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## Introduction to Databases and SQL

In this tutorial, we'll learn about databases, different types of databases and their uses.

A database is an organized collection of data so that it can be easily accessed. To manage these databases, **Database Management Systems (DBMS)** are used.

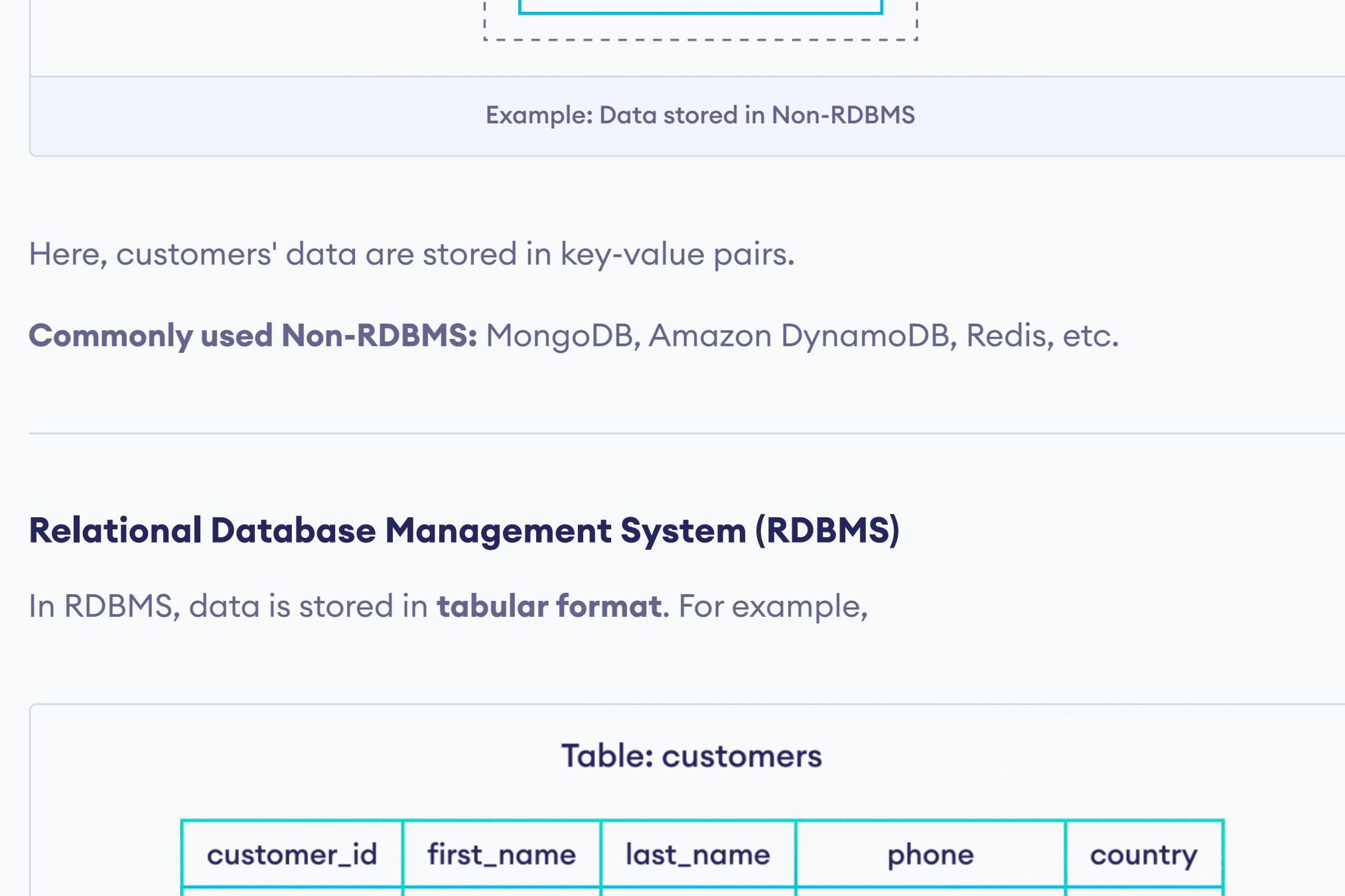
### Types of DBMS

In general, there are two common types of databases:

- Non-Relational
- Relational

### Non-Relational Database Management System (Non-RDBMS)

In Non-RDBMS, data is stored in **key-value pairs**. For example:



Here, customers' data are stored in key-value pairs.

**Commonly used Non-RDBMS:** MongoDB, Amazon DynamoDB, Redis, etc.

### Relational Database Management System (RDBMS)

In RDBMS, data is stored in **tabular format**. For example,

Table: customers				
customer_id	first_name	last_name	phone	country
1	John	Doe	817-646-8833	USA
2	Robert	Luna	412-862-0502	USA
3	David	Robinson	208-340-7906	UK
4	John	Reinhardt	307-242-6285	UK
5	Betty	Taylor	806-749-2958	UAE

Example: Relational Database

Here, `customers` is a table inside the database.

The first row is the attributes of the table. Each row after that contains the data of a customer.

In RDBMS, two or more tables may be related to each other. Hence the term "**Relational**". For example,

Table: orders			
order_id	product	total	customer_id
1	Paper	500	5
2	Pen	10	2
3	Marker	120	3
4	Books	1000	1
5	Erasers	20	4

Table: customers				
customer_id	first_name	last_name	phone	country
1	John	Doe	817-646-8833	USA
2	Robert	Luna	412-862-0502	USA
3	David	Robinson	208-340-7906	UK
4	John	Reinhardt	307-242-6285	UK
5	Betty	Taylor	806-749-2958	UAE

Example: Relationship in RDBMS

Here, orders and customers are related through `customer_id`.

**Commonly used RDBMS:** MySQL, PostgreSQL, MSSQL, Oracle etc.

**Note:** To access data from these relational databases, **SQL (Structured Query Language)** is used.

### Introduction to SQL

**Structured Query Language (SQL)** is a standard query language that is used to work with relational databases.

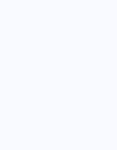
We use SQL to

- create databases
- create tables in a database
- read data from a table
- insert data in a table
- update data in a table
- delete data from a table
- delete database tables
- delete databases
- and many more database operations

### SQL Example: Read Data From a Table

Let's take a look at an example,

```
SELECT first_name, last_name FROM Customers;
```



Run Code >

Here, this SQL command selects the first name and last name of all customers from the customers table.

Table: customers				
customer_id	first_name	last_name	phone	country
1	John	Doe	817-646-8833	USA
2	Robert	Luna	412-862-0502	USA
3	David	Robinson	208-340-7906	UK
4	John	Reinhardt	307-242-6285	UK
5	Betty	Taylor	806-749-2958	UAE

Example: SQL SELECT Statement

SQL is used in all relational databases such as MySQL, Oracle, MSSQL, PostgreSQL etc.

**Note:** The major SQL commands are similar in all relational databases. However, in some cases, SQL commands may differ.

In this SQL tutorial series, we will learn about SQL in detail. We will cover any SQL command differences among MySQL, Oracle, SQL Server, Postgres, and other commonly used database systems.

Next Tutorial: →

[SQL SELECT Statement](#)

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## SQL SELECT

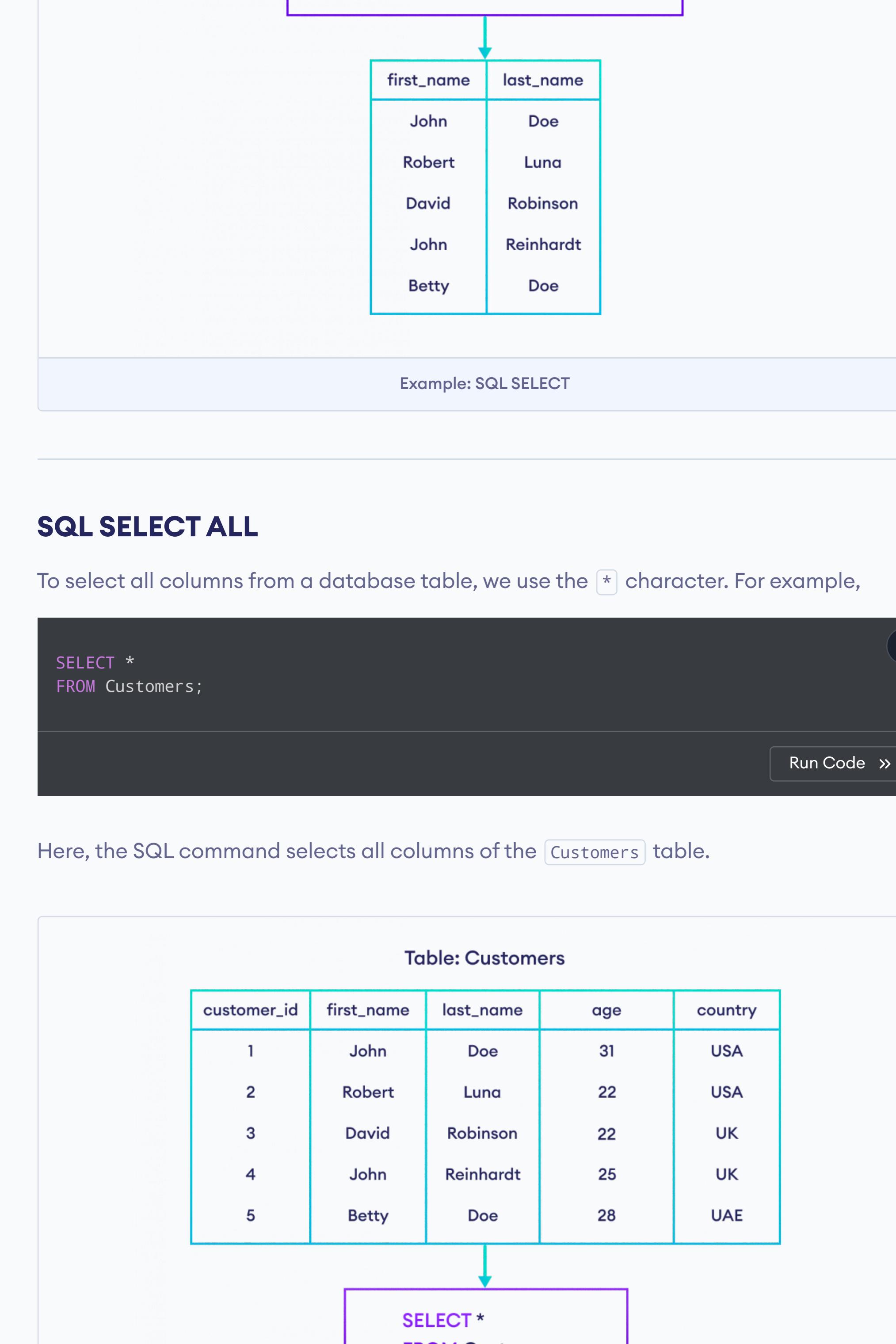
In this tutorial, we'll learn about the SQL SELECT statement with the help of examples.

The SQL `SELECT` statement is used to select (retrieve) data from a database table. For example,

```
SELECT first_name, last_name
FROM Customers;
```

Run Code >

Here, the SQL command selects the `first_name` and `last_name` of all `Customers`.



Example: SQL SELECT

Related Topics
SQL SELECT INTO Statement
SQL AND, OR, and NOT Operators
SQL INSERT INTO SELECT Statement
SQL IN Operator
SQL LIMIT, TOP and FETCH FIRST
SQL SELECT DISTINCT Statement

## SQL SELECT ALL

To select all columns from a database table, we use the `*` character. For example,

```
SELECT *
FROM Customers;
```

Run Code >

Here, the SQL command selects all columns of the `Customers` table.



Example: SQL SELECT All

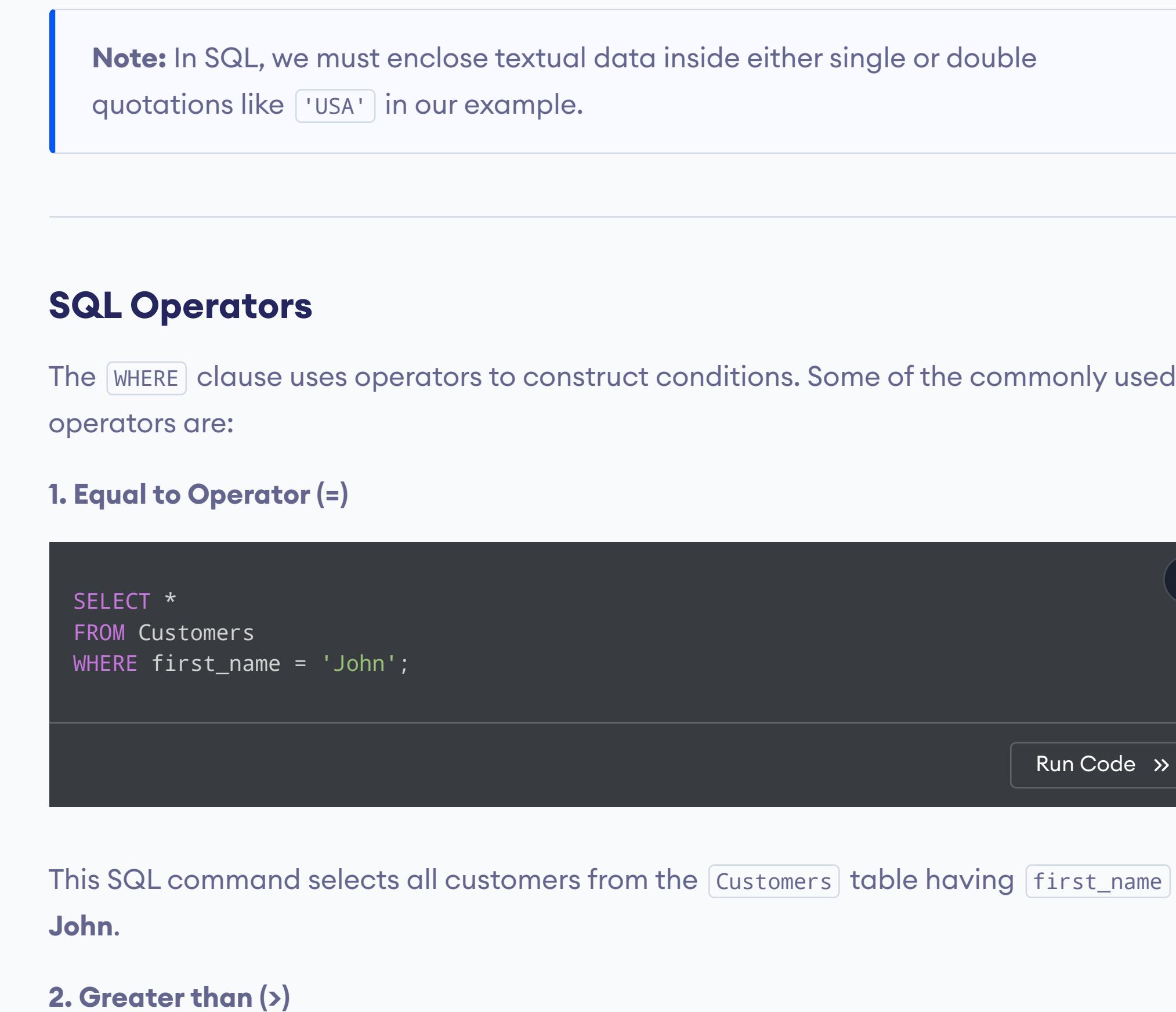
## SQL SELECT WHERE Clause

A `SELECT` statement can have an optional `WHERE` clause. The `WHERE` clause allows us to fetch records from a database table that matches specified condition(s). For example,

```
SELECT *
FROM Customers
WHERE last_name = 'Doe';
```

Run Code >

Here, the SQL command selects all customers from the `Customers` table with `last_name` `Doe`.



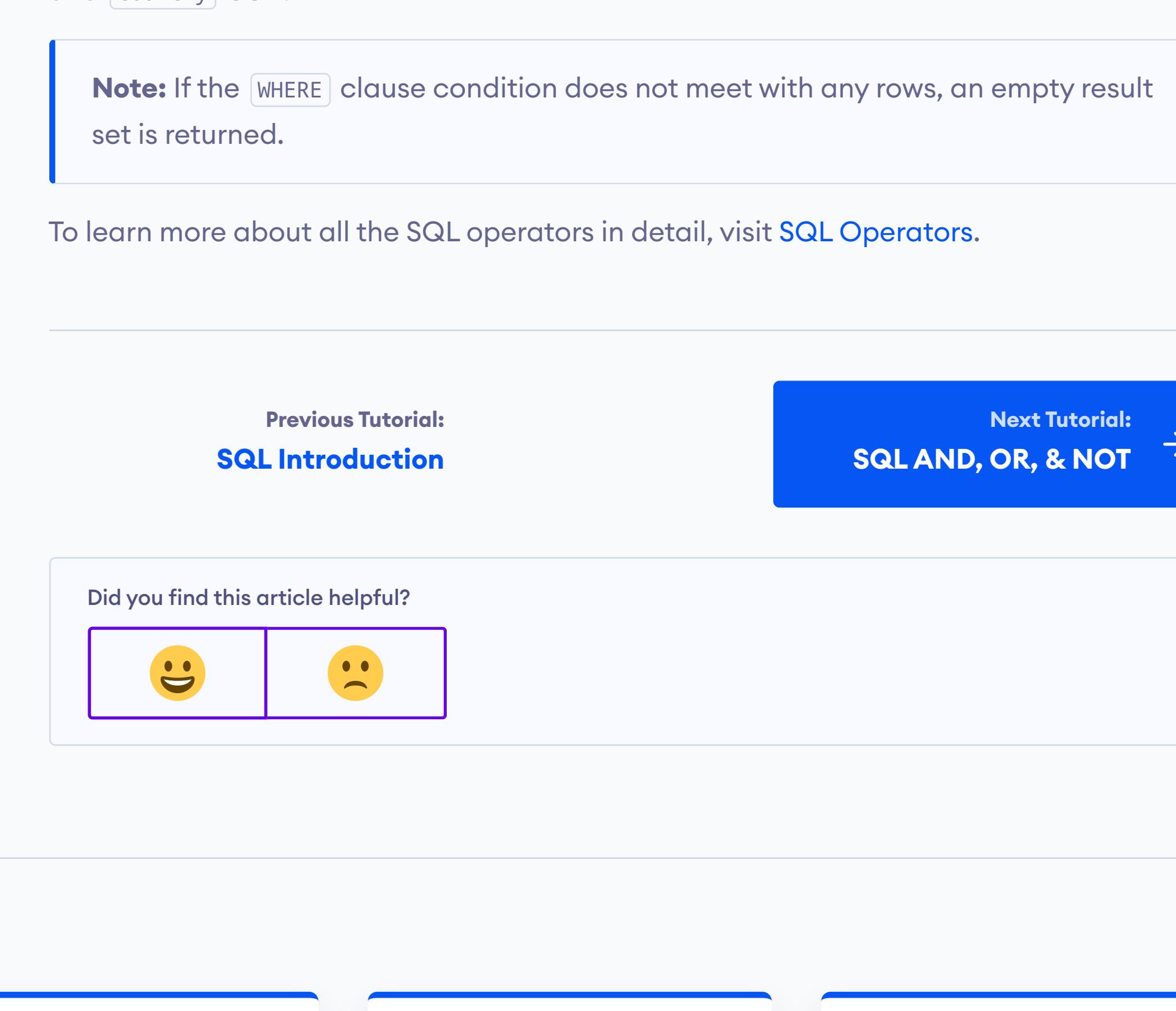
Example: SQL SELECT with WHERE

Let's see another example.

```
SELECT age, country
FROM Customers
WHERE country = 'USA';
```

Run Code >

Here, the SQL command fetches `age` and `country` fields of all customers whose `country` is `USA`.



Note: In SQL, we must enclose textual data inside either single or double quotations like `'USA'` in our example.

## SQL Operators

The `WHERE` clause uses operators to construct conditions. Some of the commonly used operators are:

### 1. Equal to Operator (=)

```
SELECT *
FROM Customers
WHERE first_name = 'John';
```

Run Code >

This SQL command selects all customers from the `Customers` table having `first_name` `John`.

### 2. Greater than (>)

```
SELECT *
FROM Customers
WHERE age > 25;
```

Run Code >

This SQL command selects all customers from the `Customers` table having `age` greater than `25`.

### 3. AND Operator (AND)

```
SELECT *
FROM Customers
WHERE last_name = 'Doe' AND country = 'USA';
```

Run Code >

This SQL command selects all customers from the `Customers` table having `last_name` `Doe` and `country` `USA`.

Note: If the `WHERE` clause condition does not meet with any rows, an empty result set is returned.

To learn more about all the SQL operators in detail, visit [SQL Operators](#).

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[SQL Introduction](#)

Next Tutorial:  
[SQL AND, OR, & NOT](#) →



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## SQL AND, OR, and NOT Operators

In this tutorial, we'll learn to use the AND, OR, and NOT operators in SQL with the help of various examples.

The AND, OR and NOT operators in SQL are used with the WHERE or HAVING clauses.

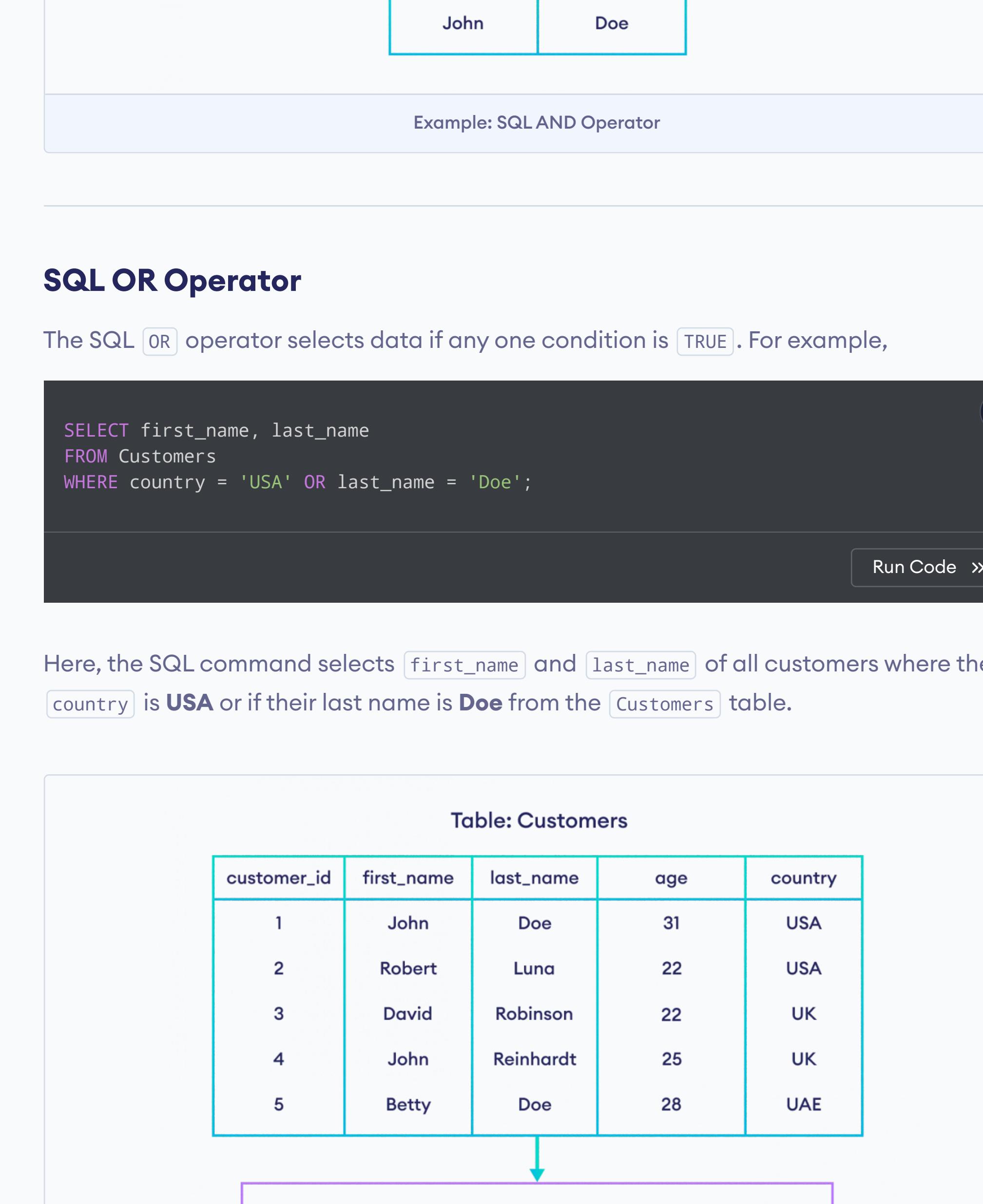
### SQL AND Operator

The SQL AND operator selects data if all conditions are TRUE. For example,

```
SELECT first_name, last_name
FROM Customers
WHERE country = 'USA' AND last_name = 'Doe';
```

Run Code >

Here, the SQL command selects first\_name and last\_name of all customers where the country is USA and last\_name as Doe from the Customers table.



Related Topics
SQL SELECT
SQL IN Operator
SQL LIKE and NOT LIKE Operators
SQL LIMIT, TOP and FETCH FIRST
SQL ORDER BY Clause
SQL Wildcards

### SQL OR Operator

The SQL OR operator selects data if any one condition is TRUE. For example,

```
SELECT first_name, last_name
FROM Customers
WHERE country = 'USA' OR last_name = 'Doe';
```

Run Code >

Here, the SQL command selects first\_name and last\_name of all customers where the country is USA or if their last name is Doe from the Customers table.



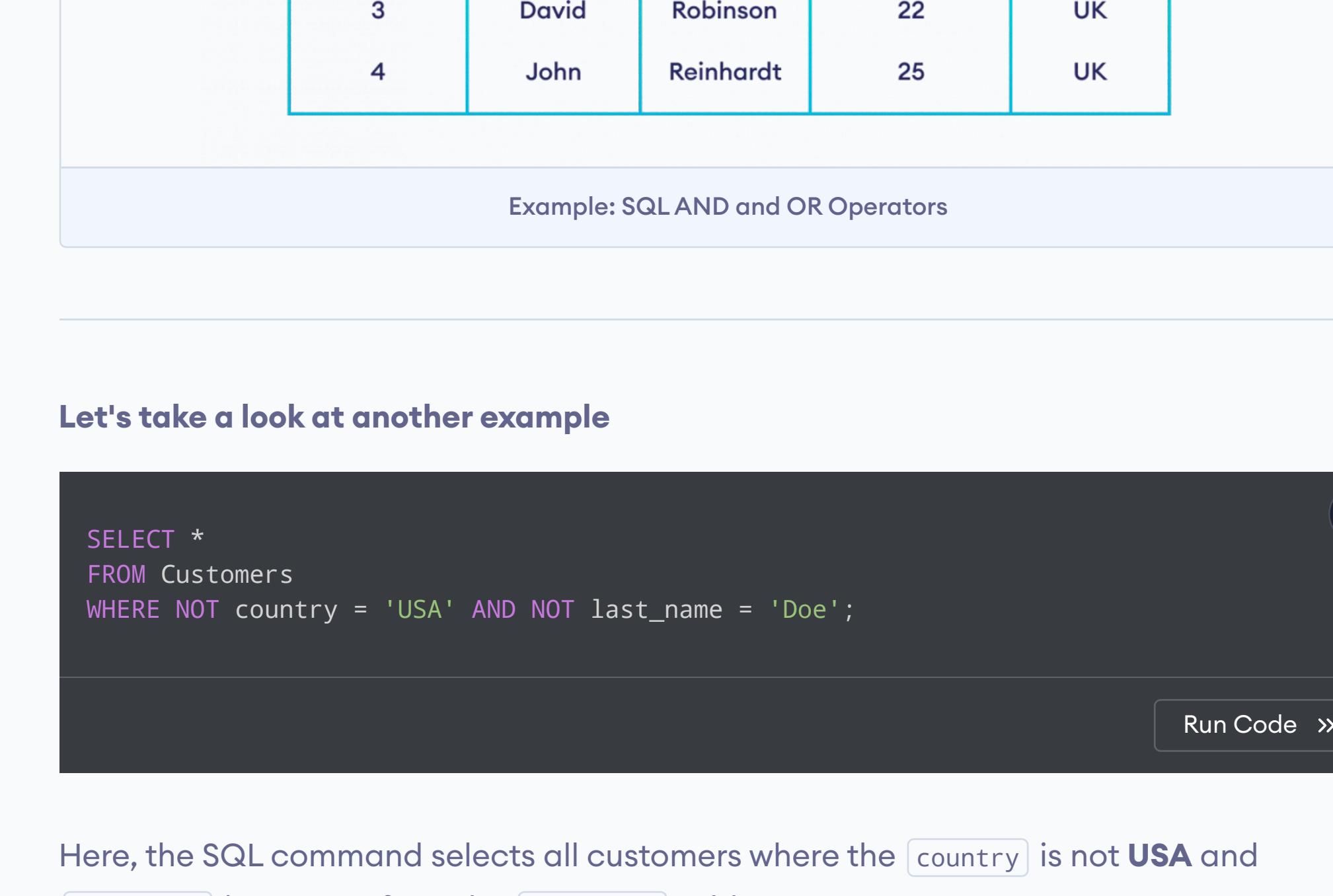
### SQL NOT Operator

The SQL NOT operator selects data if the given condition is FALSE. For example

```
SELECT first_name, last_name
FROM Customers
WHERE NOT country = 'USA';
```

Run Code >

Here, the SQL command selects first\_name and last\_name of all customers where the country is not USA from the Customers table.



### Combining Multiple Operators

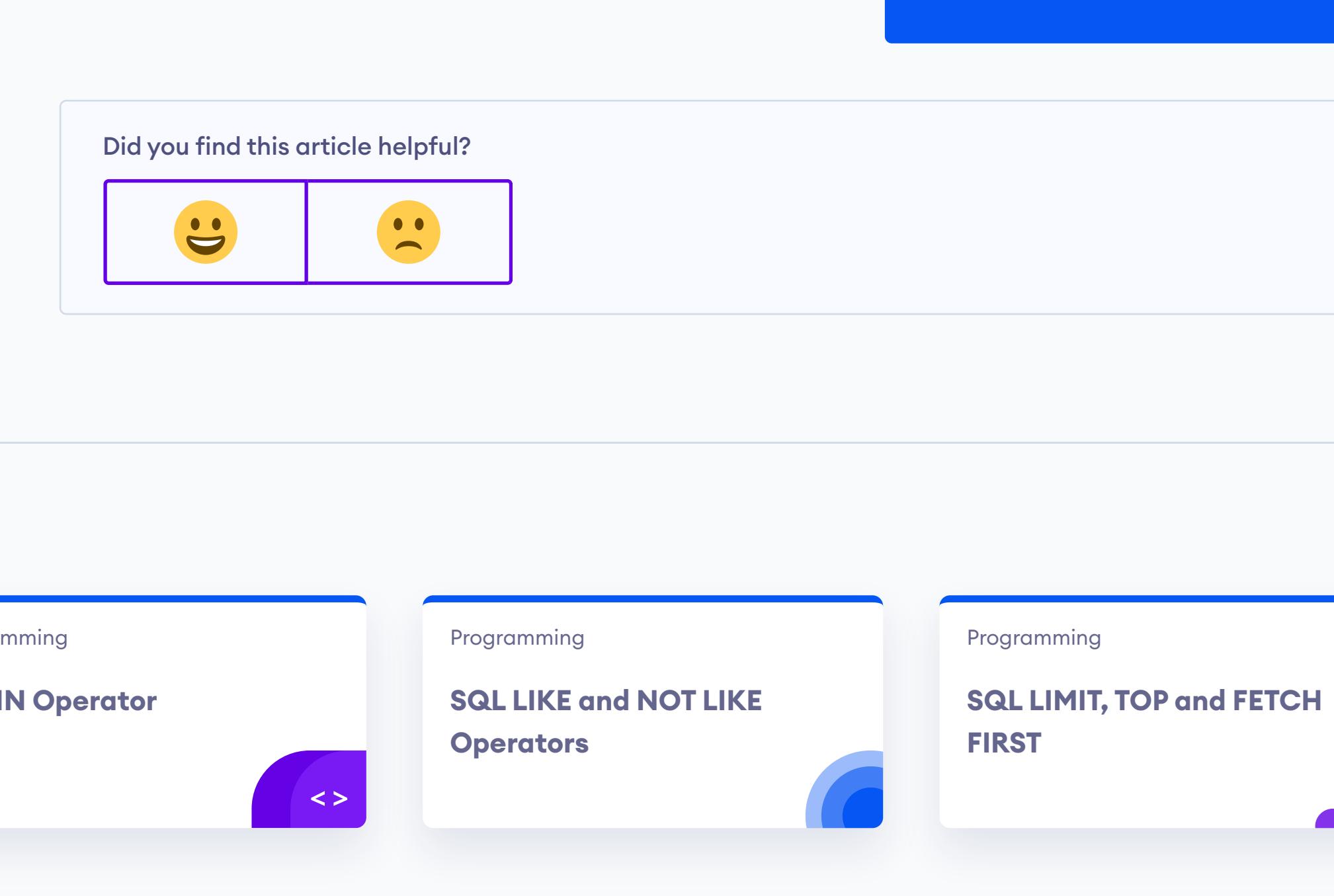
It is also possible to combine multiple AND, OR and NOT operators in an SQL statement. For example,

Let's suppose we want to select customers where the country is either USA or UK, and the age is less than 26.

```
SELECT *
FROM Customers
WHERE (country = 'USA' OR country = 'UK') AND age < 26;
```

Run Code >

Here, the SQL command selects all customers where the country is either USA or UK, and the age is less than 26.

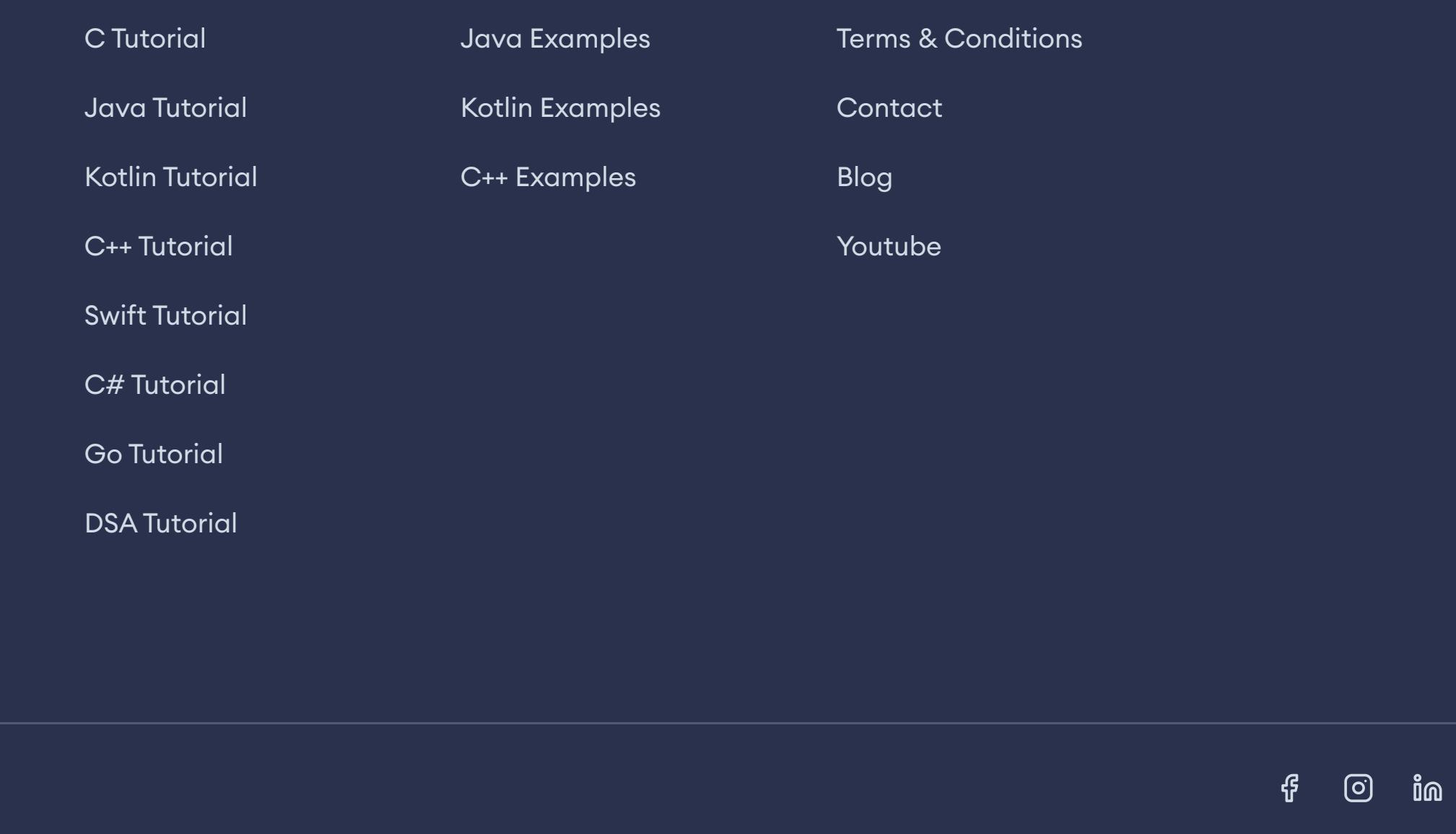


### Let's take a look at another example

```
SELECT *
FROM Customers
WHERE NOT country = 'USA' AND NOT last_name = 'Doe';
```

Run Code >

Here, the SQL command selects all customers where the country is not USA and last\_name is not Doe from the Customers table.



Previous Tutorial:

[SQL SELECT Statement](#)

Next Tutorial:

[SQL SELECT DISTINCT](#) →

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## SQL SELECT DISTINCT Statement

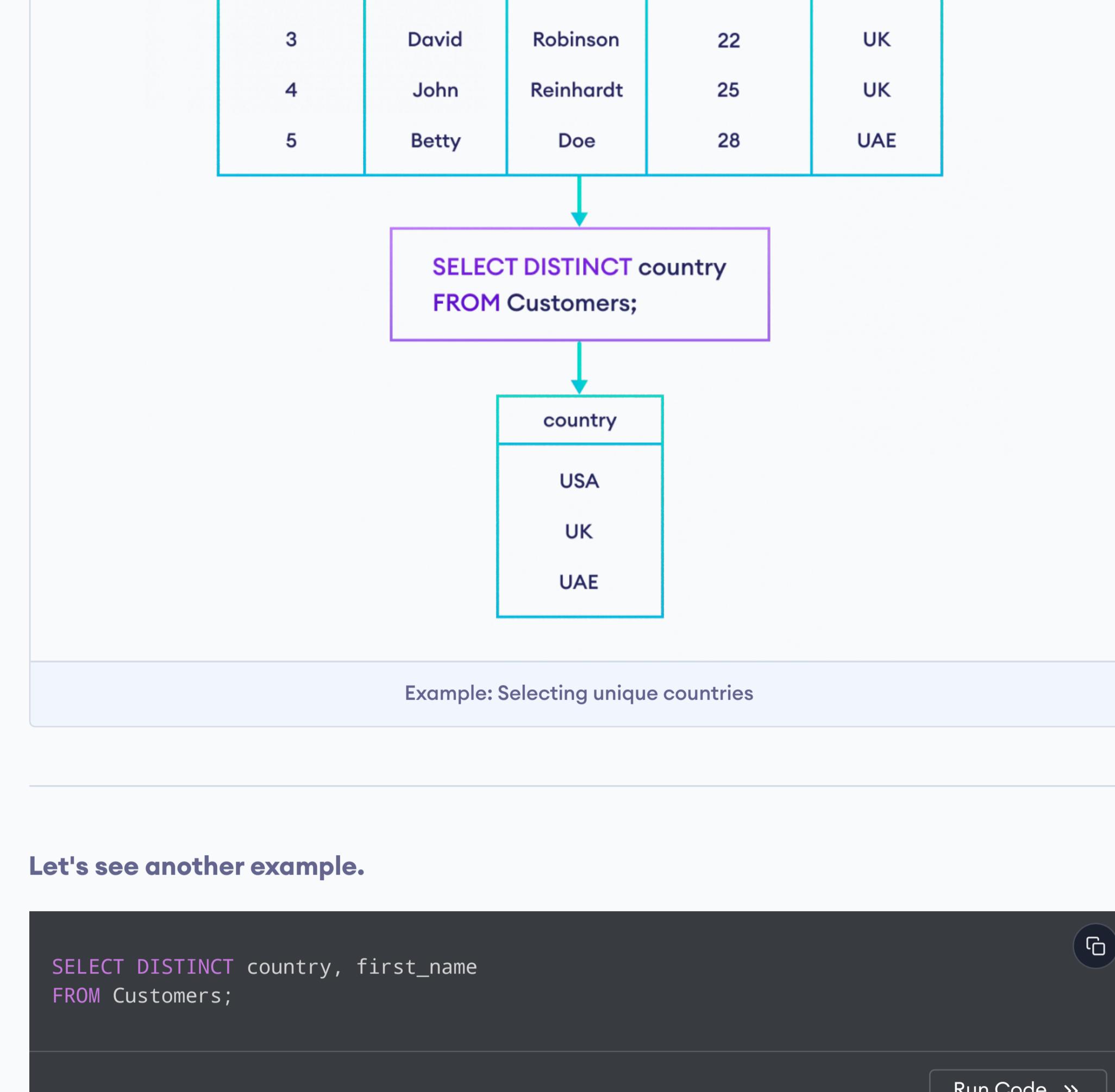
In this tutorial, you'll learn about the SQL DISTINCT clause and how to use it with the help of various examples.

The SQL `SELECT DISTINCT` statement selects unique rows from a database table. For example,

```
SELECT DISTINCT country
FROM Customers;
```

[Run Code >>](#)

Here, the SQL command selects unique countries from the `Customers` table.



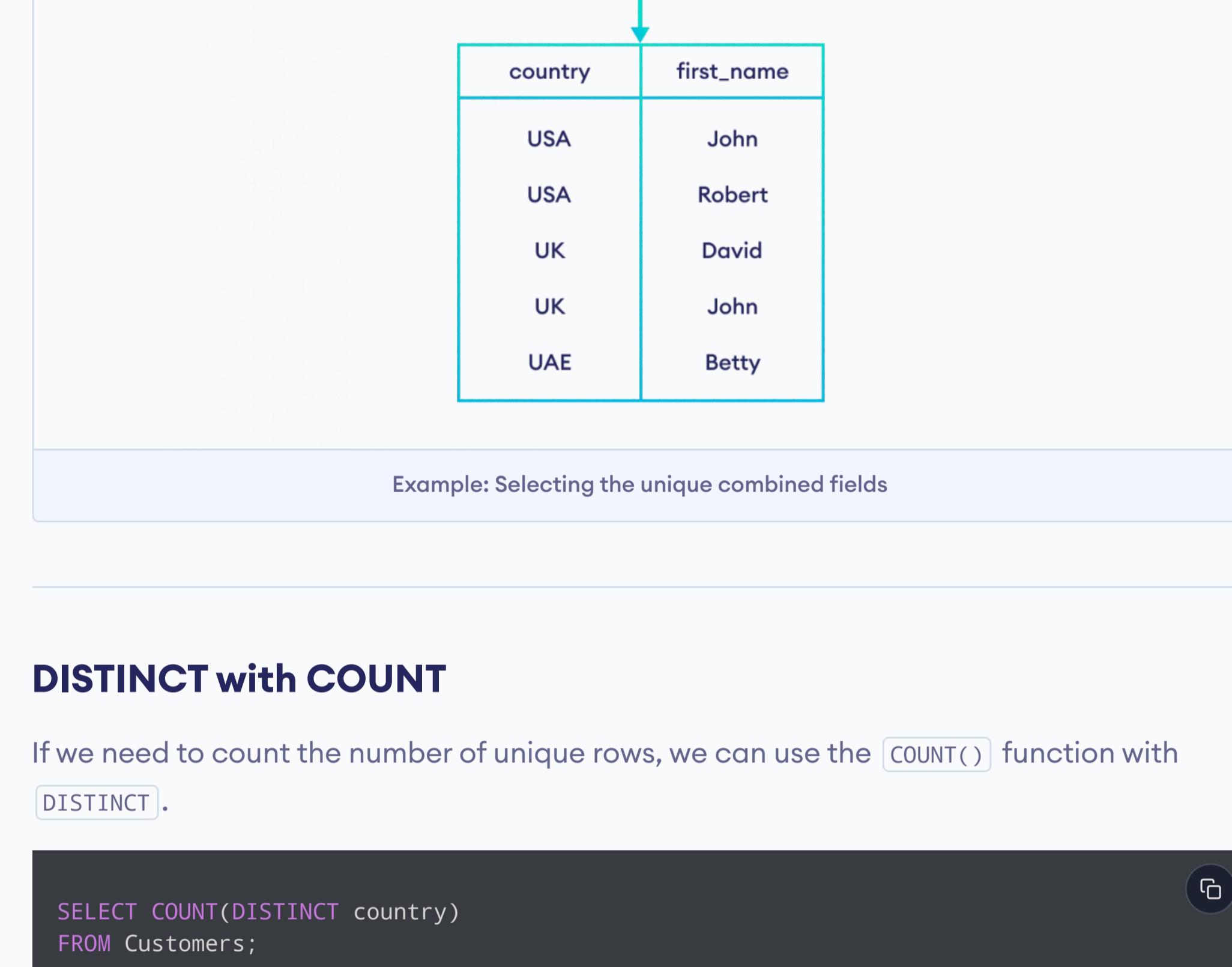
Example: Selecting unique countries

Let's see another example.

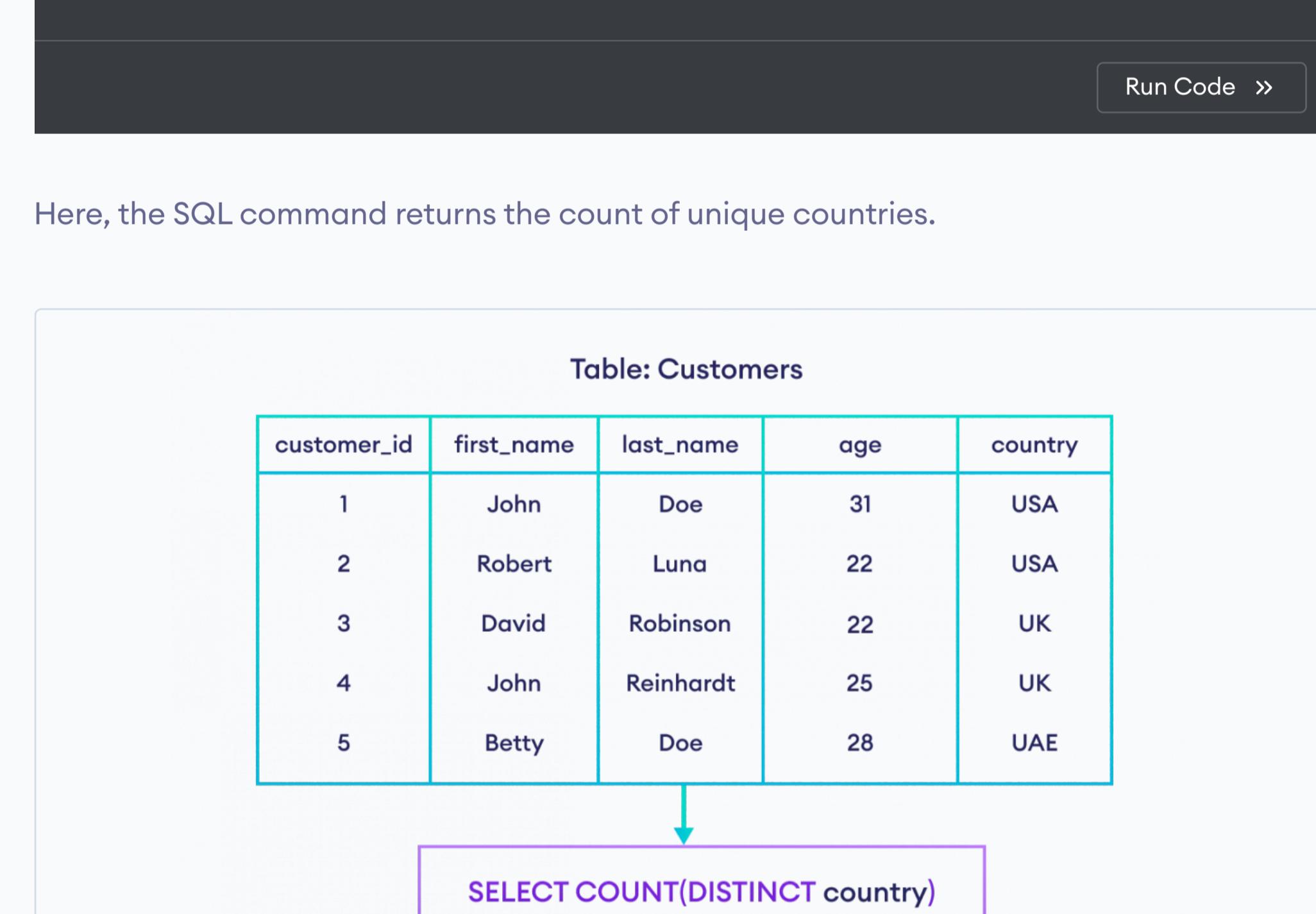
```
SELECT DISTINCT country, first_name
FROM Customers;
```

[Run Code >>](#)

Here, the SQL command selects rows if the combination of `country` and `first_name` is unique.

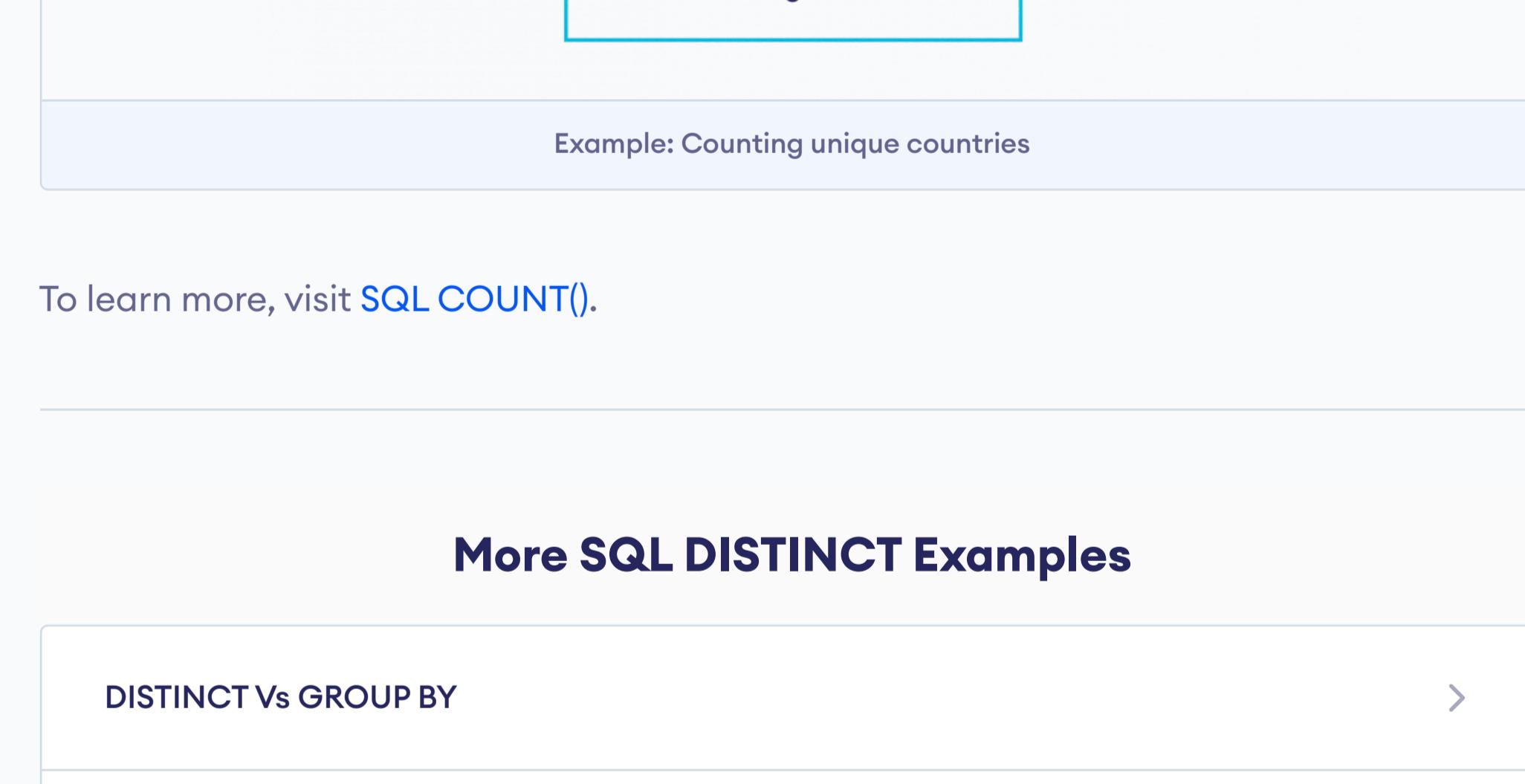


Example: Selecting the unique combined fields



[Run Code >>](#)

Here, the SQL command returns the count of unique countries.



Example: Counting unique countries

To learn more, visit [SQL COUNT\(\)](#).

## More SQL DISTINCT Examples

[DISTINCT Vs GROUP BY](#)

[DISTINCT With ORDER BY](#)

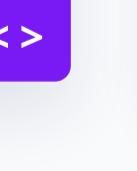
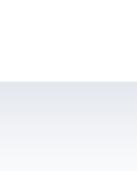
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## SQL SELECT AS Alias

In this tutorial, we'll learn about SQL AS Alias with the help of examples.

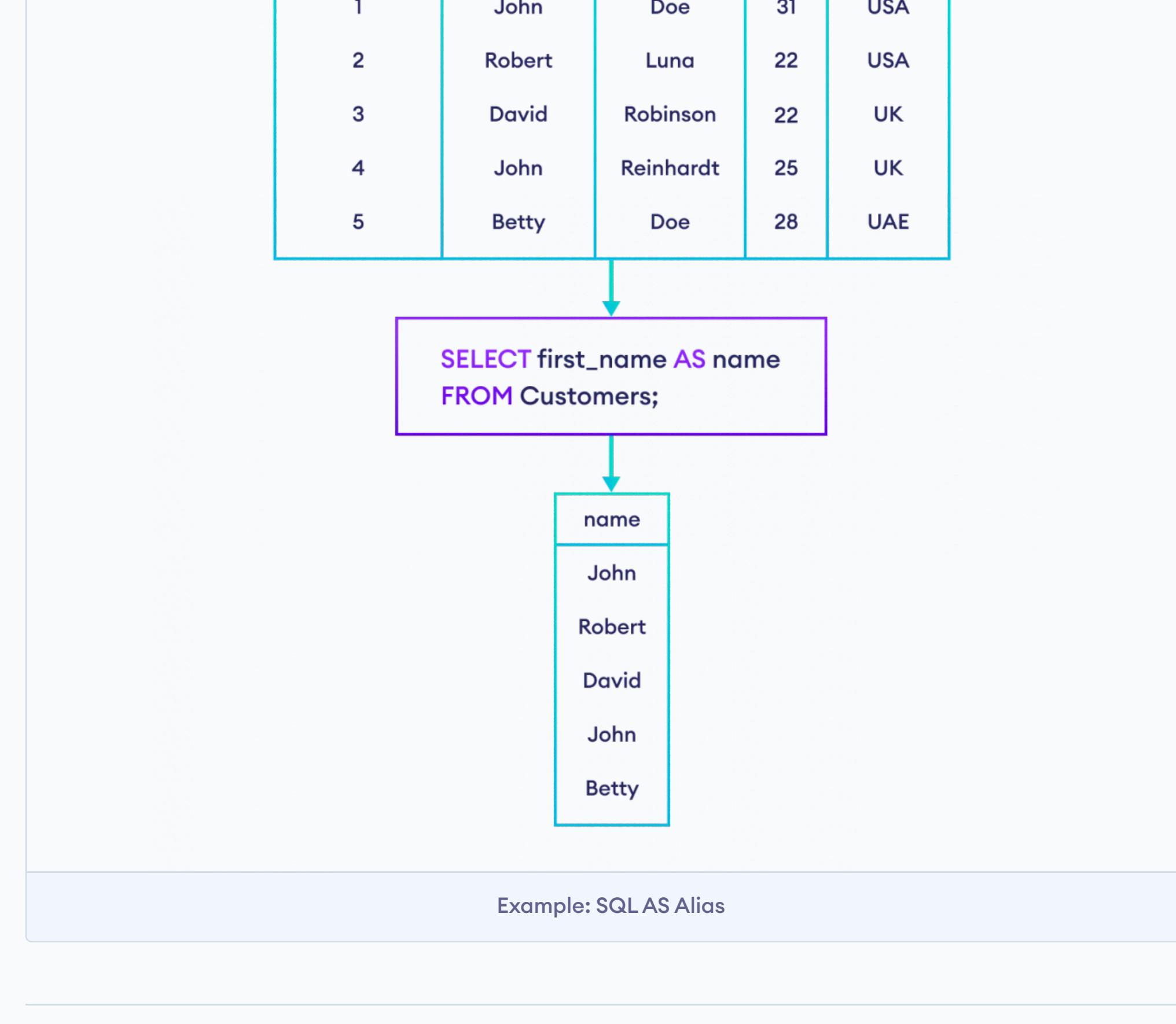
### SQL AS Alias

The `AS` keyword is used to give columns or tables a temporary name that can be used to identify that column or table later. For example,

```
SELECT first_name AS name  
FROM Customers;
```

[Run Code >>](#)

Here, the SQL command selects the `first_name` of `Customers`. However, its column name will be `name` instead of `first_name` in the result set.



Example: SQL AS Alias

### Related Topics

- [SQL JOIN](#)
- [SQL INNER JOIN](#)
- [SQL RIGHT JOIN](#)
- [SQL FULL OUTER JOIN](#)
- [SQL LEFT JOIN](#)
- [SQL SELECT INTO Statement](#)

### SQL AS With More Than One Column

We can also use aliases with more than one column. For example,

```
SELECT customer_id AS cid, first_name AS name  
FROM Customers;
```

[Run Code >>](#)

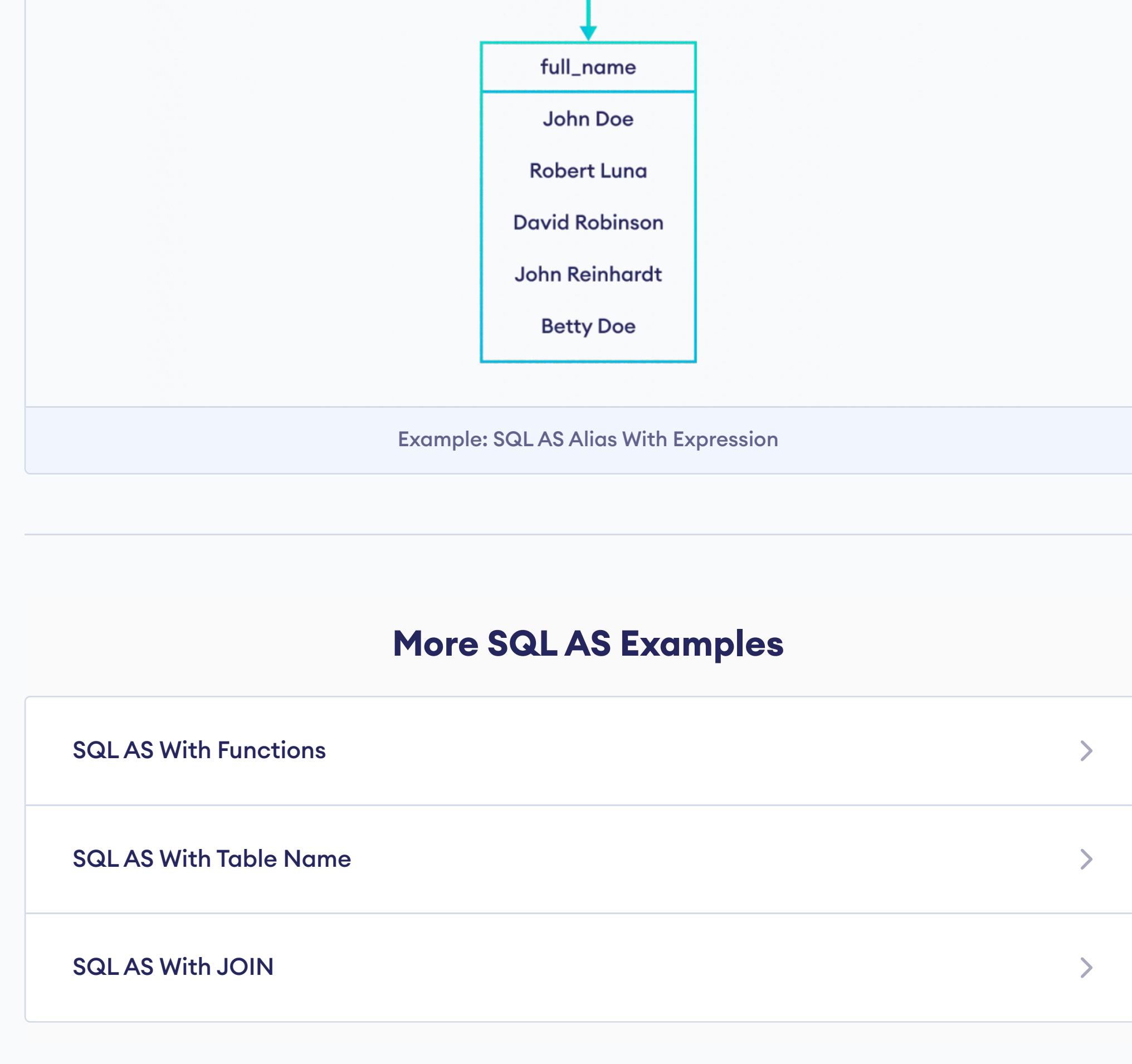
Here, the SQL command selects `customer_id` as `cid` and `first_name` as `name`.

### SQL AS With Expression

We can combine data from multiple columns and represent data in a single column using the `CONCAT()` function. For example,

```
SELECT CONCAT(first_name, ' ', last_name) AS full_name  
FROM Customers;
```

Here, the SQL command selects `first_name` and `last_name`. And, the name of the column will be `full_name` in the result set.



Example: SQL AS Alias With Expression

### More SQL AS Examples

<a href="#">SQL AS With Functions</a>	>
<a href="#">SQL AS With Table Name</a>	>
<a href="#">SQL AS With JOIN</a>	>

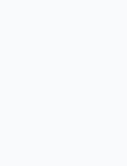
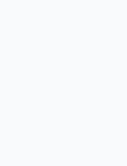
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## SQL LIMIT, TOP and FETCH FIRST

In this tutorial, we'll learn about the SQL LIMIT, TOP and FETCH FIRST constraints with the help of examples.

The `SELECT TOP` command is used to select a fixed number of rows from a database. For example,

```
SELECT TOP 2 *
FROM Customers;
```

Here, the SQL command selects the first **2** rows from the table.



Example: SQL TOP Clause

**Note:** The `TOP` clause is not supported in all Database Management Systems (DBMS). Different DBMS use different keywords to select a fixed number of rows.

For example,

Keyword	Database System
<code>TOP</code>	SQL Server, MS Access
<code>LIMIT</code>	MySQL, PostgreSQL, SQLite
<code>FETCH FIRST</code>	Oracle

### SQL LIMIT Clause

The `LIMIT` keyword is used with the following database systems:

- MySQL
- PostgreSQL
- SQLite

Let's see an example,

```
SELECT first_name, age
FROM Customers
LIMIT 2;
```

Run Code >

Here, the SQL command selects the first **2** rows from the table.

### SQL LIMIT With OFFSET Clause

The `OFFSET` keyword is used to specify starting rows from where to select rows. For example,

```
SELECT first_name, last_name
FROM Customers
LIMIT 2 OFFSET 3;
```

Run Code >

Here, the SQL command selects **2** rows starting from the fourth row. `OFFSET 3` means the first **3** rows are excluded.



Example: SQL LIMIT Clause with OFFSET

### SQL TOP Clause

The `TOP` keyword is used with the following database systems:

- SQL Server
- MS Access

Let's see an example,

```
SELECT TOP 2 first_name, last_name
FROM Customers;
```

Here, the SQL command selects `first_name` and `last_name` of the first **2** rows.

### SQL FETCH FIRST Clause

The `FETCH FIRST n ROWS ONLY` clause is used with the Oracle database system.

Let's see an example,

```
SELECT *
FROM Customers
FETCH FIRST 2 ROWS ONLY;
```

Here, the SQL command selects the first **2** rows from the table.

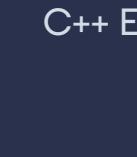
## More SELECT TOP Examples

| PERCENT Clause With TOP | > |
| WITH TIES Clause With TOP | > |

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## SQL IN Operator

In this tutorial, we'll learn about the SQL IN operator with the help of examples.

The `[IN]` operator is used with the `WHERE` clause to match values in a list. For example,

```
SELECT first_name, country
FROM Customers
WHERE country IN ('USA', 'UK');
```

[Run Code >>](#)

Here, the SQL command selects rows if the `country` is either `USA` or `UK`.



Example: SQL IN Operator

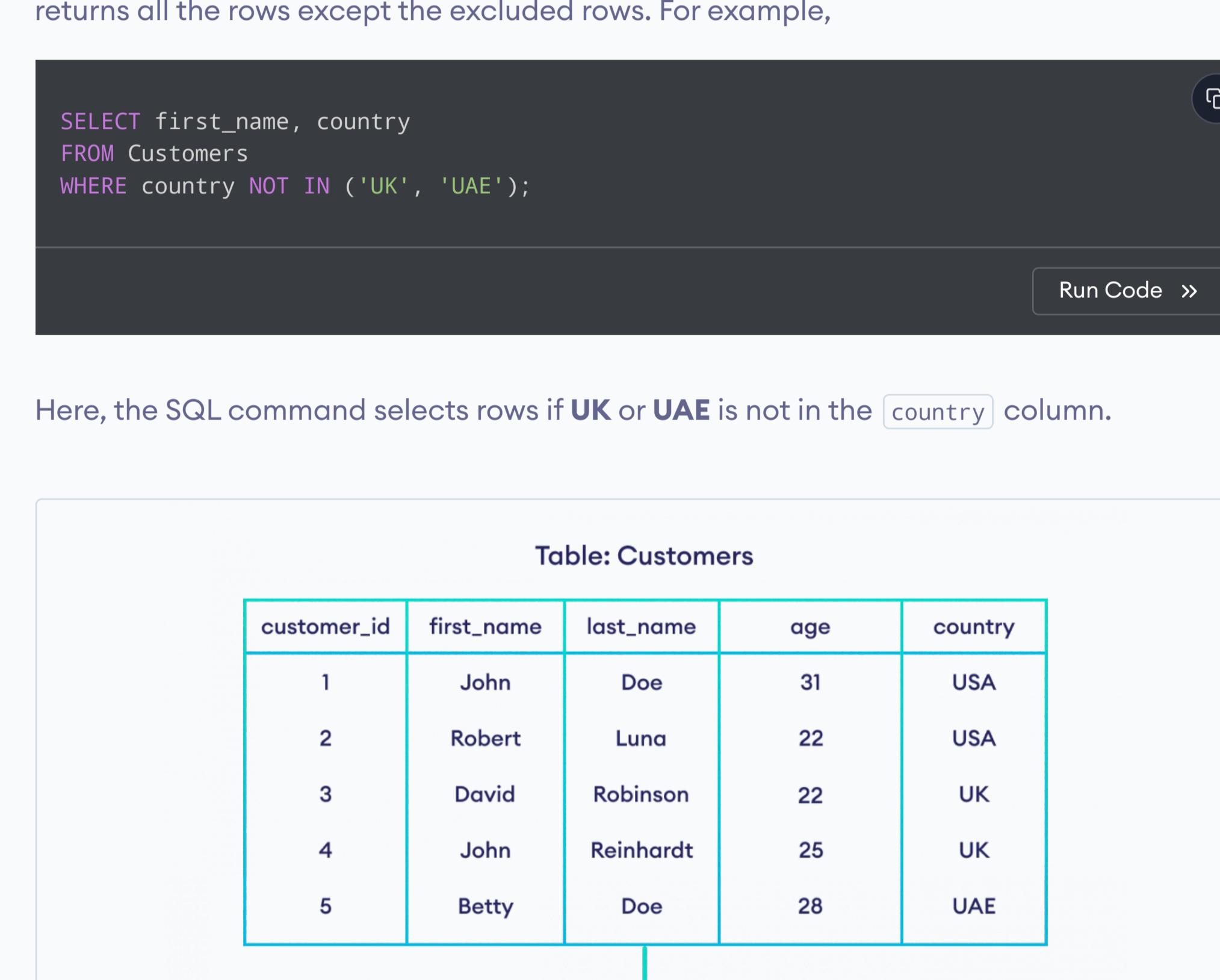
## SQL IN Operator With Columns

The `[IN]` operator can also be used to select rows in which a certain value exists in the given field. Let's see an example to clarify it.

```
SELECT first_name, country
FROM Customers
WHERE 'USA' IN (country);
```

[Run Code >>](#)

Here, the SQL command selects the rows if the `USA` value exists in the `country` field.



Example: SQL IN Operator With Value

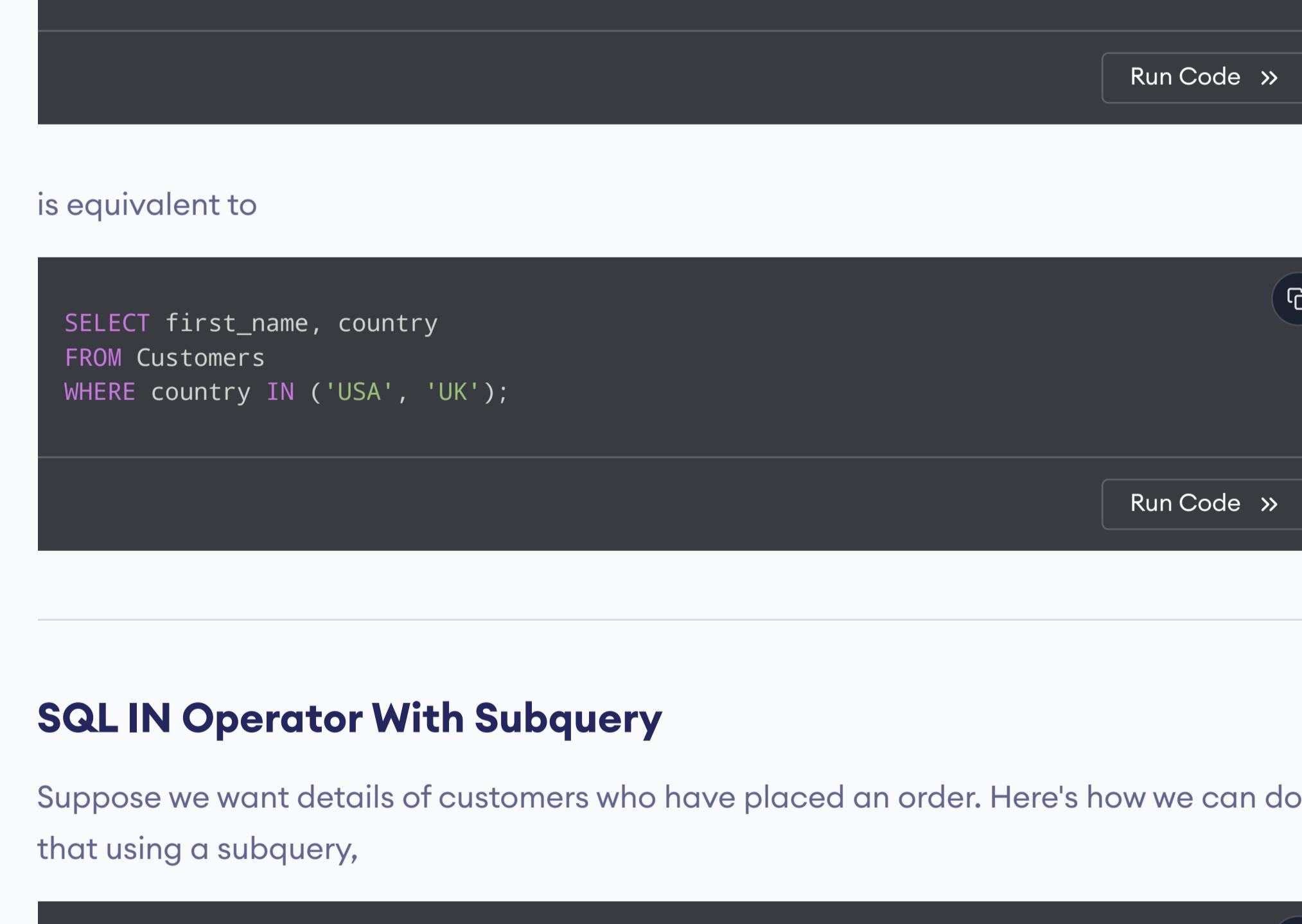
## SQL NOT IN Operator

The `[NOT IN]` operator returns rows that match values in the list. It returns all the rows except the excluded rows. For example,

```
SELECT first_name, country
FROM Customers
WHERE country NOT IN ('UK', 'UAE');
```

[Run Code >>](#)

Here, the SQL command selects rows if `UK` or `UAE` is not in the `country` column.



Example: SQL NOT IN Operator

**Note:** The working of `[IN]` operator is reversed by `[NOT]` Operator. They are basically two operators combined. To learn more, visit [SQL AND, OR, and NOT Operators](#).

## SQL IN Operator With Duplicate Values

By the way, the `[IN]` operator ignores duplicate values in the list. For example,

This code

```
SELECT first_name, country
FROM Customers
WHERE country IN ('USA', 'UK', 'USA');
```

[Run Code >>](#)

is equivalent to

```
SELECT first_name, country
FROM Customers
WHERE country IN ('USA', 'UK');
```

[Run Code >>](#)

## SQL IN Operator With Subquery

Suppose we want details of customers who have placed an order. Here's how we can do that using a subquery,

```
SELECT customer_id, first_name
FROM Customers
WHERE customer_id IN (
  SELECT customer_id
  FROM Orders
);
```

[Run Code >>](#)

Here, the SQL command

1. selects `customer_id` from `Orders` table

2. select rows from `Customers` table where `customer_id` is in the result set of subquery

To learn more, visit [SQL Subquery](#).

Previous Tutorial:  
[SQL LIMIT, TOP, FETCH FIRST](#)

Next Tutorial:  
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## SQL BETWEEN Operator

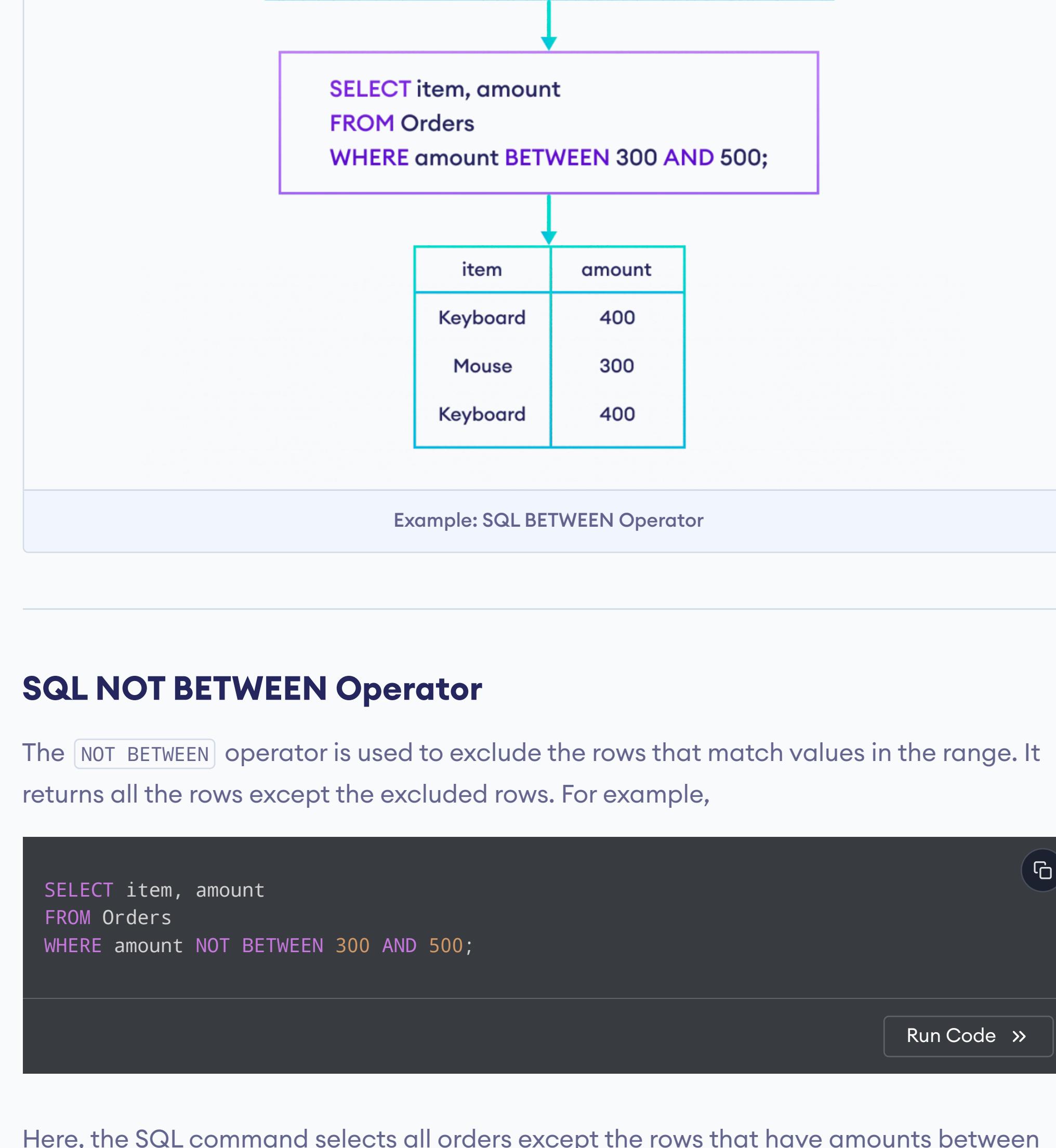
In this tutorial, we'll learn about the SQL BETWEEN operator with the help of examples.

The `BETWEEN` operator is used with the `WHERE` clause to match values in a range. For example,

```
SELECT item, amount
FROM Orders
WHERE amount BETWEEN 300 AND 500;
```

[Run Code >>](#)

Here, the SQL command selects all orders that have amounts between **300** and **500**, including **300** and **500**.



Example: SQL BETWEEN Operator

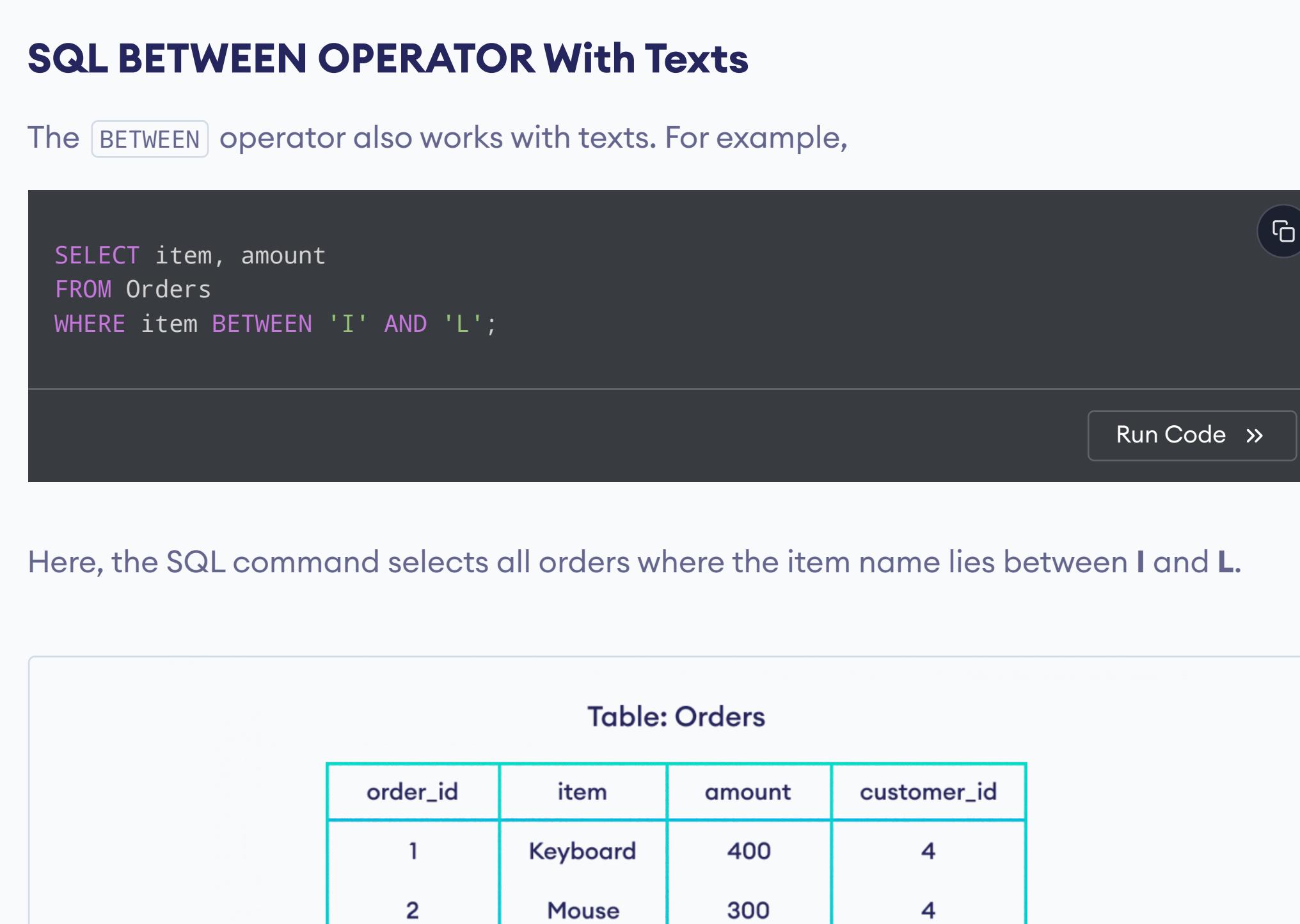
## SQL NOT BETWEEN Operator

The `NOT BETWEEN` operator is used to exclude the rows that match values in the range. It returns all the rows except the excluded rows. For example,

```
SELECT item, amount
FROM Orders
WHERE amount NOT BETWEEN 300 AND 500;
```

[Run Code >>](#)

Here, the SQL command selects all orders except the rows that have amounts between **300** and **500**.



Example: SQL NOT BETWEEN Operator

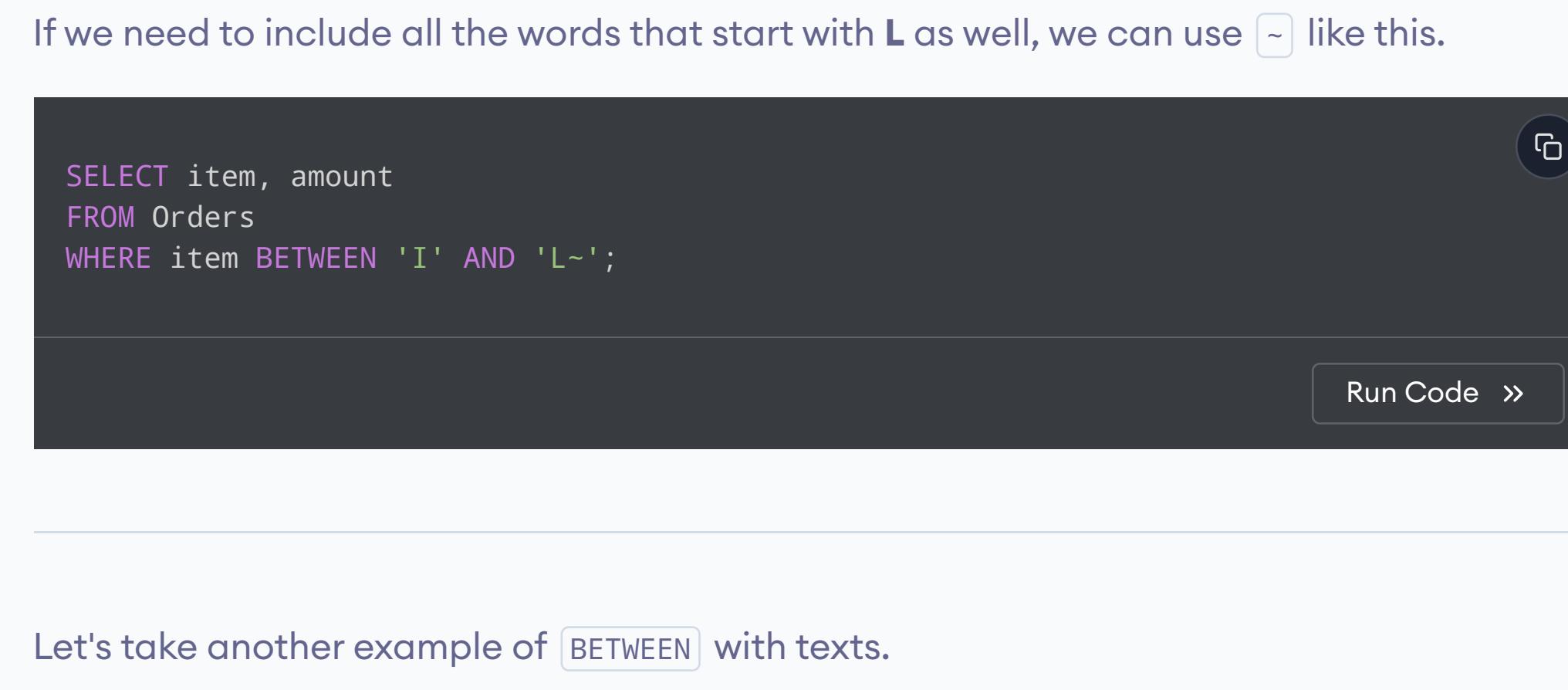
## SQL BETWEEN OPERATOR With Texts

The `BETWEEN` operator also works with texts. For example,

```
SELECT item, amount
FROM Orders
WHERE item BETWEEN 'I' AND 'L';
```

[Run Code >>](#)

Here, the SQL command selects all orders where the item name lies between I and L.



Example: SQL.BETWEEN Operator With Text

Here, the list of values that the above command selects that starts with L.

Text	Remarks
L	selects
Laptop	doesn't select
Lan Cable	doesn't select
Lamp	doesn't select

It's because **Laptop**, **Lan Cable** and **Lamp** do not lie between I and L.

If we need to include all the words that start with L as well, we can use `[-]` like this.

```
SELECT item, amount
FROM Orders
WHERE item BETWEEN 'I' AND 'L-';
```

[Run Code >>](#)

Let's take another example of `BETWEEN` with texts.

```
SELECT item
FROM Orders
WHERE item BETWEEN 'Key' AND 'Mou';
```

[Run Code >>](#)

Here, the SQL command selects **Keyboard** and **Monitor**, but not **Mouse**. It's because **Mouse** appears after **Mou**.

**Recommended Reading:** [SQL AND, OR, and NOT Operators](#)

Previous Tutorial:

[SQL IN](#)

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[SQL IS NULL and NOT NULL](#) →

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## SQL IS NULL and IS NOT NULL

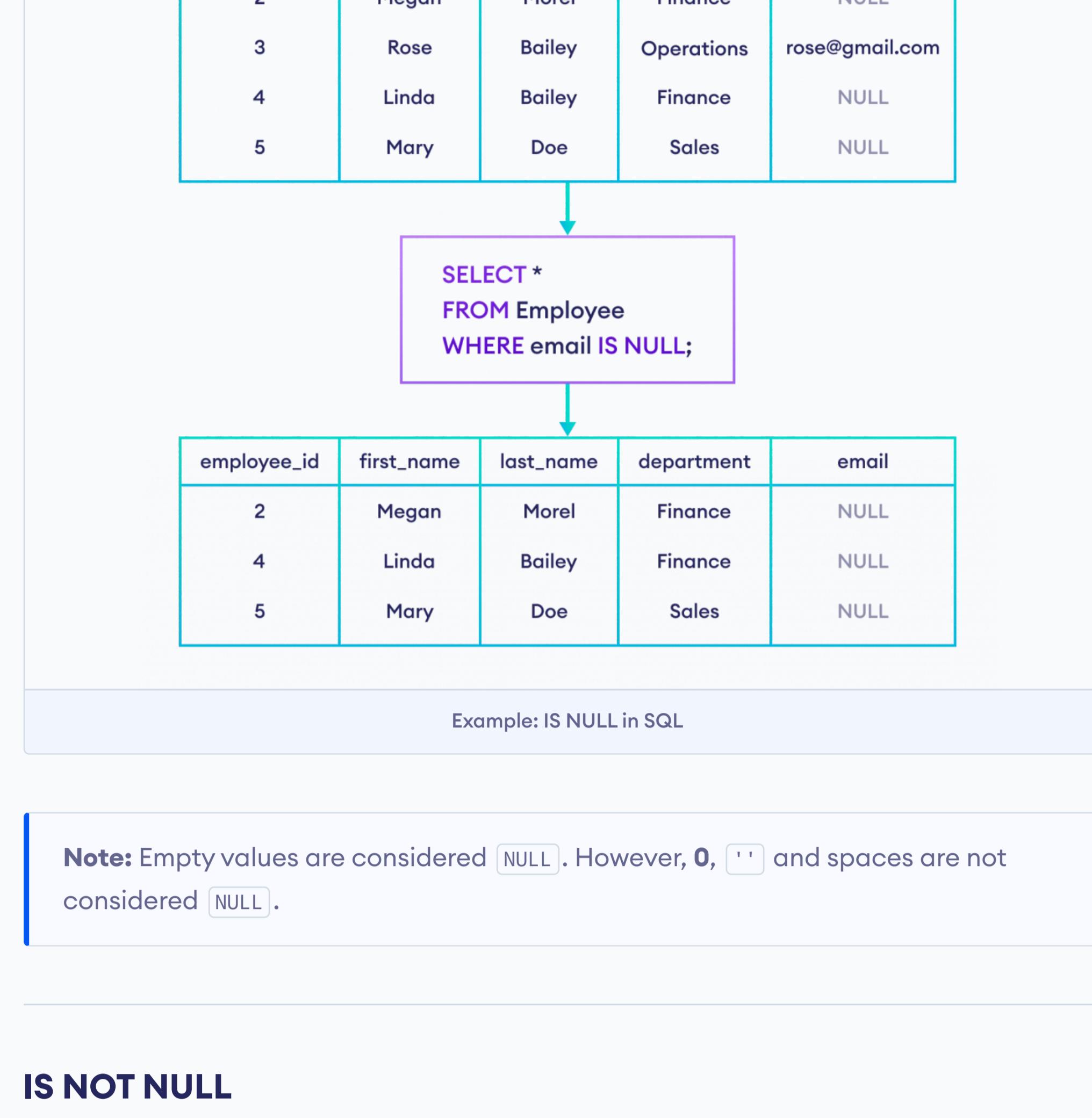
In this tutorial, we'll learn about the SQL IS NULL and NOT NULL with the help of examples.

The `IS NULL` condition is used to select rows if the specified field is NULL. For example,

```
SELECT *  
FROM Employee  
WHERE email IS NULL;
```

Run Code >

Here, the SQL command selects employees who do not have email.



Example: IS NULL in SQL

Note: Empty values are considered `NULL`. However, `0`, `''` and spaces are not considered `NULL`.

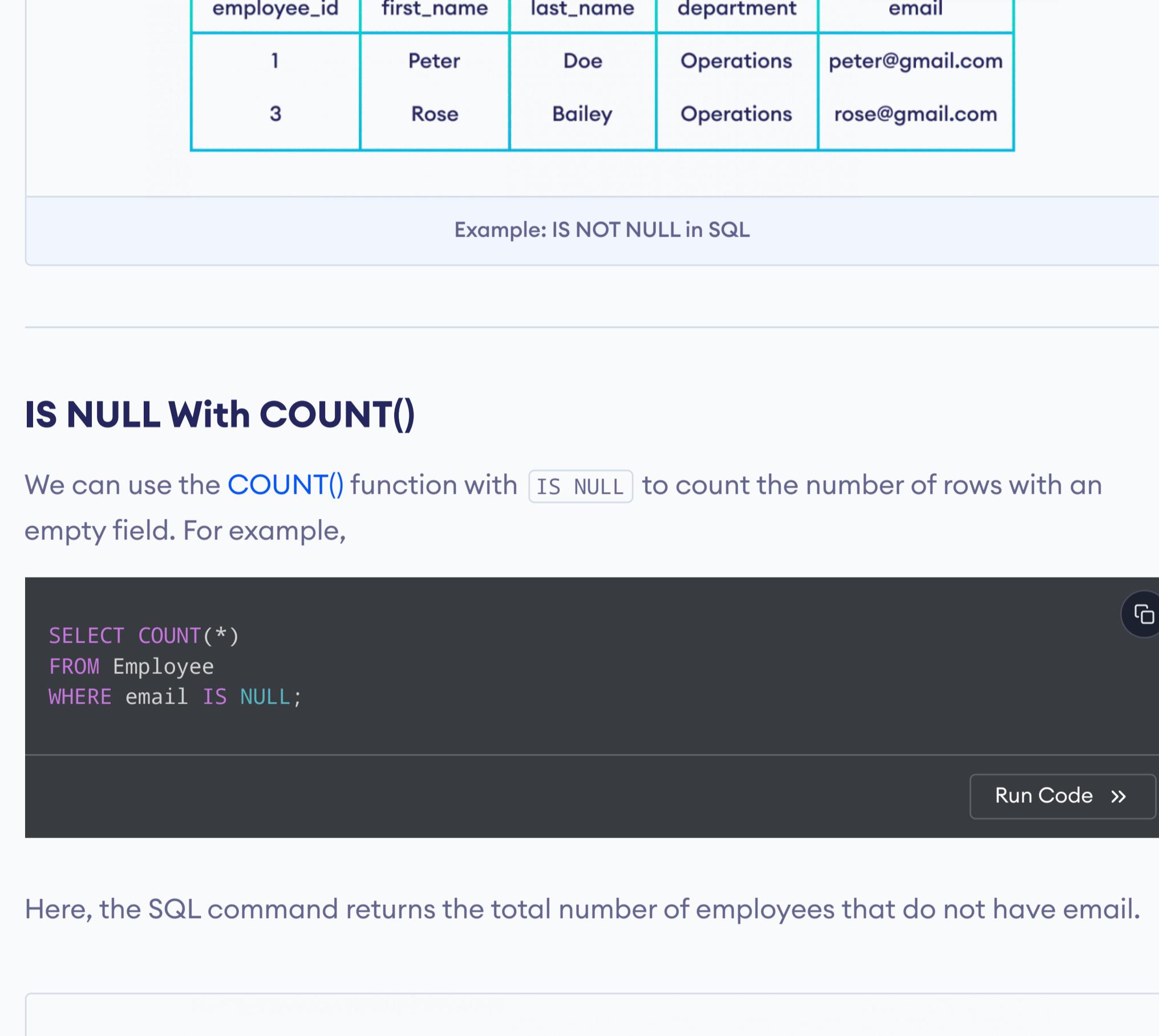
## IS NOT NULL

In SQL, `IS NOT NULL` condition is used to select rows if the specified field is NOT NULL. For example,

```
SELECT *  
FROM Employee  
WHERE email IS NOT NULL;
```

Run Code >

Here, the SQL command selects employees who have emails.



Example: IS NOT NULL in SQL

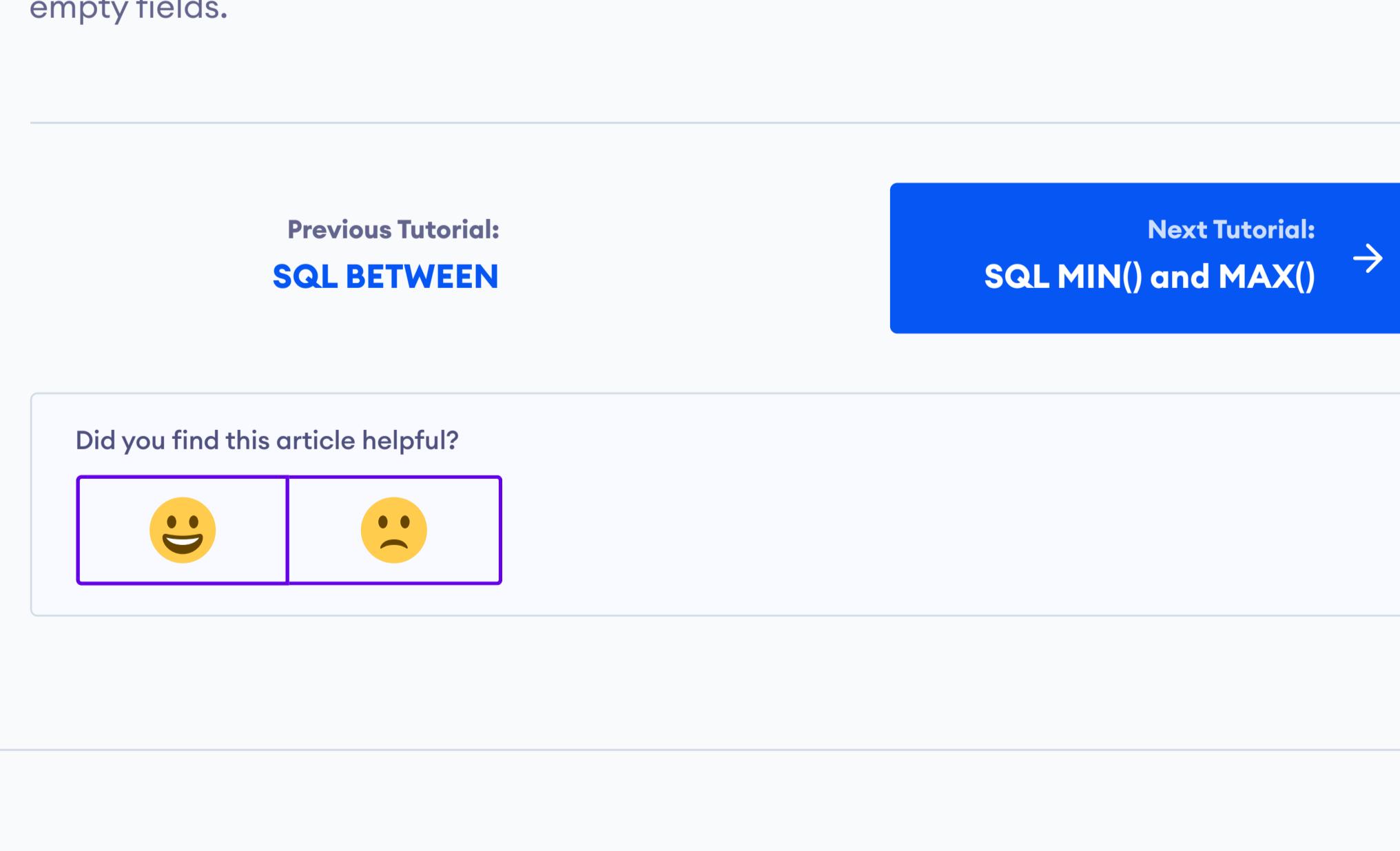
## IS NULL With COUNT()

We can use the `COUNT()` function with `IS NULL` to count the number of rows with an empty field. For example,

```
SELECT COUNT(*)  
FROM Employee  
WHERE email IS NULL;
```

Run Code >

Here, the SQL command returns the total number of employees that do not have email.



Example: IS NULL with COUNT() in SQL

Similarly, we can use the `COUNT()` function with `IS NOT NULL` to count the number of non-empty fields.

Previous Tutorial:

[SQL BETWEEN](#)

Next Tutorial:

[SQL MIN\(\) and MAX\(\)](#) →

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[SQL CREATE TABLE Statement](#)

## SQL MAX() and MIN()

In this tutorial, we'll learn about the `MIN()` and `MAX()` functions and how to use them with examples.

- The `MAX()` function returns the maximum value of a column.
- The `MIN()` function returns the minimum value of a column.

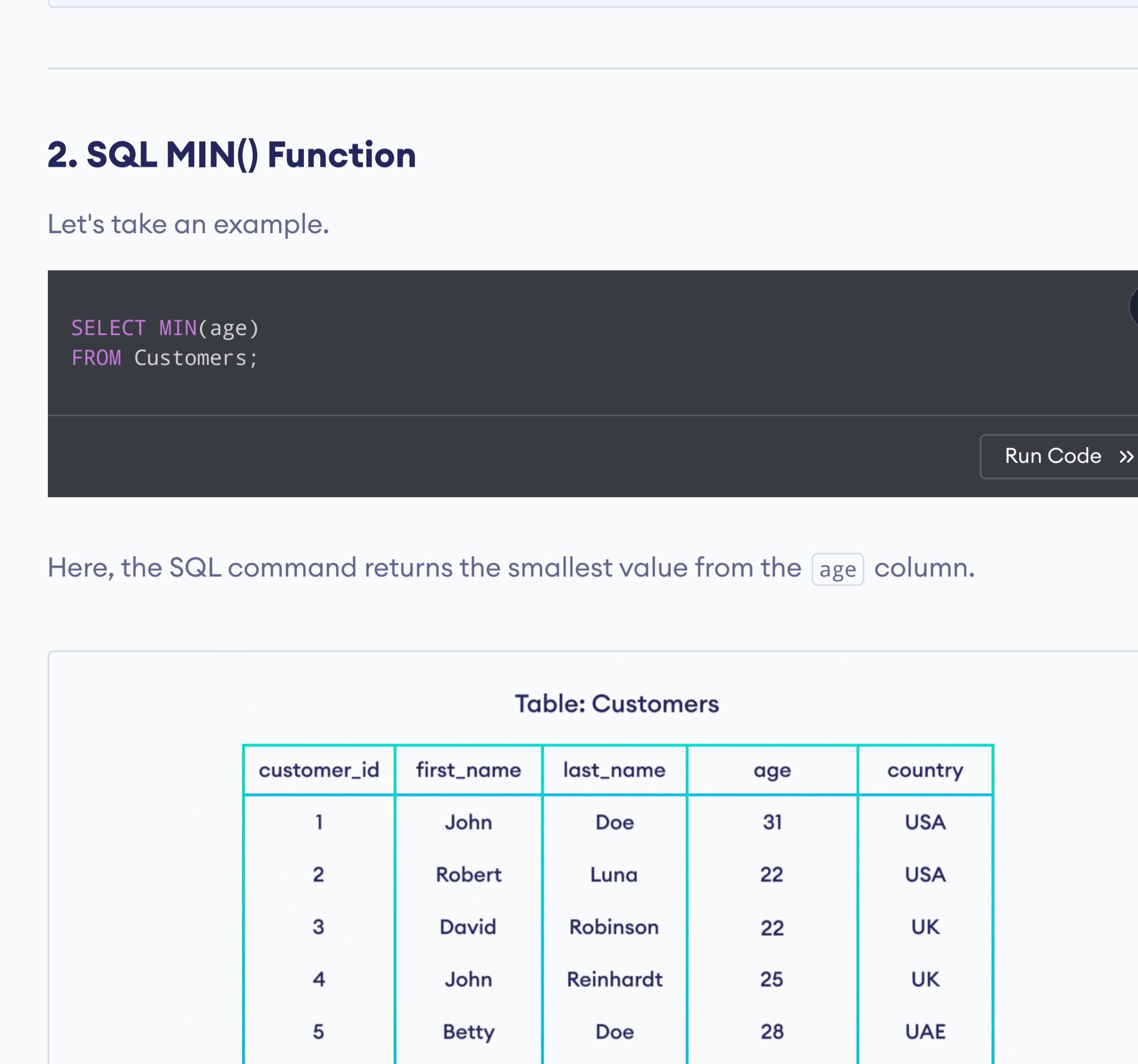
### 1. SQL MAX() Function

Let's take an example.

```
SELECT MAX(age)
FROM Customers;
```

[Run Code ▶](#)

Here, the SQL command returns the largest value from the `age` column.



### 2. SQL MIN() Function

Let's take an example.

```
SELECT MIN(age)
FROM Customers;
```

[Run Code ▶](#)

Here, the SQL command returns the smallest value from the `age` column.



### Aliases with MAX() and MIN()

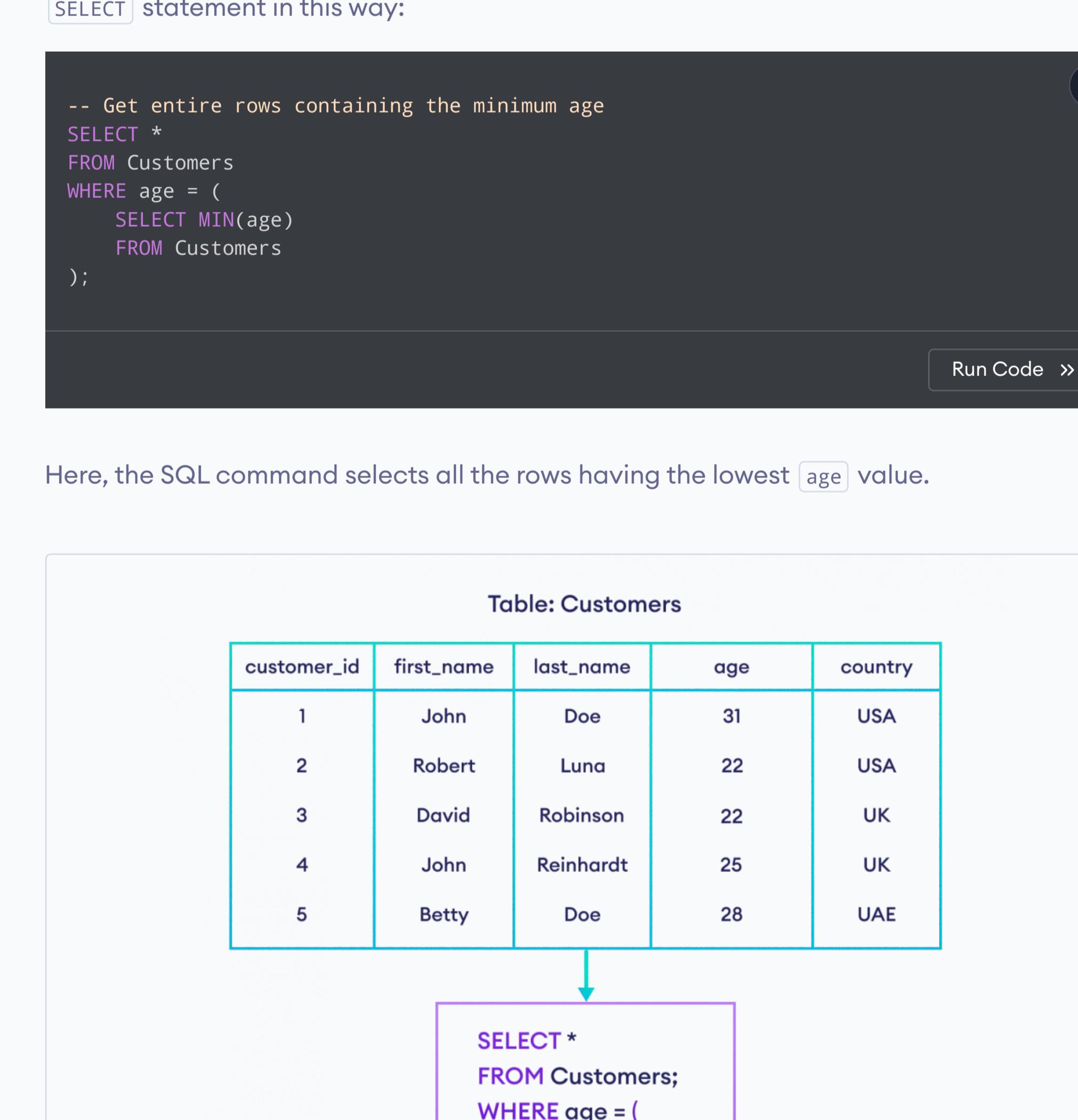
In the above examples, the field name in the result set is `MIN(age)` and `MAX(age)`.

It is also possible to give custom names to these fields using the `AS` keyword. For example,

```
SELECT MAX(age) AS max_age
FROM Customers;
```

[Run Code ▶](#)

Here, the field name `MAX(age)` is replaced with `max_age` in the result set.



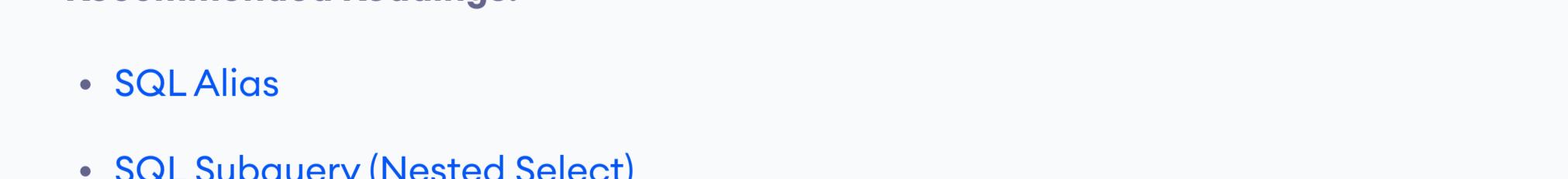
### MAX() and MIN() with Strings

The `MAX()` and `MIN()` functions also work with other data types such as text, not just numbers. For example,

```
SELECT MIN(first_name) AS min_first_name
FROM Customers;
```

[Run Code ▶](#)

Here, the SQL command selects the minimum value of `first_name` based on the dictionary order.



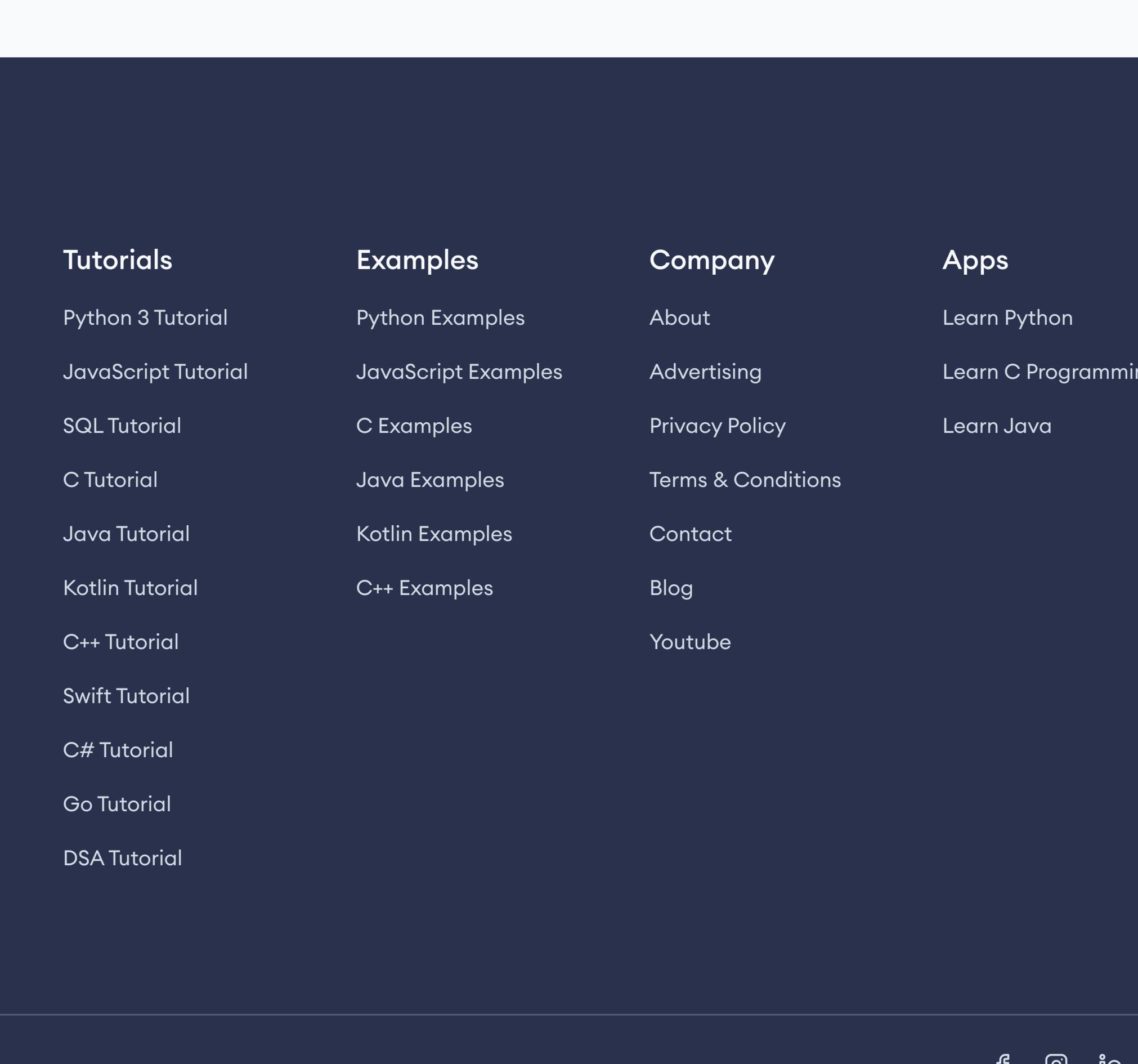
### Select Row Containing Max/Min Value

If we need to select the entire row(s) containing max/min value, we can use the nested `SELECT` statement in this way:

```
-- Get entire rows containing the minimum age
SELECT *
FROM Customers
WHERE age = (
    SELECT MIN(age)
    FROM Customers
);
```

[Run Code ▶](#)

Here, the SQL command selects all the rows having the lowest `age` value.



### More SQL MAX() and MIN() Examples

[MAX\(\) and MIN\(\) of Two or More Values](#)
[MAX\(\) and MIN\(\) with HAVING](#)

#### Recommended Readings:

- [SQL Alias](#)
- [SQL Subquery \(Nested Select\)](#)

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## SQL COUNT()

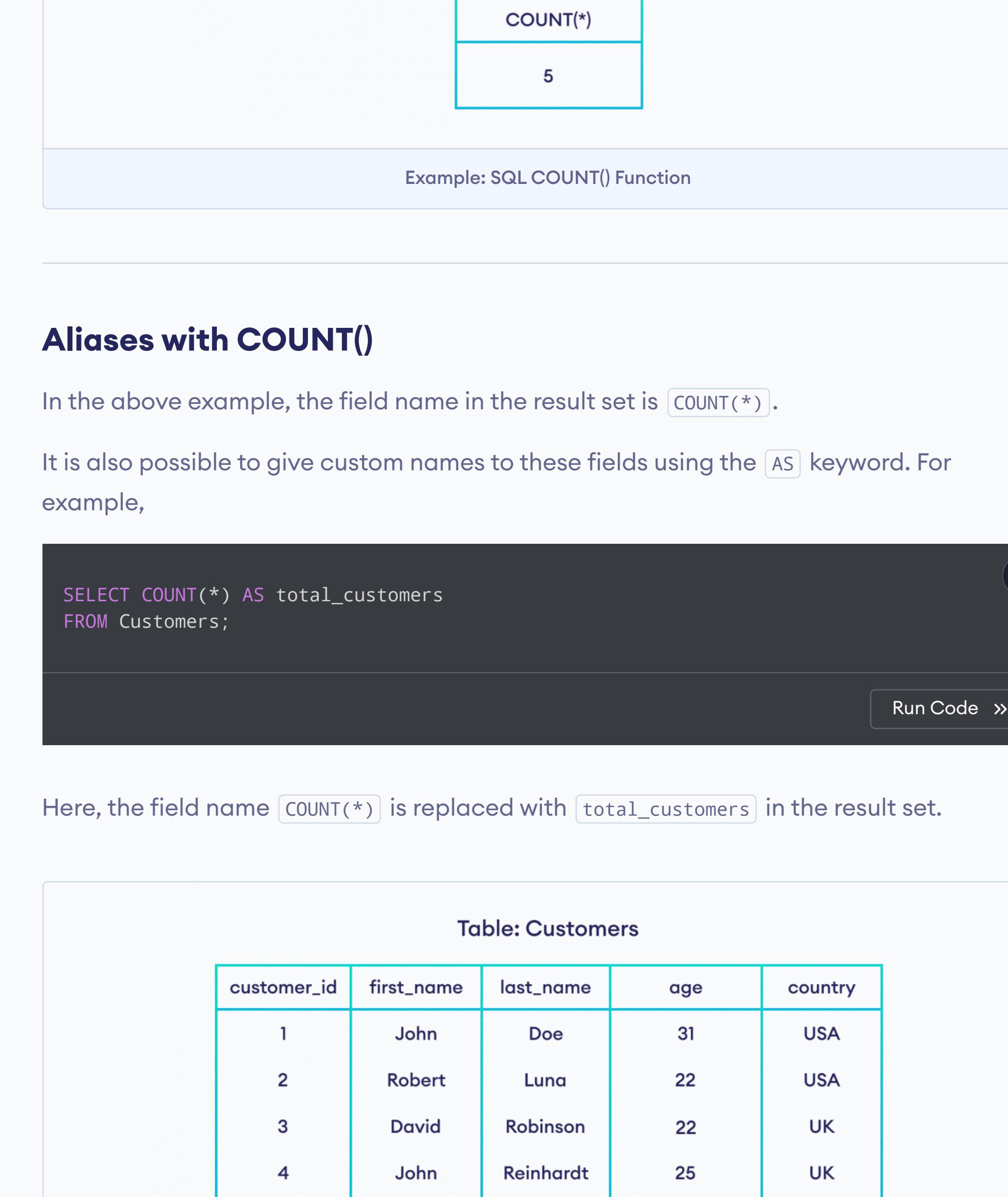
In this tutorial, we'll learn about the SQL COUNT() function with the help of various examples.

The COUNT() function returns the number of rows in the result set. For example,

```
SELECT COUNT(*)
FROM Customers;
```

[Run Code >>](#)

Here, the SQL command counts rows and returns the total number of rows of the Customers table.



Example: SQL COUNT() Function

### Aliases with COUNT()

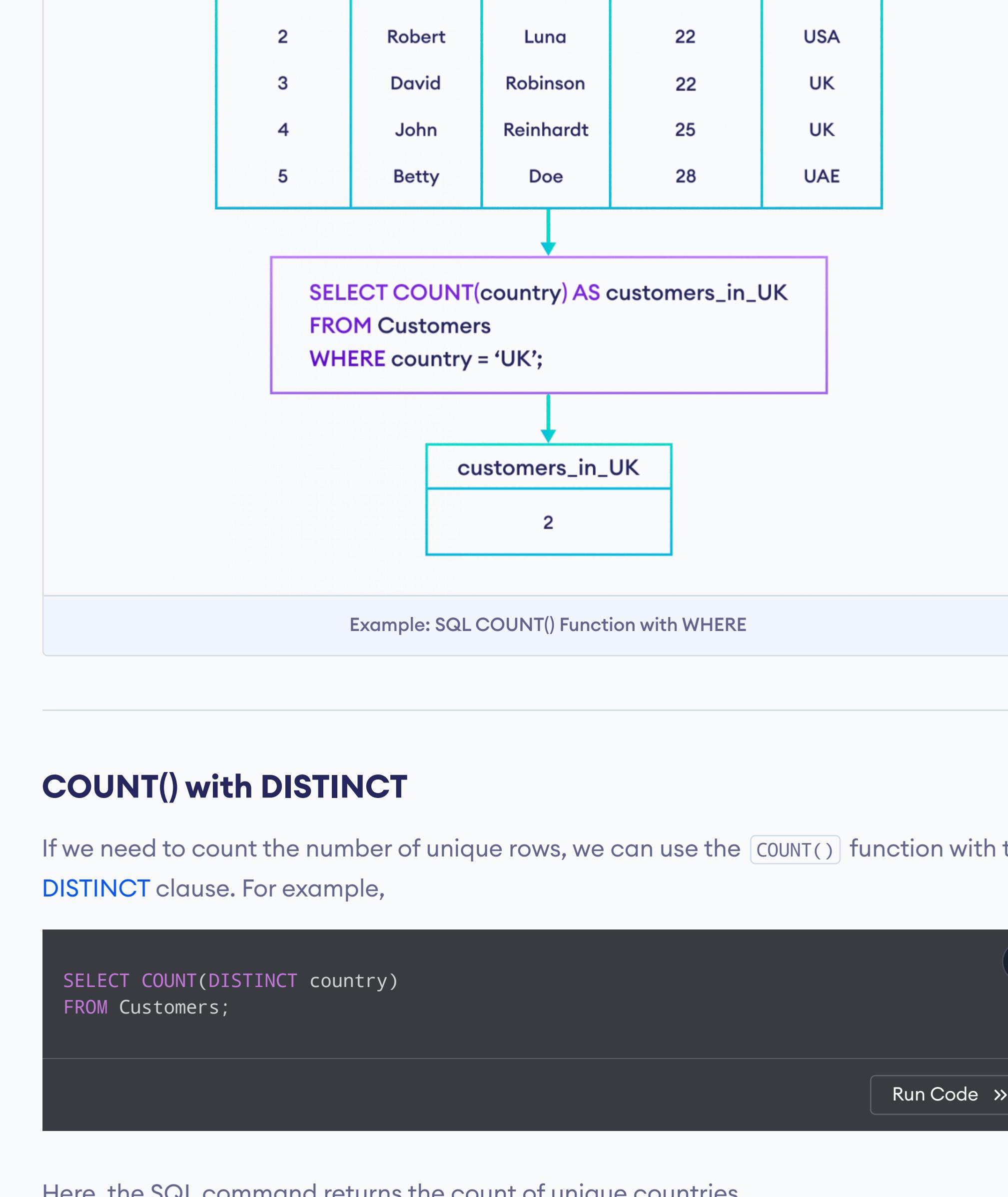
In the above example, the field name in the result set is COUNT(\*) .

It is also possible to give custom names to these fields using the AS keyword. For example,

```
SELECT COUNT(*) AS total_customers
FROM Customers;
```

[Run Code >>](#)

Here, the field name COUNT(\*) is replaced with total\_customers in the result set.



Example: COUNT() in SQL with Alias

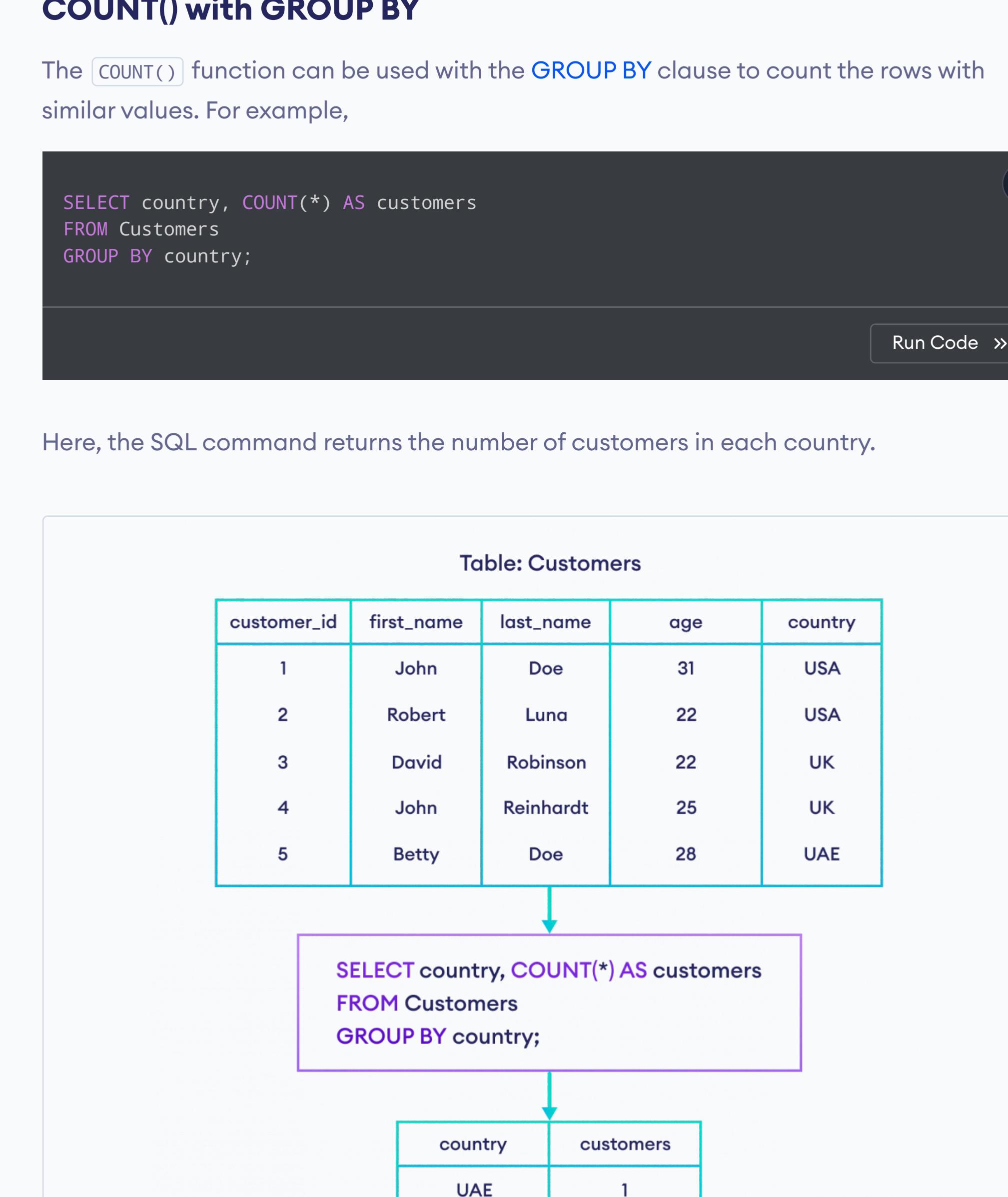
### COUNT() with WHERE

Let's take an example.

```
SELECT COUNT(country) AS customers_in_UK
FROM Customers
WHERE country = 'UK';
```

[Run Code >>](#)

Here, the SQL command returns the count of customers whose country is UK.



Example: SQL COUNT() Function with WHERE

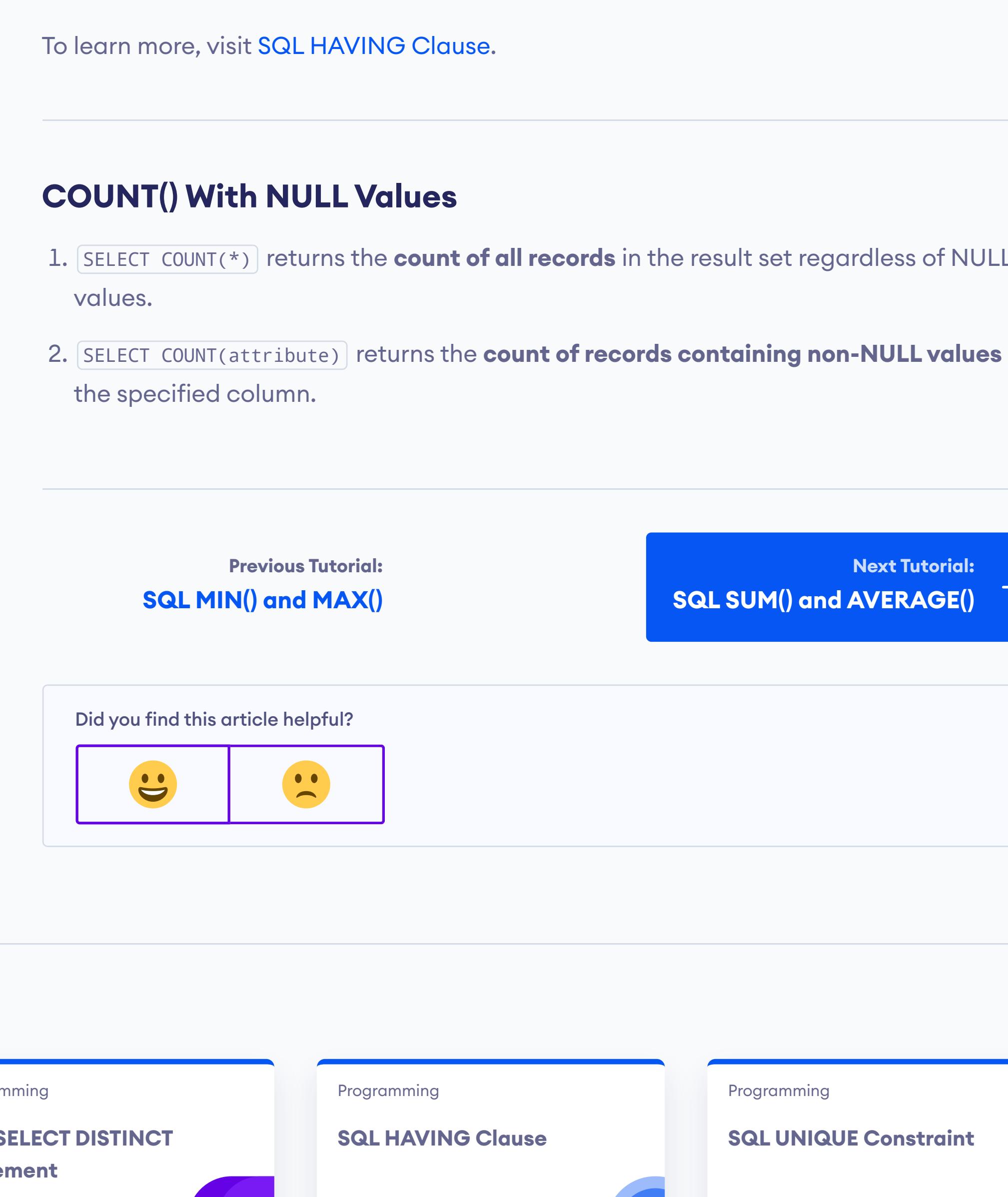
### COUNT() with DISTINCT

If we need to count the number of unique rows, we can use the COUNT() function with the DISTINCT clause. For example,

```
SELECT COUNT(DISTINCT country)
FROM Customers;
```

[Run Code >>](#)

Here, the SQL command returns the count of unique countries.



Example: Counting unique countries

### COUNT() with GROUP BY

The COUNT() function can be used with the GROUP BY clause to count the rows with similar values. For example,

```
SELECT country, COUNT(*) AS customers
FROM Customers
GROUP BY country;
```

[Run Code >>](#)

Here, the SQL command returns the number of customers in each country.



Example: SQL COUNT() Function with GROUP BY

### COUNT() With HAVING Clause

Let's take an example,

```
SELECT COUNT(customer_id), country
FROM Customers
GROUP BY country
HAVING COUNT(customer_id) > 1;
```

[Run Code >>](#)

Here, the SQL command:

1. counts the number of rows by grouping them by country
2. returns the result set if their count is greater than 1.

To learn more, visit [SQL HAVING Clause](#).

### COUNT() With NULL Values

1. SELECT COUNT(\*) returns the count of all records in the result set regardless of NULL values.
2. SELECT COUNT(attribute) returns the count of records containing non-NULL values of the specified column.

Previous Tutorial: [SQL MIN\(\) and MAX\(\)](#)

Next Tutorial: [SQL SUM\(\) and AVERAGE\(\)](#) →

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## SQL SUM() AND AVG()

In this tutorial, we'll learn about the SQL SUM() AND AVG() functions with the help of various examples.

In SQL, SUM() and AVG() functions are used to calculate total and average values in numeric columns.

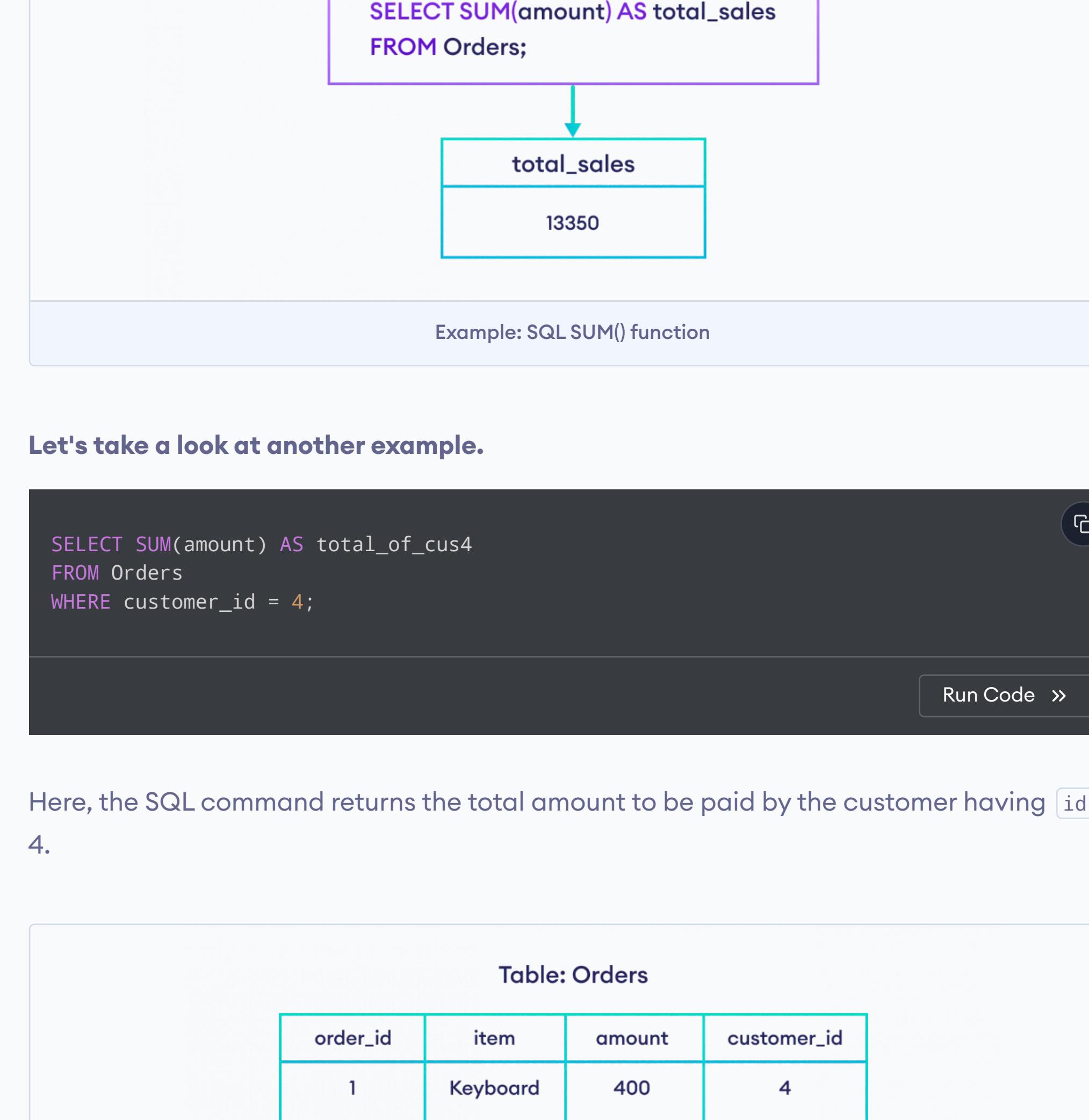
### SQL SUM() Function

The SQL `SUM()` function is used to calculate the sum of numeric values in a column. For example,

```
SELECT SUM(amount) AS total_sales
FROM Orders;
```

[Run Code >>](#)

Here, the SQL command returns the sum of amounts of all orders.



#### Related Topics

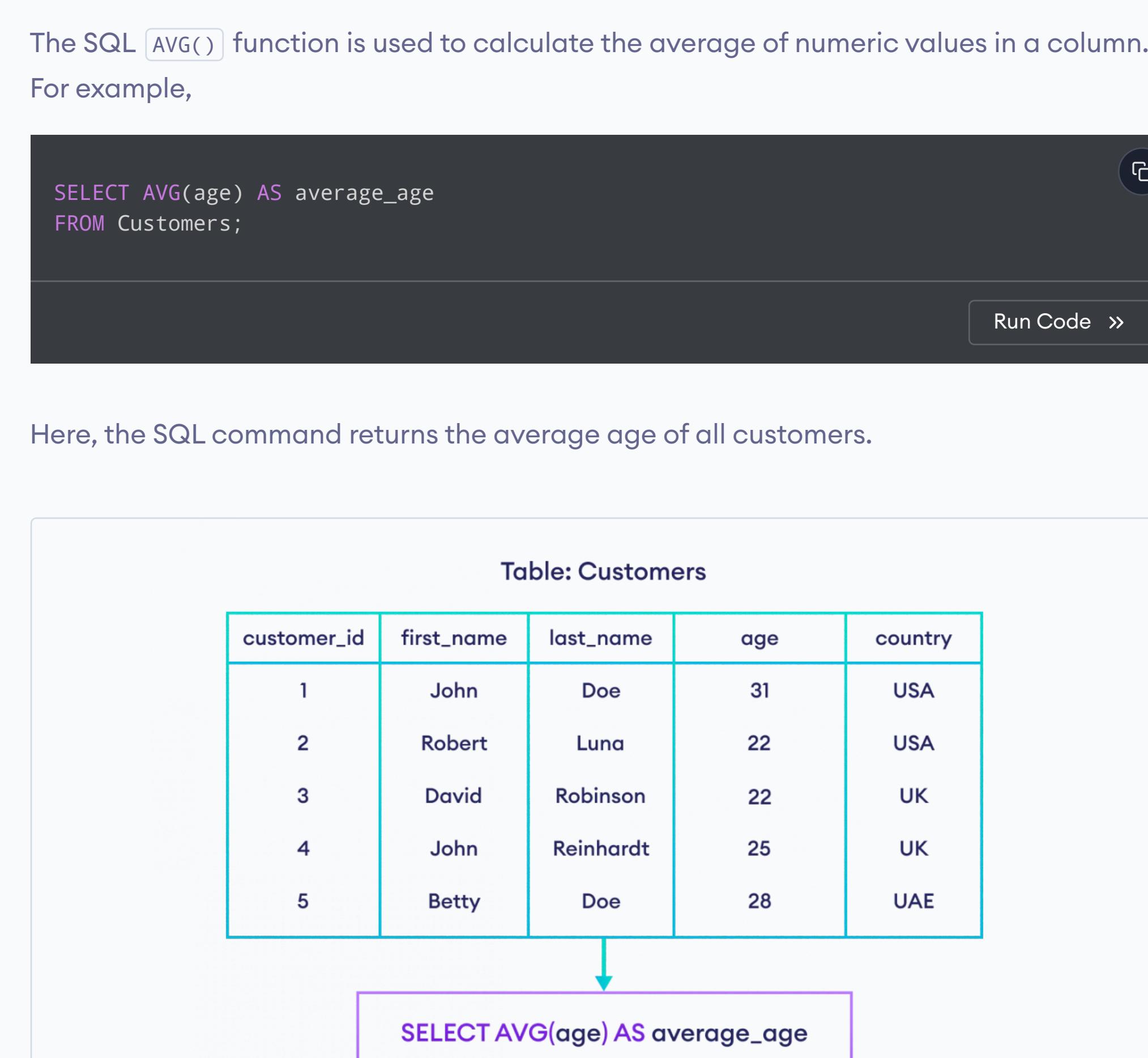
- SQL GROUP BY
- SQL HAVING Clause
- SQL JOIN
- SQL SELECT INTO Statement
- SQL INSERT INTO SELECT Statement
- SQL INNER JOIN

Let's take a look at another example.

```
SELECT SUM(amount) AS total_of_cus4
FROM Orders
WHERE customer_id = 4;
```

[Run Code >>](#)

Here, the SQL command returns the total amount to be paid by the customer having `customer_id` 4.



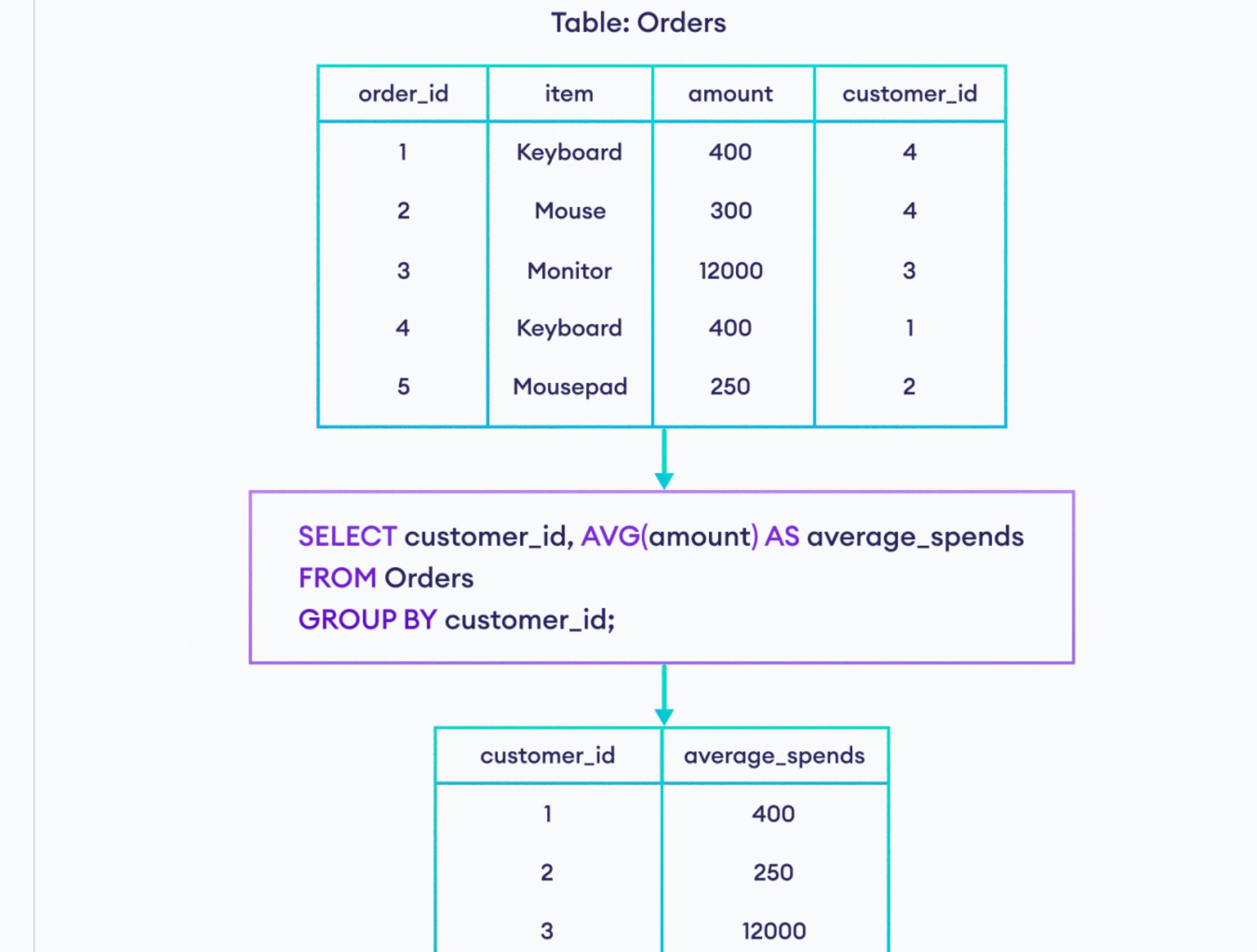
### SQL AVG() Function

The SQL `AVG()` function is used to calculate the average of numeric values in a column. For example,

```
SELECT AVG(age) AS average_age
FROM Customers;
```

[Run Code >>](#)

Here, the SQL command returns the average age of all customers.

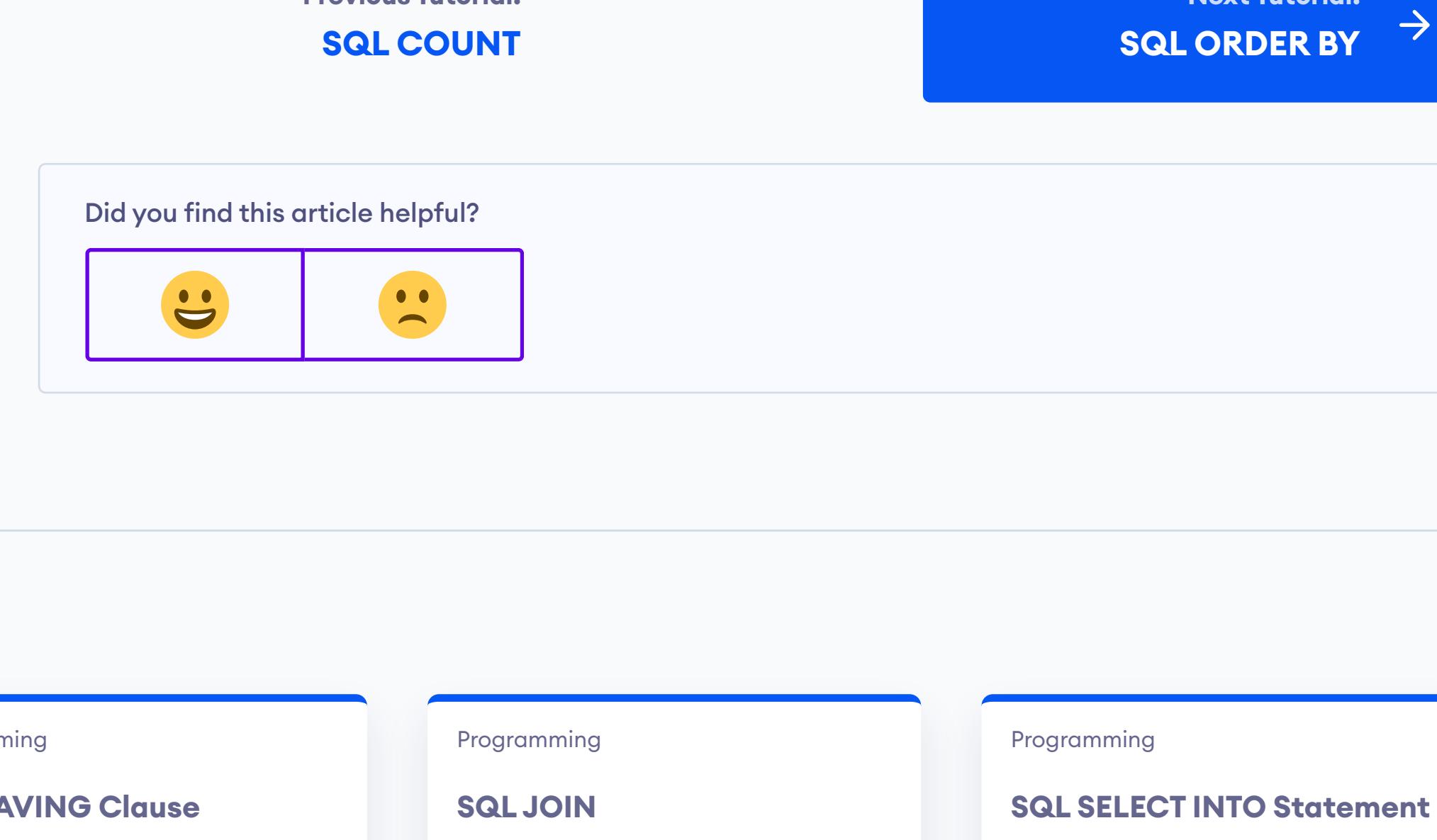


Let's take a look at another example

```
SELECT DISTINCT customer_id, AVG(amount) AS average_spends
FROM Orders
GROUP BY customer_id;
```

[Run Code >>](#)

Here, the SQL command returns the average spending of each customer.



#### Recommended readings

- [SQL Aliases](#)
- [SQL GROUP BY](#)
- [SQL DISTINCT](#)

Previous Tutorial:

[SQL COUNT](#)

Next Tutorial:

[SQL ORDER BY](#) →

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## SQL ORDER BY Clause

In this tutorial, we'll learn about the `ORDER BY` clause and how to use it with examples.

The `SQL ORDER BY` clause is used to sort the result set in either ascending or descending order. For example,

```
SELECT *
FROM Customers
ORDER BY first_name;
```

[Run Code >>](#)

Here, the SQL command selects all customers and then sorts them in ascending order by `first_name`.

Table: Customers				
customer_id	first_name	last_name	age	country
1	John	Doe	31	USA
2	Robert	Luna	22	USA
3	David	Robinson	22	UK
4	John	Reinhardt	25	UK
5	Betty	Doe	28	UAE

`SELECT *  
FROM Customers  
ORDER BY first_name;`

customer_id	first_name	last_name	age	country
5	Betty	Doe	28	UAE
3	David	Robinson	22	UK
1	John	Doe	31	USA
4	John	Reinhardt	25	UK
2	Robert	Luna	22	USA

`Example: ORDER BY in SQL`

### Related Topics

[SQL LIMIT, TOP and FETCH FIRST](#)  
[SQL SELECT](#)  
[SQL SELECT DISTINCT Statement](#)  
[SQL SELECT INTO Statement](#)  
[SQL Subquery](#)  
[SQL INSERT INTO SELECT Statement](#)

## ORDER BY ASC (Ascending Order)

We can use the `ASC` keyword explicitly to sort selected records in **ascending order**. For example,

```
SELECT *
FROM Customers
ORDER BY age ASC;
```

[Run Code >>](#)

Here, the SQL command selects all the customers and then sorts them in ascending order by `age`.

Table: Customers				
customer_id	first_name	last_name	age	country
1	John	Doe	31	USA
2	Robert	Luna	22	USA
3	David	Robinson	22	UK
4	John	Reinhardt	25	UK
5	Betty	Doe	28	UAE

`SELECT *  
FROM Customers  
ORDER BY age ASC;`

customer_id	first_name	last_name	age	country
2	Robert	Luna	22	USA
3	David	Robinson	22	UK
4	John	Reinhardt	25	UK
5	Betty	Doe	28	UAE
1	John	Doe	31	USA

`Example: ORDER BY ASC in SQL`

**Note:** The `ORDER BY` clause sorts result set in ascending by default; it's not necessary to use `ASC` explicitly.

## ORDER BY DESC (Descending Order)

We use the `DESC` keyword to sort the selected records in **descending order**. For example,

```
SELECT *
FROM Customers
ORDER BY age DESC;
```

[Run Code >>](#)

Here, the SQL command selects all the customers and then sorts them in descending order by `age`.

Table: Customers				
customer_id	first_name	last_name	age	country
1	John	Doe	31	USA
2	Robert	Luna	22	USA
3	David	Robinson	22	UK
4	John	Reinhardt	25	UK
5	Betty	Doe	28	UAE

`SELECT *  
FROM Customers  
ORDER BY age DESC;`

customer_id	first_name	last_name	age	country
1	John	Doe	31	USA
5	Betty	Doe	28	UAE
4	John	Reinhardt	25	UK
2	Robert	Luna	22	USA
3	David	Robinson	22	UK

`Example: ORDER BY DESC in SQL`

## ORDER BY With Multiple Columns

We can also use `ORDER BY` with multiple columns. For example,

```
SELECT *
FROM Customers
ORDER BY first_name, age;
```

[Run Code >>](#)

Here, the SQL command selects all the records and then sorts them by `first_name`. If the `first_name` repeats more than once, it sorts those records by `age`.

Table: Customers				
customer_id	first_name	last_name	age	country
1	John	Doe	31	USA
2	Robert	Luna	22	USA
3	David	Robinson	22	UK
4	John	Reinhardt	25	UK
5	Betty	Doe	28	UAE

`SELECT *  
FROM Customers  
ORDER BY first_name, age;`

customer_id	first_name	last_name	age	country
1	John	Doe	31	USA
5	Betty	Doe	28	UAE
4	John	Reinhardt	25	UK
2	Robert	Luna	22	USA
3	David	Robinson	22	UK

`Example: SQL ORDER BY with multiple columns`

**Note:** The `WHERE` clause must appear before the `ORDER BY` clause, while using the `WHERE` clause with `ORDER BY`.

## ORDER BY With WHERE

We can also use `ORDER BY` with the `SELECT WHERE` clause. For example,

```
SELECT last_name, age
FROM Customers
WHERE NOT country = 'UK'
ORDER BY last_name DESC;
```

[Run Code >>](#)

Here,

- The SQL command first selects `last_name` and `age` fields from the `Customers` table if their `country` is not `UK`.
- Then, the selected records are sorted in descending order by their `last_name`.

Table: Customers				
customer_id	first_name	last_name	age	country
1	John	Doe	31	USA
2	Robert	Luna	22	USA
3	David	Robinson	22	UK
4	John	Reinhardt	25	UK
5	Betty	Doe	28	UAE

`SELECT last_name, age  
FROM Customers  
WHERE NOT country = 'UK'  
ORDER BY last_name DESC;`

last_name	age
Luna	22
Doe	31
Doe	28



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## SQL GROUP BY

In this tutorial, we'll learn about GROUP BY in SQL with the help of examples.

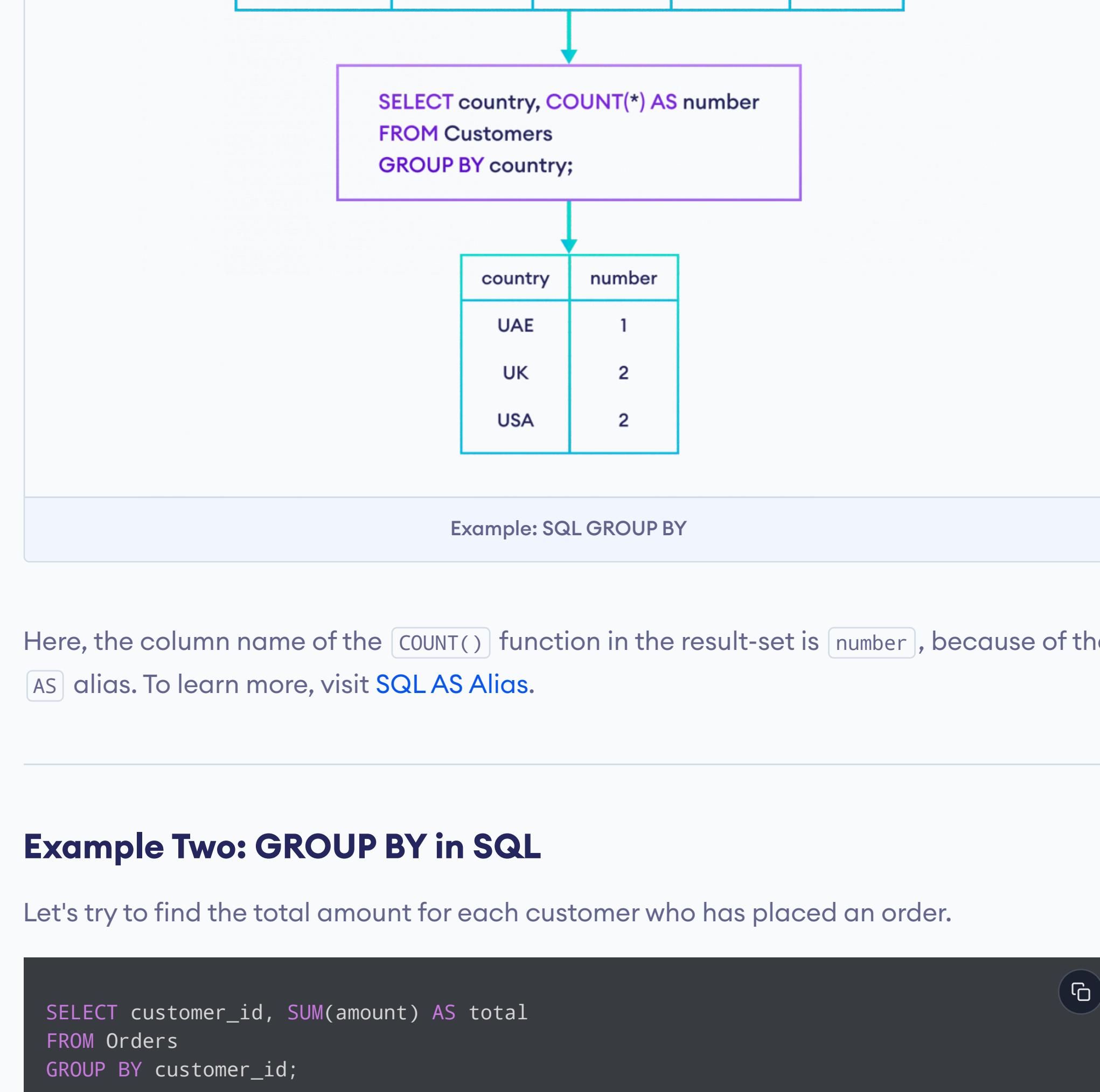
In SQL, the `GROUP BY` clause is used to group rows by one or more columns. For example,

```
SELECT country, COUNT(*) AS number  
FROM Customers  
GROUP BY country;
```

[Run Code >>](#)

Here, the SQL command groups the rows by the `country` column, and counts the number of each country (because of the `COUNT()` function).

**Note:** The `GROUP BY` clause is used in conjunction with aggregate functions such as `MIN()`, `MAX()`, `SUM()`, `AVG()` and `COUNT()`, etc.



Example: SQL GROUP BY

Related Topics
<a href="#">SQL HAVING Clause</a>
<a href="#">SQL COUNT()</a>
<a href="#">SQL SELECT INTO Statement</a>
<a href="#">SQL INSERT INTO SELECT Statement</a>
<a href="#">SQL SUM() AND AVG()</a>
<a href="#">SQL SELECT DISTINCT Statement</a>

Here, the column name of the `COUNT()` function in the result-set is `number`, because of the `AS` alias. To learn more, visit [SQL AS Alias](#).

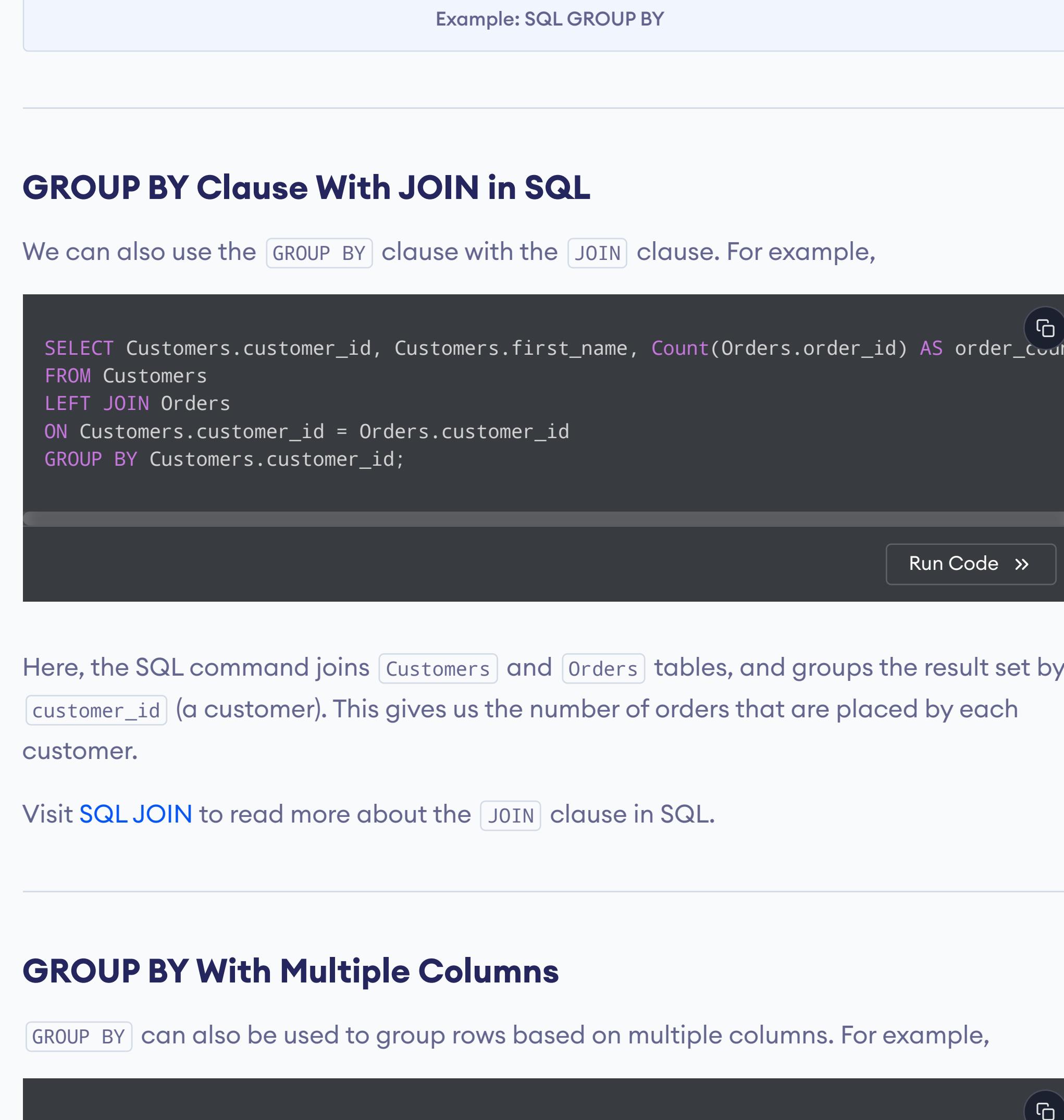
### Example Two: GROUP BY in SQL

Let's try to find the total amount for each customer who has placed an order.

```
SELECT customer_id, SUM(amount) AS total  
FROM Orders  
GROUP BY customer_id;
```

[Run Code >>](#)

Here, the SQL command sums the `amount` after grouping rows with `customer_id`.



Example: SQL GROUP BY

### GROUP BY Clause With JOIN in SQL

We can also use the `GROUP BY` clause with the `JOIN` clause. For example,

```
SELECT Customers.customer_id, Customers.first_name, Count(Orders.order_id) AS order_count  
FROM Customers  
LEFT JOIN Orders  
ON Customers.customer_id = Orders.customer_id  
GROUP BY Customers.customer_id;
```

[Run Code >>](#)

Here, the SQL command joins `Customers` and `Orders` tables, and groups the result set by `customer_id` (a customer). This gives us the number of orders that are placed by each customer.

Visit [SQL JOIN](#) to read more about the `JOIN` clause in SQL.

### GROUP BY With Multiple Columns

`GROUP BY` can also be used to group rows based on multiple columns. For example,

```
SELECT country, state, MIN(age) as min_age  
FROM Persons  
GROUP BY country, state;
```

[Run Code >>](#)

Here, the SQL command groups all persons with similar `country` and `state`, and gives the minimum `age` of each group.

### GROUP BY With HAVING Clause

We can use the `GROUP BY` clause with the `HAVING` clause to filter the result set based on aggregate functions. For example,

```
SELECT COUNT(customer_id), country  
FROM Customers  
GROUP BY country  
HAVING COUNT(customer_id) > 1;
```

[Run Code >>](#)

Here, the SQL command:

1. counts the number of rows by grouping them by `country`

2. returns the result set if their count is greater than 1

To learn more, visit [SQL HAVING Clause](#).

Previous Tutorial:  
[SQL ORDER BY](#)

Next Tutorial:  
[SQL LIKE](#)

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## SQL LIKE and NOT LIKE Operators

In this tutorial, we'll learn about the `LIKE` operator in SQL and how to use them with examples.

### SQL LIKE Operator

The `LIKE` operator in SQL is used with the `WHERE clause` to get a result set that matches the given string pattern. For example,

```
SELECT *  
FROM Customers  
WHERE country LIKE 'UK';
```

[Run Code >>](#)

Here, the SQL command selects customers whose `country` is `UK`.

Table: Customers

customer_id	first_name	last_name	age	country
1	John	Doe	31	USA
2	Robert	Luna	22	USA
3	David	Robinson	22	UK
4	John	Reinhardt	25	UK
5	Betty	Doe	28	UAE

```
SELECT *  
FROM Customers  
WHERE country LIKE 'UK';
```

customer_id	first_name	last_name	age	country
3	David	Robinson	22	UK
4	John	Reinhardt	25	UK

Example: SQL LIKE

**Note:** Although the `LIKE` operator behaves similar to the `=` operator in this example, they are not the same. The `=` operator is used to check equality whereas `LIKE` operator is used to match string patterns only.

### SQL LIKE With Wildcards

The `LIKE` operator in SQL is often used with **wildcards** to match a pattern of string. For example,

```
SELECT *  
FROM Customers  
WHERE last_name LIKE 'R%';
```

[Run Code >>](#)

Here, `%` (means zero or more characters) is a wildcard character. Hence, the SQL command selects customers whose `last_name` starts with `R` followed by zero or more characters after it.

Table: Customers

customer_id	first_name	last_name	age	country
1	John	Doe	31	USA
2	Robert	Luna	22	USA
3	David	Robinson	22	UK
4	John	Reinhardt	25	UK
5	Betty	Doe	28	UAE

```
SELECT *  
FROM Customers  
WHERE last_name LIKE 'R%';
```

customer_id	first_name	last_name	age	country
3	David	Robinson	22	UK
4	John	Reinhardt	25	UK

Example: SQL Wildcards

### Example Two: SQL LIKE With Wildcards

There are more **wildcard characters** we can use. Let's see another example using `_` wildcard character with `LIKE` in SQL.

```
SELECT *  
FROM Customers  
WHERE country LIKE 'U_';
```

[Run Code >>](#)

Here, the SQL command selects customers whose `country` name starts with `U` and is followed by only one character.

### SQL NOT LIKE Operator

We can also invert the working of `LIKE` operator and ignore the result set matching with the given string pattern by using the `NOT` operator. For example,

```
SELECT *  
FROM Customers  
WHERE country NOT LIKE 'USA';
```

[Run Code >>](#)

Here, the SQL command selects all customers except those, whose `country` is `USA`.

### SQL LIKE With Multiple Values

We can use the `LIKE` operator with multiple string patterns to select rows by using with the `OR` operator. For example,

```
SELECT *  
FROM Customers  
WHERE last_name LIKE 'R%t' OR last_name LIKE '%e';
```

[Run Code >>](#)

Here, the SQL command selects customers whose `last_name` starts with `R` and ends with `t`, or customers whose `last_name` ends with `e`.

### More SQL LIKE and NOT LIKE Examples

Find customers whose last name starts with R.

[>](#)

Find customers whose country is exactly one character after U.

[>](#)

Find customers whose last name starts with Rand ends with t.

[>](#)

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[SQL GROUP BY](#)

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## SQL Wildcards

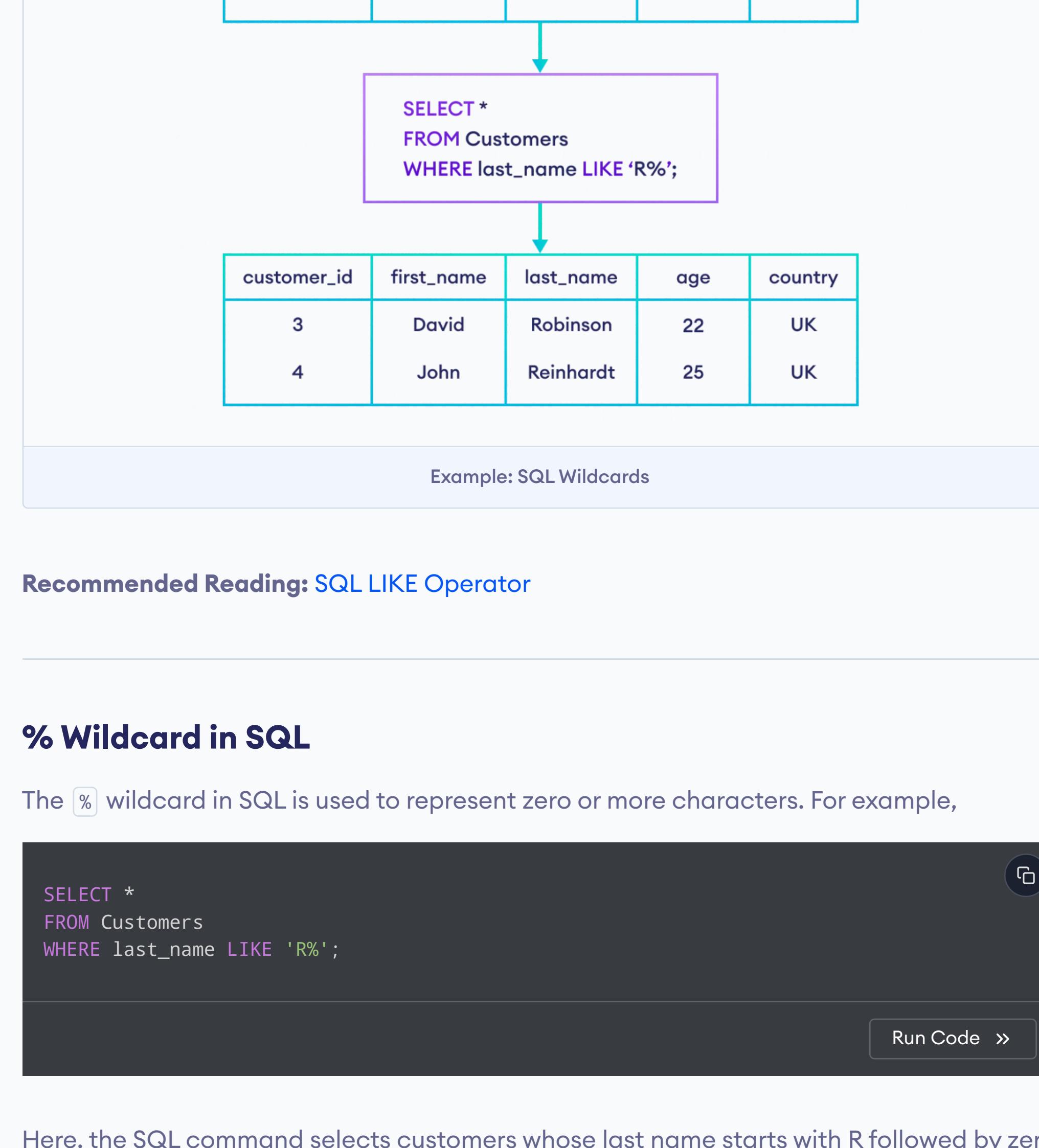
In this tutorial, we'll learn about the Wildcards in SQL and how to use them with examples.

A wildcard character in SQL is used with the `LIKE` clause to replace a single or set of characters in any string. For example,

```
SELECT *
FROM Customers
WHERE last_name LIKE 'R%';
```

[Run Code >>](#)

Here, `%` (means zero or more characters) is a wildcard character. Hence, the SQL command selects customers whose `last_name` starts with R followed by zero or more characters after it.



Example: SQL Wildcards

Recommended Reading: [SQL LIKE Operator](#)

### % Wildcard in SQL

The `%` wildcard in SQL is used to represent zero or more characters. For example,

```
SELECT *
FROM Customers
WHERE last_name LIKE 'R%';
```

[Run Code >>](#)

Here, the SQL command selects customers whose last name starts with R followed by zero or more characters.

Expression	String	Matched?
R	R	match
R%	Run	match
R%	Mere	no match
R%	Summer	no match

### \_ Wildcard in SQL

The `_` wildcard in SQL is used to represent exactly one character in a string. For example,

```
SELECT *
FROM Customers
WHERE country LIKE 'U_';
```

[Run Code >>](#)

Here, the SQL command selects customers whose `country` name starts with U and is followed by only one character.

Expression	String	Matched?
U	U	no match
U_	UK	match
U_	USA	no match

### [] Wildcard in SQL

The `[ ]` wildcard in SQL is used to represent any one character inside brackets. For example,

```
SELECT *
FROM Customers
WHERE country LIKE 'U[K]A%';
```

Here, the SQL command selects customers whose `country` name starts with U and is followed by either K or A. Any number of characters are allowed afterwards.

Expression	String	Matched?
U	U	no match
U[K]A%	UK	match
U[K]A%	UAE	match
U[K]A%	USA	no match

### ! Wildcard in SQL

The `[ ! ]` wildcard in SQL is used to exclude characters from a string. For example,

```
SELECT *
FROM Customers
WHERE last_name LIKE '[!DR]%;'
```

Here, the SQL command selects customers whose `last_name` does not start with D or R.

Expression	String	Matched?
Doe	Doe	no match
Reinhardt	Reinhardt	no match
Luna	Luna	match
[!DR]%	D	no match
[!DR]%	O	match
[!DR]%	R	no match

## Wildcard Characters in Different Databases

Different databases have different sets of wildcard characters. Some of them are listed here.

### Database Systems

SQL Server	>
PostgreSQL and MySQL	>
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## SQL UNION

In this tutorial, we'll learn to use the UNION operator in SQL with the help of examples.

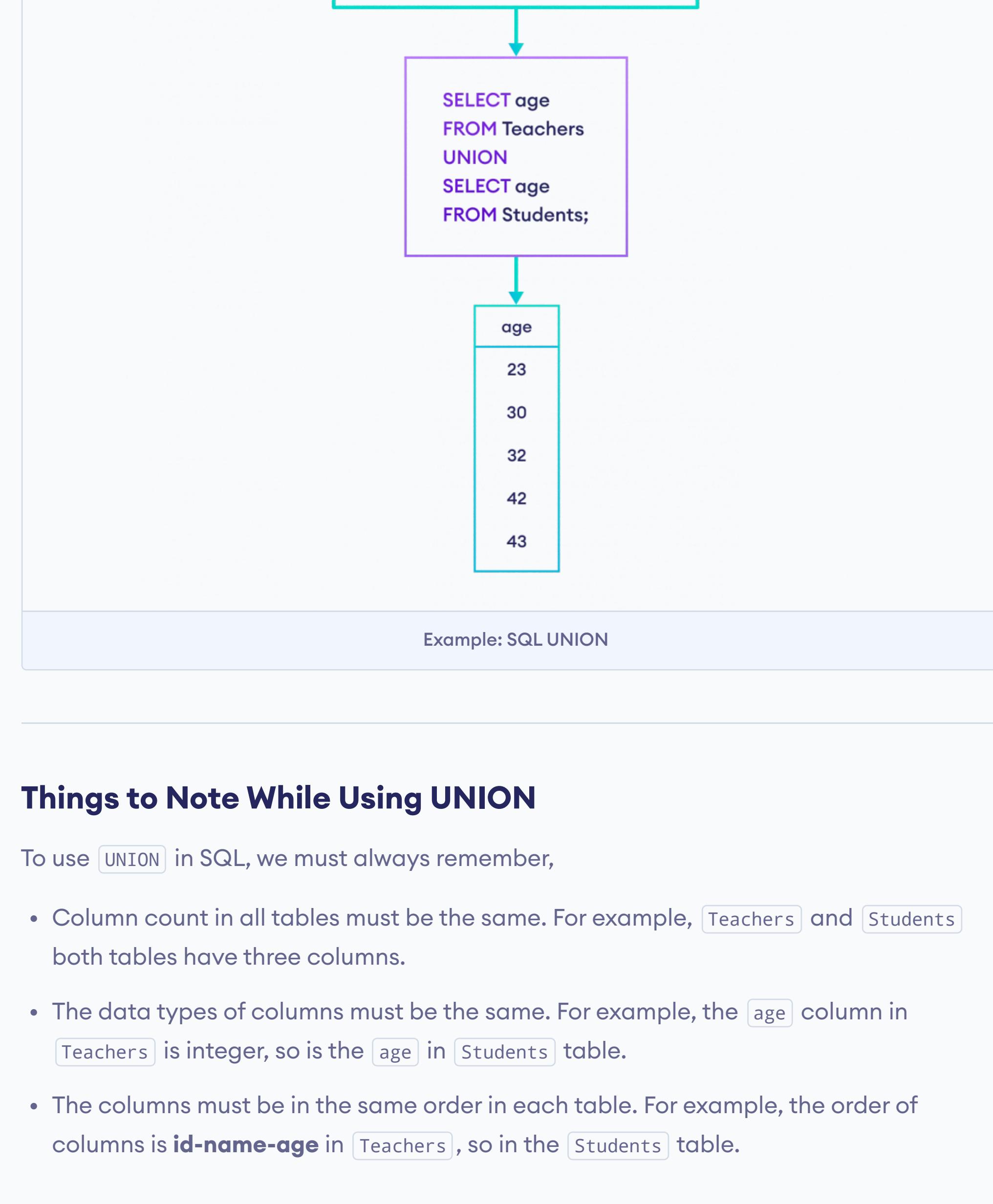
In SQL, the `UNION` operator selects rows from two or more tables.

If rows of tables are the same, those rows are only included once in the result set. For example,

```
SELECT age
FROM Teachers
UNION
SELECT age
FROM Students;
```

[Run Code >>](#)

Here, the SQL command returns the `age` column from the `Teachers` table and the `Students` table, ignoring the duplicate rows.



Example: SQL UNION

### Things to Note While Using UNION

To use `UNION` in SQL, we must always remember,

- Column count in all tables must be the same. For example, `Teachers` and `Students` both tables have three columns.
- The data types of columns must be the same. For example, the `age` column in `Teachers` is integer, so is the `age` in `Students` table.
- The columns must be in the same order in each table. For example, the order of columns is `id-name-age` in `Teachers`, so in the `Students` table.

## SQL UNION ALL Operator

The `UNION ALL` operator selects rows from two or more tables similar to `UNION`. However, unlike `UNION`, `UNION ALL` doesn't ignore duplicate rows.

Let's try the previous SQL command again using `UNION ALL` instead of `UNION`.

```
SELECT age
FROM Teachers
UNION ALL
SELECT age
FROM Students;
```

[Run Code >>](#)

Here, the SQL command selects rows from both tables including duplicate rows.



Example: SQL UNION ALL

### SQL UNION Vs UNION ALL

SQL UNION	SQL UNION ALL
It only returns distinct rows from the result set of two queries.	It returns the duplicate values from the result set of two queries.
Slower in comparison to the <code>UNION ALL</code> operator.	Executes fast as there is no need to filter the result-sets by removing duplicate values.

It is recommended to use `UNION ALL` when we know the result set will have unique values as it improves the performance.

### SQL UNION Vs SQL JOIN

SQL JOIN	SQL UNION
It is used to combine data into new columns from different tables.	It is used to combine data into new rows from the result of different queries.
It uses the common column in both of the tables to fetch the data.	It selects data from two tables and combines the output.
Any number of columns can be present in tables.	Column counts must be the same in both of the tables.
Data type of columns can be different.	Data type of columns must be the same.

To learn more, visit [SQL JOIN](#).

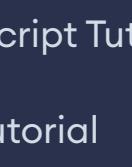
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SQL SELECT INTO Statement

## SQL Subquery

In this tutorial, we'll learn about subqueries in SQL with the help of examples.

In SQL, it's possible to place a SQL query inside another query known as subquery. For example,

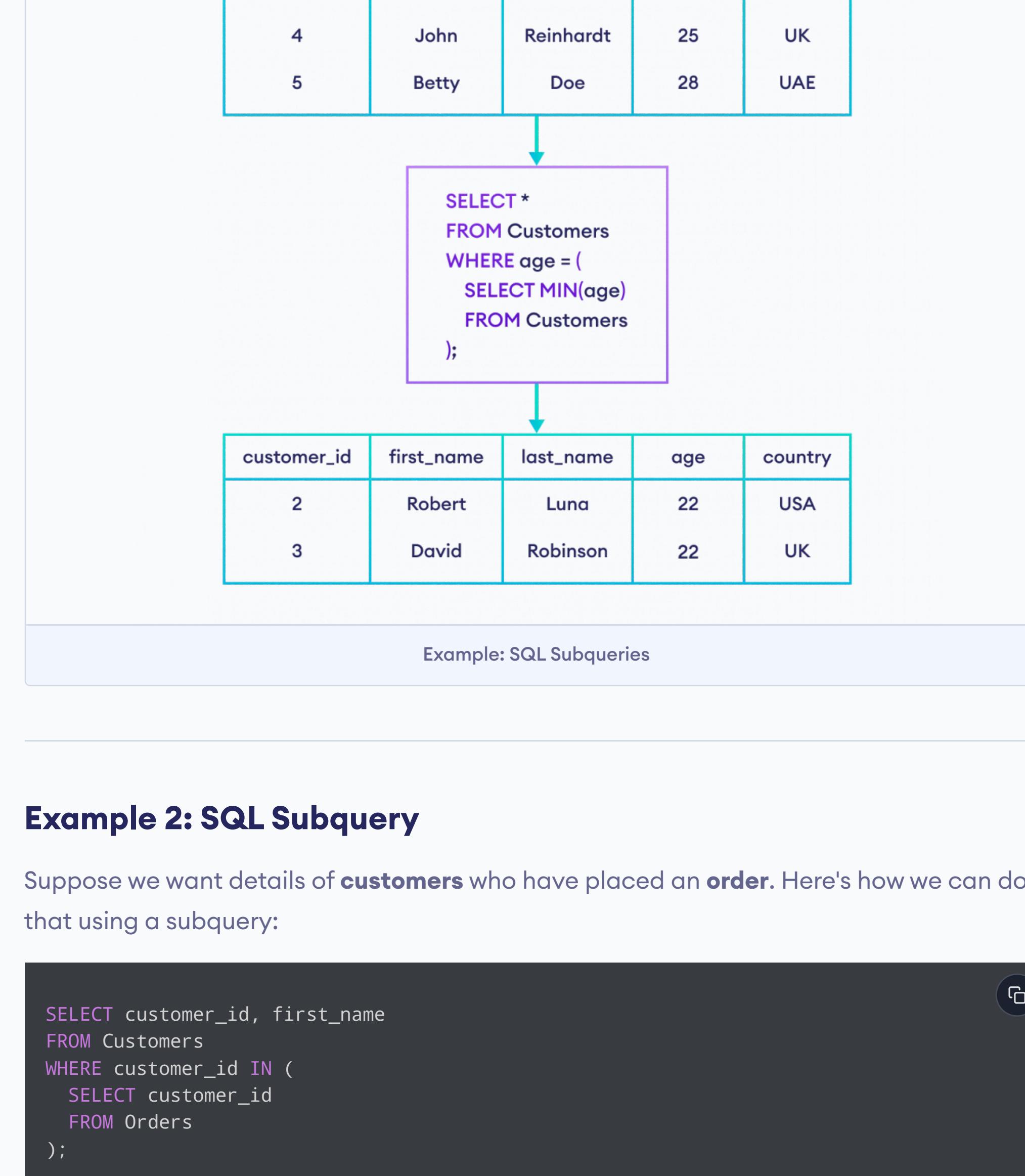
```
SELECT *
FROM Customers
WHERE age = (
    SELECT MIN(age)
    FROM Customers
);
```

[Run Code >>](#)

In a subquery, the outer query's result is dependent on the result-set of the inner subquery. That's why subqueries are also called nested queries.

Here, the SQL command

1. executes the subquery first; selects minimum `age` from the `Customers` table.
2. executes the outer query; selects rows where `age` is **equal to the result of subquery**.



### Example 2: SQL Subquery

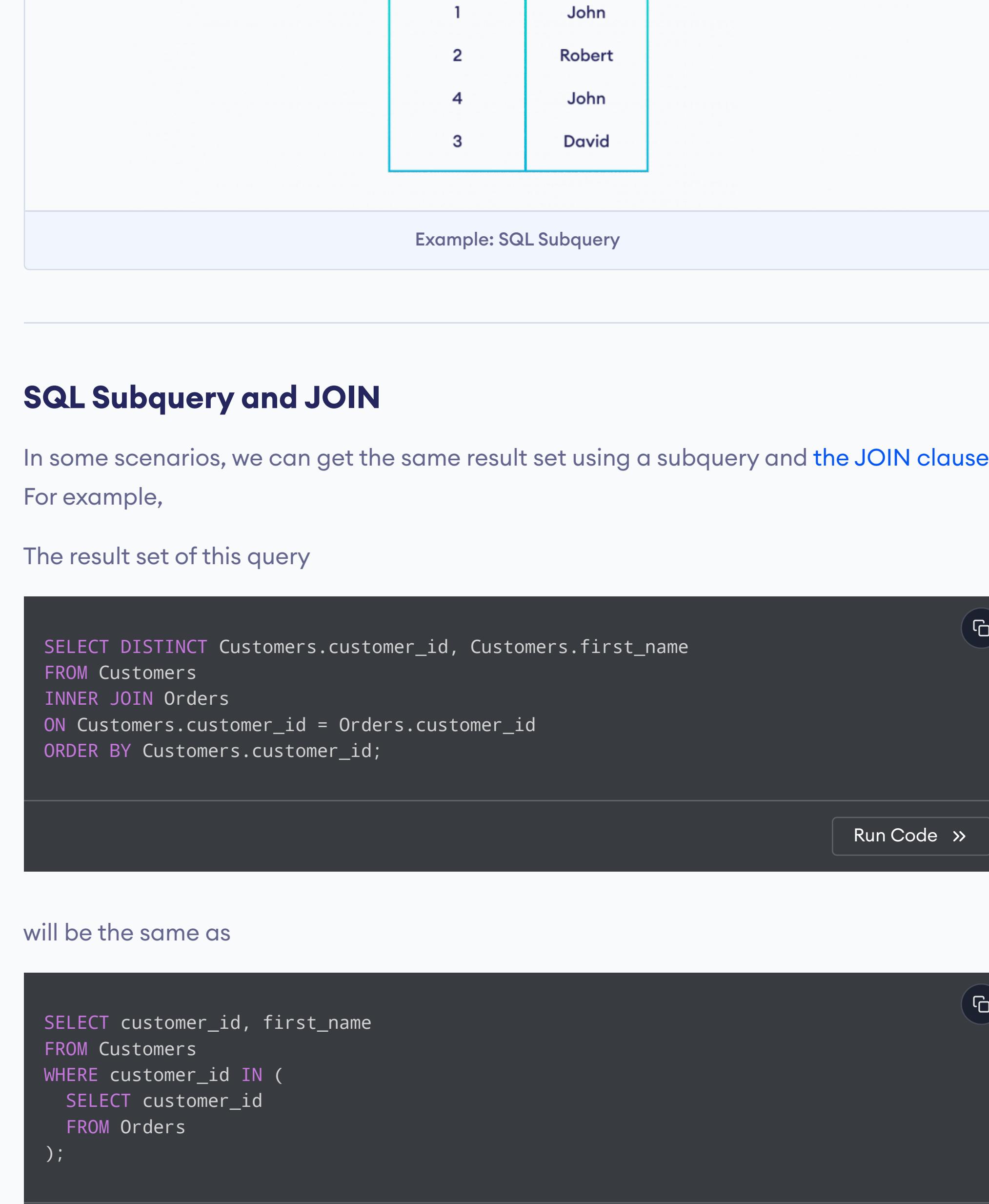
Suppose we want details of `customers` who have placed an `order`. Here's how we can do that using a subquery:

```
SELECT customer_id, first_name
FROM Customers
WHERE customer_id IN (
    SELECT customer_id
    FROM Orders
);
```

[Run Code >>](#)

Here, the SQL command

1. selects `customer_id` from `Orders` table
2. select rows from `Customers` table where `customer_id` is in the result set of subquery



### SQL Subquery and JOIN

In some scenarios, we can get the same result set using a subquery and the `JOIN` clause. For example,

The result set of this query

```
SELECT DISTINCT Customers.customer_id, Customers.first_name
FROM Customers
INNER JOIN Orders
ON Customers.customer_id = Orders.customer_id
ORDER BY Customers.customer_id;
```

[Run Code >>](#)

will be the same as

```
SELECT customer_id, first_name
FROM Customers
WHERE customer_id IN (
    SELECT customer_id
    FROM Orders
);
```

[Run Code >>](#)

**Note:** It's preferred to use the `JOIN` clause instead of a subquery whenever possible. It's because the execution speed of `JOIN` is faster and more optimized than a subquery.

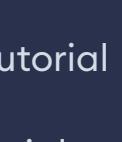
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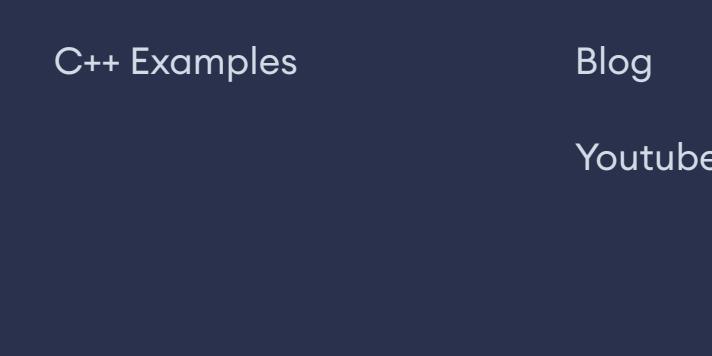
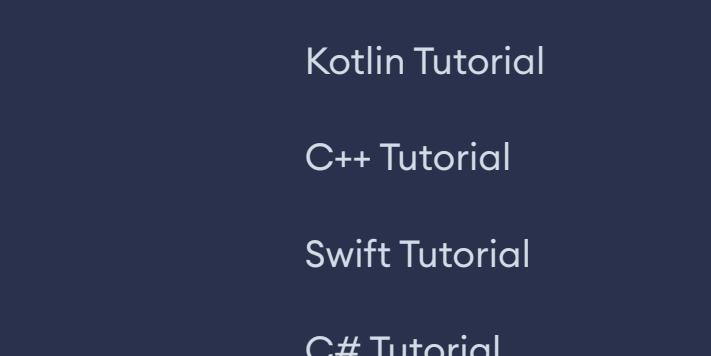
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## SQL ANY and ALL

In this tutorial, we'll learn about SQL ANY and ALL operators with the help of examples.

### SQL ANY

SQL `ANY` compares a value of the first table with all values of the second table and returns the row if there is a match with any value.

For example, if we want to find teachers whose age is similar to any of the student's age, we can use

```
SELECT *
FROM Teachers
WHERE age = ANY (
    SELECT age
    FROM Students
);
```

Here, the sub query

```
SELECT age
FROM Students
```

returns all the ages from the `Students` table. And, the condition

```
WHERE age = ANY (...)
```

compares the student ages (returned by subquery) with the teacher's age. If there is any match, the corresponding row of the `Teachers` table is selected.



Example: ANY in SQL

### SQL ALL

SQL `ALL` compares a value of the first table with all values of the second table and returns the row if there is a match with all values.

For example, if we want to find teachers whose age is greater than all students, we can use

```
SELECT *
FROM Teachers
WHERE age > ALL (
    SELECT age
    FROM Students
);
```

Here, the sub query

```
SELECT age
FROM Students
```

returns all the ages from the `Students` table. And, the condition

```
WHERE age > ALL (...)
```

compares the student ages (returned by subquery) with the teacher's age. If the teacher's age is greater than all student's ages, the corresponding row of the `Teachers` table is selected.



Example: ALL in SQL

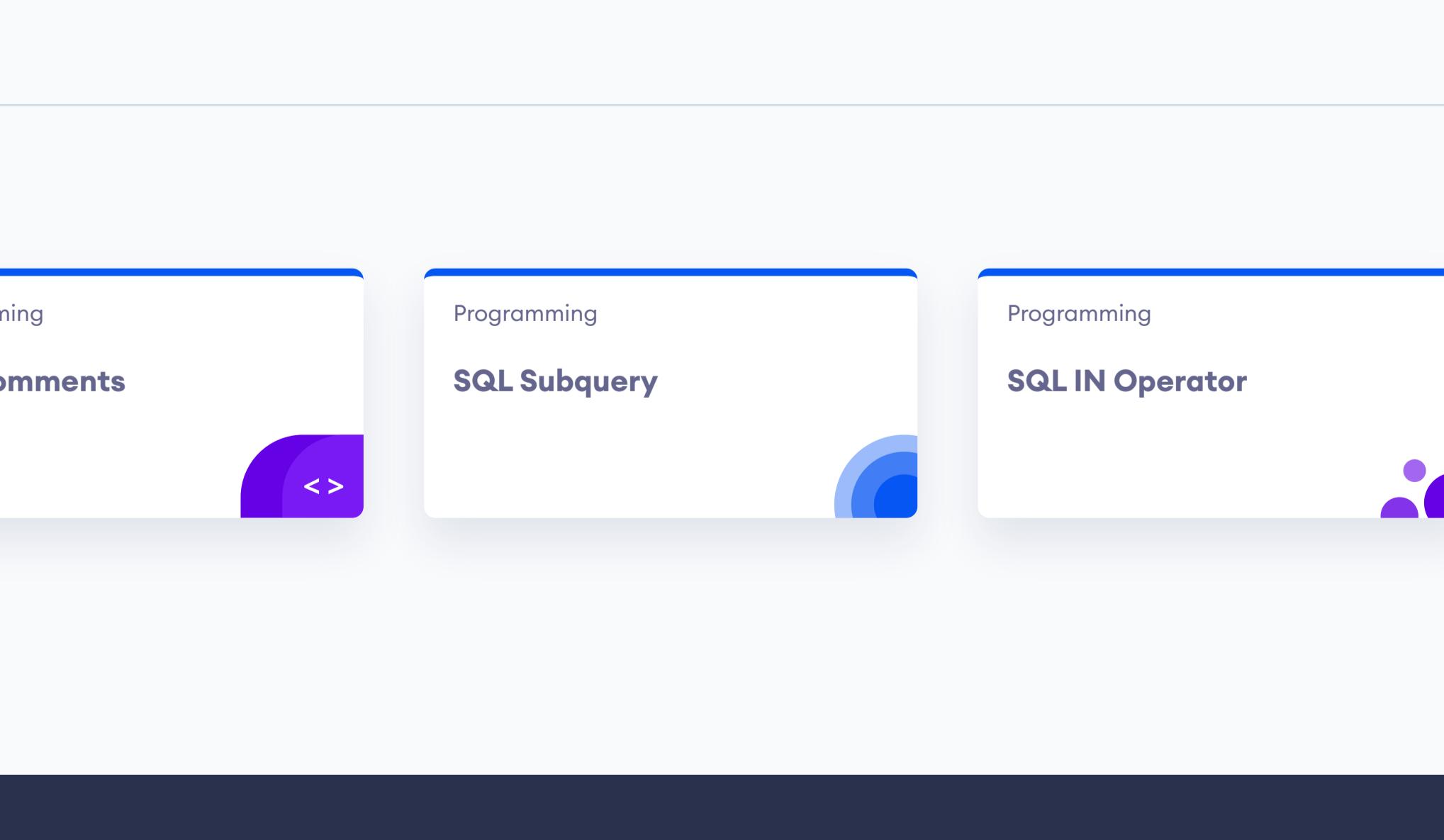
### ANY and ALL with Comparison Operators

We can use any comparison operators like `=`, `>`, `<`, etc. with the `ANY` and `ALL` keywords.

Let's see an example where we want teachers whose age is less than any student.

```
SELECT *
FROM Teachers
WHERE age < ANY (
    SELECT age
    FROM Students
);
```

Here, the SQL command selects rows if `age` in the `outer query` is less than any `age` in a `subquery`.



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[SQL Subquery](#)

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[SQL CASE](#)

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## SQL CASE

In this tutorial, we'll learn about the `CASE` statement in SQL and how to use them with examples.

The `CASE` statement in SQL is used to check conditions and perform tasks on each row while selecting data. For example,

```
SELECT customer_id, first_name,  
CASE  
    WHEN age >= 18 THEN 'Allowed'  
END AS can_vote  
FROM Customers;
```

[Run Code >>](#)

Here, the SQL command checks each row with the given case.

If `age` is greater than or equal to **18**, the result set contains

- columns with `customer_id` and `first_name` with their values
- **Allowed** is returned as a `can_vote` column.

Table: Customers				
customer_id	first_name	last_name	age	country
1	John	Doe	31	USA
2	Robert	Luna	22	USA
3	David	Robinson	22	UK
4	John	Reinhardt	25	UK
5	Betty	Doe	28	UAE

```
SELECT customer_id, first_name  
CASE  
    WHEN age >= 18 THEN 'Allowed'  
END AS can_vote  
FROM Customers;
```

customer_id	first_name	can_vote
1	John	Allowed
2	Robert	Allowed
3	David	Allowed
4	John	Allowed
5	Betty	Allowed

Example: CASE in SQL

### Note:

The syntax of `CASE` always starts with the `CASE` keyword and ends with the `END` keyword followed by column name alias.

## Example Two: SQL CASE Statement

Let's take a look at another example where we want to provide a **10% discount** on each order for a Christmas sale if the **amount is more than 400**.

```
SELECT order_id, customer_id,  
CASE  
    WHEN amount >= 400 THEN (amount - amount * 10/100)  
END AS offer_price  
FROM Orders;
```

[Run Code >>](#)

Here, the SQL command checks if the `amount` is greater than or equal to **400**. If this condition is satisfied, a new column `offer_price` will contain the values that's equal to `amount - amount*10/100`.

## Multiple Cases

It is also possible to stack multiple conditions inside the `CASE` clause.

```
SELECT customer_id, first_name,  
CASE  
    WHEN country = 'USA' THEN 'United States of America'  
    WHEN country = 'UK' THEN 'United Kingdom'  
    ELSE 'Unknown Country'  
END AS country_name  
FROM Customers;
```

[Run Code >>](#)

Here, the result set will contain a column named `country_name` along with `customer_id` and `first_name` columns.

The value of `country_name` will be **United States of America** if the `country` is equal to **USA**.

Similarly, the value of `country_name` will be **United Kingdom** if the `country` is equal to **UK**.

## CASE With ELSE in SQL

A `CASE` statement can have an optional `ELSE` clause. The `ELSE` clause is executed if none of the conditions in the `CASE` statement is matched. For example,

```
SELECT customer_id, first_name,  
CASE  
    WHEN country = 'USA' THEN 'United States of America'  
    WHEN country = 'UK' THEN 'United Kingdom'  
    ELSE 'Unknown Country'  
END AS country_name  
FROM Customers;
```

[Run Code >>](#)

Here, the result set will contain a field named `country_name` along with `customer_id` and `first_name`.

The value of the `country_name` will be:

- **United States of America** if the `country` is **USA**
- **United Kingdom** if the `country` is **UK**
- **Unknown Country** if the `country` is neither **USA** nor **UK** (because of the `ELSE` clause).

Table: Customers				
customer_id	first_name	last_name	age	country
1	John	Doe	31	USA
2	Robert	Luna	22	USA
3	David	Robinson	22	UK
4	John	Reinhardt	25	UK
5	Betty	Doe	28	UAE

```
SELECT customer_id, first_name  
CASE  
    WHEN country = 'USA' THEN 'United States of America'  
    WHEN country = 'UK' THEN 'United Kingdom'  
    ELSE 'Unknown Country'  
END AS country_name  
FROM Customers;
```

customer_id	first_name	country_name
1	John	United States of America
2	Robert	United States of America
3	David	United Kingdom
4	John	United Kingdom
5	Betty	Unknown Country

Example: CASE With ELSE in SQL

Previous Tutorial:  
[SQL ANY and ALL](#)

Next Tutorial:  
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## SQL HAVING Clause

In this tutorial, we'll learn about the `HAVING` clause in SQL and how to use them with examples.

The `HAVING` clause in SQL is used if we need to filter the result set based on aggregate functions such as `MIN()` and `MAX()`, `SUM()` and `AVG()` and `COUNT()`.

```
SELECT COUNT(customer_id), country
FROM Customers
GROUP BY country
HAVING COUNT(customer_id) > 1;
```

[Run Code >>](#)

Here, the SQL command:

1. counts the number of rows by grouping them by `country`

2. returns the result set if their `count` is greater than 1.

Table: Customers

customer_id	first_name	last_name	age	country
1	John	Doe	31	USA
2	Robert	Luna	22	USA
3	David	Robinson	22	UK
4	John	Reinhardt	25	UK
5	Betty	Doe	28	UAE

```
SELECT COUNT(customer_id), country
FROM Customers
GROUP BY country
HAVING COUNT(customer_id) > 1;
```

COUNT(customer_id)	country
2	UK
2	USA

Example: `HAVING` in SQL

**Note:** The `HAVING` clause was introduced because the `WHERE` clause does not support aggregate functions. Also, `GROUP BY` must be used before the `HAVING` clause. To learn more, visit [SQL GROUP BY](#).

### SQL HAVING Vs WHERE

HAVING Clause	WHERE Clause
The <code>HAVING</code> clause checks the condition on a group of rows.	The <code>WHERE</code> clause checks the condition on each individual row.
The <code>HAVING</code> is used with aggregate functions.	The <code>WHERE</code> clause cannot be used with aggregate functions.
The <code>HAVING</code> clause is executed after the <code>GROUP BY</code> clause.	The <code>WHERE</code> clause is executed before the <code>GROUP BY</code> clause.

Let's take a look at an example,

If we want to select rows where the value of the `amount` column in the `Orders` table is less than 500, we can write,

```
SELECT customer_id, amount
FROM Orders
WHERE amount < 500;
```

[Run Code >>](#)

Now, if we want to select rows and calculate sum off each amount, we can write,

```
SELECT customer_id, SUM(amount) AS total
FROM Orders
GROUP BY customer_id;
```

[Run Code >>](#)

That's it.

But if we need to select rows if the sum of amounts is less than 500 for any customer, we need to write,

```
SELECT customer_id, SUM(amount) AS total
FROM Orders
GROUP BY customer_id
HAVING SUM(amount) < 500;
```

[Run Code >>](#)

Previous Tutorial:  
[SQL CASE](#)

Next Tutorial:  
[SQL EXISTS](#)

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## SQL EXISTS

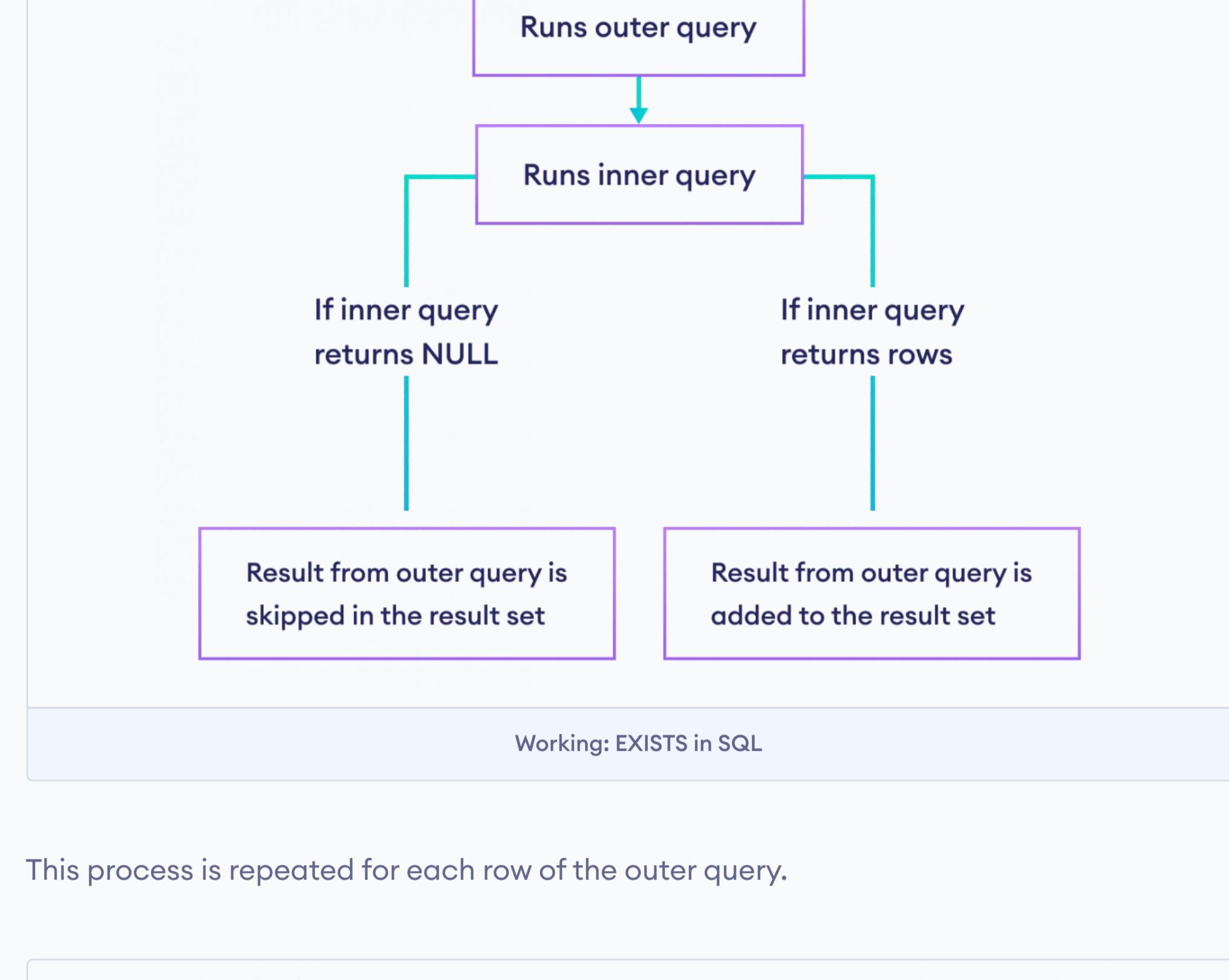
In this tutorial, we'll learn about the EXISTS operator in SQL and how to use them with examples.

The SQL `EXISTS` operator executes the outer SQL query if the `subquery` is not `NULL` (empty result-set). For example,

```
SELECT customer_id, first_name
FROM Customers
WHERE EXISTS (
    SELECT order_id
    FROM Orders
    WHERE Orders.customer_id = Customers.customer_id
);
```

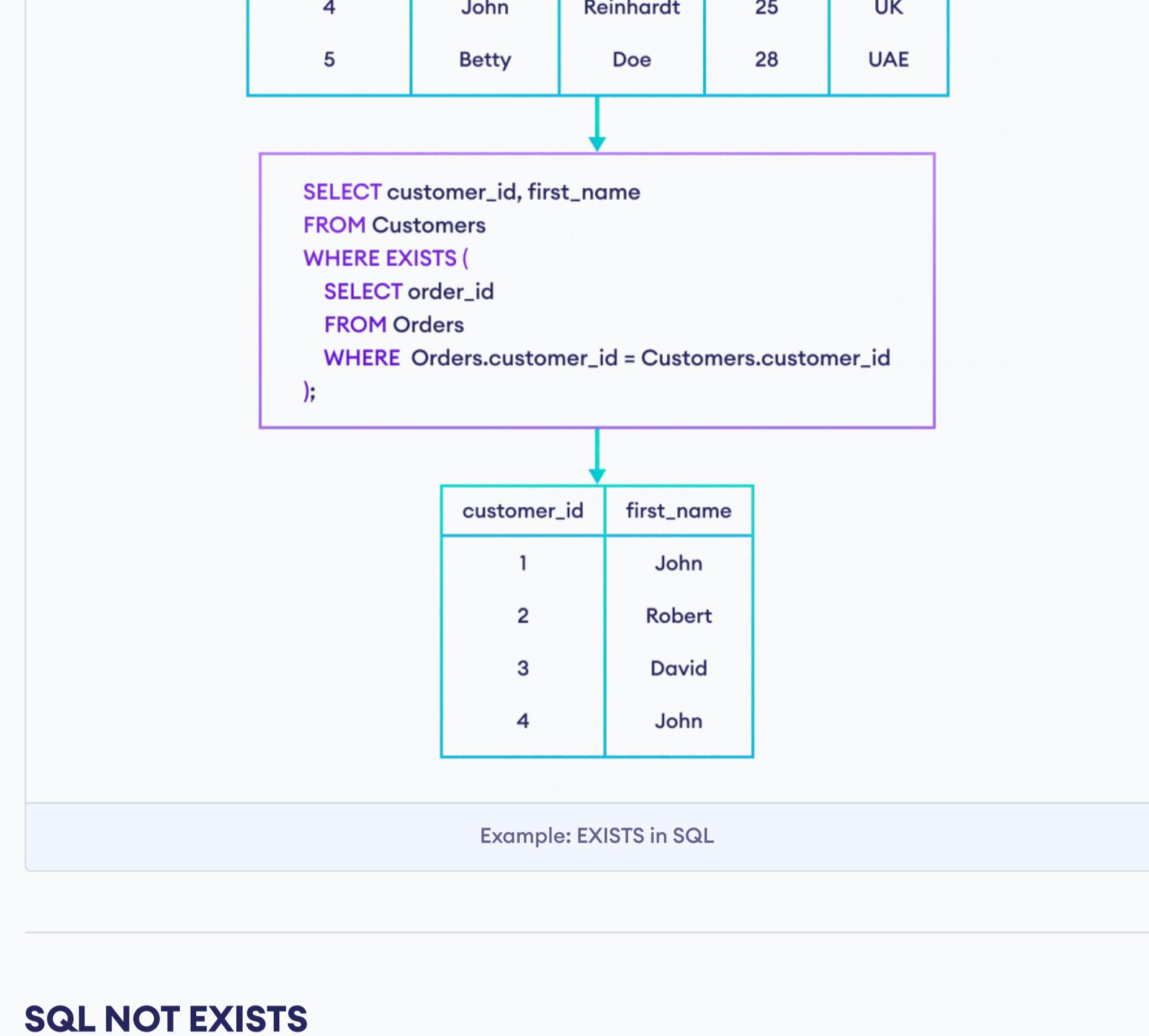
[Run Code >>](#)

Here is how the SQL command works:



This process is repeated for each row of the outer query.

Related Topics
SQL Subquery
SQL INSERT INTO SELECT Statement
SQL IN Operator
SQL SELECT INTO Statement
SQL JOIN
SQL Stored Procedures



## SQL NOT EXISTS

We can also use the `NOT` operator to inverse the working of the `EXISTS` clause. The SQL command executes if the `subquery` returns an empty result-set. For example,

```
SELECT customer_id, first_name
FROM Customers
WHERE NOT EXISTS (
    SELECT order_id
    FROM Orders
    WHERE Orders.customer_id = Customers.customer_id
);
```

[Run Code >>](#)

Here, the SQL command returns a row from the `Customers` table if the related row is not in the `Orders` table.

## SQL EXISTS Examples

DROP TABLE IF EXISTS	>
CREATE TABLE IF NOT EXISTS	>
Another SQL EXISTS Example	>

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## SQL JOIN

In this tutorial, we'll learn about the `JOIN` clause in SQL with the help of examples.

The SQL `JOIN` joins two tables based on a common column, and selects records that have matching values in these columns.

### Example

```
SELECT Customers.customer_id, Customers.first_name, Orders.amount
FROM Customers
JOIN Orders
ON Customers.customer_id = Orders.customer;
```

[Run Code >>](#)

Here's how this code works:



Here, the SQL command selects `customer_id` and `first_name` columns (from the `Customers` table) and the `amount` column (from the `Orders` table).

And, the result set will contain those rows where there is a match between `customer_id` (of the `Customers` table) and `customer` (of the `Orders` table).

### Types of SQL JOINS

The `JOIN` command we performed earlier is `INNER JOIN`. There are mainly four types of joins.

- [INNER JOIN](#) (Same as `JOIN`)
- [LEFT JOIN](#)
- [RIGHT JOIN](#)
- [FULL OUTER JOIN](#)

### SQL JOIN and Aliases

We can use [AS aliases](#) with table names to make our snippet short and clean. For example,

```
SELECT C.customer_id, C.first_name, O.amount
FROM Customers AS C
JOIN Orders AS O
ON C.customer_id = O.customer;
```

[Run Code >>](#)

Also, we can change the column names temporarily using AS aliases. For example,

```
SELECT C.customer_id AS cid, C.first_name AS name, O.amount
FROM Customers AS C
JOIN Orders AS O
ON C.customer_id = O.customer;
```

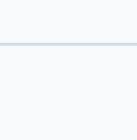
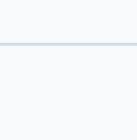
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Here, these snippets would work exactly the same as earlier.

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[SQL EXISTS](#)

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## SQL INNER JOIN

In this tutorial, we'll learn about SQL INNER JOIN with the help of examples.

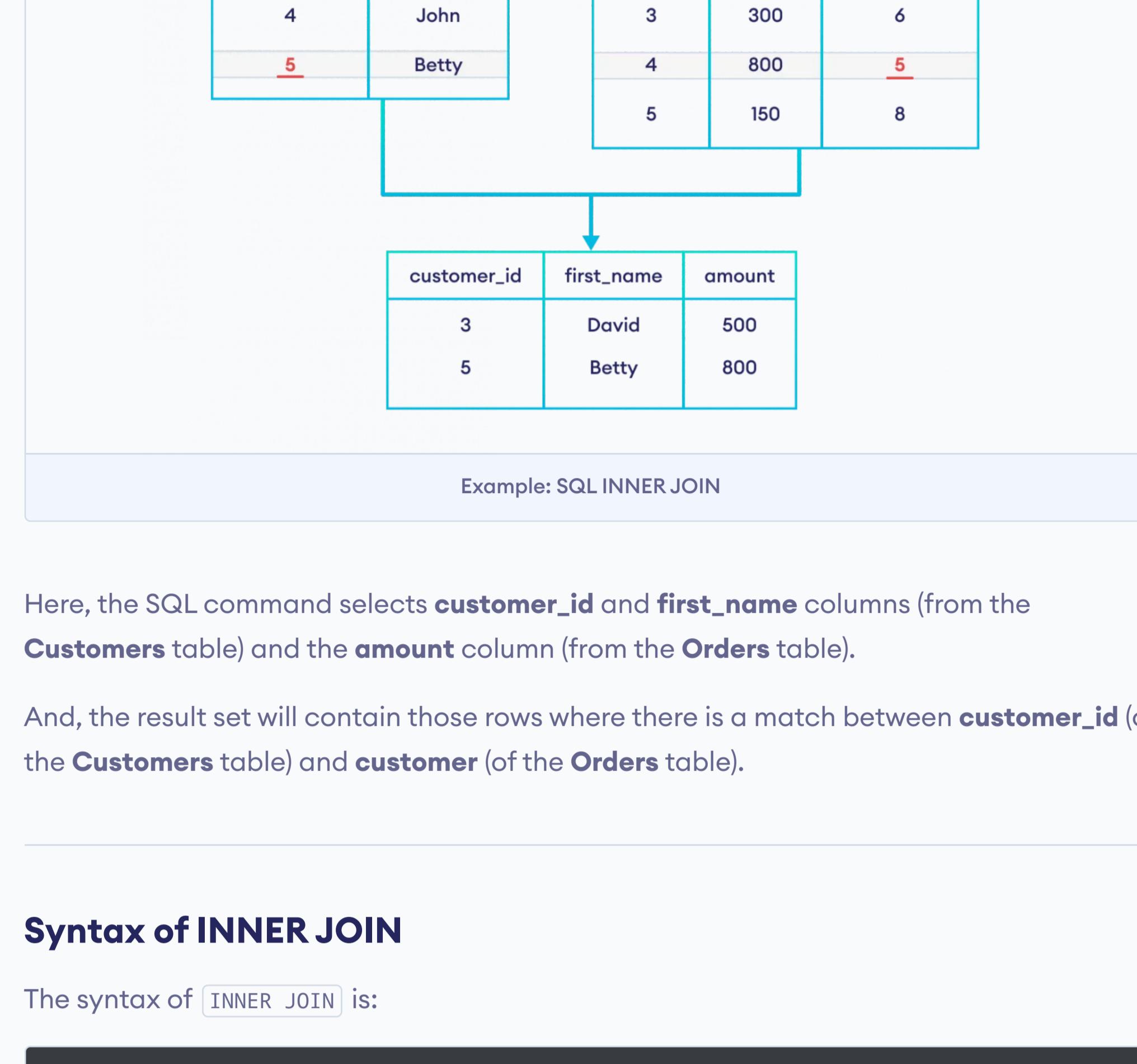
The `SQL INNER JOIN` joins two tables based on a common column, and selects records that have matching values in these columns.

### Example

```
SELECT Customers.customer_id, Customers.first_name, Orders.amount  
FROM Customers  
INNER JOIN Orders  
ON Customers.customer_id = Orders.customer;
```

[Run Code >>](#)

Here's how this code works:



Example: SQL INNER JOIN

Here, the SQL command selects `customer_id` and `first_name` columns (from the `Customers` table) and the `amount` column (from the `Orders` table).

And, the result set will contain those rows where there is a match between `customer_id` (of the `Customers` table) and `customer` (of the `Orders` table).

### Syntax of INNER JOIN

The syntax of `[INNER JOIN]` is:

```
SELECT columns  
FROM table1  
INNER JOIN table2  
ON table1.column_name = table2.column_name;
```

### INNER JOIN With WHERE Clause

Here's an example of the `[INNER JOIN]` with the `WHERE clause`:

```
SELECT Customers.customer_id, Customers.first_name, Orders.amount  
FROM Customers  
INNER JOIN Orders  
ON Customers.customer_id = Orders.customer  
WHERE Orders.amount >= 500;
```

[Run Code >>](#)

Here, the SQL command joins two tables and selects rows where the `amount` is greater than or equal to 500.

### SQL INNER JOIN With AS Alias

We can use `AS aliases` inside `[INNER JOIN]` to make our snippet short and clean. For example,

```
SELECT C.cat_name, P.prod_title  
FROM Categories AS C  
INNER JOIN Products AS P  
ON C.cat_id = P.cat_id;
```

[Run Code >>](#)

Here, the SQL command selects common rows between `Category` and `Products` table.

### SQL INNER JOIN With Three Tables

We can also join more than two tables using the `[INNER JOIN]`. For example,

```
SELECT C.customer_id, C.first_name, O.amount, S.status  
FROM Customers AS C  
INNER JOIN Orders AS O  
ON C.customer_id = O.customer  
INNER JOIN Shipments AS S  
ON C.customer_id = S.customer;
```

[Run Code >>](#)

Here, the SQL command

- joins `Customers` and `Orders` table based on `[customer_id]`
- and joins `Customers` and `Status` table based on `[customer_id]`

The command returns those rows where there is a match between column values in both join conditions.

**Note:** For this command to run, there must be the `[customer_id]` column in each individual table.

### Inner Join Vs Other Joins

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### Recommended Readings

- [SQL JOIN](#)
- [SQL LEFT JOIN](#)
- [SQL RIGHT JOIN](#)
- [SQL FULL OUTER JOIN](#)

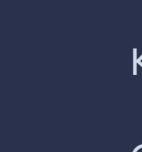
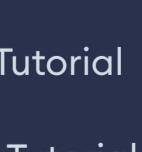
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## SQL LEFT JOIN

In this tutorial, we'll learn about SQL LEFT JOIN with the help of examples.

The SQL `LEFT JOIN` joins two tables based on a common column, and selects records that have matching values in these columns and remaining rows from the left table.

### Example

```
SELECT Customers.customer_id, Customers.first_name, Orders.amount  
FROM Customers  
LEFT JOIN Orders  
ON Customers.customer_id = Orders.customer;
```

[Run Code >>](#)

Here's how this code works:



Example: SQL LEFT JOIN

Here, the SQL command selects `customer_id` and `first_name` columns (from the `Customers` table) and the `amount` column (from the `Orders` table).

And, the result set will contain those rows where there is a match between `customer_id` (of the `Customers` table) and `customer` (of the `Orders` table) along with all the remaining rows from the `Customers` table.

### Syntax of LEFT JOIN

The syntax of `LEFT JOIN` is:

```
SELECT columns  
FROM table1  
LEFT JOIN table2  
ON table1.column_name = table2.column_name;
```

### LEFT JOIN With WHERE Clause

The SQL command can have an optional `WHERE clause` with the `LEFT JOIN` statement. For example,

```
SELECT Customers.customer_id, Customers.first_name, Orders.amount  
FROM Customers  
LEFT JOIN Orders  
ON Customers.customer_id = Orders.customer  
WHERE Orders.amount >= 500;
```

[Run Code >>](#)

Here, the SQL command joins two tables and selects rows where the `amount` is **greater than or equal to 500**.

### SQL LEFT JOIN With AS Alias

We can use `AS aliases` inside `LEFT JOIN` to make our snippet short and clean. For example,

```
SELECT C.cat_name, P.prod_title  
FROM Categories1 AS C  
LEFT JOIN Products AS P  
ON C.cat_id = P.cat_id;
```

[Run Code >>](#)

Here, the SQL command selects common rows between `Category` and `Products` table.

### Left Join Vs Other Joins

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- [SQL RIGHT JOIN](#)
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#### Related Topics

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## SQL RIGHT JOIN

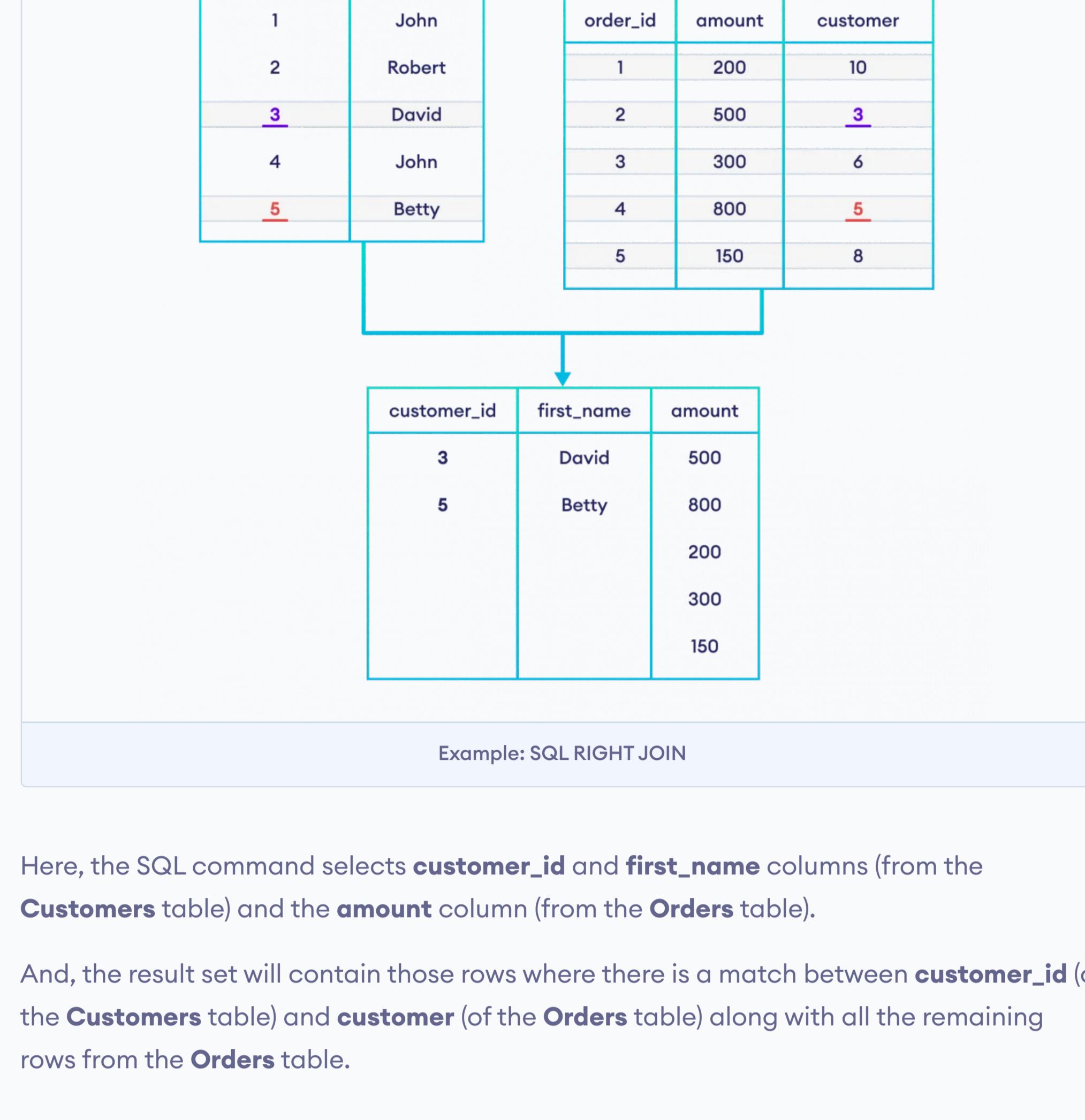
In this tutorial, we'll learn about SQL RIGHT JOIN with the help of examples.

The SQL `RIGHT JOIN` joins two tables based on a common column, and selects records that have matching values in these columns and remaining rows from the right table.

#### Example

```
SELECT Customers.customer_id, Customers.first_name, Orders.amount  
FROM Customers  
RIGHT JOIN Orders  
ON Customers.customer_id = Orders.customer;
```

Here's how this code works:



Here, the SQL command selects `customer_id` and `first_name` columns (from the `Customers` table) and the `amount` column (from the `Orders` table).

And, the result set will contain those rows where there is a match between `customer_id` (of the `Customers` table) and `customer` (of the `Orders` table) along with all the remaining rows from the `Orders` table.

### Syntax of RIGHT JOIN

The syntax of `RIGHT JOIN` is:

```
SELECT columns  
FROM table1  
RIGHT JOIN table2  
ON table1.column_name = table2.column_name;
```

### RIGHT JOIN With WHERE Clause

The SQL command can have an optional `WHERE clause` with the `RIGHT JOIN` statement.

For example,

```
SELECT Customers.customer_id, Customers.first_name, Orders.amount  
FROM Customers  
INNER JOIN Orders  
ON Customers.customer_id = Orders.customer  
WHERE Orders.amount >= 500;
```

Here, the SQL command joins two tables and selects rows where the `amount` is greater than or equal to 500.

### SQL RIGHT JOIN With AS Alias

We can use `AS aliases` inside `RIGHT JOIN` to make our snippet short and clean. For example,

```
SELECT C.cat_name, P.prod_title  
FROM Category AS C  
RIGHT JOIN Products AS P  
ON C.cat_id = P.cat_id;
```

Here, the SQL command selects common rows between `Category` and `Products` table.

### Right Join Vs Other Joins

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## SQL FULL OUTER JOIN

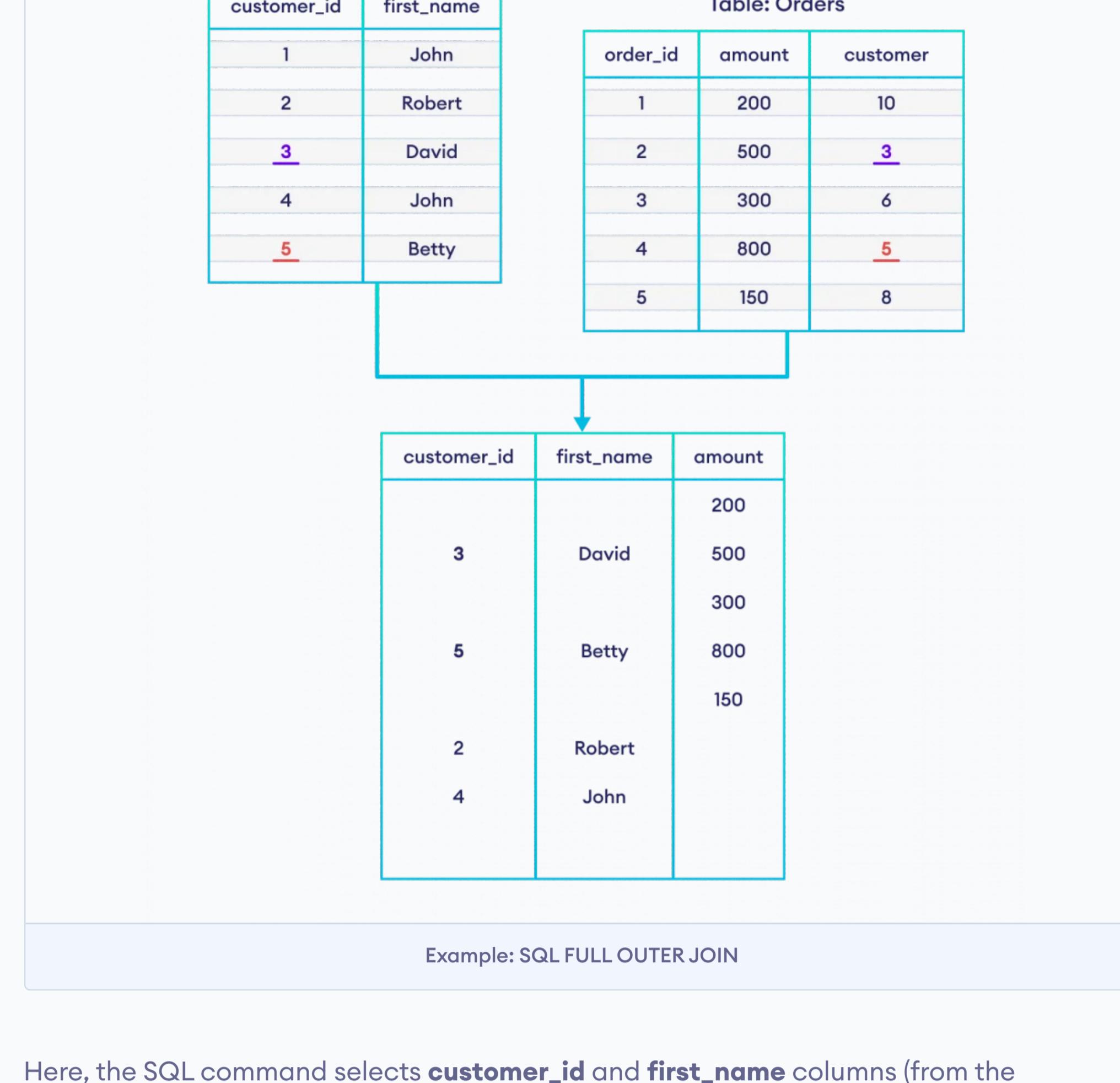
In this tutorial, we'll learn about SQL FULL OUTER JOIN with the help of examples.

The SQL `FULL OUTER JOIN` joins two tables based on a common column, and selects records that have matching values in these columns and remaining rows from both of the tables.

Example

```
SELECT Customers.customer_id, Customers.first_name, Orders.amount
FROM Customers
FULL OUTER JOIN Orders
ON Customers.customer_id = Orders.customer;
```

Here's how this code works:



Here, the SQL command selects `customer_id` and `first_name` columns (from the `Customers` table) and the `amount` column (from the `Orders` table).

And, the result set will contain those rows where there is a match between `customer_id` (of the `Customers` table) and `customer` (of the `Orders` table) along with all the remaining rows from **both of the tables**.

### Syntax of FULL OUTER JOIN

The syntax of `FULL OUTER JOIN` is:

```
SELECT columns
FROM table1
FULL OUTER JOIN table2
ON table1.column_name = table2.column_name;
```

### FULL OUTER JOIN With WHERE Clause

The SQL command can have an optional `WHERE clause` with the `FULL OUTER JOIN` statement. For example,

```
SELECT Customers.customer_id, Customers.first_name, Orders.amount
FROM Customers
FULL OUTER JOIN Orders
ON Customers.customer_id = Orders.customer
WHERE Orders.amount >= 500;
```

Here, the SQL command joins two tables and selects rows where the `amount` is **greater than or equal to 500**.

### SQL FULL OUTER JOIN With AS Alias

We can use `AS aliases` inside `FULL OUTER JOIN` to make our snippet short and clean. For example,

```
SELECT C.cat_name, P.prod_title
FROM Category AS C
FULL OUTER JOIN Products AS P
ON C.cat_id= P.cat_id;
```

Here, the SQL command selects common rows between `Category` and `Products` table.

### Full Outer Join Vs Other Joins

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## SQL CREATE DATABASE Statement



In this tutorial, we'll learn about creating databases in SQL with examples.

Before we can work with database tables, we must create a database first.

The `CREATE DATABASE` statement is used to create database tables. For example,

```
CREATE DATABASE my_db;
```

Here, the SQL command creates a database named `my_db`.

### CREATE DATABASE IF NOT EXISTS

If there is already a database with the same name, SQL will throw an error while creating a database.

In such situations, we can use the `CREATE DATABASE IF NOT EXISTS` statement to create a database only if there is no existing database with the same name. For example,

```
CREATE DATABASE IF NOT EXISTS my_db;
```

Here, the SQL command creates a database named `my_db` only if there is no existing database with the same name.

### List all Databases

There could be multiple databases in a database management system. To show the list of databases, we can run the following statement.

```
SHOW DATABASES;
```

Here, the SQL command lists all the available databases in the DBMS.

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<a href="#">Introduction to Databases and SQL</a>
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<a href="#">SQL DROP TABLE Statement</a>

### Switch Databases

We have to work across multiple databases from time to time. To switch between available databases, we can run the following statement.

```
USE my_db;
```

This code selects the `my_db` database and all SQL operations will be performed inside this database.

### Recommended Reading

- [SQL Create Table](#)

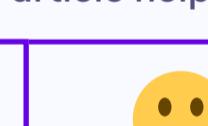
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## SQL CREATE TABLE Statement

In this tutorial, we'll learn about creating tables in SQL with examples.

A database table is used to store records (data). To create a database table, we use the SQL `CREATE TABLE` statement. For example,

```
CREATE TABLE Companies (
    id int,
    name varchar(50),
    address text,
    email varchar(50),
    phone varchar(10)
);
```

[Run Code >>](#)

Here, the SQL command creates a database named `Companies`. The table contains column (field) `id`, `name`, `address`, `email` and `phone`.

The `int`, `varchar(50)` and `text` are data types that tell what data could be stored in that field. Some commonly used data types are as follows.

Data Type	Description	Example
<code>int</code>	can store numbers	<code>400, -300</code>
<code>varchar(x)</code>	can store variable characters with maximum length of x	<code>John Doe, United States of America</code>
<code>text</code>	can store texts up to 65535 characters	This is a really long paragraph that can go over lines.

**Note:** We must provide data types for each column while creating a table. Learn more about [SQL Data Types](#).

## CREATE TABLE IF NOT EXISTS

While creating a table that already exists, throws an error. To fix this issue, we can add the optional `IF NOT EXISTS` command while creating a table. For example,

```
CREATE TABLE IF NOT EXISTS Companies (
    id int,
    name varchar(50),
    address text,
    email varchar(50),
    phone varchar(10)
);
```

[Run Code >>](#)

Here, the SQL command will only create a table if there is not one with a similar name.

## CREATE TABLE AS

We can also create a table using records from any other existing table using the `CREATE TABLE AS` command. For example,

```
CREATE TABLE USACustomers
AS (
    SELECT *
    FROM Customers
    WHERE country = 'USA'
);
```

Here, the SQL command creates a table named `USACustomers` and copies the records of the nested query into the new table.

### Related Topics: CREATE TABLE

[How to create a table with a Primary Key?](#)



[How to define constraints while creating a table?](#)



### Recommended Readings

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• [SQL CREATE DATABASE](#)

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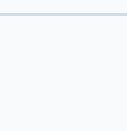
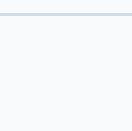
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## SQL DROP DATABASE Statement

In this tutorial, we'll learn about deleting databases in SQL with examples.

In SQL, `DROP DATABASE` is used to delete the database in our Database Management System. For example,

```
DROP DATABASE my_db;
```

Here, the SQL command will delete a database named `my_db`.

Also make sure you have `admin` or `DROP` permission to run this command.

**Note:** When we delete a database, all tables and records within a database are also deleted.

### List all Databases

To verify the drop database, we can run the following command to list the available databases.

```
SHOW DATABASES;
```

Here, the SQL command lists all the available databases in the DBMS.

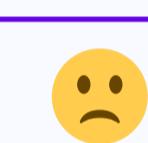
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## SQL DROP TABLE Statement

In this tutorial, we'll learn about deleting tables in SQL with examples.

In SQL, `DROP TABLE` is used to delete the tables in our database. For example,

```
DROP TABLE my_table;
```

Here, the SQL command will delete a table named `my_table`.

Also make sure you have `admin` or `DROP` permission to run this command.

**Note:** When we delete a database table, all records within a table are also deleted.

### DROP TABLE IF EXISTS

While dropping a table that does not exist, throws an error. To fix this issue, we can add an optional `IF EXISTS` command while dropping a table. For example,

```
DROP TABLE IF EXISTS my_table;
```

Here, the SQL command will only drop a table if there is one with a same name.

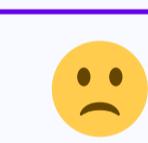
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## SQL ALTER TABLE Statement

In this tutorial, we'll learn to change table structure with the help of examples.

We can change the structure of a table using the `ALTER TABLE` command. We can

- Add a column
- Rename a column
- Modify a column
- Delete a column
- Rename a table

### Add Column in a Table

We can add columns in a table using the `ALTER TABLE` command with the `ADD` clause. For example,

```
ALTER TABLE Customers  
ADD phone varchar(10);
```

[Run Code >>](#)

Here, the SQL command adds a column named `phone` in the `Customers` table.

### Add Multiple Columns in a Table

We can also add multiple columns at once in a table. For example,

```
ALTER TABLE Customers  
ADD phone varchar(10), age int;
```

[Run Code >>](#)

Here, the SQL command adds the `phone` and `age` column in the `Customers` table.

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[SQL UNIQUE Constraint](#)  
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[SQL SELECT INTO Statement](#)

### Rename Column in a Table

We can rename columns in a table using the `ALTER TABLE` command with the `RENAME COLUMN` clause. For example,

```
ALTER TABLE Customers  
RENAME COLUMN customer_id TO c_id;
```

[Run Code >>](#)

Here, the SQL command changes the column name of `customer_id` to `c_id` in the `Customers` table.

### Modify Column in a Table

We can also change the column's data type using the `ALTER TABLE` command with `MODIFY` or `ALTER COLUMN` clause. For example,

#### SQL Server

```
ALTER TABLE Customers  
ALTER COLUMN age VARCHAR(2);
```

#### MySQL

```
ALTER TABLE Customers  
MODIFY COLUMN age VARCHAR(2);
```

#### Oracle

```
ALTER TABLE Customers  
MODIFY age VARCHAR(2);
```

#### PostgreSQL

```
ALTER TABLE Customers  
ALTER COLUMN age TYPE VARCHAR(2);
```

Here, the SQL command changes the data type of the `age` column to `VARCHAR` in the `Customers` table.

### Drop Column in a Table

We can also drop (remove) columns in a table using the `ALTER TABLE` command with the `DROP` clause. For example,

```
ALTER TABLE Customers  
DROP COLUMN age;
```

[Run Code >>](#)

Here, the SQL command removes the `phone` column from the `Customers` table.

### Rename a Table

We can change the name of a table using the `ALTER TABLE` command with the `RENAME` clause. For example,

```
ALTER TABLE Customers  
RENAME TO newCustomers;
```

[Run Code >>](#)

Here, the SQL command renames the `Customers` table to `newCustomers`.

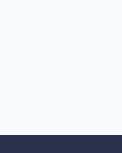
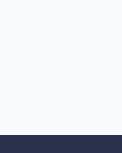
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## SQL BACKUP DATABASE Statement

In this tutorial, we'll learn about backing up databases with the help of examples.

It is important to create database backups regularly so that our data won't get lost if the database gets corrupted.

In SQL, we can create database backups using the `BACKUP DATABASE` statement. For example,

```
BACKUP DATABASE my_db  
TO DISK = 'C:\my_db_backup.bak';
```

Here, the SQL command creates a backup file of the `my_db` database inside `C` drive, named `my_db_backup.bak`.

**Note:** It's a common convention to use the `.bak` file extension for database backup files, however, it's not mandatory.

### Backup Only New Changes in SQL

In SQL, we can also backup only the new changes compared with previous backup by using the `WITH DIFFERENTIAL` command. For example,

```
BACKUP DATABASE my_db  
TO DISK = 'C:\my_db_backup.bak'  
WITH DIFFERENTIAL;
```

Here, the SQL command appends only new changes to the previous backup file. Hence, this command may work faster.

### Restore Database From Backup

To restore a backup file to the database management system, we can use the `RESTORE DATABASE` statement. For example,

```
RESTORE DATABASE my_db  
FROM DISK = 'C:\my_db_backup.bak';
```

Here, the SQL command restores the `my_db_backup.bak` file in the database named `my_db`.

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**Related Topics**

SQL INSERT INTO SELECT Statement  
SQL UPDATE Statement  
SQL NOT NULL Constraint  
SQL SELECT INTO Statement  
SQL UNIQUE Constraint  
SQL FOREIGN KEY

## SQL INSERT INTO Statement

In this tutorial, we'll learn to insert a row in the table with the help of examples.

In SQL, the `INSERT INTO` statement is used to insert new row(s) in a database table. For example,

```
INSERT INTO Customers(customer_id, first_name, last_name, age, country)
VALUES
(5, 'Harry', 'Potter', 31, 'USA');
```

[Run Code >>](#)

Here, the SQL command inserts a new row in the `Customers` table with the given values.



Table: Customers

customer_id	first_name	last_name	age	country
1	John	Doe	31	USA
2	Robert	Luna	22	USA
3	David	Robinson	22	UK
4	John	Reinhardt	25	UK

customer_id	first_name	last_name	age	country
1	John	Doe	31	USA
2	Robert	Luna	22	USA
3	David	Robinson	22	UK
4	John	Reinhardt	25	UK
5	Harry	Potter	31	USA

Example: SQL Insert Into

**Note:** If we need to insert data from any other existing table, we can use the [SQL INSERT INTO SELECT statement](#).

### Insert Row Providing Value Explicitly

It's possible to provide default values to a column (for example, auto incrementing a column). In a database table, the `ID` field is usually unique auto incremented.

In such cases, we can omit the value for that column during row insertion. For example,

```
INSERT INTO Customers(first_name, last_name, age, country)
VALUES
('James', 'Bond', 48, 'USA');
```

[Run Code >>](#)

Here, the SQL command automatically sets the new `customer_id` for the new row and inserts it in a table.



Table: Customers

customer_id	first_name	last_name	age	country
1	John	Doe	31	USA
2	Robert	Luna	22	USA
3	David	Robinson	22	UK
4	John	Reinhardt	25	UK

customer_id	first_name	last_name	age	country
1	John	Doe	31	USA
2	Robert	Luna	22	USA
3	David	Robinson	22	UK
4	John	Reinhardt	25	UK
5	James	Bond	48	USA

Example: SQL INSERT INTO

### Insert Multiple Rows at Once in SQL

It's also possible to insert multiple rows to a database table at once. For example,

```
INSERT INTO Customers(first_name, last_name, age, country)
VALUES
('Harry', 'Potter', 31, 'USA'),
('Chris', 'Hemsworth', 43, 'USA'),
('Tom', 'Holland', 26, 'UK');
```

[Run Code >>](#)

Here, the SQL command inserts three rows to the `Customers` table.

## SQL INSERT Topics

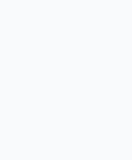
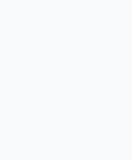
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## SQL UPDATE Statement

In this tutorial, we'll learn to update rows in SQL with the help of examples.

The SQL `UPDATE` statement is used to edit existing rows in a database table. For example,

```
UPDATE Customers
SET first_name = 'Johnny'
WHERE customer_id = 1;
```

[Run Code >>](#)

Here, the SQL command changes the value of the `first_name` column will be **Johnny** if `customer_id` is equal to 1.



Example: SQL UPDATE Statement

**Note:** If we need to insert a new row instead of updating an existing row, we can use the [SQL INSERT INTO](#) statement.

### Update Multiple Values in a Row

We can also update multiple values in a row at once. For example,

```
UPDATE Customers
SET first_name = 'Johnny', last_name = 'Depp'
WHERE customer_id = 1;
```

[Run Code >>](#)

Here, the SQL command changes the value of the `first_name` column to **Johnny** and `last_name` to **Depp** if `customer_id` is equal to 1.

### Update Multiple Rows

The `UPDATE` statement can update multiple rows at once. For example,

```
UPDATE Customers
SET country = 'NP'
WHERE age = 22;
```

[Run Code >>](#)

Here, the SQL command changes the value of the country column to **NP** if `age` is **22**. If there are more than one rows with `age` equals to **22**, all the matching rows will be edited.

### Update all Rows

We can update all the rows in a table at once by omitting the `WHERE` clause. For example,

```
UPDATE Customers
SET country = 'NP';
```

[Run Code >>](#)

Here, the SQL command changes the value of the `country` column to **NP** for all rows.

**Note:** We should be cautious while using the `UPDATE` statement. If we omit the `WHERE` clause, all the rows will be changed and this change is irreversible.

### SQL Update With JOIN

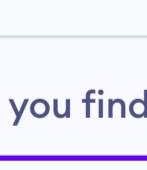
We can also use the `UPDATE` statement with the `JOIN` clause in SQL.

Take a look at the Stackoverflow thread on, [How to use the UPDATE statement with JOIN?](#)

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## SQL SELECT INTO Statement

In this tutorial, we'll learn to copy data from one table to another in SQL with the help of examples.

In SQL, we can copy data from one database table to a new table using the `SELECT INTO` command. For example,

```
SELECT *
INTO CustomersCopy
FROM Customers;
```

Here, the SQL command copies all data from the `Customers` table to the new `CustomersCopy` table.

**Note:** The `SELECT INTO` statement creates a new table. If the database already has a table with the same name, `SELECT INTO` gives an error.

If we want to copy data to an existing table (rather than creating a new table), we should use the `INSERT INTO SELECT` statement.

### Copy Selected Columns Only

We can also copy only selected columns from the old table to a new table. For example,

```
SELECT customer_id, country
INTO CustomersCountry
FROM Customers;
```

Here, the SQL command only copies `customer_id` and `country` columns to the `CustomersCountry` table.

### Copy Records Matching a Condition

We can use the `WHERE` clause with `SELECT INTO` to copy those rows that match the specified condition. For example,

```
SELECT customer_id, age
INTO USACustomersAge
FROM Customers
WHERE country = 'USA';
```

Here, the SQL command

- creates the `USACustomersAge` table with `customer_id` and `age` column
- copies the rows to the new table if the value of the `country` column is **USA**.

### Copy to Another Database

By default, `SELECT INTO` creates a new table in the current database. If we want to copy data to a table in a different database, we can do that by using the `IN` clause. For example,

```
SELECT *
INTO CustomersCopy
IN another_db.mdb
FROM Customers;
```

Here, the SQL command copies the `Customers` table to the `CustomersCopy` table in the `another_db.mdb` database.

**Note:** The user must have **WRITE** privilege to copy data to a table in a different database.

### Copy From Two Tables to One

We can also copy records from two different tables to a new table using the `JOIN` clause with `SELECT INTO`. For example,

```
SELECT Customers.customer_id, Customers.first_name, Orders.amount
INTO CustomerOrders
FROM Customers
JOIN Orders
ON Customers.customer_id = Orders.customer_id;
```

Here, the SQL command copies `customer_id` and `first_name` from the `Customers` table and the `amount` from the `Orders` table to a new table `CustomerOrders`. To learn more, visit [SQL JOIN](#).

### Copy Table Schema Only

We can also use the `SELECT INTO` statement to create a new table with the given schema (without copying the data). For that, we use the `WHERE` clause with a condition that returns false.

```
SELECT *
INTO NewCustomers
FROM Customers
WHERE false;
```

Here, the SQL command creates an empty table named `NewCustomers` with the same structure as the `Customers` table.

#### Recommended Readings

- [SQL CREATE TABLE AS Statement](#)
- [SQL BACKUP DATABASE Statement](#)

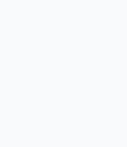
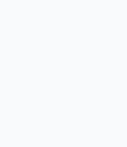
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## SQL INSERT INTO SELECT Statement

In this tutorial, we'll learn to copy records from one table to another with the help of examples.

The `INSERT INTO SELECT` statement is used to copy records from one table to another existing table. For example,

```
INSERT INTO OldCustomers  
SELECT *  
FROM Customers;
```

[Run Code >>](#)

Here, the SQL command copies all records from the `Customers` table to the `OldCustomers` table.

**Note:** To run this command,

Old

- the database must already have a table named `OldCustomers`
- the column names of the `OldCustomers` table and the `Customers` table must match

If we want to copy data to a new table (rather than copying in an existing table), we should use the `SELECT INTO` statement.

## Copy Selected Columns Only

We can also copy only the selected columns from one table to another. For example,

```
INSERT INTO OldCustomers(customer_id, age)  
SELECT customer_id, age  
FROM Customers;
```

[Run Code >>](#)

Here, the SQL command only copies records from the `customer_id` column and `age` column to the `OldCustomers` table.

**Note:** If there are columns other than `customer_id` and `age` in the `OldCustomers` table, the value of those columns will be `NULL`.

## Copy Records Matching a Condition

We can use the `WHERE` clause with `INSERT INTO` to copy those rows that match the specified condition. For example,

```
INSERT INTO OldCustomers  
SELECT *  
FROM Customers  
WHERE country = 'USA';
```

[Run Code >>](#)

Here, the SQL command copies rows that are the value of the `country` column as `USA`.

## Copy From two Tables to One

We can also copy records from two different tables using the `JOIN` clause with `INSERT INTO SELECT`. For example,

```
INSERT INTO OldCustomerOrders  
SELECT Customers.customer_id, Customers.first_name, Orders.amount  
FROM Customers  
JOIN Orders  
ON Customers.customer_id = Orders.customer_id;
```

[Run Code >>](#)

Here, the SQL command copies `customer_id` and `first_name` from the `Customers` table and the `amount` from the `Orders` table in an existing table `OldCustomerOrders`. To learn more, visit [SQL JOIN](#).

**Note:** If records are already present in an existing table, new rows will be appended. Columns in the existing table may throw errors such as `NOT NULL Constraint Failed`, `UNIQUE Constraint Failed` while copying data.

## Avoid Duplicates in INSERT INTO SELECT

If there is already a row with a similar value, SQL may throw an error while using the `INSERT INTO SELECT` command.

However, we can skip copying duplicate rows using the `NOT EXISTS` clause. For example,

```
INSERT INTO OldCustomers(customer_id, age)  
SELECT customer_id, age  
FROM Customers  
WHERE NOT EXISTS(  
    SELECT customer_id  
    FROM OldCustomers  
    WHERE OldCustomers.customer_id = Customers.customer_id  
);
```

[Run Code >>](#)

Here, the SQL command will only copy row to a new table if the `customer_id` does not have the same value.

### Recommended Readings

- [SQL INSERT INTO Statement](#)

Previous Tutorial:  
[SQL Select Into](#)

Next Tutorial:  
[SQL Delete and Truncate Rows](#) →

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**Related Topics**

[SQL DROP TABLE Statement](#)  
[SQL SELECT INTO Statement](#)  
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## SQL Delete and Truncate Rows

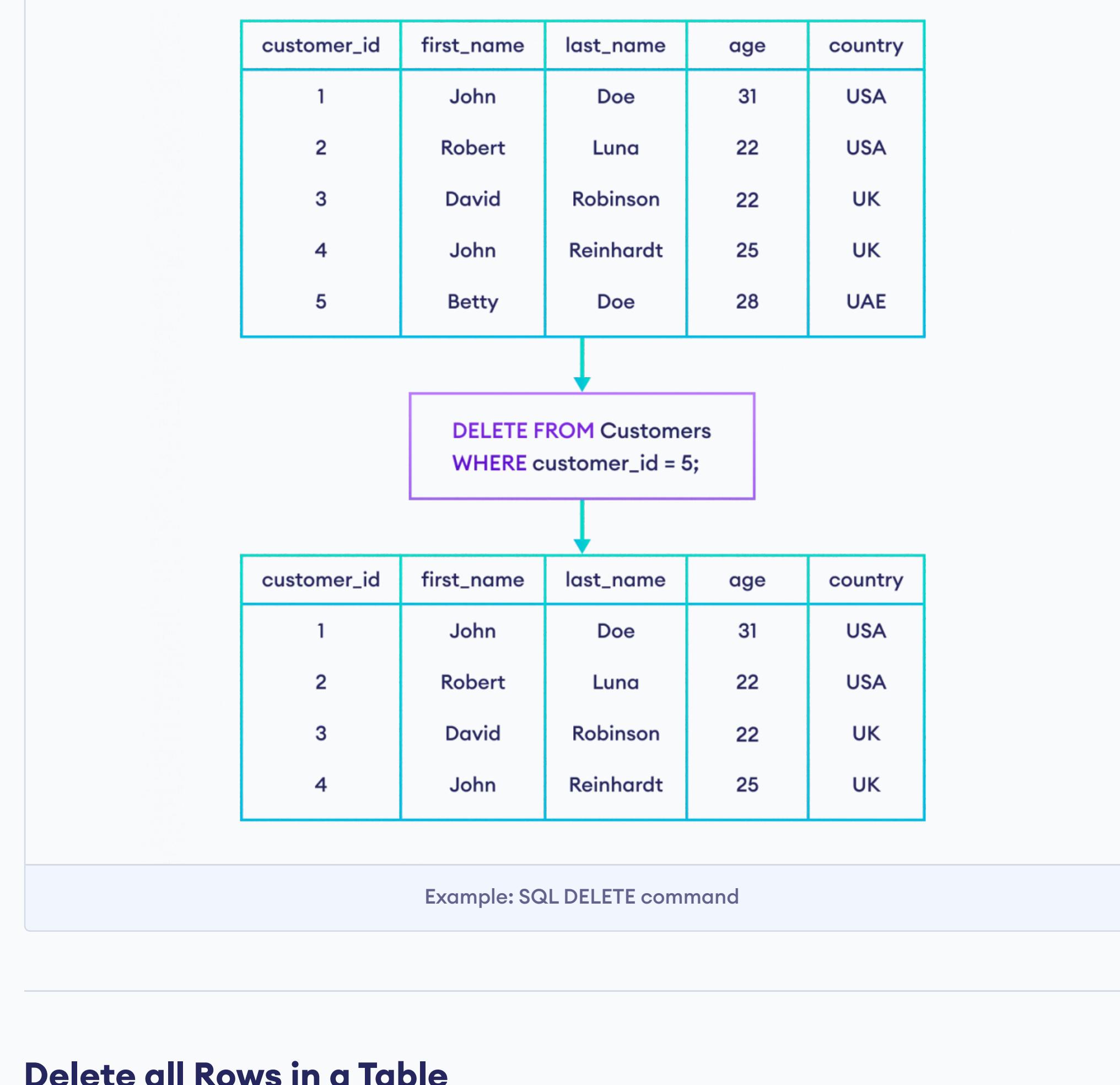
In this tutorial, we'll learn to delete rows from a table in SQL with the help of examples.

In SQL, we use the `DELETE` statement to delete row(s) from a database table. For example,

```
DELETE FROM Customers
WHERE customer_id = 5;
```

[Run Code >>](#)

Here, the SQL command will delete a row from the `Customers` table where `customer_id` is 5.



Example: SQL DELETE command

### Delete all Rows in a Table

The `WHERE` clause determines which rows to delete. However, we can delete all rows at once if we omit the `WHERE` clause. For example,

```
DELETE FROM Customers;
```

[Run Code >>](#)

Here, the SQL command deletes all rows from a table.

**Note:** Be careful when you use `DELETE`. Records may lose permanently if the database is not backed up.

### Truncate Table in SQL

The `TRUNCATE TABLE` clause is another way to delete all rows from a table at once. For example,

```
TRUNCATE TABLE Customers;
```

Here, the SQL command does exactly the same thing the above command does.

**Note:** The `TRUNCATE` clause doesn't support the `WHERE` clause.

### Delete Vs Truncate

The main difference between both statements is that `DELETE FROM` statement supports `WHERE` clause whereas `TRUNCATE` does not.

That means, we can delete single or multiple rows using the `DELETE FROM` statement while the `TRUNCATE` statement deletes all records from the table at once.

We can mimic the `TRUNCATE` statement with `DELETE FROM` statement by omitting the `WHERE` clause. For example,

```
DELETE FROM Customers;
```

[Run Code >>](#)

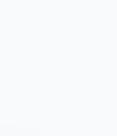
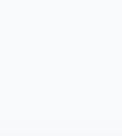
is similar to,

```
TRUNCATE TABLE Customers;
```

Previous Tutorial:  
[SQL Select Into Insert](#)

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## SQL Constraints

In this tutorial, we'll learn about constraints in SQL with the help of examples.

In a database table, we can add rules to a column known as **constraints**. These rules control the data that can be stored in a column.

For example, if a column has `NOT NULL` constraint, it means the column cannot store `NULL` values.

The constraints used in SQL are:

Constraint	Description
<code>NOT NULL</code>	values cannot be null
<code>UNIQUE</code>	values cannot match any older value
<code>PRIMARY KEY</code>	used to uniquely identify a row
<code>FOREIGN KEY</code>	references a row in another table
<code>CHECK</code>	validates condition for new value
<code>DEFAULT</code>	set default value if not passed
<code>CREATE INDEX</code>	used to speedup the read process

**Note:** These constraints are also called integrity constraints.

### NOT NULL Constraint

The `NOT NULL` constraint in a column means that the column cannot store `NULL` values.

For example,

```
CREATE TABLE Colleges (
    college_id INT NOT NULL,
    college_code VARCHAR(20) NOT NULL,
    college_name VARCHAR(50)
);
```

[Run Code >>](#)

Here, the `college_id` and the `college_code` columns of the `Colleges` table won't allow `NULL` values.

To learn more, visit [SQL NOT NULL Constraint](#).

### UNIQUE Constraint

The `UNIQUE` constraint in a column means that the column must have unique value. For example,

```
CREATE TABLE Colleges (
    college_id INT NOT NULL UNIQUE,
    college_code VARCHAR(20) UNIQUE,
    college_name VARCHAR(50)
);
```

[Run Code >>](#)

Here, the value of the `college_code` column must be unique. Similarly, the value of `college_id` must be unique as well as it cannot store `NULL` values.

To learn more, visit [SQL UNIQUE Constraint](#).

### PRIMARY KEY Constraint

The `PRIMARY KEY` constraint is simply a combination of `NOT NULL` and `UNIQUE` constraints. It means that the column value is used to uniquely identify the row. For example,

```
CREATE TABLE Colleges (
    college_id INT PRIMARY KEY,
    college_code VARCHAR(20) NOT NULL,
    college_name VARCHAR(50)
);
```

[Run Code >>](#)

Here, the value of the `college_id` column is a unique identifier for a row. Similarly, it cannot store `NULL` value and must be `UNIQUE`.

To learn more, visit [SQL PRIMARY KEY](#).

### FOREIGN KEY Constraint

The `FOREIGN KEY` (`REFERENCES` in some databases) constraint in a column is used to reference a record that exists in another table. For example,

```
CREATE TABLE Orders (
    order_id INT PRIMARY KEY,
    customer_id INT REFERENCES Customers(id)
);
```

[Run Code >>](#)

Here, the value of the `college_code` column references the row in another table named `Customers`.

It means that the value of `customer_id` in the `Orders` table must be a value from the `id` column of the `Customers` table.

To learn more, visit [SQL FOREIGN KEY](#).

### CHECK Constraint

The `CHECK` constraint checks the condition before allowing values in a table. For example,

```
CREATE TABLE Orders (
    order_id INT PRIMARY KEY,
    amount int CHECK (amount >= 100)
);
```

[Run Code >>](#)

Here, the value of the `amount` column must be **greater than or equal to 100**. If not, the SQL statement results in an error.

To learn more, visit [SQL CHECK Constraint](#).

### DEFAULT Constraint

The `DEFAULT` constraint is used to set the default value if we try to store `NULL` in a column. For example,

```
-- create table
CREATE TABLE College (
    college_id INT PRIMARY KEY,
    college_code VARCHAR(20),
    college_country VARCHAR(20) DEFAULT 'US'
);
```

[Run Code >>](#)

Here, the default value of the `college_country` column is **US**.

If we try to store the `NULL` value in the `college_country` column, its value will be **US**.

To learn more, visit [SQL DEFAULT Constraint](#).

### CREATE INDEX Constraint

If a column has `CREATE INDEX` constraint, it's faster to retrieve data if we use that column for data retrieval. For example,

```
-- create table
CREATE TABLE Colleges (
    college_id INT PRIMARY KEY,
    college_code VARCHAR(20) NOT NULL,
    college_name VARCHAR(50)
);

-- create index
CREATE INDEX college_index
ON Colleges(college_code);
```

[Run Code >>](#)

Here, the SQL command creates an index named `customers_index` on the `Customers` table using `customer_id` column.

**Note:** We cannot see the speed difference with less records in a table. However, we can easily notice the speed difference between using indexes and not using indexes.

To learn more, visit [SQL CREATE INDEX](#).

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[SQL Delete and Truncate Rows](#)

Next Tutorial:

[SQL Not Null Constraint](#) →

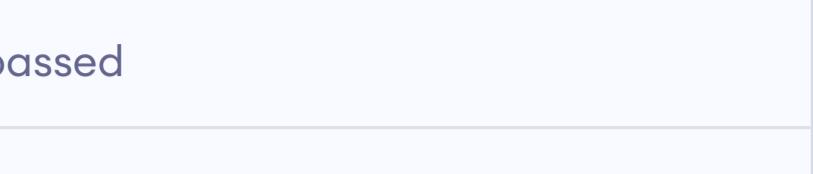
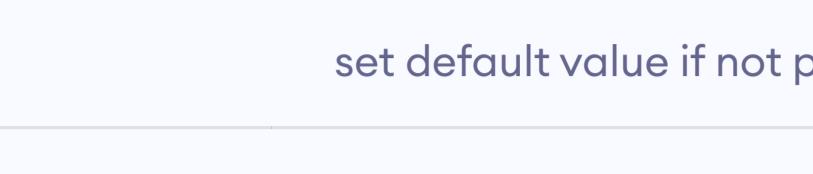
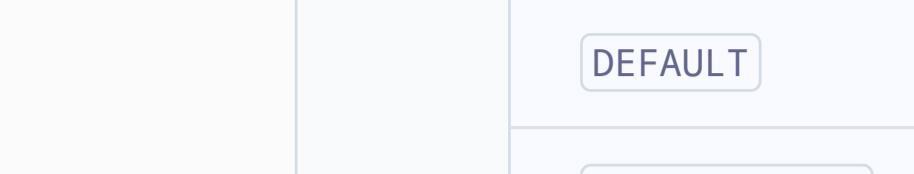
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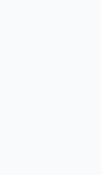
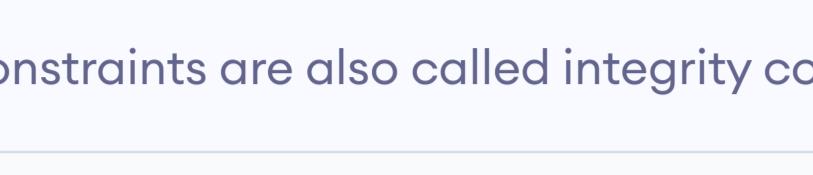
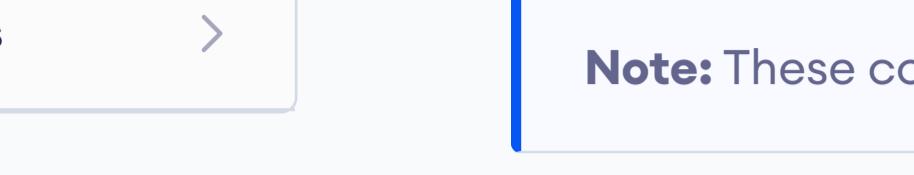
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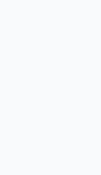
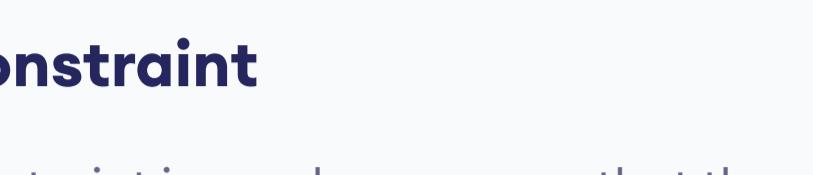
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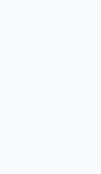
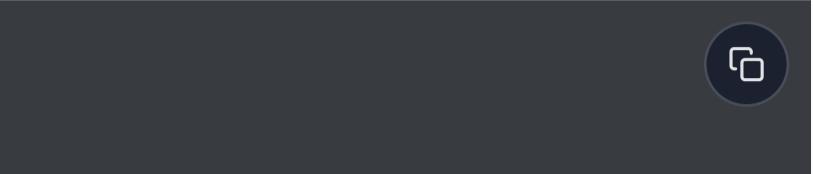
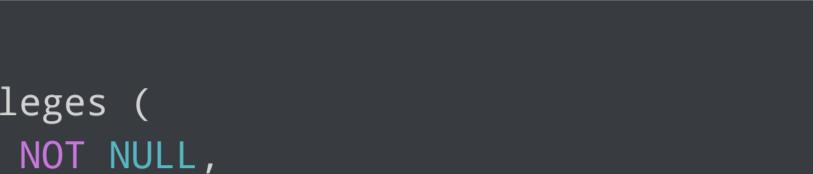
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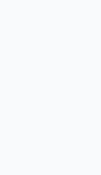
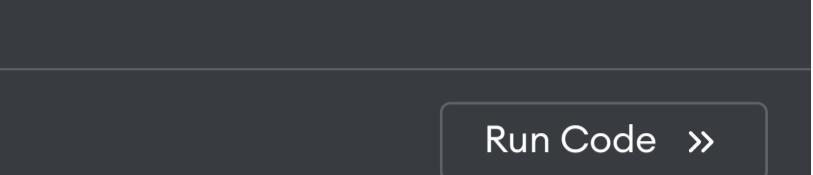
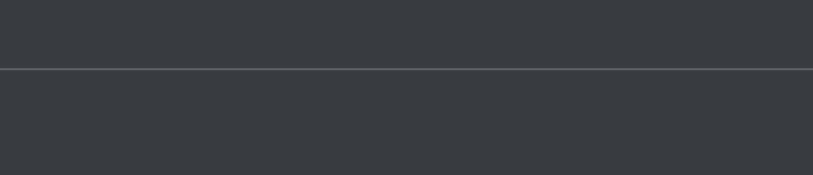
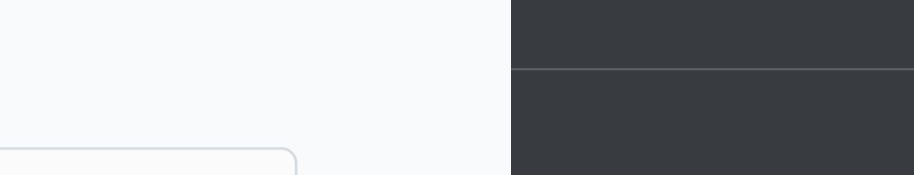
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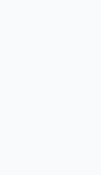
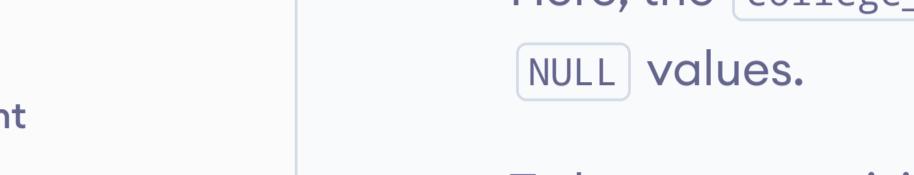
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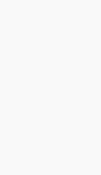
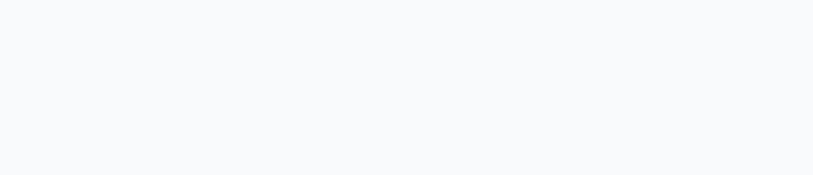
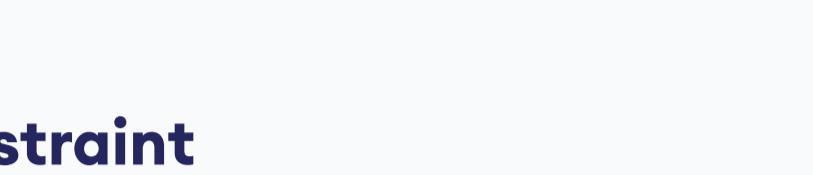
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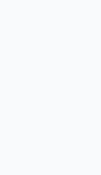
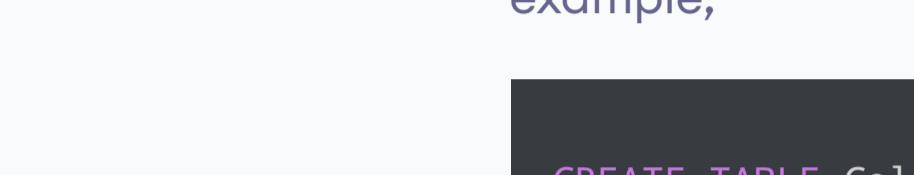
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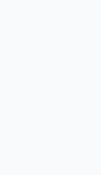
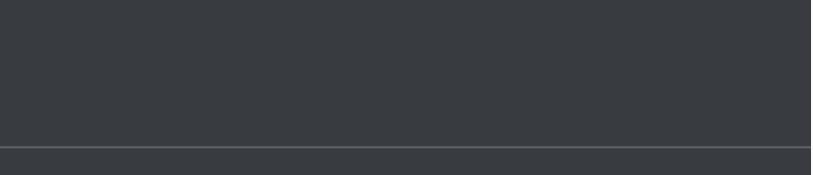
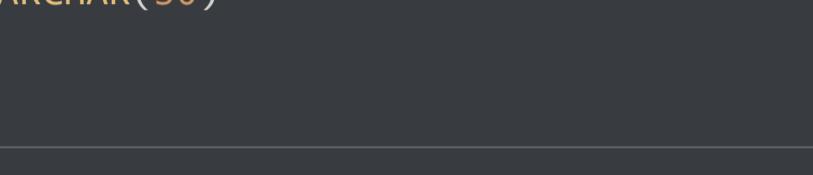
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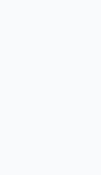
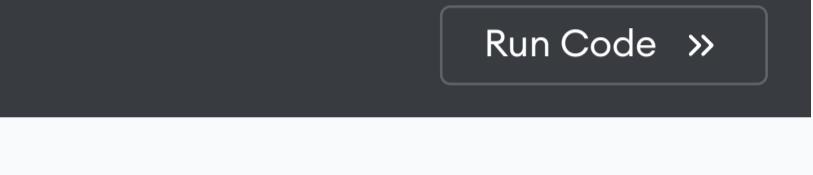
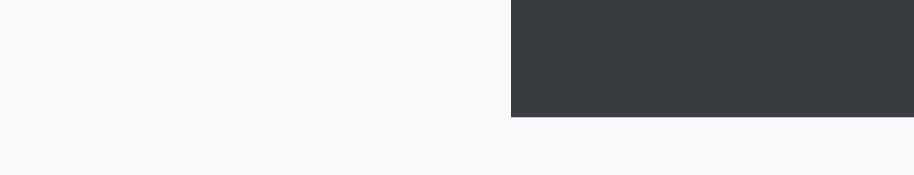
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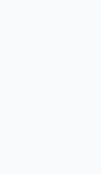
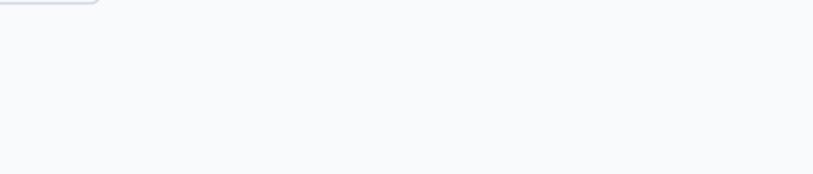
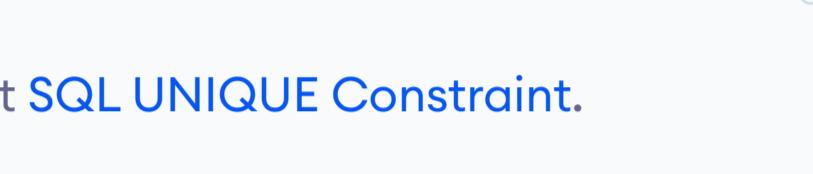
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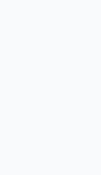
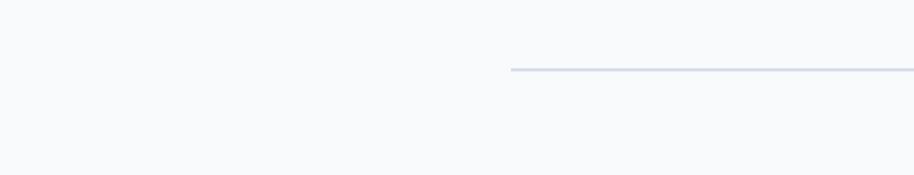
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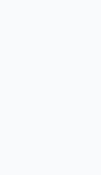
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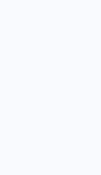
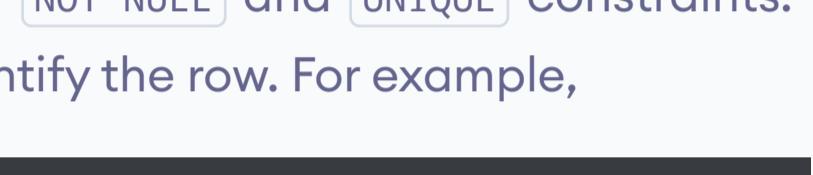
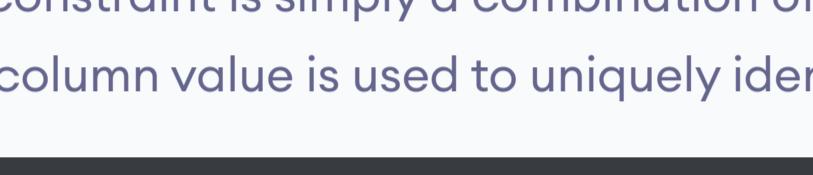
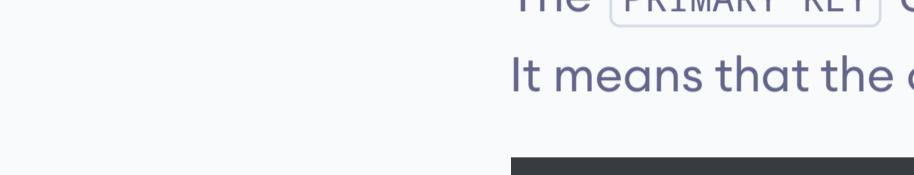
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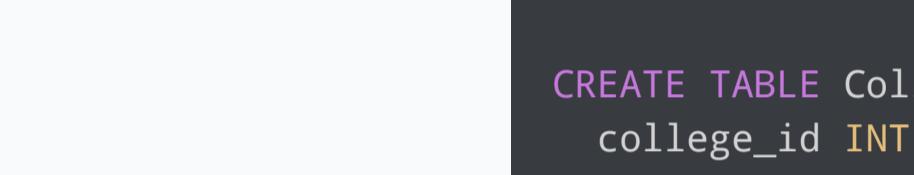
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## SQL NOT NULL Constraint

In this tutorial, we'll learn to use the NOT NULL constraint with the help of examples.

The `NOT NULL` constraint in a column means that the column cannot store `NULL` values. For example,

```
CREATE TABLE Colleges (
    college_id INT NOT NULL,
    college_code VARCHAR(20),
    college_name VARCHAR(50)
);
```

[Run Code >](#)

Here, the `college_id` and the `college_code` columns of the `Colleges` table won't allow `NULL` values.

**Note:** The `NOT NULL` constraint is used to add a constraint table whereas `IS NULL` and `NOT NULL` are used with the `WHERE` clause to select rows from the table.

### Remove NOT NULL Constraint

We can also remove the NOT NULL constraint if that is no longer needed. For example,

#### SQL Server

```
ALTER TABLE Customers
ALTER COLUMN age INT;
```

#### Oracle

```
ALTER TABLE Customers
MODIFY (age NULL);
```

#### MySQL

```
ALTER TABLE Customers
MODIFY age INT;
```

#### PostgreSQL

```
ALTER TABLE Customer
ALTER COLUMN age DROP NOT NULL;
```

### NOT NULL Constraint With Alter Table

We can also add the `NOT NULL` constraint to a column in an existing table using the `ALTER TABLE` command. For example,

#### SQL Server

```
ALTER TABLE Customers
ALTER COLUMN age INT NOT NULL;
```

#### Oracle

```
ALTER TABLE Customers
MODIFY age INT NOT NULL;
```

#### MySQL

```
ALTER TABLE Customers
MODIFY COLUMN age INT NOT NULL;
```

#### PostgreSQL

```
ALTER TABLE Customers
ALTER COLUMN age SET NOT NULL;
```

Here, the SQL command adds the `NOT NULL` constraint to the column `college_id` in an existing table.

Now when we try to insert records in a Colleges table without value for `college_id`, SQL will give us an error. For example,

```
INSERT INTO Colleges(college_code, college_name)
VALUES ('NYC', 'US');
```

[Run Code >](#)

Here, the SQL command gives us an error because we cannot skip the `college_id` field in a table because of the `NOT NULL` constraint.

### Recommended Readings

- [SQL Constraints](#)
- [SQL INSERT INTO](#)
- [SQL PRIMARY KEY](#)
- [SQL FOREIGN KEY](#)

Previous Tutorial:  
[SQL Constraints](#)

Next Tutorial:  
[SQL Unique Constraints](#) →

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## SQL UNIQUE Constraint

In this tutorial, we'll learn to use the UNIQUE constraint with the help of examples.

In SQL, the `UNIQUE` constraint in a column means that the column must have unique values. For example,

```
CREATE TABLE Colleges (
    college_id INT NOT NULL UNIQUE,
    college_code VARCHAR(20) UNIQUE,
    college_name VARCHAR(50)
);
```

[Run Code >>](#)

Here, the values of the `college_code` column must be unique. Similarly, the values of `college_id` must be unique as well as it cannot store `NULL` values.

### UNIQUE Vs DISTINCT

The `UNIQUE` constraint is used to make column's value unique. However, to select unique rows from the table, we have to use [SQL SELECT DISTINCT](#). For example,

```
SELECT DISTINCT country
FROM Customers;
```

[Run Code >>](#)

Here, the SQL command selects unique countries from the `Customers` table.

### Count UNIQUE Rows

If we need to count the number of unique rows, we can use the `COUNT()` function with the `SELECT DISTINCT` clause. For example,

```
SELECT COUNT(DISTINCT country)
FROM Customers;
```

[Run Code >>](#)

Here, the SQL command returns the count of unique countries.

### UNIQUE Constraint With Alter Table

We can also add the `UNIQUE` constraint to an existing column using the `ALTER TABLE` command. For example,

For single column

```
ALTER TABLE Colleges
ADD UNIQUE (college_id);
```

For multiple column

```
ALTER TABLE Colleges
ADD UNIQUE UniqueCollege (college_id, college_code);
```

Here, the SQL command adds the `UNIQUE` constraint to the specified column(s) in an existing table.

### Error When Inserting Duplicate Values

If we try to insert duplicate values in a column with the `UNIQUE` constraint, we will get an error.

```
CREATE TABLE Colleges (
    college_id INT NOT NULL UNIQUE,
    college_code VARCHAR(20) UNIQUE,
    college_name VARCHAR(50)
);

-- Inserting values to the Colleges table
INSERT INTO Colleges(college_id, college_code, college_name)
VALUES (1, "ARD12", "Star Public School"), (2, "ARD12", "Galaxy School");
```

[Run Code >>](#)

Here, we are trying to insert `ARD12` in the `college_code` column in two different rows. Hence, the `INSERT INTO` command results in an error.

### CREATE UNIQUE INDEX for Unique Values

If we want to create indexes for unique values in a column, we use the `CREATE UNIQUE INDEX` constraint. For example,

```
-- create unique index
CREATE UNIQUE INDEX college_index
ON Colleges(college_code);
```

[Run Code >>](#)

Here, the SQL command creates a unique index named `college_index` on the `Colleges` table using the `college_code` column.

**Note:** Although the index is created for only unique values, the original data in the table remains unaltered.

#### Recommended Readings

- [SQL CREATE INDEX](#)
- [SQL Constraints](#)
- [SQL NOT NULL Constraint](#)
- [SQL PRIMARY KEY](#)

Previous Tutorial:  
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## SQL PRIMARY KEY

In this tutorial, we'll learn about the PRIMARY KEY in SQL and how to use them with the help of examples.

In SQL, the `PRIMARY KEY` constraint is used to uniquely identify rows.

The `PRIMARY KEY` constraint is simply a combination of `NOT NULL` and `UNIQUE` constraints. Meaning, the column cannot contain duplicate as well as `NULL` values.

### Primary Key Syntax

```
CREATE TABLE Colleges (
    college_id INT,
    college_code VARCHAR(20) NOT NULL,
    college_name VARCHAR(50),
    CONSTRAINT CollegePK PRIMARY KEY (college_id)
);
```

Run Code >

Here, the `college_id` column is the `PRIMARY KEY`. This means, the values of this column must be unique as well as it cannot contain `NULL` values.

**Note:** The above code works in all major database systems. However, depending on a database, there may be alternative syntaxes to create the primary key.

### Primary Key Error

If we try to insert null or duplicate values in the `college_id` column—in the above table—we will get an error. For example,

```
-- Insertion Success
INSERT INTO Colleges(college_id, college_code, college_name)
VALUES (1, "ARD12", "Star Public School");

-- UNIQUE Constraint Error
-- The value of college_id is not unique
INSERT INTO Colleges(college_id, college_code, college_name)
VALUES (1, "ARD12", "Star Public School");
```

Run Code >

Here, the SQL command gives us an error because we cannot insert same value for the `college_id` field in a table because of the `UNIQUE` constraint.

**Note:** In a table, there can be only one primary key.

### Primary Key With Multiple Columns

A primary key may also be made up of multiple columns. For example,

```
CREATE TABLE Colleges (
    college_id INT,
    college_code VARCHAR(20),
    college_name VARCHAR(50),
    CONSTRAINT CollegePK PRIMARY KEY (college_id, college_code)
);
```

Run Code >

Here, the `PRIMARY KEY` constraint named `CollegePK` is made up of `college_id` and `college_code` columns.

This means, the combination of `college_id` and `college_code` must be unique as well as these two columns cannot contain `NULL` values.

Now let's try to insert records in the `Colleges` table,

```
-- Insertion Success
INSERT INTO Colleges(college_id, college_code, college_name)
VALUES (1, "ARD12", "Star Public School");

-- Insertion Success
INSERT INTO Colleges(college_id, college_code, college_name)
VALUES (1, "ARD13", "Star Public School");

-- Insertion Success
INSERT INTO Colleges(college_id, college_code, college_name)
VALUES (2, "ARD12", "Star Public School");

-- UNIQUE Constraint Error
-- A row already has 1 as college_id and "ARD12" as college_code
INSERT INTO Colleges(college_id, college_code, college_name)
VALUES (1, "ARD12", "Star Public School");
```

Run Code >

### Primary Key Constraint With Alter Table

We can also add the `PRIMARY KEY` constraint to a column in an existing table using the `ALTER TABLE` command. For example,

#### For single column

```
ALTER TABLE Colleges
ADD PRIMARY KEY (college_id);
```

#### For multiple column

```
ALTER TABLE Colleges
ADD CONSTRAINT CollegePK PRIMARY KEY (college_id, college_code);
```

Here, the SQL command adds the `PRIMARY KEY` constraint to the specified column(s) in the existing table.

### Auto Increment Primary Key

It is a common practice to automatically increase the value of the primary key when a new row is inserted. For example,

#### SQL Server

```
-- using IDENTITY(x, y) to auto increment the value
-- x -> start value, y -> steps to increase
CREATE TABLE Colleges (
    college_id INT IDENTITY(1,1),
    college_code VARCHAR(20) NOT NULL,
    college_name VARCHAR(50),
    CONSTRAINT CollegePK PRIMARY KEY (college_id)
);

-- inserting record without college_id
INSERT INTO Colleges(college_code, college_name)
VALUES ("ARD13", "Star Public School");
```

#### Oracle

```
-- creating sequence of numbers
CREATE SEQUENCE auto_inc
MINVALUE 1
START WITH 1
INCREMENT BY 1
CACHE 10;

CREATE TABLE Colleges (
    college_id INT,
    college_code VARCHAR(20) NOT NULL,
    college_name VARCHAR(50),
    CONSTRAINT CollegePK PRIMARY KEY (college_id)
);

-- creating trigger before insert to
-- add auto incremented value
CREATE TRIGGER auto_inc_trigger
BEFORE INSERT ON Colleges
FOR EACH ROW
BEGIN
    SELECT auto_inc.nextval INTO :new.college_id FROM dual
END;

-- inserting record without college_id
INSERT INTO Colleges(college_code, college_name)
VALUES ("ARD13", "Star Public School");
```

#### MySQL

```
-- AUTO_INCREMENT keyword auto increments the value
CREATE TABLE Colleges (
    college_id INT AUTO_INCREMENT,
    college_code VARCHAR(20) NOT NULL,
    college_name VARCHAR(50),
    CONSTRAINT CollegePK PRIMARY KEY (college_id)
);

-- inserting record without college_id
INSERT INTO Colleges(college_code, college_name)
VALUES ("ARD13", "Star Public School");
```

#### PostgreSQL

```
-- SERIAL keyword auto increments the value
CREATE TABLE Colleges (
    college_id INT SERIAL,
    college_code VARCHAR(20) NOT NULL,
    college_name VARCHAR(50),
    CONSTRAINT CollegePK PRIMARY KEY (college_id)
);

-- inserting record without college_id
INSERT INTO Colleges(college_code, college_name)
VALUES ("ARD13", "Star Public School");
```

### Remove Primary Key Constraint

We can remove the `PRIMARY KEY` constraint in a table using the `DROP` clause. For example,

#### SQL Server, Oracle

```
ALTER TABLE Colleges
DROP CONSTRAINT CollegePK;
```

#### MySQL

```
ALTER TABLE Colleges
DROP PRIMARY KEY;
```

Here, the SQL command removes the `PRIMARY KEY` constraint from the `Colleges` table.

### Recommended Reading:

- [SQL FOREIGN KEY](#)

- [SQL Constraints](#)

Previous Tutorial:

[SQL Unique Constraints](#)

Next Tutorial:

[SQL Foreign Key](#)

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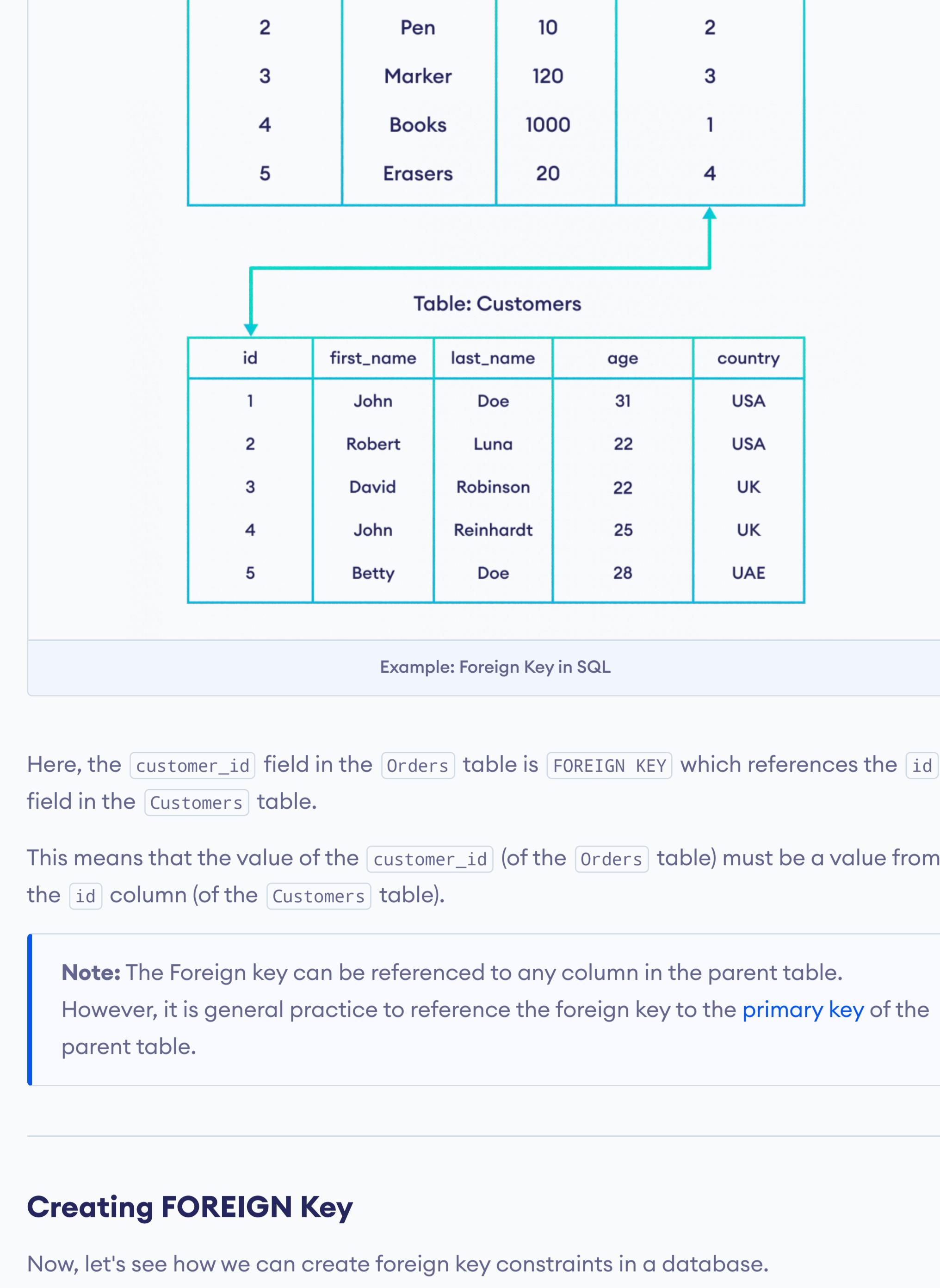
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## SQL FOREIGN KEY

In this tutorial, we'll learn about the FOREIGN KEY in SQL and how to use them with the help of examples.

In SQL, we can create a relationship between two tables using the `FOREIGN KEY` constraint.



Example: Foreign Key in SQL

Here, the `customer_id` field in the `Orders` table is `FOREIGN KEY` which references the `id` field in the `Customers` table.

This means that the value of the `customer_id` (of the `Orders` table) must be a value from the `id` column (of the `Customers` table).

**Note:** The Foreign key can be referenced to any column in the parent table. However, it is general practice to reference the foreign key to the **primary key** of the parent table.

### Creating FOREIGN Key

Now, let's see how we can create foreign key constraints in a database.

```
-- This table doesn't have a foreign key
CREATE TABLE Customers (
    id INT,
    first_name VARCHAR(40),
    last_name VARCHAR(40),
    age INT,
    country VARCHAR(10),
    CONSTRAINT CustomersPK PRIMARY KEY (id)
);

-- Adding foreign key to the customer_id field
-- The foreign key references to the id field of the Customers table
CREATE TABLE Orders (
    order_id INT,
    item VARCHAR(40),
    amount INT,
    customer_id INT REFERENCES Customers(id),
    CONSTRAINT OrdersPK PRIMARY KEY (order_id)
);
```

[Run Code >>](#)

Here, the value of the `customer_id` column in the `Orders` table references the row in another table named `Customers` with its `id` column.

**Note:** The above code works in all major database systems. However, there may be the alternate syntax to create foreign keys depending on the database. Refer to their respective database documentation for more information.

### Inserting Records in Table with Foreign Key

Lets try to insert records in a table with foreign keys.

```
-- Inserting record in table with no foreign key first
INSERT INTO Customers
VALUES
(1, 'John', 'Doe', 31, 'USA'),
(2, 'Robert', 'Luna', 22, 'USA');

-- Insertion Success
INSERT INTO Orders
VALUES
(1, 'Keyboard', 400, 2),
(2, 'Mouse', 300, 2),
(3, 'Monitor', 1200, 1);

-- Insertion Error because customer with id of 7 does not exist
INSERT INTO Orders
VALUES (4, 'Keyboard', 400, 7);
```

[Run Code >>](#)

### Why use Foreign Key?

To normalize data

The `FOREIGN KEY` helps us to normalize the data in multiple tables and reduce the redundancy. This means, a database can have multiple tables that are related to each other.

Prevent Wrong Data From Insertion

If two database tables are related through a field (attribute), using `FOREIGN KEY` makes sure that wrong data is not inserted in that field. This helps to eliminate bugs in the database level.

Recommended Reading: [SQL JOIN](#)

### Foreign Key with Alter Table

It is possible to add the `FOREIGN KEY` constraint to an existing table using the `ALTER TABLE` command. For example,

```
CREATE TABLE Customers (
    id INT,
    first_name VARCHAR(40),
    last_name VARCHAR(40),
    age INT,
    country VARCHAR(10),
    CONSTRAINT CustomersPK PRIMARY KEY (id)
);

CREATE TABLE Orders (
    order_id INT,
    item VARCHAR(40),
    amount INT,
    customer_id INT,
    CONSTRAINT OrdersPK PRIMARY KEY (order_id)
);

-- Adding foreign key to the customer_id field
-- The foreign key references to the id field of the Customers table
ALTER TABLE Orders
ADD FOREIGN KEY (customer_id) REFERENCES Customers(id);
```

### Multiple Foreign Key in a Table

A database table can also have multiple foreign keys.

Lets say, we have to record all transactions where each user is a buyer and a seller.

```
-- This table doesn't have a foreign key
CREATE TABLE Users (
    id INT,
    first_name VARCHAR(40),
    last_name VARCHAR(40),
    age INT,
    country VARCHAR(10),
    CONSTRAINT CustomersPK PRIMARY KEY (id)
);

-- Adding foreign key to the buyer and seller field
-- The foreign key references to the id field of the Users table
CREATE TABLE Transactions (
    transaction_id INT,
    amount INT,
    seller INT REFERENCES Users(id),
    buyer INT REFERENCES Users(id),
    CONSTRAINT TransactionsPK PRIMARY KEY (transaction_id)
);
```

[Run Code >>](#)

Here, the SQL command creates two foreign keys (`buyer` and `seller`) in the `Transactions` table.

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[SQL Primary Key](#)

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[SQL Check](#) →

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## SQL CHECK Constraint

In this tutorial, we'll learn about the CHECK constraint in SQL and how to use them with examples.

In SQL, the [CHECK] constraint is used to specify the condition that must be validated in order to insert data to a table. For example,

```
CREATE TABLE Orders (
    order_id INT PRIMARY KEY,
    amount INT CHECK (amount > 0)
);
```

[Run Code >>](#)

Here, the amount column has a check condition: **greater than 0**. Now, let's try to insert records to the Orders table.

### Example 1

```
-- amount equal to 100
-- record is inserted
INSERT INTO Orders(amount) VALUES(100);
```

[Run Code >>](#)

### Example 2

```
-- amount equal to -5
-- results in an error
INSERT INTO Orders(amount) VALUES(-5);
```

[Run Code >>](#)

**Note:** The [CHECK] constraint is used to validate data while insertion only. To check if the row exists or not, visit [SQL EXISTS](#).

### Related Topics

SQL NOT NULL Constraint  
SQL DEFAULT Constraint  
SQL Constraints  
SQL FOREIGN KEY  
SQL UNIQUE Constraint  
SQL PRIMARY KEY

## Create Named CHECK Constraint

It's a good practice to create **named constraints** so that it is easier to alter and drop constraints.

Here's an example to create named [CHECK] constraint:

```
-- creates a named constraint named amount CK
-- the constraint makes sure that amount is greater than 0
CREATE TABLE Orders (
    order_id INT PRIMARY KEY,
    amount INT,
    CONSTRAINT amountCK CHECK (amount > 0)
);
```

[Run Code >>](#)

## CHECK Constraint in Existing Table

We can add the [CHECK] constraint to an existing table by using the [ALTER TABLE] clause. For example,

```
-- Adding CHECK constraint without name
ALTER TABLE Orders
ADD CHECK (amount > 0);
```

Here's how we can add a named [CHECK] constraint. For example,

```
-- Adding CHECK constraint named amountCK
ALTER TABLE Orders
ADD CONSTRAINT amountCK CHECK (amount > 0);
```

**Note:** If we try to add the [CHECK] constraint [amount > 0] to a column that already has value less than 0, we will get an error.

## Remove CHECK Constraint

We can remove the [CHECK] constraint using the [DROP] clause. For example,

**SQL Server, PostgreSQL, Oracle**

```
-- removing CHECK constraint named amountCK
ALTER TABLE Orders
DROP CONSTRAINT amountCK;
```

**MySQL**

```
-- removing CHECK constraint named amountCK
ALTER TABLE Orders
DROP CHECK amountCK;
```

**Recommended Readings:** [SQL Constraints](#)

Previous Tutorial:  
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## SQL DEFAULT Constraint

In this tutorial, we'll learn about the `DEFAULT` constraint in SQL and how to use them with examples.

In SQL, the `DEFAULT` constraint is used to set a default value if we try to insert an empty value in a column. For example,

```
CREATE TABLE Colleges (
    college_id INT PRIMARY KEY,
    college_code VARCHAR(20),
    college_country VARCHAR(20) DEFAULT 'US'
);
```

[Run Code >](#)

Here, the default value of the `college_country` column is **US**.

If we try to store the `NULL` value in the `college_country` column, its value will be **US** by default. For example,

```
-- Inserts 'US' to the college_country column
INSERT INTO Colleges (college_id, college_code)
VALUES (1, 'ARP76');

-- Inserts 'UAE' to the college_country column
INSERT INTO Colleges (college_id, college_code, college_country)
VALUES (2, 'JWS89', 'UAE');
```

[Run Code >](#)

### DEFAULT Constraint With Alter Table

We can also add the `DEFAULT` constraint to an existing column using the `ALTER TABLE` command. For example,

#### SQL Server

```
ALTER TABLE Colleges
ADD CONSTRAINT country_default
DEFAULT 'US' FOR college_country;
```

#### PostgreSQL

```
ALTER TABLE Colleges
ALTER COLUMN college_code SET DEFAULT 'US';
```

#### MySQL

```
ALTER TABLE Colleges
ALTER college_country SET DEFAULT 'US';
```

#### Oracle

```
ALTER TABLE Colleges
MODIFY college_country DEFAULT 'US';
```

Here, the default value of `college_country` column is set to **US** if `NULL` is passed during insertion.

### Remove Default Constraint

We can remove the default constraint in a column using the `DROP` clause. For example,

#### SQL Server, PostgreSQL, Oracle

```
ALTER TABLE Colleges
ALTER COLUMN college_country DROP DEFAULT;
```

#### MySQL

```
ALTER TABLE Colleges
ALTER college_country DROP DEFAULT;
```

Here, the SQL command removes the `DEFAULT` constraint from the `college_country` column.

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[SQL Check](#)

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## SQL CREATE INDEX

In this tutorial, we'll learn about indexes in SQL and how to use them with examples.

In SQL, if a column has `CREATE INDEX` constraint, it's faster to retrieve data if we use that column for data retrieval. For example,

```
-- create table
CREATE TABLE Colleges (
    college_id INT PRIMARY KEY,
    college_code VARCHAR(20) NOT NULL,
    college_name VARCHAR(50)
);

-- create index
CREATE INDEX college_index
ON Colleges(college_code);
```

[Run Code >](#)

Here, the SQL command creates an index named `college_index` on the `Colleges` table using the `college_code` column.

**Note:** Since database systems are very fast by default, the difference in speed is noticeable only when we are working with a table that has a large number of records..

## CREATE UNIQUE INDEX for Unique Values

If we want to create indexes for unique values in a column, we use the `CREATE UNIQUE INDEX` constraint. For example,

```
-- create unique index
CREATE UNIQUE INDEX college_index
ON Colleges(college_code);
```

Here, the SQL command creates a unique index named `college_index` on the `Colleges` table using the `college_code` column.

**Note:** Although the index is created for only unique values, the original data in table remains unaltered.

## Remove Index From Tables

To remove `index` from a table, we can use the `DROP INDEX` command. For example,

### SQL Server

```
DROP INDEX Colleges.college_index;
```

### PostgreSQL, Oracle

```
DROP INDEX college_index;
```

### MySQL

```
ALTER TABLE Colleges
DROP INDEX college_index;
```

Here, the SQL command removes the `college_index` constraint from the `Colleges` table.

**Note:** Deleting an index means the index is only deleted. The data in the original table remains unaltered.

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