
begin
declare @x int,@y int,@z int,@s int
set @x=@a+@b;
set @y=@a-@b;
set @z=@a*@b;
set @s=@a/@b;
print 'Add of two variables are:-'+cast(@x as varchar);
print 'Sub of two variables are:-'+cast(@y as varchar);
print 'Mul of two variables are:-'+cast(@z as varchar);
print 'Div of two variables are:-'+cast(@s as varchar);
end
```

3)create a procedure to display employee details to the user

```
create procedure spselect
as
begin
select * from Employee
end
```

Output: execute spselect

4)create a procedure to accept employee ID and delete the record from employee table.

```
create procedure spdel
@eid int
as
begin
delete from Employee where EmpID=@eid
```

end

Output: exec spdel 4

5)create a procedure to accept employee ID and update the employee details from employee table.

```
create procedure spupdate
```

```
@eid int,@ename varchar(max),@salary money,@address char(30)
```

```
as
```

```
begin
```

```
update Employee set
```

```
EmpName=@ename,Salary=@salary,Address=@address where
```

```
EmpID=@eid
```

```
end
```

Output: exec spupdate 1,'kamal',88000,'vizag'

6)create a procedure to add records in employee table.

```
create procedure spinst
```

```
@eid int,@ename varchar(50),@salary money,@address varchar(50)
```

```
as
```

```
begin
```

```
insert into Employee values(@eid,@ename,@salary,@address)
```

```
end
```

Output: exec spinst 6 ,'Suman' ,41000 ,'chennai'

7)create a procedure to insert records in two tables.

```
create procedure spinserttwotables
@eid int,@ename varchar(50),@salary money,@Address
char(40),@Deptno int,@Dname char(30),@Loc char(20)
as
begin
insert into Employee values(@eid,@ename,@salary,@Address,@Deptno)
insert into Dept values(@Deptno,@Dname,@Loc)
end
```

Output: exec **spinsert** 7,'mohan',62000,'mumbai',10,'dotnet','hyd'

How To Drop Stored Procedure:

- Drop Procedure <Procedure Name>

Ex: Drop Procedure SP1

Stored Functions/Functions: Function is a block of code similar to a stored procedure which is also used to perform an action and returns result as a value. Function can be divided into two types, these are

1)Scalar-Valued Fuction: In this case we can return a attribute datatype as an output from the function.

Syntax: Create Function <Function Name> (@parameter <Data Type> [size])

Returns <return attribute data type>

As

Begin

<Function Body>

Return <return attribute name>

End

How to Call Scalar valued Functions:

Syntax: Select <dbo>.<Function Name> (column name)

- 1) Create a function to return the cube of the given value.

```
create function fcube (@x int)
returns int
as
begin
return @x* @x* @x
end
```

Output:select **dbo.fcube**(3)

- 2) Create a function that takes an employee id and returns the salary of that employee.

```
create function fsal(@eid int)
returns int
as
begin
declare @sal money
select @sal=salary from employee where empid=@eid
return @sal
end
```

Output:select **dbo.fsal**(1)

2)Table-Valued Fuction:In this case we can return a table as an output from the function.

Syntax:

Create Function <Function Name> (@parameter <Data Type> [size])

Returns <Table>

As

Return <return select statement>

How to Call a Table-Valued Function:

Syntax: select * from **functionname(value)**

Ex: Create a function that accept the Address and returns the list of employee working in given address from the table.

```
create function ft1(@add varchar(50))  
returns table  
as  
return(select * from employee where address=@add)
```

Output:select * from **ft1**('hyd')

Ex:Create a function to get the deptno and return list of employee working in EMP and DEPT tables.

```
create function saidata(@deptno int)  
returns table  
as  
return(select e.eid,e.ename,e.salary,d.deptno,d.dname,d.location from  
emp e inner join dept d on e.deptno=d.deptno where  
e.deptno=@deptno)
```

Output: Select * from saidata(10)

How To Drop Functions:

- Drop Function <Function Name>

Ex: Drop Function Saidata

Difference between Function And Procedure:

- A function must return a value where as procedure never returns a value.
- A procedure can have parameters of both input (with parameters) and output (without parameters) where as a function can have only input (with parameters) parameters only.
- In procedure we can perform select, insert, update and delete operation where as function can used only to perform select. Cannot be used to perform insert, update and delete operations.
- A procedure provides the option for to perform transaction management where as these operations are not permitted in a function.
- We call a procedure using execute command where as function are called by using select command only

TRIGGERS: A trigger is a special type of procedure that will used to provide restrict on the tables when a language events executed. Sql server includes two types of triggers are

- DML Triggers
- DDL Triggers

DML Triggers: DML triggers execute when the user tries to modify or change data through data manipulation language events. Those are Inserting, Update and Delete statements on the table.

DML triggers can be used to enforce business rules and data integrity. With the help of a DML trigger we can enforce integrity which cannot be done with constraints.

Syntax: Create Trigger <Trigger Name> on <table Name>

 For [Insert, Update, Delete]

 AS

 Begin

 <Statements>

 End

Ex: A trigger that will convert the dname and location into upper case when the user insert in lowercase.

```
create trigger per_trg
on person after insert
as
begin
declare @pid int,@pname varchar(50),@loc varchar(50)
select @pid=pid,@pname=pname,@loc=loc from inserted
update person set pname=upper(@pname),loc=upper(@loc) where pid=@pid
end
```

Ex:Create a trigger to restric DML operations on the table

```
create trigger nnn on person
for insert,update,delete
as
begin
print 'DML OPeration are Not Allowed'
rollback transaction
end
```

Dropping DML Triggers:

Syntax: Drop <Trigger> <Trigger Name>

EX: Drop Trigger rest drop

DDL Triggers: DDL triggers fire in response to a data definition language event like create, Alter, drop etc. A DDL trigger is a special type of procedure that executes in response to a server scoped or database scoped event.

Syntax:

Create Trigger <Trigger Name> on database after <Event type>

As

Begin

<Statements>

End

Ex: Write a trigger which restricts dropping of a table from the database.

```
create trigger restdrop on database after drop_table
as
begin
rollback
raiserror('Can not drop table under this database',1,1)
end
```

Ex2: Write a trigger which restricts Creating of a table from the database.

```
create trigger restcret on database after create_table
as
begin
rollback
raiserror('Can not create table under this database',1,1)
end
```

Ex3: Write a trigger which restricts Alter of a table from the database.

```
create trigger restalt on database after Alter_table
as
begin
rollback
raiserror('Can not Alter table under this database',1,1);end
```

Dropping DDL Triggers:

Syntax: Drop <Trigger> <Trigger Name> on Database

EX: Drop Trigger rest drop on database

Magic Tables: SQL Server allows you to define a Magic Table. Magic Tables are invisible tables or virtual tables. You can see them only with the help **Triggers** in SQL Server.

- Magic Tables are those tables which allow you to hold inserted, deleted and updated values during insert delete and update DML operations on a table in SQL Server.
- Basically there are two types of magic table in SQL server namely inserted and deleted magic tables update can be performed with help of these twos. Generally we cannot see these two table, we can only see it with the help Trigger's in SQL server.

Inserted Magic Table: Whenever you insert a record on that table, that record will be shown in the **INSERTED** Magic Table. Now creating a trigger to see the data in Inserted Magic table.

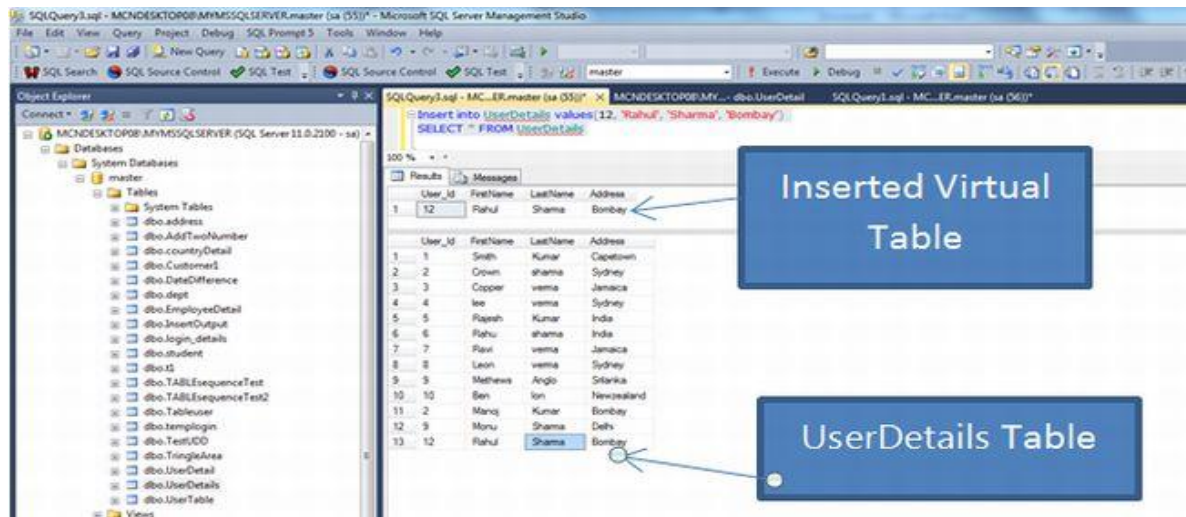
Example:

```
Create TRIGGER Trigger_ForInsertmagic
ON Employee
FOR INSERT
AS
Begin
SELECT * FROM INSERTED
End
```

Now insert a new record in Employee table to see data within Inserted virtual tables.

Insert into Employee **values** (12, 'Rahul', 25000,'HYD')
SELECT * FROM Employee

Now press **F5** to execute it.



Deleted Magic Table: Whenever you delete the record on that table, that record will be shown in the **DELETED** Magic Table Only. To create a trigger to see the data in the deleted Magic table use the following,

Example:

```
Create TRIGGER Trigger_Fordeletemagic
ON Employee
FOR DELETE
AS
Begin
SELECT * FROM Deleted
End
```

Now delete a record in the Employee table to see the data in the Deleted virtual tables.

```
Delete from Employee where Eid=12
SELECT * FROM Employee
```

Update the Record in Table: To update the record in the Employee table, we use it for both virtual/Magic tables. One shows the inserted table and the other shows the deleted table. The following trigger defines both the inserted table and the deleted table:

Example:

```
Create TRIGGER Trigger_ForInsertdeletemagic
ON Employee
FOR UPDATE
AS
Begin
SELECT * FROM INSERTED
SELECT * FROM DELETED
End
```

Now update the records in the Employee table to see the data in the inserted and deleted virtual tables.

Update employee set ename='sai' where Eid=12
SELECT * FROM Employee

Now press F5 to execute it.

The screenshot displays the Microsoft SQL Server Enterprise Manager interface. The left pane shows the 'Object Explorer' with the 'master' database selected. The right pane shows the 'SQL Query3.sql' window with the following SQL code:

```
Update UserDetails set User_Id=13 where User_Id=1
SELECT * FROM UserDetails
```

Below the query window, the 'Results' pane shows the output of the query. It contains three tables:

User_Id	FirstName	LastName	Address
1	13	Smith	Kumar

This table is labeled 'Inserted Virtual Table'.

User_Id	FirstName	LastName	Address
1	1	Smith	Kumar

This table is labeled 'Deleted Virtual Table'.

User_Id	FirstName	LastName	Address
1	13	Smith	Kumar
2	2	Crown	shama
3	3	Copper	vema
4	4	lee	vema
5	5	Rajesh	Kumar
6	6	Rahu	shama
7	7	Ravi	vema
8	8	Leon	Sydney
9	9	Mathews	Anglo
10	10	Ben	Ion
11	2	Manoj	Kumar
12	9	Monu	Shama

This table is labeled 'UserDetails table'.

Exception Handling: We handle errors of a program both in a programming language as well as databases also. whereas handling an error in a programming language needs stopping the abnormal termination and allowing the statements which are not related with the error to execute where as handling as error in sqlserver means stopping the execution of statements which are related with the error

Handling Errors In SQL Server: From sqlserver 2005 we are provided with a structure error handling mechanism with the help of TRY and CATCH blocks which should be used as following,

```
Begin Try
<Statements>
End Try

Begin Catch
<Statements>
End Catch
```

Ex: A procedure for dividing two numbers

```
CREATE PROCEDURE PDIV(@X INT,@Y INT)
AS
BEGIN
DECLARE @Z INT
BEGIN TRY
SET @Z=@X/@Y
PRINT 'THE RESULT IS:-'+CAST(@Z AS CHAR)
END TRY
BEGIN CATCH
PRINT ERROR_NUMBER()
END CATCH
END
```

Exec PDIV 100,5

Error Message(): It is used to display the information about the error occurred.

CURSOR: Cursor is a memory location for storing database tables. cursor is a temporary work area allotted to the client at server when a SQL statement is executed. A cursor contains information on a select statement and the rows of data accessed by it.

This temporary work area is used to store the data retrieved from the database, and manipulate this data. A cursor can hold more than one row, but can process only one row at a time. The set of rows the cursor holds is called the *Result set*.

There are two types of cursors in T/SQL:

Implicit Cursors: These cursors will be created by SQL server by default when select statement will executed. Select statement will show records in the table as a set or result set.

Explicit Cursors: When user can create a memory location to store the tables then it is called as Explicit Cursors. These cursors will access the records in the table record by record or one by one only. Whenever we want to go for record by record manipulation then explicit cursors will be used.

Steps To Create Cursor:

1)Declaring A Cursor:In this process we define a cursor.

Syntax: Declare <cursorname> cursor for < select statement>

2)Opening A Cursor:When we open a cursor it will internally execute the select statement that is associated with the cursor declartion and load the data into cursor.

Syntax: Open < cursorname>

3)Fetching Data From The Cursor:In this process we access row by row from cursor.

Syntax: Fetch first/last/next/prior/absolute n/relative n from <cursorname> into <variables>

4)Closing A Cursor: In this Process,it releases the current result set of the cursor leaving the datastructure available for reopening.

Syntax: Close <cursorname>

5) Deallocate A Cursor: It removes the cursor reference and deallocate it by destroye the data structure.

Syntax: Deallocate <cursorname>

@@Fetch Status: It is global variable use to check wheather cursor variable contains records or not.if record is there then the value will be zero other wise value will be -1.

Example To Work with Cursor:

Ex: Create an explicit cursor to display all the records from the table.

Sol: declare @**dno** int,@**dname** char(20),@**loc** varchar(20)
declare **c1** cursor for select * from **dept**
open **c1**
fetch next from **c1** into @**dno**,@**dname**,@**loc**
while @@**FETCH_STATUS**=0
begin
print @**dno**
print @**dname**
print @**loc**
fetch next from **c1** into @**dno**,@**dname**,@**loc**
end
close **c1**
deallocate **c1**

Ex: Create an explicit cursor to display salaries of each employee in the table.

```
declare @ename varchar(50),@sal money
declare empcur cursor for select name,sal from employee
open empcur
fetch next from empcur into @ename,@sal
while @@FETCH_STATUS=0
begin
print 'Salary Of'+' '+@ename+'is:-'+cast(@sal as varchar)
fetch next from empcur into @ename,@sal
end
close empcur
deallocate empcur
```

Ex: Write a program to increment the salaries of all the employee basing on the following criteria President 10%,Manager 5% and others 3%.

```
Declare @eno int,@job varchar(20)
Delclare empcur cursor for select Eid,Job from employee
Open empcur
Fetch next from empcur into @eno,@job
While @@Fetch_Status=0
Begin
If @job='president'
Update employee set sal+=sal*0.10 where eid=@eno
Else if @job='Manager'
Update employee set sal+=sal*0.05 where eid=@eno
Else
Update employee set sal+=sal*0.03 where eid=@eno
Fetch next from empcur into @eno,@job
End
Close empcur
Deallocate empcur
```

Forward only and Scroll Cursors:

If a cursor is declared as forward only it allows you to navigate only to the next records in sequential order and moreover it supports only a singleton fashion method that is fetch next(one-by-one) whereas a scroll cursor allows you to navigate/fetch Bidirectionally that is top-bottom or bottom-top also. And it supports six different fetch methods are
Fetch Next, Fetch First, Fetch Last, Fetch Prior, Fetch Absolute, Fetch Relative.

Ex: Create an explicit cursor to fetch the records One-by-One manner(First-Last) from the table.

Sol: declare **c1** cursor for select * from **dept**
open **c1**
fetch next from **c1**
while @@FETCH_STATUS=0
begin
fetch next from **c1**
end
close **c1**
deallocate **c1**

Ex: Create an explicit cursor to fetch the records from bottom-first (Last-First) from the table.

Sol: declare **c1** cursor **scroll** for select * from **dept**
open **c1**
fetch **last** from **c1**
while @@FETCH_STATUS=0
begin
fetch **prior** from **c1**
end
close **c1**
deallocate **c1**

Ex: Create an explicit cursor on fetching methods.

```
declare @id int
declare e cursor scroll
for select sid from student
open e
fetch next from e into @id
print @id
fetch last from e into @id
print @id
fetch prior from e into @id
print @id
fetch absolute 3 from e into @id
print @id
fetch relative -1 from e into @id
print @id
fetch first from e into @id
print @id
close e
deallocate e
```

Static & Dynamic Cursors: If a cursor is declare as static after opening the cursor any modifications that are performed to the data in the table will not be reflected into cursor so the cursor contains old values only in it.

```
Declare @sal money
Declare c1 cursor static for select sal from employee
Where eid=100
Open c1
Update employee set sal=25000 where eid=100
Fetch next from c1 into @sal
Print @sal
Close c1
Deal locate c1
```

Before executing the above program verify the salary of employee 100 and then execute the program even if the program is updating the salary in the table the

fetch statement will still display us the old value of the table only but not the new value.

If we want the change made on the table to be reflected into the cursor after opening the cursor declare the cursor as dynamic

DATA CONTROL LANGUAGE

Authentication: Authentication is a process of verifying the credentials of a user to login into the system.

Authorization: Authorization is process of verifying whether the user has permissions to perform any operation on the database.

Data Control Language: DCL commands are used to enforce database security in multiple users' database environment. These are two types....

- GRANT
- REVOKE

GRANT: Grant command is used for giving a privilege or permission for a user to perform operations on the database.

Syntax: GRANT <Privilege Name> on <object name>

To {User} [With GRANT OPTION]

Privilege Name: Used to grant permission to the users for some rights are ALL, EXECUTE and SELECT.

Object Name: It is the name of database objects like Table, Views and Stored Procedure etc....

User: Used for to whom an access rights is being granted.

With Grant Option: Allows a user to grant access rights to other users.

REVOKE: Revoke command removes user access rights / privileges to the database OR taking back the permission that is given to a user.

Syntax: Revoke <privilege name> on <object name > from {user}

Normalization: Normalization is the process of efficiently organizing data in a database. There are two goals of the normalization process are,

- Eliminating redundant data (for example, storing the same data in more than one table) and
- Ensuring data dependencies make sense (only storing related data in a table).

Both of these are worthy goals as they reduce the amount of space a database consumes and ensure that data is logically stored.

There are several benefits for using Normalization in Database.

Benefits:

- a. Eliminate data redundancy
- b. Improve performance
- c. Query optimization
- d. Faster update due to less number of columns in one table
- e. Index improvement

There are different types of Normalizations form available in the Database. Let's see one by one.

1. First Normal Form (1NF): First normal form (1NF) sets the very basic rules for an organized database:

- Eliminate duplicative columns from the same table.
- Create separate tables for each group of related data and identify each row with a unique column or set of columns (the primary key).
 - a. Remove repetitive groups
 - b. Create Primary Key

Example:

Name	State	Country	Phone1	Phone2	Phone3
John	101	1	488-511-3258	781-896-9897	425-983-9812
Bob	102	1	861-856-6987		
Rob	201	2	587-963-8425	425-698-9684	
PK [Phone No's]					
?					
ID	Name	State	Country	Phone	
1	John	101	1	488-511-3258	
2	John	101	1	781-896-9897	
3	John	101	1	425-983-9812	
4	Bob	102	1	861-856-6987	
5	Rob	201	2	587-963-8425	
6	Rob	201	2	425-698-9684	

2. Second Normal Form (2NF): Second normal form (2NF) further addresses the concept of removing duplicative data:

- Meet all the requirements of the first normal form.
- Remove subsets of data that apply to multiple rows of a table and place them in separate tables.

Remove columns which create duplicate data in a table and related a new table with Primary Key - Foreign Key relationship

ID	Name	State	Country	Phone
1	John	101	1	488-511-3258
2	John	101	1	781-896-9897
3	John	101	1	425-983-9812
4	Bob	102	1	861-856-6987
5	Rob	201	2	587-963-8425
6	Rob	201	2	425-698-9684

ID	Name	State	Country
1	John	101	
2	Bob	102	
3	Rob	201	

PhoneID	ID	Phone
1	1	488-511-3258
2	1	781-896-9897
3	1	425-983-9812
4	2	587-963-8425
5	3	587-963-8425
6	3	425-698-9684

3. Third Normal Form (3NF): Third normal form (3NF) goes one large step further:

- Meet all the requirements of the second normal form.
- Remove columns those are not dependent upon the primary key.

Country can be derived from State also... so removing country

ID	Name	State	Country
1	John	101	1
2	Bob	102	1
3	Rob	201	2

4. Fourth Normal Form (4NF): Finally, fourth normal form (4NF) has one additional requirement:

- Meet all the requirements of the third normal form.
- A relation is in 4NF if it has no multi-valued dependencies.

If PK is composed of multiple columns then all non-key attributes should be derived from FULL PK only. If some non-key attribute can be derived from partial PK then remove it. The 4NF also known as BCNF NF

ID	Name	State
1	John	101
2	Bob	102
3	Rob	201

5. Fifth Normal Form (5NF): A database table is said to be in 5NF if it is in 4NF and contains no redundant values or We can also said a table to be in 5NF if it is in 4NF and contains no join dependencies.

*****ALL THE BEST*****

By

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