

## **Section 1. Getting started with MySQL**

This section helps you get started with MySQL. We will start installing MySQL, downloading a sample database, and loading data into the MySQL server for practicing.

Installing MySQL database server – show you step by step how to install MySQL database server on your computer.

Downloading MySQL sample database – introduce you to a MySQL sample database named classicmodels.

Loading the sample database into your own MySQL database server – walk you through steps of how to load the classicmodels sample database into your MySQL database server for practicing.

## **Section 2. Querying data**

This section helps you learn how to query data from the MySQL database server. We will start with a simple SELECT statement that allows you to query data from a single table.

SELECT – show you how to use simple SELECT statement to query the data from a single table.

SELECT DISTINCT – learn how to use the DISTINCT operator in the SELECT statement to eliminate duplicate rows in a result set.

## **Section 3. Sorting data**

ORDER BY – show you how to sort the result set using ORDER BY clause. The custom sort order with the FIELD function will be also covered.

## **Section 4. Filtering data**

WHERE – learn how to use the WHERE clause to filter rows based on specified conditions.

AND – introduce you to the AND operator to combine Boolean expressions to form a complex condition for filtering data.

OR – introduce you to the OR operator and show you how to combine the OR operator with the AND operator to filter data.

IN – show you how to use the IN operator in the WHERE clause to determine if a value matches any value in a list or a subquery.

BETWEEN – show you how to query data based on a range using BETWEEN operator.

LIKE – provide you with technique to query data based on a specific pattern.

LIMIT – use LIMIT to constrain the number of rows returned by SELECT statement

IS NULL – test whether a value is NULL or not by using IS NULL operator.

### **Section 5. Joining tables**

Table & Column Aliases – introduce you to table and column aliases.

Joins – give you an overview of joins supported in MySQL including inner join, left join, and right join.

INNER JOIN – query rows from a table that has matching rows in another table.

LEFT JOIN – return all rows from the left table and matching rows from the right table or null if no matching rows found in the right table.

RIGHT JOIN – return all rows from the right table and matching rows from the left table or null if no matching rows found in the left table.

CROSS JOIN – make a Cartesian product of rows from multiple tables.

Self-join – join a table to itself using table alias and connect rows within the same table using inner join and left join.

### **Section 6. Grouping data**

GROUP BY – show you how to group rows into groups based on columns or expressions.

HAVING – filter the groups by a specific condition.

ROLLUP – generate multiple grouping sets considering a hierarchy between columns specified in the GROUP BY clause.

### **Section 7. Subqueries**

Subquery – show you how to nest a query (inner query) within another query (outer query) and use the result of the inner query for the outer query.

Derived table – introduce you to the derived table concept and show you how to use it to simplify complex queries.

EXISTS – test for the existence of rows.

### **Section 8. Common Table Expressions**

Common Table Expression or CTE – explain you the common table expression concept and show you how to use CTE for querying data from tables.

Recursive CTE – use the recursive CTE to traverse the hierarchical data.

## **Section 9. Set operators**

UNION and UNION ALL – combine two or more result sets of multiple queries into a single result set.

INTERSECT – show you a couple of ways to simulate the INTERSECT operator.

MINUS – explain to you the SQL MINUS operator and show you how to simulate it.

## **Section 10. Modifying data in MySQL**

In this section, you will learn how to insert, update, and delete data from tables using various MySQL statements.

INSERT – use various forms of the INSERT statement to insert data into a table.

INSERT INTO SELECT – insert data into a table from the result set of a query.

INSERT IGNORE – explain you the INSERT IGNORE statement that inserts rows into a table and ignore rows that cause errors.

UPDATE – learn how to use UPDATE statement and its options to update data in database tables.

UPDATE JOIN – show you how to perform cross table update using UPDATE JOIN statement with INNER JOIN and LEFT JOIN.

DELETE – show you how to use the DELETE statement to delete rows from one or more tables.

ON DELETE CASCADE – learn how to use ON DELETE CASCADE referential action for a foreign key to delete data from a child table automatically when you delete data from a parent table.

DELETE JOIN – show you how to delete data from multiple tables.

REPLACE – learn how to insert or update data depends on whether data exists in the table or not.

Prepared Statement – show you how to use the prepared statement to execute a query.

## **Section 11. MySQL transaction**

Transaction – learn about MySQL transactions, and how to use COMMIT and ROLLBACK to manage transactions in MySQL.

Table locking – learn how to use MySQL locking for cooperating table access between sessions.

## **Section 12. Managing MySQL databases and tables**

This section shows you how to manage the most important database objects in MySQL including database and tables.

Selecting a MySQL database – show you how to use the USE statement to select a MySQL database via the MySQL program and MySQL Workbench.

Managing databases – learn various statements to manage MySQL databases including creating a new database, removing an existing database, selecting a database, and listing all databases.

CREATE DATABASE – show you how to create a new database in MySQL Server.

DROP DATABASE – learn how to delete an existing database.

MySQL storage engines– it is essential to understand the features of each storage engine so that you can use them effectively to maximize the performance of your databases.

CREATE TABLE – show you how to create new tables in a database using CREATE TABLE statement.

MySQL sequence – show you how to use a sequence to generate unique numbers automatically for the primary key column of a table.

ALTER TABLE – learn how to use the ALTER TABLE statement to change existing table's structure.

Renaming table – show you how to rename a table using RENAME TABLE statement.

Removing a column from a table – show you how to use the ALTER TABLE DROP COLUMN statement to remove one or more columns from a table.

Adding a new column to a table – show you how to add one or more columns to an existing table using ALTER TABLE ADD COLUMN statement.

DROP TABLE – show you how to remove existing tables using DROP TABLE statement.

Temporary tables – discuss MySQL temporary table and show you how to manage temporary tables.

TRUNCATE TABLE – show you how to use the TRUNCATE TABLE statement to delete all data in a table fast.

## **Section 13. MySQL data types**

MySQL data types – show you various data types in MySQL so that you can apply them effectively in designing database tables.

INT – show you how to use integer data type.

DECIMAL – show you how to use DECIMAL data type to store exact values in decimal format.

BIT – introduce you BIT data type and how to store bit values in MySQL.

BOOLEAN – explain to you how MySQL handles Boolean values by using TINYINT (1) internally.

CHAR – guide to CHAR data type for storing the fixed-length string.

VARCHAR – give you the essential guide to VARCHAR data type.

TEXT – show you how to store text data using TEXT data type.

DATE – introduce you to the DATE data type and show you some date functions to handle the date data effectively.

TIME – walk you through the features of TIME data type and show you how to use some useful temporal functions to handle time data.

DATETIME – introduce you to the DATETIME data type and some useful functions to manipulate DATETIME values.

TIMESTAMP – introduce you to TIMESTAMP and its features called automatic initialization and automatic update that allows you to define auto-initialized and auto-updated columns for a table.

JSON – show you how to use JSON data type to store JSON documents.

ENUM – learn how to use ENUM data type correctly to store enumeration values.

#### **Section 14. MySQL constraints**

NOT NULL constraint – introduce you to the NOT NULL constraint and show you how to declare a NOT NULL column or add a NOT NULL constraint to an existing column.

Primary key constraint – guide you how to use primary key constraint to create the primary key for a table.

Foreign key constraint – introduce you to the foreign key and show you step by step how to create and drop foreign keys.

UNIQUE constraint – show you how to use UNIQUE constraint to enforce the uniqueness of values in a column or a group of columns in a table.

CHECK constraint emulation – walk you through various ways to emulate the CHECK constraint in MySQL.

As you can see the result, the query returns customers who locate in the USA or France.

The following statement returns the customers who locate in the USA or France and have the credit limit greater than 10,000.

```
1 SELECT
2   customername,
3   country,
4   creditLimit
5 FROM
6   customers
7 WHERE(country = 'USA'
8   OR country = 'France')
9   AND creditlimit > 100000;
```

	customername	country	creditLimit
	La Rochelle Gifts	France	118200
	Mini Gifts Distributors Ltd.	USA	210500
	Land of Toys Inc.	USA	114900
	Saveley & Henriot, Co.	France	123900
	Muscle Machine Inc	USA	138500
	Diecast Classics Inc.	USA	100600
	Collectable Mini Designs Co.	USA	105000
	Marta's Replicas Co.	USA	123700

Notice that if you do not use the parentheses, the query will return the customers who locate in the USA or the customers who locate in France with the credit limit greater than 10,000.

```
1 SELECT
2   customername,
3   country,
4   creditLimit
5 FROM
6   customers
7 WHERE country = 'USA'
8   OR country = 'France'
9   AND creditlimit > 100000;
```

	customername	country	creditLimit
	Signal Gift Stores	USA	71800
	La Rochelle Gifts	France	118200
	Mini Gifts Distributors Ltd.	USA	210500
	Mini Wheels Co.	USA	64600
	Land of Toys Inc.	USA	114900
	Saveley & Henriot, Co.	France	123900
	Muscle Machine Inc	USA	138500
	Diecast Classics Inc.	USA	100600
	Technics Stores Inc.	USA	84600

## MySQL IN

The **IN** operator allows you to determine if a specified value matches any value in a set of values or returned by a [subquery](#).

The following illustrates the syntax of the **IN** operator:

```
1 SELECT
2     column1, column2, ...
3 FROM
4     table_name
5 WHERE
6     (expr|column_1) IN ('value1', 'value2', ...);
```

Let's examine the query in more detail:

- Use a **column** or an expression ( **expr** ) with the **IN** operator in the **WHERE** clause.
- Separate the values in the list by commas (,).

The **IN** operator returns 1 if the value of the **column\_1** or the result of the **expr** expression is equal to any value in the list, otherwise, it returns 0.

When the values in the list are all constants, MySQL performs the following steps:

- First, evaluate the values based on the **type** of the **column\_1** or result of the **expr** expression.
- Second, sort the values.



- Third, search for the value using the binary search algorithm. Therefore, a query that uses the **IN** operator with a list of constants performs very fast.

Note that if the **expr** or any value in the list is **NULL**, the **IN** operator returns **NULL**.

You can combine the **IN** operator with the **NOT** operator to determine if a value does not match any value in a list or a **subquery**. And you can also use the **IN** operator in the **WHERE** clause of other statements such as **UPDATE**, and **DELETE**.

MySQL **IN** operator examples

Let's practice with some examples of using the **IN** operator. See the following **offices** table from the sample database:

offices
* officeCode
city
phone
addressLine1
addressLine2
state
country
postalCode
territory

If you want to find the offices that locate in the U.S. and France, you can use the **IN** operator as the following query:

```
1 SELECT
2     officeCode,
3     city,
4     phone,
5     country
6 FROM
7     offices
8 WHERE
9     country IN ('USA' , 'France');
```

	officeCode	city	phone	country
	1	San Francisco	+1 650 219 4782	USA
	2	Boston	+1 215 837 0825	USA
	3	NYC	+1 212 555 3000	USA
	4	Paris	+33 14 723 4404	France

You can achieve the same result with the **OR** operator as the following query:

```
1 SELECT
2     officeCode,
3     city,
4     phone
5 FROM
6     offices
7 WHERE
8     country = 'USA' OR country = 'France';
```

In case the list has many values, you need to construct a very long statement with multiple **OR** operators. Hence, the **IN** operator allows you to shorten the query and make it more readable.

To get offices that do not locate in USA and France, you use **NOT IN** in the **WHERE** clause as follows:

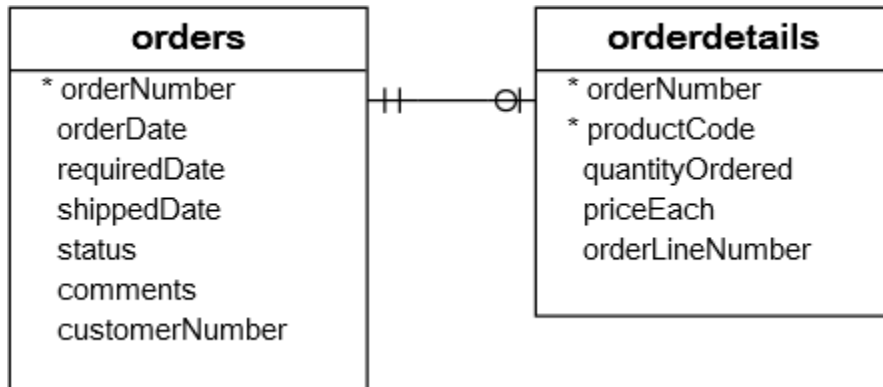
```
1 SELECT
2     officeCode,
3     city,
4     phone
5 FROM
6     offices
7 WHERE
8     country NOT IN ('USA' , 'France');
```

	officeCode	city	phone	country
	5	Tokyo	+81 33 224 5000	Japan
	6	Sydney	+61 2 9264 2451	Australia
	7	London	+44 20 7877 2041	UK

Using MySQL **IN** with a subquery

The **IN** operator is often used with a **subquery**. Instead of providing a list of literal values, the subquery gets a list of values from one or more tables and uses them as the input values of the **IN** operator.

Let's take a look at the **orders** and **orderDetails** tables from the **sample database**:



For example, if you want to find the orders whose total values are greater than **60,000**, you use the **IN** operator as shown in the following query:

	orderNumber	customerNumber	status	shippedDate
	10165	148	Shipped	2003-12-26
	10287	298	Shipped	2004-09-01
	10310	259	Shipped	2004-10-18

```
1 SELECT
2   orderNumber,
3   customerNumber,
4   status,
5   shippedDate
6 FROM
7   orders
8 WHERE orderNumber IN
9   (
10    SELECT
11     orderNumber
12    FROM
13     orderDetails
14    GROUP BY
15     orderNumber
16    HAVING SUM(quantityOrdered * priceEach) > 60000
17   );
```

The whole query above can be broken down into two separate queries.

First, the subquery returns a list of order numbers whose values are greater than 60,000 using the **GROUP BY** and **HAVING** clauses:

```
1 SELECT
2   orderNumber
3 FROM
4   orderDetails
5 GROUP BY
6   orderNumber
7 HAVING
8   SUM(quantityOrdered * priceEach) > 60000;
```

	orderNumber
▶	10165
	10287
	10310

Second, the outer query uses the **IN** operator in the **WHERE** clause to get data from the **orders** table:

```
1 SELECT
2     orderNumber,
3     customerNumber,
4     status,
5     shippedDate
6 FROM
7     orders
8 WHERE
9     orderNumber IN (10165,10287,10310);
```

## MySQL BETWEEN

The **BETWEEN** operator is a logical operator that allows you to specify whether a value is within a range or not. The **BETWEEN** operator is often used in the **WHERE** clause of the SELECT, UPDATE, and DELETE statements.

The following illustrates the syntax of the **BETWEEN** operator:

```
1 expr [NOT] BETWEEN begin_expr AND end_expr;
```

The **expr** is the expression to test in the range defined by **begin\_expr** and **end\_expr**. All three expressions: **expr**, **begin\_expr**, and **end\_expr** must have the same data type.

The **BETWEEN** operator returns **true** if the value of the **expr** is greater than or equal to ( $\geq$ ) the value of **begin\_expr** and less than or equal to ( $\leq$ ) the value of the **end\_expr**, otherwise it returns zero.

The **NOT BETWEEN** returns **true** if the value of **expr** is less than ( $<$ ) the value of the **begin\_expr** or greater than the value of the value of **end\_expr**, otherwise it returns 0.

If any expression is **NULL**, the **BETWEEN** operator returns **NULL**.

In case you want to specify an exclusive range, you can use the greater than ( $>$ ) and less than ( $<$ ) operators.

## MySQL BETWEEN operator examples

Let's practice with some examples of using the **BETWEEN** operator.

**1) Using MySQL **BETWEEN** with number examples**

See the following **products** table in the sample database:

<b>products</b>
* productCode
productName
productLine
productScale
productVendor
productDescription
quantityInStock
buyPrice
MSRP

The following example uses the **BETWEEN** operator to find products whose buy prices between **90** and **100**:

```

1 SELECT
2     productCode,
3     productName,
4     buyPrice
5 FROM
6     products
7 WHERE
8     buyPrice BETWEEN 90 AND 100;
```

	productCode	productName	buyPrice
	S10_1949	1952 Alpine Renault 1300	98.58
	S10_4698	2003 Harley-Davidson Eagle Drag Bike	91.02
	S12_1099	1968 Ford Mustang	95.34
	S12_1108	2001 Ferrari Enzo	95.59
	S18_1984	1995 Honda Civic	93.89
	S18_4027	1970 Triumph Spitfire	91.92
	S24_3856	1956 Porsche 356A Coupe	98.3

This query uses the greater than or equal (**>=**) and less than or equal (**<=**) operators instead of the **BETWEEN** operator to get the same result:

```

1 SELECT
2     productCode,
3     productName,
4     buyPrice
5 FROM
6     products
7 WHERE
8     buyPrice >= 90 AND buyPrice <= 100;

```

To find the product whose buy price is not between \$20 and \$100, you combine the **BETWEEN** operator with the **NOT** operator as follows:

```

1 SELECT
2     productCode,
3     productName,
4     buyPrice
5 FROM
6     products
7 WHERE
8     buyPrice NOT BETWEEN 20 AND 100;

```

	productCode	productName	buyPrice
	S10_4962	1962 LanciaA Delta 16V	103.42
	S18_2238	1998 Chrysler Plymouth Prowler	101.51
	S24_2840	1958 Chevy Corvette Limited Edition	15.91
	S24_2972	1982 Lamborghini Diablo	16.24

You can rewrite the query above using the less than (<), greater than (>), and logical operators (**AND**) as the following query:

```

1 SELECT
2     productCode,
3     productName,
4     buyPrice
5 FROM
6     products
7 WHERE
8     buyPrice < 20 OR buyPrice > 100;

```

## 2) Using MySQL **BETWEEN** with dates example

When you use the **BETWEEN** operator with date values, to get the best result, you should use the **type cast** to explicitly convert the type of column or expression to the DATE type.

The following example returns the orders which have the required dates between 01/01/2003 to 01/31/2003:

```
1 SELECT
2     orderNumber,
3     requiredDate,
4     status
5 FROM
6     orders
7 WHERE
8     requireddate BETWEEN
9     CAST('2003-01-01' AS DATE) AND
10    CAST('2003-01-31' AS DATE);
```

	orderNumber	requiredDate	status
	10100	2003-01-13	Shipped
	10101	2003-01-18	Shipped
	10102	2003-01-18	Shipped

Because the data type of the required date column is **DATE** so we used the **CAST** operator to convert the literal strings '2003-01-01 'and '2003-12-31 'to the **DATE** values.



## MySQL LIKE

The **LIKE** operator is a logical operator that tests whether a string contains a specified pattern or not. Here is the syntax of the **LIKE** operator:

```
1 | expression LIKE pattern ESCAPE escape_character
```

The **LIKE** operator is used in the WHERE clause of the SELECT, DELETE, and UPDATE statements to filter data based on patterns.

MySQL provides two wildcard characters for constructing patterns: percentage % and underscore \_.

- The percentage ( % ) wildcard matches any string of zero or more characters.
- The underscore ( \_ ) wildcard matches any single character.

For example, **s%** matches any string starts with the character **s** such as **sun** and **six**.

The **se\_** matches any string starts with **se** and is followed by any character such as **see** and **sea**.

MySQL **LIKE** operator examples

Let's practice with some examples of using the **LIKE** operator. We will use the following **employees** table from the sample database for the demonstration:

employees	
* employeeNumber	
lastName	
firstName	
extension	
email	
officeCode	
reportsTo	
jobTitle	

### A) Using MySQL **LIKE** with the percentage (%) wildcard examples

This example uses the **LIKE** operator to find employees whose first names start with **a**:

```

1 SELECT
2     employeeNumber,
3     lastName,
4     firstName
5 FROM
6     employees
7 WHERE
8     firstName LIKE 'a%';

```

	employeeNumber	lastName	firstName
	1143	Bow	Anthony
	1611	Fixter	Andy

In this example, MySQL scans the whole **employees** table to find employees whose first names start with the character **a** and are followed by any number of characters.

This example uses the **LIKE** operator to find employees whose last names end with **on** e.g., **Patterson**, **Thompson**:

```

1 SELECT
2     employeeNumber,
3     lastName,
4     firstName
5 FROM
6     employees
7 WHERE
8     lastName LIKE '%on';

```

	employeeNumber	lastName	firstName
	1056	Patterson	Mary
	1088	Patterson	William
	1166	Thompson	Leslie
	1216	Patterson	Steve

If you know the searched string is embedded inside in the middle of a string, you can use the percentage ( **%** ) wildcard at the beginning and the end of the pattern.

For example, to find all employees whose last names contain **on**, you use the following query with the pattern **%on%**

```

1 SELECT
2     employeeNumber,
3     lastName,
4     firstName
5 FROM
6     employees
7 WHERE
8     lastname LIKE '%on%';

```

	employeeNumber	lastName	firstName
	1056	Patterson	Mary
	1088	Patterson	William
	1102	Bondur	Gerard
	1166	Thompson	Leslie
	1216	Patterson	Steve
	1337	Bondur	Loui
	1504	Jones	Barry

### B) Using MySQL **LIKE** with underscore ( **\_** ) wildcard examples

To find employees whose first names start with **T**, end with **m**, and contain any single character between e.g., **Tom**, **Tim**, you use the underscore (**\_**) wildcard to construct the pattern as follows:

```

1 SELECT
2     employeeNumber,
3     lastName,
4     firstName
5 FROM
6     employees
7 WHERE
8     firstname LIKE 'T_m';

```

```

1 SELECT
2     employeeNumber,
3     lastName,
4     firstName
5 FROM
6     employees
7 WHERE
8     firstname LIKE 'T_m';

```

	employeeNumber	lastName	firstName
▶	1619	King	Tom

### C) Using MySQL **LIKE** operator with the **NOT** operator example

The MySQL allows you to combine the **NOT** operator with the **LIKE** operator to find a string that does not match a specific pattern.

Suppose you want to search for employees whose last names don't start with the character **B**, you can use the **NOT LIKE** with a pattern as shown in the following query:

```

1 SELECT
2     employeeNumber,
3     lastName,
4     firstName
5 FROM
6     employees
7 WHERE
8     lastName NOT LIKE 'B%';

```

	employeeNumber	lastName	firstName
	1002	Murphy	Diane
	1056	Patterson	Mary
	1076	Firrelli	Jeff
	1088	Patterson	William
	1165	Jennings	Leslie
	1166	Thompson	Leslie
	1188	Firrelli	Julie
	1216	Patterson	Steve
	1286	Tseng	Foon Yue
	1323	Vanauf	George

Note that the pattern is not case sensitive, therefore, the **b%** or **B%** pattern returns the same result.

MySQL **LIKE** operator with **ESCAPE** clause

Sometimes the pattern, which you want to match, contains wildcard character e.g., 10%, \_20, etc. In this case, you can use the **ESCAPE** clause to specify the escape character so that MySQL will interpret the wildcard character as a literal character. If you don't specify the escape character explicitly, the backslash character `\` is the default escape character.

For example, if you want to find products whose product codes contain string `_20`, you can use the pattern `%\_20%` as shown in the following query:

```
1 SELECT
2     productCode,
3     productName
4 FROM
5     products
6 WHERE
7     productCode LIKE '%\_20%';
```

Or you can specify a different escape character e.g., `$` by using the **ESCAPE** clause:

```
1 SELECT
2     productCode,
3     productName
4 FROM
5     products
6 WHERE
7     productCode LIKE '%$_20%' ESCAPE '$';
```

	productCode	productName
	S10_2016	1996 Moto Guzzi 1100i
	S24_2000	1960 BSA Gold Star DBD34
	S24_2011	18th century schooner
	S24_2022	1938 Cadillac V-16 Presidential Limousine
	S700_2047	HMS Bounty

The pattern `$_20%` matches any string that contains the `_20` string.

## MySQL IS NULL

To test whether a value is **NULL** or not, you use the **IS NULL** operator. The following shows syntax of the **IS NULL** operator:

```
1 value IS NULL
```

If the value is **NULL**, the expression returns true. Otherwise, it returns false.

Note that MySQL does not have a built-in **BOOLEAN** type. It uses the **TINYINT(1)** to represent the **BOOLEAN** values i.e., true means 1 and false means 0.

Because the **IS NULL** is a comparison operator, you can use it anywhere that an operator can be used e.g., in the **SELECT** or **WHERE** clause. See the follow example:

```
1 SELECT 1 IS NULL, -- 0
2       0 IS NULL, -- 0
3       NULL IS NULL; -- 1
```

To check if a value is not **NULL**, you use **IS NOT NULL** operator as follows:

```
1 value IS NOT NULL
```

This expression returns true (1) if the value is not **NULL**. Otherwise, it returns false (0).

Consider the following example:

```
1 SELECT 1 IS NOT NULL, -- 1
2       0 IS NOT NULL, -- 1
3       NULL IS NOT NULL; -- 0
```

## MySQL IS NULL examples

We will use the **customers** table in the **sample database** for the demonstration.

<b>customers</b>
* customerNumber customerName contactLastName contactFirstName phone addressLine1 addressLine2 city state postalCode country salesRepEmployeeNumber creditLimit

The following query uses the **IS NULL** operator to find customers who do not have a sales representative:

```

1 SELECT
2     customerName,
3     country,
4     salesrepemployeenumber
5 FROM
6     customers
7 WHERE
8     salesrepemployeenumber IS NULL
9 ORDER BY customerName;

```

	customerName	country	salesrepemployeenumber
▶	ANG Resellers	Spain	NULL
	Anton Designs, Ltd.	Spain	NULL
	Asian Shopping Network, Co	Singapore	NULL
	Asian Treasures, Inc.	Ireland	NULL
	BG&E Collectables	Switzerland	NULL
	Cramer Spezialitäten, Ltd	Germany	NULL
	Der Hund Imports	Germany	NULL
	Feuer Online Stores, Inc	Germany	NULL
	Franken Gifts, Co	Germany	NULL

This example uses the **IS NOT NULL** operator to get the customers who have a sales representative:

```

1 SELECT
2     customerName,
3     country,
4     salesrepemployeenumber
5 FROM
6     customers
7 WHERE
8     salesrepemployeenumber IS NOT NULL
9 ORDER BY customerName;
```

	customerName	country	salesrepemployeenumber
►	Alpha Cognac	France	1370
	American Souvenirs Inc	USA	1286
	Amica Models & Co.	Italy	1401
	Anna's Decorations, Ltd	Australia	1611
	Atelier graphique	France	1370
	Australian Collectables, Ltd	Australia	1611
	Australian Collectors, Co.	Australia	1611
	Australian Gift Network, Co	Australia	1611
	Auto Associ?s & Cie.	France	1370

MySQL IS NULL's specialized features

To be compatible with ODBC programs, MySQL supports some specialized features of the **IS NULL** operator.

1) If the **DATE** or **DATETIME** column that has a **NOT NULL** constraint and contains a special date '0000-00-00', you can use the **IS NULL** operator to find such rows.



```

1 CREATE TABLE IF NOT EXISTS projects (
2     id INT AUTO_INCREMENT,
3     title VARCHAR(255),
4     begin_date DATE NOT NULL,
5     complete_date DATE NOT NULL,
6     PRIMARY KEY(id)
7 );
8
9 INSERT INTO projects(title,begin_date, complete_date)
10 VALUES('New CRM','2020-01-01','0000-00-00'),
11         ('ERP Future','2020-01-01','0000-00-00'),
12         ('VR','2020-01-01','2030-01-01');
13
14
15 SELECT
16     *
17 FROM
18     projects
19 WHERE
20     complete_date IS NULL;

```

In this example, we created a new table named **projects** and insert some data into the table. The last query used **IS NULL** to get the rows whose values in the **complete\_date** value is '0000-00-00'.

2) If the variable **@@sql\_auto\_is\_null** is set to 1, you can get the value of a generated column after executing an INSERT statement by using the **IS NULL** operator. Note that by default the variable **@@sql\_auto\_is\_null** is 0. Consider the following example:

First, set the variable **@@sql\_auto\_is\_null** to 1.

```

1 SET @@sql_auto_is_null = 1;

```

Second, insert a new row into the **projects** table:

```

1 INSERT INTO projects(title,begin_date, complete_date)
2 VALUES('MRP III','2010-01-01','2020-12-31');

```

Third, use the **IS NULL** operator to get the generated value of the **id** column:

```

1 SELECT
2   id
3 FROM
4   projects
5 WHERE
6   id IS NULL;

```

	id
▶	4

### MySQL **IS NULL** Optimization

MySQL performs the same optimization for the **IS NULL** operator in the same way that it does for the equal (=) operator.

For example, MySQL uses the [index](#) when it searches for **NULL** with the **IS NULL** operator as shown in the following query:

```

1 SELECT
2   customerNumber,
3   salesRepEmployeeNumber
4 FROM
5   customers
6 WHERE
7   salesRepEmployeeNumber IS NULL;

```

See the **EXPLAIN** of the query:

```

1 EXPLAIN SELECT
2   customerNumber,
3   salesRepEmployeeNumber
4 FROM
5   customers
6 WHERE
7   salesRepEmployeeNumber IS NULL;

```

	id	select_type	table	partitions	type	possible_keys	key	key_len	ref	rows	filtered	Extra
▶	1	SIMPLE	customers	NULL	ref	salesRepEmployeeNumber	salesRepEmployeeNumber	5	const	22	100.00	Using index condition

MySQL can also optimize for the combination **col = value OR col IS NULL**, see the following example:

```

1 EXPLAIN SELECT
2     customerNumber,
3     salesRepEmployeeNumber
4 FROM
5     customers
6 WHERE
7     salesRepEmployeeNumber = 1370 OR
8     salesRepEmployeeNumber IS NULL;

```

	id	select_type	table	partitions	type	possible_keys	key	key_len	ref	rows	filtered	Extra
►	1	SIMPLE	customers	NULL	ref_or_null	salesRepEmployeeNumber	salesRepEmployeeNumber	5	const	29	100.00	Using where; Using index

In this example, the **EXPLAIN** shows **ref\_or\_null** when the optimization is applied.

If you have a key that is a combination of columns, MySQL can perform optimization for any key part. Suppose there is an index on columns **k1** and **k2** of the table **t1**, the following query is leveraging the index:

```

1 SELECT
2     *
3 FROM
4     t1
5 WHERE
6     k1 IS NULL;

```

In this tutorial, you have learned how to use MySQL **IS NULL** operator to test whether a value is **NULL** or not.

## MySQL Alias

MySQL supports two kinds of aliases which are known as **column** alias and **table** alias. Let's examine each kind of alias in detail.

### MySQL alias for columns

Sometimes the names of columns are so technical that make the query's output very difficult to understand. To give a column a descriptive name, you use a column alias.

The following statement illustrates how to use the column alias:

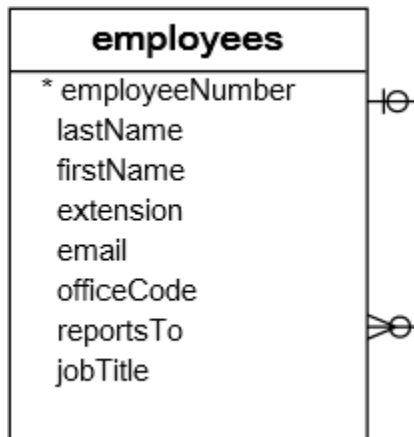
```
1 SELECT
2 [column_1 | expression] AS descriptive_name
3 FROM table_name;
```

To give a column an alias, you use the **AS** keyword followed by the alias. If the alias contains space, you must quote it as the following:

```
1 SELECT
2 [column_1 | expression] AS `descriptive name`
3 FROM table_name;
```

Because the **AS** keyword is optional, you can omit it in the statement. Note that you can also give an expression an alias.

Let's look at the **employees** table in the **sample database**.



The following query selects first names and last names of employees and combines them to produce the full names. The **CONCAT\_WS** function is used to **concatenate** first name and last name.

```
1 SELECT
2   CONCAT_WS(' ', lastName, firstname)
3 FROM
4   employees;
```

CONCAT_WS(' ', lastName, firstname)
Murphy, Diane
Patterson, Mary
Firrelli, Jeff
Patterson, William
Bondur, Gerard
Bow, Anthony
Jennings, Leslie
Thompson, Leslie
Firrelli, Julie
Patterson, Steve

The column heading is quite difficult to read. You can assign the heading of the output a column alias to make it more readable as the following query:

```
1 SELECT
2   CONCAT_WS(' ', lastName, firstname) AS `Full name`
3 FROM
4   employees;
```

Full name
Murphy, Diane
Patterson, Mary
Firrelli, Jeff
Patterson, William
Bondur, Gerard
Bow, Anthony
Jennings, Leslie
Thompson, Leslie
Firrelli, Julie
Patterson, Steve

In MySQL, you can use the column alias in the ORDER BY, GROUP BY and HAVING clauses to refer to the column.

The following query uses the column alias in the **ORDER BY** clause to sort the employee's full names alphabetically:

```
1 SELECT
2   CONCAT_WS(' ', lastName, firstname) `Full name`
3 FROM
4   employees
5 ORDER BY
6   `Full name`;
```

Full name
Bondur, Gerard
Bondur, Loui
Bott, Larry
Bow, Anthony
Castillo, Pamela
Firrelli, Jeff
Firrelli, Julie
Fixter, Andy
Gerard, Martin
Hernandez, Gerard

The following statement selects the orders whose total amount are greater than 60000. It uses column aliases in **GROUP BY** and **HAVING** clauses.

```
1 SELECT
2   orderNumber `Order no.`,
3   SUM(priceEach * quantityOrdered) total
4 FROM
5   orderdetails
6 GROUP BY
7   `Order no.`
8 HAVING
9   total > 60000;
```

	Order no.	Total
►	10165	67392.85
	10287	61402.00
	10310	61234.67

Notice that you cannot use a column alias in the WHERE clause. The reason is that when MySQL evaluates the **WHERE** clause, the values of columns specified in the SELECT clause may not be determined yet.

## MySQL alias for tables

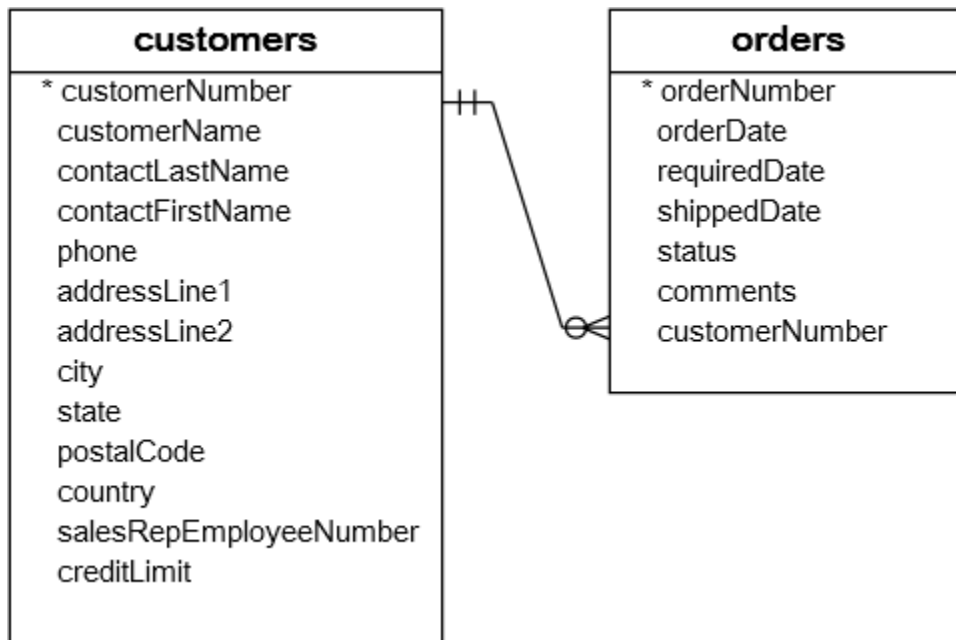
You can use an alias to give a table a different name. You assign a table an alias by using the **AS** keyword as the following syntax:

```
1 | table_name AS table_alias
```

The alias for the table is called table alias. Like the column alias, the **AS** keyword is optional so you can omit it.

You often use the table alias in the statement that contains INNER JOIN, LEFT JOIN, self-join clauses, and in subqueries.

Let's look at the **customers** and **orders** tables.



Both tables have the same column name: **customerNumber**. Without using the table alias to qualify the **customerNumber** column, you will get an error message like:

```
1 | Error Code: 1052. Column 'customerNumber' in on clause is ambiguous
```

To avoid this error, you use table alias to qualify the **customerNumber** column:



```

1 SELECT
2   customerName,
3   COUNT(o.orderNumber) total
4 FROM
5   customers c
6 INNER JOIN orders o ON c.customerNumber = o.customerNumber
7 GROUP BY
8   customerName
9 ORDER BY
10  total DESC;

```

customerName	total
Euro+ Shopping Channel	26
Mini Gifts Distributors Ltd.	17
Dragon Souvenirs, Ltd.	5
Australian Collectors, Co.	5
Down Under Souvenirs, Inc	5
Danish Wholesale Imports	5
Reims Collectables	5
Handji Gifts& Co	4
Souvenirs And Things Co.	4

The query above selects customer name and the number of orders from the **customers** and **orders** tables. It uses **c** as a table alias for the **customers** table and **o** as a table alias for the **orders** table.

The columns in the **customers** and **orders** tables are referred to via the table aliases.

If you do not use alias in the query above, you have to use the table name to refer to its columns, which makes the query lengthy and less readable as the following:

```

1 SELECT
2   customers.customerName,
3   COUNT(orders.orderNumber) total
4 FROM
5   customers
6 INNER JOIN orders ON customers.customerNumber = orders.customerNumber
7 GROUP BY
8   customerName
9 ORDER BY
10  total DESC

```

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LABORATORY EXERCISES FOR CSC 212: INTRODUCTION TO WEB PROGRAMMING II  
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## MySQL Join

A relational database consists of multiple related tables linking together using common columns which are known as foreign key columns. Because of this, data in each table is incomplete from the business perspective.

For example, in the **sample database**, we have the **orders** and **orderdetails** tables that are linked using the **orderNumber** column.

To get complete orders' data, you need to query data from both **orders** and **orderdetails** table. And that's why MySQL **JOIN** comes into the play.

A MySQL join is a method of linking data between one (self-join) or more tables based on values of the common column between tables.

MySQL supports the following types of joins:

- Cross join
- Inner join
- Left join
- Right join

To join tables, you use the **CROSS JOIN**, **INNER JOIN**, **LEFT JOIN** or **RIGHT JOIN** clause for the corresponding type of join. The join clause is used in the **SELECT** statement appeared after the **FROM** clause.

Notice that MySQL does not support full outer join.

To make easy for you to understand each type of join, we will use the **t1** and **t2** tables with the following structures:

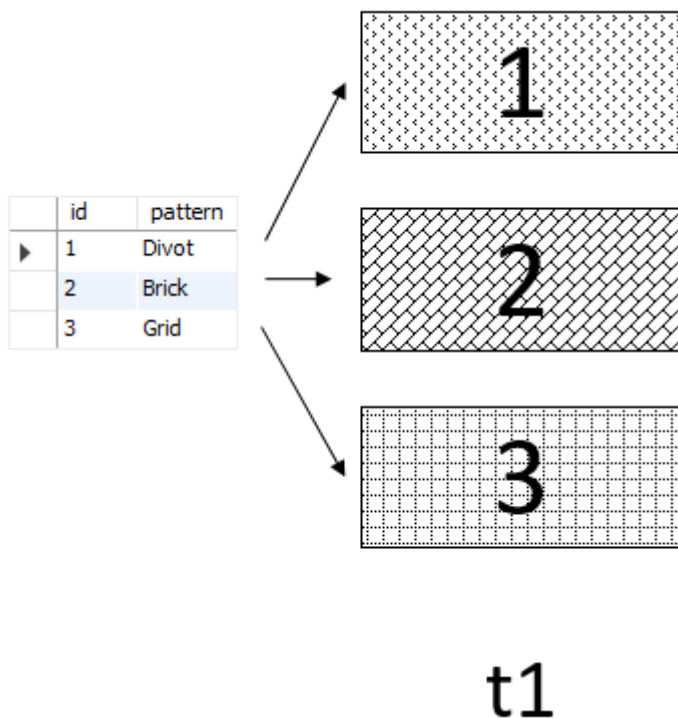
```
1 CREATE TABLE t1 (  
2     id INT PRIMARY KEY,  
3     pattern VARCHAR(50) NOT NULL  
4 );  
5  
6 CREATE TABLE t2 (  
7     id VARCHAR(50) PRIMARY KEY,  
8     pattern VARCHAR(50) NOT NULL  
9 );
```

Both **t1** and **t2** tables have the **pattern** column, which is also the common column between tables.

The following statements insert data into both **t1** and **t2** tables:

```
1 INSERT INTO t1(id, pattern)
2 VALUES(1, 'Divot'),
3         (2, 'Brick'),
4         (3, 'Grid');
5
6 INSERT INTO t2(id, pattern)
7 VALUES('A', 'Brick'),
8         ('B', 'Grid'),
9         ('C', 'Diamond');
```

And the pictures below illustrate data from both **t1** and **t2** tables:



## MySQL CROSS JOIN

The **CROSS JOIN** makes a Cartesian product of rows from multiple tables. Suppose, you join **t1** and **t2** tables using the **CROSS JOIN**, the result set will include the combinations of rows from the **t1** table with the rows in the **t2** table.

To perform cross join, you use the **CROSS JOIN** clause as in the following statement:

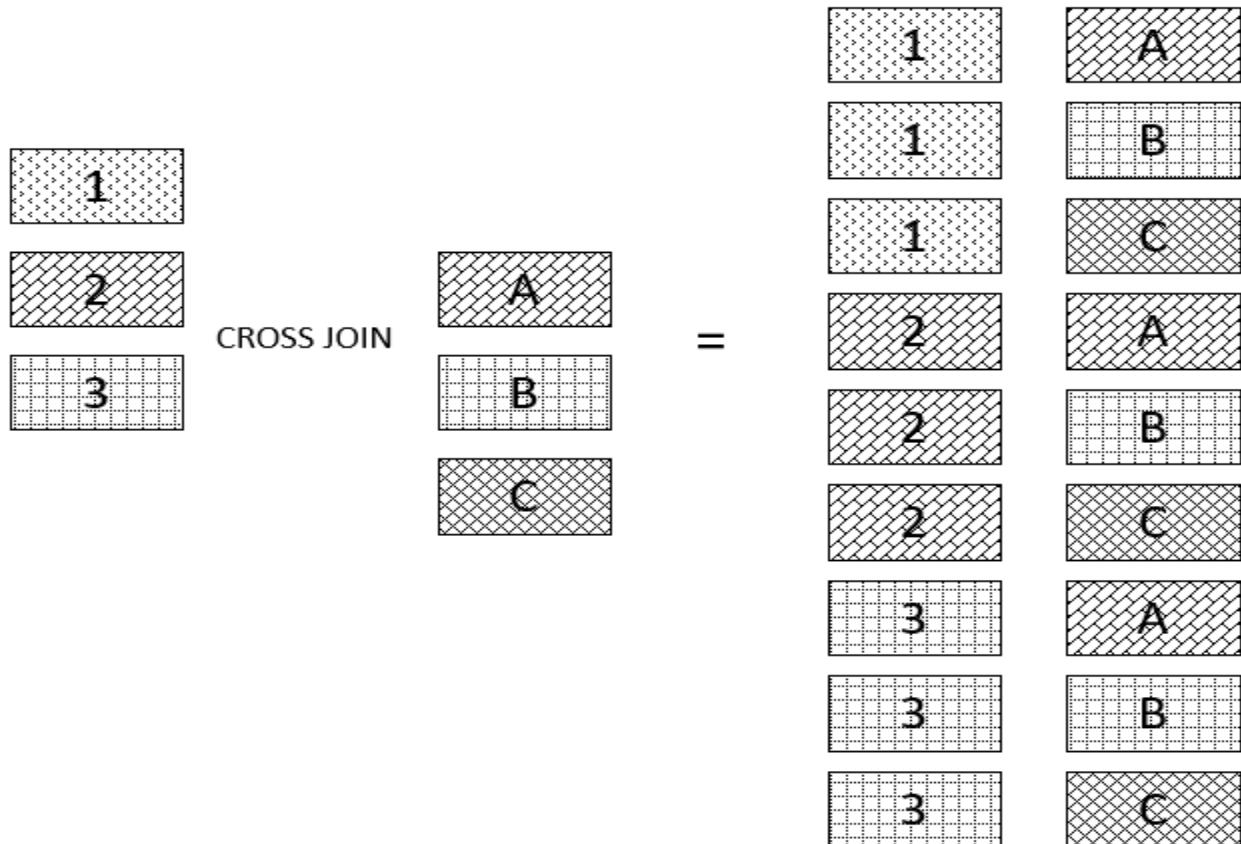
The following shows the result set of the query:

```
1 SELECT
2     t1.id, t2.id
3 FROM
4     t1
5 CROSS JOIN t2;
```

	id	id
►	1	C
	1	B
	1	A
	2	C
	2	B
	2	A
	3	C
	3	B
	3	A

As you can see, each row in the **t1** table combines with rows in the **t2** table to form the Cartesian product.

The following picture illustrates the **CROSS JOIN** between **t1** and **t2** tables.



### MySQL INNER JOIN

To form an **INNER JOIN**, you need a condition which is known as a join-predicate. An **INNER JOIN** requires rows in the two joined tables to have matching column values. The **INNER JOIN** creates the result set by combining column values of two joined tables based on the join-predicate.

To join two tables, the **INNER JOIN** compares each row in the first table with each row in the second table to find pairs of rows that satisfy the join-predicate. Whenever the join-predicate is satisfied by matching non-NULL values, column values for each matched pair of rows of the two tables are included in the result set.

The following statement uses the **INNER JOIN** clause to join **t1** and **t2** tables:

```

1 SELECT
2     t1.id, t2.id
3 FROM
4     t1
5     INNER JOIN
6     t2 ON t1.pattern = t2.pattern;

```

In this statement, the following expression is the join-predicate:

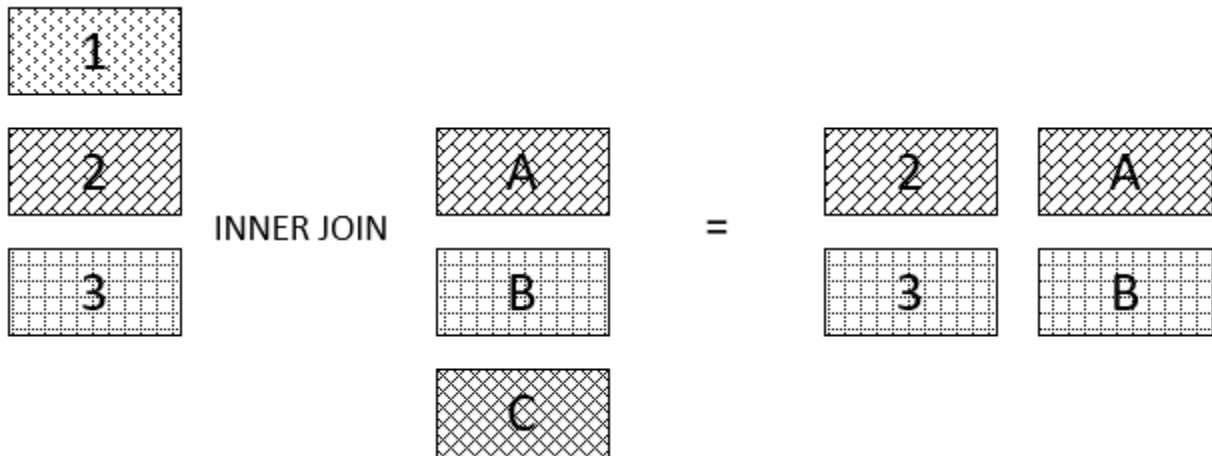
```
1 t1.pattern = t2.pattern
```

It means that rows in **t1** and **t2** tables must have the same values in the **pattern** column to be included in the result.

The following illustrates the result of the query:

	id	id
▶	2	A
	3	B

The following picture illustrates the **INNER JOIN** between **t1** and **t2** tables:



In this illustration, the rows in both tables must have the same pattern to be included in the result set.

## MySQL LEFT JOIN

Similar to an **INNER JOIN**, a **LEFT JOIN** also requires a join-predicate. When joining two tables using a **LEFT JOIN**, the concepts of left table and right table are introduced.

Unlike an **INNER JOIN**, a **LEFT JOIN** returns all rows in the left table including rows that satisfy join-predicate and rows that do not. For the rows that do not match the join-predicate, NULLs appear in the columns of the right table in the result set.

The following statement uses the **LEFT JOIN** clause to join **t1** and **t2** tables:

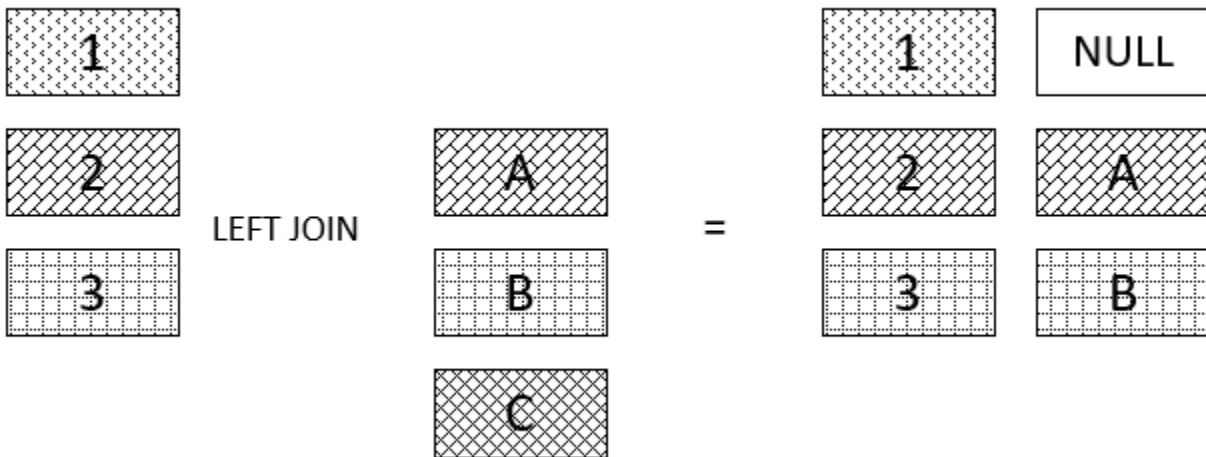
```
1 SELECT
2     t1.id, t2.id
3 FROM
4     t1
5     LEFT JOIN
6     t2 ON t1.pattern = t2.pattern
7 ORDER BY t1.id;
```

	id	id
▶	1	NULL
	2	A
	3	B

As you can see, all rows in the **t1** table are included in the result set. For the rows in the **t1** table (left table) that do not have any matching row in the **t2** table (right table), NULLs are used for columns in **t2** table.

The following picture illustrates the **LEFT JOIN** between **t1** and **t2** tables:





In this illustration, the following rows share the same pattern: (2 and A), (3 and B). The row with id 1 in the **t1** table has no matching row in the **t2** table, therefore, **NULL** are used for columns of the **t2** table in the result set.

### MySQL RIGHT JOIN

A **RIGHT JOIN** is similar to the **LEFT JOIN** except that the treatment of tables is reversed. With a **RIGHT JOIN**, every row from the right table ( **t2** ) will appear in the result set. For the rows in the right table that do not have the matching rows in the left table ( **t1** ), NULLs appear for columns in the left table ( **t1** ).

The following statement joins **t1** and **t2** tables using **RIGHT JOIN**:

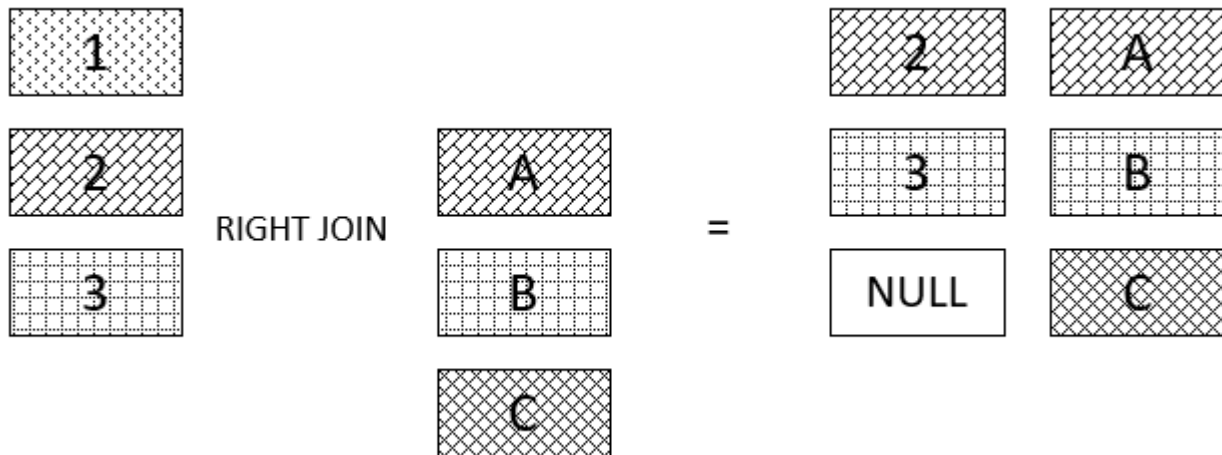
```

1 SELECT
2     t1.id, t2.id
3 FROM
4     t1
5     RIGHT JOIN
6     t2 on t1.pattern = t2.pattern
7 ORDER BY t2.id;
```

	id	id
▶	2	A
	3	B
	NULL	C

In this result, all rows from the right table ( **t2** ) appear in the result set. For the rows in the right table ( **t2** ) that have no matching rows in the left table ( **t1** ), NULL appears for columns of the left table ( **t1** ).

The following picture illustrates the **RIGHT JOIN** between **t1** and **t2** tables:



In this tutorial, you have learned various MySQL join statements including cross join, inner join, left join and right join to query data from two or more tables.

## MySQL INNER JOIN

The MySQL **INNER JOIN** clause matches rows in one table with rows in other tables and allows you to query rows that contain columns from both tables.

The **INNER JOIN** clause is an optional part of the **SELECT** statement. It appears immediately after the **FROM** clause.

Before using the **INNER JOIN** clause, you have to specify the following criteria:

- First, the main table that appears in the **FROM** clause.
- Second, the table that you want to join with the main table, which appears in the **INNER JOIN** clause. In theory, you can join a table with many other tables. However, for a better performance, you should limit the number of tables to join.
- Third, the join condition or join predicate. The join condition appears after the **ON** keyword of the **INNER JOIN** clause. The join condition is the rule for matching rows in the main table with the rows in the other tables.

The syntax of the **INNER JOIN** clause is as follows:

```
1 SELECT column_list
2 FROM t1
3 INNER JOIN t2 ON join_condition1
4 INNER JOIN t3 ON join_condition2
5 ...
6 WHERE where_conditions;
```

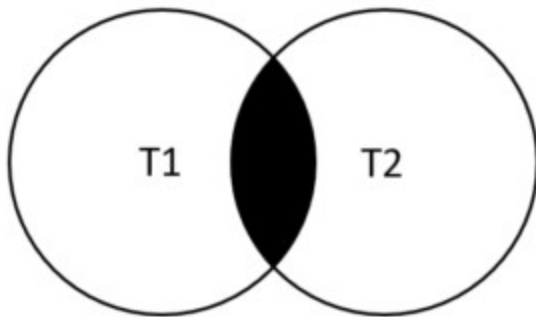
Let's simplify the syntax above by assuming that we are joining two tables **t1** and **t2** using the **INNER JOIN** clause.

```
1 SELECT column_list
2 FROM t1
3 INNER JOIN t2 ON join_condition;
```

For each row in the **t1** table, the **INNER JOIN** clause compares it with each row of the **t2** table to check if both of them satisfy the join condition. When the join condition is met, the **INNER JOIN** will return a new row which consists of columns in both **t1** and **t2** tables.

Notice that the rows in both **t1** and **t2** tables have to be matched based on the join condition. If no match found, the query will return an empty result set. This logic is also applied when you join more than 2 tables.

The following Venn diagram illustrates how the **INNER JOIN** clause works. The rows in the result set must appear in both tables: **t1** and **t2** as shown in the intersection part of two circles.



MySQL INNER JOIN Venn diagram

Avoid ambiguous column error in MySQL **INNER JOIN**

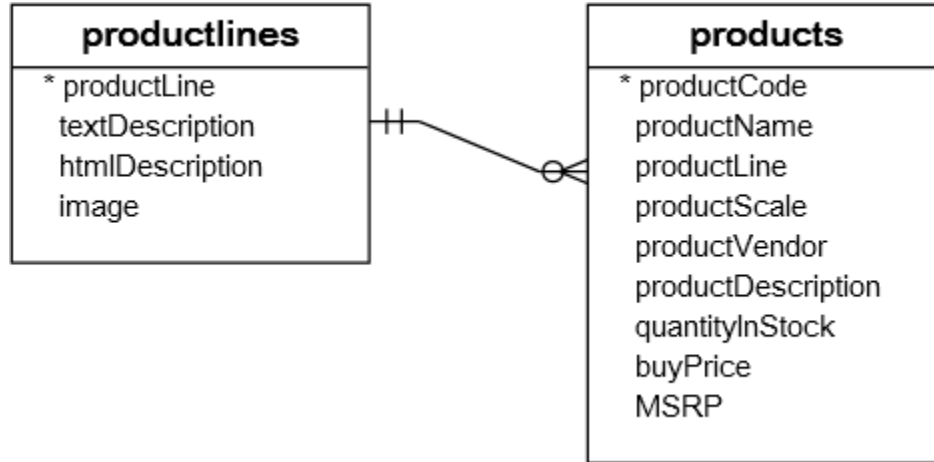
If you join multiple tables that have the same column name, you have to use table qualifier to refer to that column in the **SELECT** and **ON** clauses to avoid the ambiguous column error.

For example, if both **t1** and **t2** tables have the same column named **c**, you have to refer to the **c** column using the table qualifiers as **t1.c** or **t2.c** in the **SELECT** and **ON** clauses.

To save time typing the table qualifiers, you can use table aliases in the query. For example, you can give the **verylongtablename** table a table's alias **t** and refer to its columns using **t.column** instead of using the **verylongtablename.column**.

MySQL **INNER JOIN** examples

Let's look at the **products** and **productlines** tables in the sample database.



In this diagram, the **products** table has the **productLine** column referenced to the **productline** column of the **productlines** table. The **productLine** column in the **products** table is called a foreign key column.

Typically, you join tables that have foreign key relationships like the **productlines** and **products** tables.

Now, if you want to get

1. The **productCode** and **productName** from the **products** table.
2. The **textDescription** of product lines from the **productlines** table.

To do this, you need to select data from both tables by matching rows based on the **productline** columns using the **INNER JOIN** clause as follows:

```
1 SELECT
2     productCode,
3     productName,
4     textDescription
5 FROM
6     products t1
7     INNER JOIN
8     productlines t2 ON t1.productline = t2.productline;
```

	productCode	productName	textDescription
	S10_1949	1952 Alpine Renault 1300	Attention car enthusiasts: Make your wildest car ownership dreams come true.
	S10_4757	1972 Alfa Romeo GTA	Attention car enthusiasts: Make your wildest car ownership dreams come true.
	S10_4962	1962 LanciaA Delta 16V	Attention car enthusiasts: Make your wildest car ownership dreams come true.
	S12_1099	1968 Ford Mustang	Attention car enthusiasts: Make your wildest car ownership dreams come true.
	S12_1108	2001 Ferrari Enzo	Attention car enthusiasts: Make your wildest car ownership dreams come true.

Because the joined columns of both tables have the same name **productline**, you can use the following syntax:

```

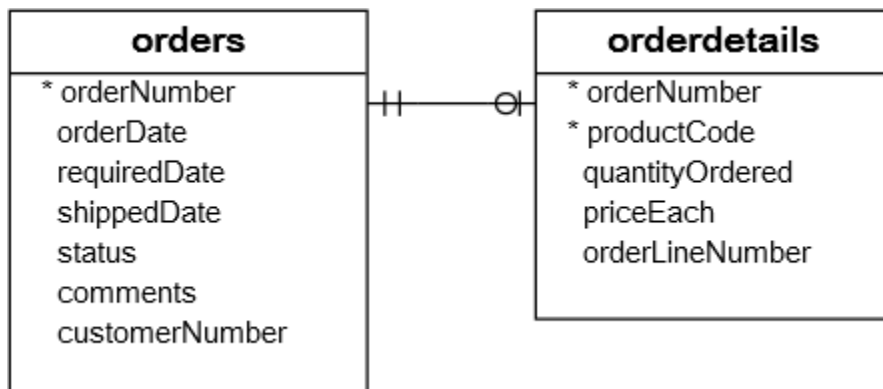
1 SELECT
2     productCode,
3     productName,
4     textDescription
5 FROM
6     products
7     INNER JOIN
8     productlines USING (productline);

```

It returns the same result set however with this syntax you don't have to use the table aliases.

### MySQL INNER JOIN with GROUP BY clause

See the following **orders** and **orderdetails** tables.



You can get the order number, order status and total sales from the **orders** and **orderdetails** tables using the **INNER JOIN** clause with the **GROUP BY** clause as follows:

```

1 SELECT
2     T1.orderNumber,
3     status,
4     SUM(quantityOrdered * priceEach) total
5 FROM
6     orders AS T1
7     INNER JOIN
8     orderdetails AS T2 ON T1.orderNumber = T2.orderNumber
9 GROUP BY orderNumber;

```

orderNumber	status	total
10100	Shipped	10223.83
10101	Shipped	10549.01
10102	Shipped	5494.78
10103	Shipped	50218.95
10104	Shipped	40206.20

Similarly, the following query is equivalent to the one above:

```

1 SELECT
2     orderNumber,
3     status,
4     SUM(quantityOrdered * priceEach) total
5 FROM
6     orders
7     INNER JOIN
8     orderdetails USING (orderNumber)
9 GROUP BY orderNumber;

```

MySQL **INNER JOIN** using operator other than equal

So far, you have seen that the join predicate used the equal operator (=) for matching rows. In addition, you can use other operators such as greater than (>), less than (<), and not-equal (<>) operator to form the join predicates.

The following query uses a less-than (<) join to find sales prices of the product whose code is **S10\_1678** that are less than the manufacturer's suggested retail price (MSRP) for that product.

```

1 SELECT
2     orderNumber,
3     productName,
4     msrp,
5     priceEach
6 FROM
7     products p
8     INNER JOIN
9     orderdetails o ON p.productcode = o.productcode
10    AND p.msrp > o.priceEach
11 WHERE
12     p.productcode = 'S10_1678';

```

	orderNumber	productName	msrp	priceEach
▶	10107	1969 Harley Davidson Ultimate Chopper	95.70	81.35
	10121	1969 Harley Davidson Ultimate Chopper	95.70	86.13
	10134	1969 Harley Davidson Ultimate Chopper	95.70	90.92
	10145	1969 Harley Davidson Ultimate Chopper	95.70	76.56
	10159	1969 Harley Davidson Ultimate Chopper	95.70	81.35
	10168	1969 Harley Davidson Ultimate Chopper	95.70	94.74
	10180	1969 Harley Davidson Ultimate Chopper	95.70	76.56
	10201	1969 Harley Davidson Ultimate Chopper	95.70	82.30

## MySQL LEFT JOIN

The MySQL **LEFT JOIN** clause allows you to query data from two or more database tables.

The **LEFT JOIN** clause is an optional part of the **SELECT** statement, which appears after the **FROM** clause.

Let's assume that you are going to query data from two tables **t1** and **t2**. The following statement illustrates the syntax of **LEFT JOIN** clause that joins the two tables:

```

1 SELECT
2     t1.c1, t1.c2, t2.c1, t2.c2
3 FROM
4     t1
5     LEFT JOIN
6     t2 ON t1.c1 = t2.c1;

```

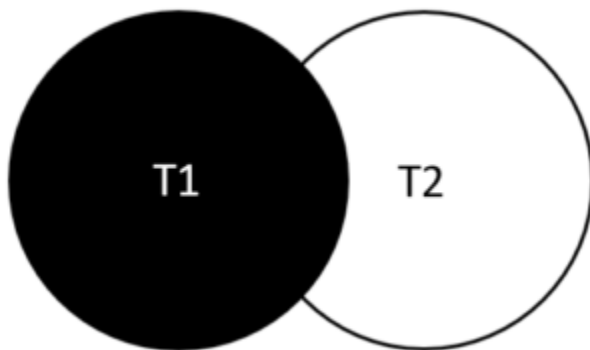


When you join the **t1** table to the **t2** table using the **LEFT JOIN** clause, if a row from the left table **t1** matches a row from the right table **t2** based on the join condition ( **t1.c1 = t2.c1** ), this row will be included in the result set.

In case the row in the left table does not match with the row in the right table, the row in the left table is also selected and combined with a “fake” row from the right table. The fake row contains **NULL** for all corresponding columns in the **SELECT** clause.

In other words, the **LEFT JOIN** clause allows you to select rows from the both left and right tables that are matched, plus all rows from the left table ( **t1** ) even with no matching rows found in the right table ( **t2** ).

The following Venn diagram helps you visualize how the **LEFT JOIN** clause works. The intersection between two circles are rows that match in both tables, and the remaining part of the left circle are rows in the **t1** table that do not have any matching row in the **t2** table. Hence, all rows in the left table are included in the result set.



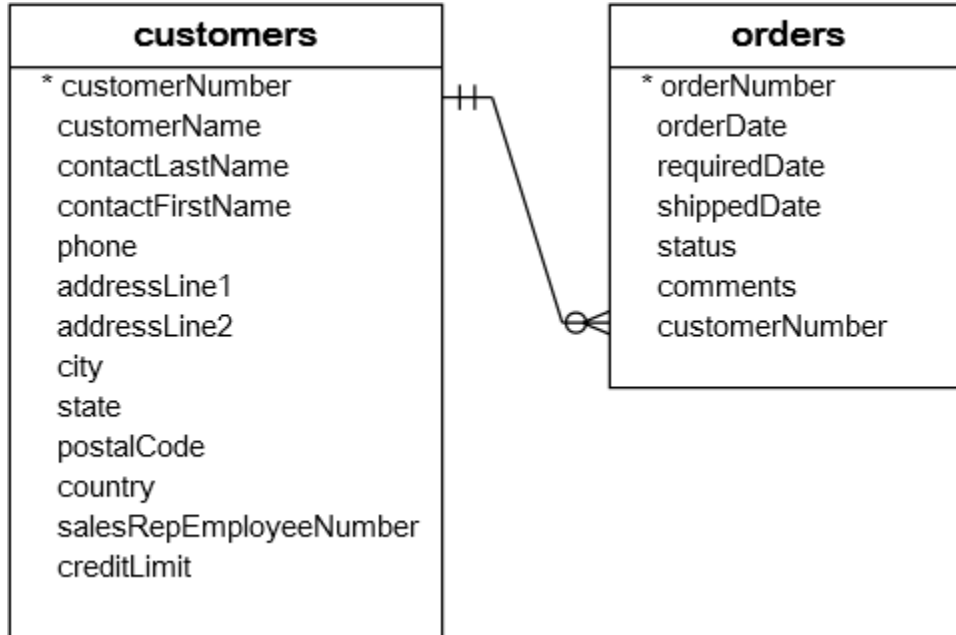
MySQL LEFT JOIN – Venn Diagram

Notice that the returned rows must also match the conditions in the **WHERE** and **HAVING** clauses if those clauses are available in the query.

MySQL **LEFT JOIN** examples

**Using MySQL LEFT JOIN clause to join two tables**

Let's take a look at the **customers** and **orders** tables in the **sample database**.



In the database diagram above:

1. Each order in the **orders** table must belong to a customer in the **customers** table.
2. Each customer in the **customers** table can have zero or more orders in the **orders** table.

To find all orders that belong to each customer, you can use the **LEFT JOIN** clause as follows:

```
1 SELECT
2   c.customerNumber,
3   c.customerName,
4   orderNumber,
5   o.status
6 FROM
7   customers c
8 LEFT JOIN orders o ON c.customerNumber = o.customerNumber;
```

	customerNumber	customerName	orderNumber	status
	166	Handji Gifts& Co	10288	Shipped
	166	Handji Gifts& Co	10409	Shipped
	167	Herkku Gifts	10181	Shipped
	167	Herkku Gifts	10188	Shipped
	167	Herkku Gifts	10289	Shipped
	168	American Souvenirs Inc	NULL	NULL
	169	Porto Imports Co.	NULL	NULL
	171	Daedalus Designs Imports	10180	Shipped
	171	Daedalus Designs Imports	10224	Shipped
	172	La Corne D'abondance, ...	10114	Shipped

The left table is **customers**, therefore, all customers are included in the result set. However, there are rows in the result set that have customer data but no order data e.g. 168, 169, etc. The order data in these rows are **NULL**. It means that these customers do not have any order in the **orders** table.

Because we used the same column name ( **customerNumber**) for joining two tables, we can make the query shorter by using the following syntax:

```

1 SELECT
2   c.customerNumber,
3   customerName,
4   orderNumber,
5   status
6 FROM
7   customers c
8 LEFT JOIN orders USING (customerNumber);

```

In this statement, the clause

```

1 USING (customerNumber)

```

is equivalent to

```

1 ON c.customerNumber = o.customerNumber

```

If you replace the **LEFT JOIN** clause by the **INNER JOIN** clause, you get the only customers who have placed at least one order.

**Using MySQL LEFT JOIN clause to find unmatched rows**

The LEFT JOIN clause is very useful when you want to find the rows in the left table that do not match with the rows in the right table. To find the unmatching rows between two tables, you add a WHERE clause to the SELECT statement to query only rows whose column values in the right table contains the NULL values.

For example, to find all customers who have not placed any order, you use the following query:

```

1  SELECT
2      c.customerNumber,
3      c.customerName,
4      orderNumber,
5      o.status
6  FROM
7      customers c
8      LEFT JOIN
9      orders o ON c.customerNumber = o.customerNumber
10 WHERE
11     orderNumber IS NULL;

```

	customerNumber	customerName	orderNumber	status
	125	Havel & Zbyszek Co	NULL	NULL
	168	American Souvenirs Inc	NULL	NULL
	169	Porto Imports Co.	NULL	NULL
	206	Asian Shopping Network, Co	NULL	NULL
	223	Natürlich Autos	NULL	NULL
	237	ANG Resellers	NULL	NULL
	247	Messner Shopping Network	NULL	NULL
	273	Franken Gifts, Co	NULL	NULL
	293	BG&E Collectables	NULL	NULL
	303	Schuyler Imports	NULL	NULL

Condition in WHERE clause vs. ON clause

See the following example.

```
1 SELECT
2     o.orderNumber,
3     customerNumber,
4     productCode
5 FROM
6     orders o
7     LEFT JOIN
8     orderDetails USING (orderNumber)
9 WHERE
10    orderNumber = 10123;
```

In this example, we used the **LEFT JOIN** clause to query data from the **orders** and **orderDetails** tables. The query returns an order and its detail, if any, for the order **10123**.

	orderNumber	customerNumber	productCode
►	10123	103	S18_1589
	10123	103	S18_2870
	10123	103	S18_3685
	10123	103	S24_1628

However, if you move the condition from the **WHERE** clause to the **ON** clause:

```
1 SELECT
2     o.orderNumber,
3     customerNumber,
4     productCode
5 FROM
6     orders o
7     LEFT JOIN
8     orderDetails d ON o.orderNumber = d.orderNumber
9     AND o.orderNumber = 10123;
```

It will have a different meaning.

In this case, the query returns all orders but only the order **10123** will have detail associated with it as shown below.

	orderNumber	customerNumber	productCode
▶	10123	103	S18_1589
	10123	103	S18_2870
	10123	103	S18_3685
	10123	103	S24_1628
	10298	103	NULL
	10345	103	NULL
	10124	112	NULL
	10278	112	NULL
	10346	112	NULL
	10120	114	NULL

Notice that for **INNER JOIN** clause, the condition in the **ON** clause is equivalent to the condition in the **WHERE** clause.

## MySQL RIGHT JOIN

MySQL **RIGHT JOIN** is similar to **LEFT JOIN**, except the treatment of table reversed.

The following statement queries data from two tables t1 and t2 using the **RIGHT JOIN** clause:

```
1 SELECT
2     *
3 FROM t1
4     RIGHT JOIN t2 ON join_predicate;
```

In this statement:

- **t1** is the left table and **t2** is the right table
- **join\_predicate** is the condition to match rows on the left table (**t1**) with rows on the right table (**t2**)

The **join\_predicate** could be in the following form:

```
1 t1.pk = t2.fk
```

or if the common columns of the two table have the same name, you can use the following syntax:

```
1 USING (common_column);
```

The following describes how the **RIGHT JOIN** clause works.

- All rows from the **t2** table (right table) will appear at least once in the result set.
- Based on the **join\_predicate**, if no matching row from the **t1** table (left table) exists, **NULL** will appear in columns from the **t1** table for the rows that have no match in the **t2** table.

It is important to emphasize that **RIGHT JOIN** and **LEFT JOIN** clauses are functionally equivalent and they can replace each other as long as the table order is switched.

Note that the **RIGHT OUTER JOIN** is a synonym for **RIGHT JOIN**.

## MySQL RIGHT JOIN example

Suppose we have two tables **t1** and **t2** with the following structures and data:

```
1 CREATE TABLE t1 (  
2     id INT PRIMARY KEY,  
3     pattern VARCHAR(50) NOT NULL  
4 );  
5  
6 CREATE TABLE t2 (  
7     id VARCHAR(50) PRIMARY KEY,  
8     pattern VARCHAR(50) NOT NULL  
9 );  
10  
11 INSERT INTO t1(id, pattern)  
12 VALUES(1, 'Divot'),  
13         (2, 'Brick'),  
14         (3, 'Grid');  
15  
16 INSERT INTO t2(id, pattern)  
17 VALUES('A', 'Brick'),  
18         ('B', 'Grid'),  
19         ('C', 'Diamond');
```

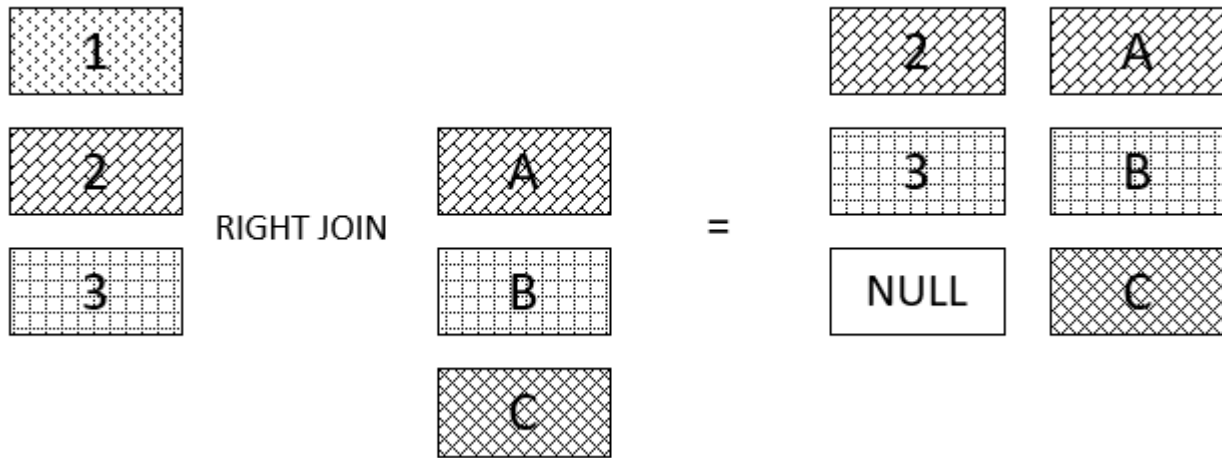
The following query joins two tables **t1** and **t2** using the **pattern** column:

```
1 SELECT  
2     t1.id, t2.id  
3 FROM  
4     t1  
5     RIGHT JOIN t2 USING (pattern)  
6 ORDER BY t2.id;
```

	id	id
▶	2	A
	3	B
	NULL	C

The picture below illustrates the result of the **RIGHT JOIN** clause:





See the following **employees** and **customers** in the sample database.

The following query get the sales representatives and their customers:

```

1 SELECT
2   concat(e.firstName, ' ', e.lastName) salesman,
3   e.jobTitle,
4   customerName
5 FROM
6   employees e
7   RIGHT JOIN
8   customers c ON e.employeeNumber = c.salesRepEmployeeNumber
9   AND e.jobTitle = 'Sales Rep'
10 ORDER BY customerName;

```

salesman	jobTitle	customerName
Gerard Hernandez	Sales Rep	Alpha Cognac
Foon Yue Tseng	Sales Rep	American Souvenirs Inc
Pamela Castillo	Sales Rep	Amica Models & Co.
NULL	NULL	ANG Resellers
Andy Fixter	Sales Rep	Anna's Decorations, Ltd
NULL	NULL	Anton Designs, Ltd.
NULL	NULL	Asian Shopping Network, Co
NULL	NULL	Asian Treasures, Inc.

Because we used **RIGHT JOIN**, all customers (right table) appears in the result set. We also found that some customers do not have dedicated sales rep indicated by **NULL** in the **salesman** column.

In this tutorial, you have learned how to use the MySQL **RIGHT JOIN** to query data from two or more tables.

### MySQL Self Join

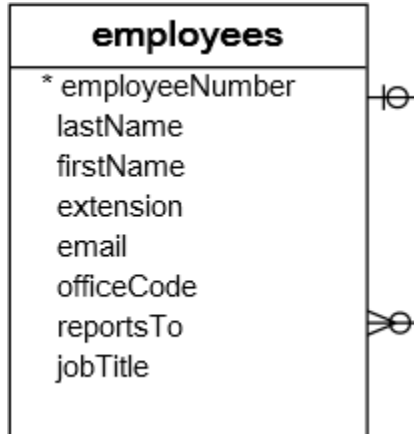
In the previous sections, you have learned how to join a table to the other tables using [INNER JOIN](#), [LEFT JOIN](#) or [CROSS JOIN](#) clause. However, there is a special case that you need join a table to itself, which is known as self join.

You use the self join when you want to combine rows with other rows in the same table. To perform the self join operation, you must use a [table alias](#) to help MySQL distinguish the left table from the right table of the same table in a single query.

#### MySQL self join examples

Let's take a look at the **employees** table in the [sample database](#).

In the **employees** table, we store not only employees data but also organization structure data. The **reportsTo** column is used to determine the manager id of an employee.



To get the whole organization structure, you can join the **employees** table to itself using the **employeeNumber** and **reportsTo** columns. The **employees** table has two roles: one is *Manager* and the other is *Direct Reports*.

```

1 SELECT
2     CONCAT(m.lastname, ' ', m.firstname) AS 'Manager',
3     CONCAT(e.lastname, ' ', e.firstname) AS 'Direct report'
4 FROM
5     employees e
6     INNER JOIN
7     employees m ON m.employeeNumber = e.reportsTo
8 ORDER BY manager;
  
```

Manager	Direct report
Bondur, Gerard	Jones, Barry
Bondur, Gerard	Bott, Larry
Bondur, Gerard	Castillo, Pamela
Bondur, Gerard	Hernandez, Gerard
Bondur, Gerard	Bondur, Loui
Bondur, Gerard	Gerard, Martin
Bow, Anthony	Tseng, Foon Yue
Bow, Anthony	Patterson, Steve
Bow, Anthony	Firrelli, Julie
Bow, Anthony	Thompson, Leslie
Bow, Anthony	Jennings, Leslie
Bow, Anthony	Vanauf, George

In the above output, you see only employees who have a manager. However, you don't see the top manager because his name is filtered out due to the **INNER JOIN** clause. The top manager is the employee who does not have any manager or his manager no is **NULL**.

Let's change the **INNER JOIN** clause to the **LEFT JOIN** clause in the query above to include the top manager. You also need to use the **IFNULL** function to display the top manager if the manager's name is **NULL**.

```

1 SELECT
2     IFNULL(CONCAT(m.lastname, ', ', m.firstname),
3             'Top Manager') AS 'Manager',
4     CONCAT(e.lastname, ', ', e.firstname) AS 'Direct report'
5 FROM
6     employees e
7     LEFT JOIN
8     employees m ON m.employeeNumber = e.reportsto
9 ORDER BY manager DESC;
```

Manager	Direct report
Top Manager	Murphy, Diane
Patterson, William	King, Tom
Patterson, William	Marsh, Peter
Patterson, William	Fixter, Andy
Patterson, Mary	Bondur, Gerard
Patterson, Mary	Nishi, Mami
Patterson, Mary	Patterson, William
Patterson, Mary	Bow, Anthony
Nishi, Mami	Kato, Yoshimi
Murphy, Diane	Firrelli, Jeff
Murphy, Diane	Patterson, Mary

By using the MySQL self join, you can display a list of customers who locate in the same city by joining the **customers** table to itself.

```

1 SELECT
2     c1.city, c1.customerName, c2.customerName
3 FROM
4     customers c1
5     INNER JOIN
6     customers c2 ON c1.city = c2.city
7         AND c1.customername > c2.customerName
8 ORDER BY c1.city;

```

	city	customerName	customerName
	Auckland	Kelly's Gift Shop	Down Under Souvenirs, Inc
	Auckland	GiftsForHim.com	Down Under Souvenirs, Inc
	Auckland	Kelly's Gift Shop	GiftsForHim.com
	Boston	Gifts4AllAges.com	Diecast Collectables
	Brickhaven	Online Mini Collectables	Auto-Moto Classics Inc.
	Brickhaven	Collectables For Less Inc.	Auto-Moto Classics Inc.
	Brickhaven	Online Mini Collectables	Collectables For Less Inc.
	Cambridge	Marta's Replicas Co.	Cambridge Collectables Co.
	Frankfurt	Messner Shopping Network	Blauer See Auto, Co.
	Glendale	Gift Ideas Corp.	Boards & Toys Co.
	Lisboa	Porto Imports Co.	Lisboa Souvenirs, Inc
	London	Stylish Desk Decors, Co.	Double Decker Gift Stores, Ltd

We joined the **customers** table to itself with the following join conditions:

- **c1.city = c2.city** to make sure that both customers have the same city.
- **c.customerName > c2.customerName** to ensure that we don't get the same customer.

In this tutorial, we have introduced you to MySQL self-join that allows you to join a table to itself by using **INNER JOIN** or **LEFT JOIN** clauses.

### MySQL CROSS JOIN

The **CROSS JOIN** clause returns the Cartesian product of rows from the joined tables.

Suppose you join two tables using **CROSS JOIN**. The result set will include all rows from both tables, where each row in the result set is the combination of the row in the first table with the

row in the second table. This situation happens when you have no relationship between the joined tables.

The danger thing is that if each table has 1,000 rows, you will get  $1,000 \times 1,000 = 1,000,000$  rows in the result set, which is huge.

The following illustrates the syntax of the **CROSS JOIN** clause that joins two tables **T1** and **T2**:

```
1 SELECT
2   *
3 FROM
4   T1
5     CROSS JOIN
6   T2;
```

Note that different from the **INNER JOIN** or **LEFT JOIN** clause, the **CROSS JOIN** clause does not have the join conditions.

If you add a **WHERE** clause, in case **T1** and **T2** has a relationship, the **CROSS JOIN** works like the **INNER JOIN** clause as shown in the following query:

```
1 SELECT
2   *
3 FROM
4   T1
5     CROSS JOIN
6   T2
7 WHERE
8   T1.id = T2.id;
```

### MySQL CROSS JOIN clause example

We will use the following **testdb** database and tables to demonstrate how the **CROSS JOIN** works.

```
1 CREATE DATABASE IF NOT EXISTS testdb;
2
3 USE testdb;
4
5 CREATE TABLE products (
6     id INT PRIMARY KEY AUTO_INCREMENT,
7     product_name VARCHAR(100),
8     price DECIMAL(13 , 2 )
9 );
10
11 CREATE TABLE stores (
12     id INT PRIMARY KEY AUTO_INCREMENT,
13     store_name VARCHAR(100)
14 );
15
16 CREATE TABLE sales (
17     product_id INT,
18     store_id INT,
19     quantity DECIMAL(13 , 2 ) NOT NULL,
20     sales_date DATE NOT NULL,
21     PRIMARY KEY (product_id , store_id),
22     FOREIGN KEY (product_id)
23         REFERENCES products (id)
24         ON DELETE CASCADE ON UPDATE CASCADE,
25     FOREIGN KEY (store_id)
26         REFERENCES stores (id)
27         ON DELETE CASCADE ON UPDATE CASCADE
28 );
```

There are three tables involved:

1. The **products** table contains the products master data that includes product id, product name, and sales price.
2. The **stores** table contains the stores where the products are sold.
3. The **sales** table contains the products that sold in a particular store by quantity and date.

Suppose we have three products **iPhone**, **iPad** and **Macbook Pro** which are sold in two stores **North** and **South**.

```

1 INSERT INTO products(product_name, price)
2 VALUES('iPhone', 699),
3         ('iPad', 599),
4         ('Macbook Pro', 1299);
5
6 INSERT INTO stores(store_name)
7 VALUES('North'),
8         ('South');
9
10 INSERT INTO sales(store_id, product_id, quantity, sales_date)
11 VALUES(1, 1, 20, '2017-01-02'),
12         (1, 2, 15, '2017-01-05'),
13         (1, 3, 25, '2017-01-05'),
14         (2, 1, 30, '2017-01-02'),
15         (2, 2, 35, '2017-01-05');

```

To get the total sales for each store and for each product, you calculate the sales and **group** them by store and product as follows:

```

1 SELECT
2     store_name,
3     product_name,
4     SUM(quantity * price) AS revenue
5 FROM
6     sales
7     INNER JOIN
8     products ON products.id = sales.product_id
9     INNER JOIN
10    stores ON stores.id = sales.store_id
11 GROUP BY store_name , product_name;

```

	store_name	product_name	revenue
▶	North	iPad	8985.0000
	North	iPhone	13980.0000
	North	Macbook Pro	32475.0000
	South	iPad	20965.0000
	South	iPhone	20970.0000

Now, what if you want to know also which store had no sales of a specific product. The query above could not answer this question.

To solve the problem, you need to use the **CROSS JOIN** clause.



First, you use the **CROSS JOIN** clause to get the combination of all stores and products:

```

1 SELECT
2     store_name, product_name
3 FROM
4     stores AS a
5     CROSS JOIN
6     products AS b;
```

	store_name	product_name
►	North	iPhone
	South	iPhone
	North	iPad
	South	iPad
	North	Macbook Pro
	South	Macbook Pro

Next, you join the result of the query above with the query that returns the total of sales by store and by product. The following query illustrates the idea:

```

1 SELECT
2     b.store_name,
3     a.product_name,
4     IFNULL(c.revenue, 0) AS revenue
5 FROM
6     products AS a
7     CROSS JOIN
8     stores AS b
9     LEFT JOIN
10    (SELECT
11        stores.id AS store_id,
12        products.id AS product_id,
13        store_name,
14        product_name,
15        ROUND(SUM(quantity * price), 0) AS revenue
16    FROM
17        sales
18    INNER JOIN products ON products.id = sales.product_id
19    INNER JOIN stores ON stores.id = sales.store_id
20    GROUP BY store_name , product_name) AS c ON c.store_id = b.id
21    AND c.product_id= a.id
22 ORDER BY b.store_name;
```

	store_name	product_name	revenue
▶	North	Macbook Pro	32475
	North	iPad	8985
	North	iPhone	13980
	South	iPhone	20970
	South	Macbook Pro	0
	South	iPad	20965

Note that the query used the **IFNULL** function to return 0 if the revenue is **NULL** (in case the store had no sales).

By using the **CROSS JOIN** clause this way, you can answer a wide range of questions e.g., find the sales revenue by salesman by month even if a salesman had no sales in a particular month.

## MySQL GROUP BY

The **GROUP BY** clause groups a set of rows into a set of summary rows by values of columns or expressions. The **GROUP BY** clause returns one row for each group. In other words, it reduces the number of rows in the result set.

You often use the **GROUP BY** clause with aggregate functions such as SUM, AVG, MAX, MIN, and COUNT. The aggregate function that appears in the **SELECT** clause provides the information about each group.

The **GROUP BY** clause is an optional clause of the **SELECT** statement. The following illustrates the **GROUP BY** clause syntax:

```
1 SELECT
2     c1, c2, ..., cn, aggregate_function(ci)
3 FROM
4     table
5 WHERE
6     where_conditions
7 GROUP BY c1 , c2, ...,cn;
```

The **GROUP BY** clause must appear after the **FROM** and **WHERE** clauses. Following the **GROUP BY** keyword is a list of comma-separated columns or expressions that you want to use as criteria to group rows.

MySQL **GROUP BY** examples

Let's take some example of using the **GROUP BY** clause.

#### A) Simple MySQL **GROUP BY** example

Let's take a look at the **orders** table in the sample database.

orders
* orderNumber
orderDate
requiredDate
shippedDate
status
comments
customerNumber

Suppose you want to group values of the order's status into subgroups, you use the **GROUP BY** clause with the **status** column as the following query:

```
1 SELECT
2     status
3 FROM
4     orders
5 GROUP BY status;
```

status
Cancelled
Disputed
In Process
On Hold
Resolved
Shipped

As you can see, the **GROUP BY** clause returns unique occurrences of **status** values. It works like the **DISTINCT** operator as shown in the following query:

```
1 SELECT DISTINCT
2   status
3 FROM
4   orders;
```

## B) Using MySQL **GROUP BY** with aggregate functions

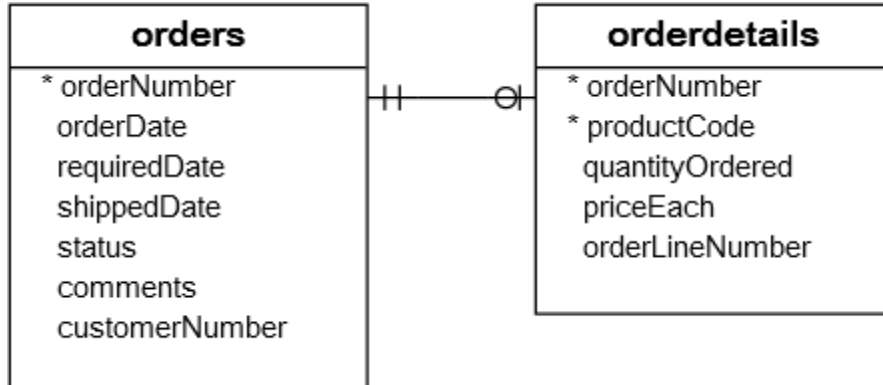
The aggregate functions allow you to perform the calculation of a set of rows and return a single value. The **GROUP BY** clause is often used with an aggregate function to perform calculation and return a single value for each subgroup.

For example, if you want to know the number orders in each status, you can use the **COUNT** function with the **GROUP BY** clause as follows:

```
1 SELECT
2   status, COUNT(*)
3 FROM
4   orders
5 GROUP BY status;
```

	status	COUNT(*)
►	Cancelled	6
	Disputed	3
	In Process	6
	On Hold	4
	Resolved	4
	Shipped	303

See the following **orders** and **orderdetails** table.



To get the total amount of all orders by status, you join the **orders** table with the **orderdetails** table and use the **SUM** function to calculate the total amount. See the following query:

```

1 SELECT
2     status, SUM(quantityOrdered * priceEach) AS amount
3 FROM
4     orders
5     INNER JOIN
6     orderdetails USING (orderNumber)
7 GROUP BY status;
  
```

	status	amount
►	Cancelled	238854.18
	Disputed	61158.78
	In Process	135271.52
	On Hold	169575.61
	Resolved	134235.88
	Shipped	8865094.64

Similarly, the following query returns the order numbers and the total amount of each order.

```

1 SELECT
2     orderNumber,
3     SUM(quantityOrdered * priceEach) AS total
4 FROM
5     orderdetails
6 GROUP BY orderNumber;
  
```

	orderNumber	total
▶	10100	10223.83
	10101	10549.01
	10102	5494.78
	10103	50218.95
	10104	40206.20
	10105	53959.21
	10106	52151.81
	10107	22292.62

### C) MySQL **GROUP BY** with expression example

In addition to columns, you can group rows by expressions. The following query gets the total sales for each year.

```

1 SELECT
2     YEAR(orderDate) AS year,
3     SUM(quantityOrdered * priceEach) AS total
4 FROM
5     orders
6     INNER JOIN
7     orderdetails USING (orderNumber)
8 WHERE
9     status = 'Shipped'
10 GROUP BY YEAR(orderDate);

```

	year	total
▶	2003	3223095.80
	2004	4300602.99
	2005	1341395.85

In this example, we used the **YEAR** function to extract year data from order date ( **orderDate**). We included only orders with **shipped** status in the total sales. Note that the expression which appears in the **SELECT** clause must be the same as the one in the **GROUP BY** clause.

### D) Using MySQL **GROUP BY** with **HAVING** clause example

To filter the groups returned by **GROUP BY** clause, you use a **HAVING** clause. The following query uses the **HAVING** clause to select the total sales of the years after 2003.

```

1 SELECT
2     YEAR(orderDate) AS year,
3     SUM(quantityOrdered * priceEach) AS total
4 FROM
5     orders
6     INNER JOIN
7     orderdetails USING (orderNumber)
8 WHERE
9     status = 'Shipped'
10 GROUP BY year
11 HAVING year > 2003;

```

	year	total
▶	2004	4300602.99
	2005	1341395.85

The **GROUP BY** clause: MySQL vs. standard SQL

Standard SQL does not allow you to use an alias in the **GROUP BY** clause, however, MySQL supports this.

For example, the following query extracts the year from the order date. It first uses **year** as an alias of the expression **YEAR(orderDate)** and then uses the **year** alias in the **GROUP BY** clause. This query is not valid in standard SQL.

```

1 SELECT
2     YEAR(orderDate) AS year, COUNT(orderNumber)
3 FROM
4     orders
5 GROUP BY year;

```

	year	COUNT(orderNumber)
▶	2003	111
	2004	151
	2005	64

MySQL also allows you to sort the groups in ascending or descending orders while the standard SQL does not. The default order is ascending. For example, if you want to get the number of orders by status and sort the status in descending order, you can use the **GROUP BY** clause with **DESC** as the following query:

```

1 SELECT
2     status, COUNT(*)
3 FROM
4     orders
5 GROUP BY status DESC;

```

	status	COUNT(*)
►	Shipped	303
	Resolved	4
	On Hold	4
	In Process	6
	Disputed	3
	Cancelled	6

Notice that we used **DESC** in the **GROUP BY** clause to sort the **status** in descending order. We could also specify explicitly **ASC** in the **GROUP BY** clause to sort the groups by status in ascending order.

In this tutorial, we have shown you how to use the MySQL **GROUP BY** clause to group rows into subgroups based on values of columns or expressions.

## MySQL HAVING

The **HAVING** clause is used in the **SELECT** statement to specify filter conditions for a group of rows or aggregates.

The **HAVING** clause is often used with the **GROUP BY** clause to filter groups based on a specified condition. If the **GROUP BY** clause is omitted, the **HAVING** clause behaves like the **WHERE** clause.

Notice that the **HAVING** clause applies a filter condition to each group of rows, while the **WHERE** clause applies the filter condition to each individual row.

MySQL **HAVING** clause examples

Let's take some examples of using the **HAVING** clause to see how it works. We will use the **orderdetails** table in the sample database for the demonstration.



orderdetails
* orderNumber
* productCode
quantityOrdered
priceEach
orderLineNumber

You can use **GROUP BY** clause to get order numbers, the number of items sold per order, and total sales for each:

```
1 SELECT
2     ordernumber,
3     SUM(quantityOrdered) AS itemCount,
4     SUM(priceeach*quantityOrdered) AS total
5 FROM
6     orderdetails
7 GROUP BY ordernumber;
```

	ordernumber	itemCount	total
►	10100	151	10223.83
	10101	142	10549.01
	10102	80	5494.78
	10103	541	50218.95
	10104	443	40206.20
	10105	545	53959.21
	10106	675	52151.81
	10107	229	22292.62

Now, you can find which order has total sales greater than **1000** by using the **HAVING** clause as follows:

```
1 SELECT
2     ordernumber,
3     SUM(quantityOrdered) AS itemCount,
4     SUM(priceeach*quantityOrdered) AS total
5 FROM
6     orderdetails
7 GROUP BY ordernumber
8 HAVING total > 1000;
```

	ordernumber	itemsCount	total
▶	10100	151	10223.83
	10101	142	10549.01
	10102	80	5494.78
	10103	541	50218.95
	10104	443	40206.20
	10105	545	53959.21
	10106	675	52151.81
	10107	229	22292.62

You can construct a complex condition in the **HAVING** clause using logical operators such as **OR** and **AND**. Suppose you want to find which orders have total sales greater than **1000** and contain more than **600** items, you can use the following query:

```

1 SELECT
2     ordernumber,
3     SUM(quantityOrdered) AS itemsCount,
4     SUM(priceeach*quantityOrdered) AS total
5 FROM
6     orderdetails
7 GROUP BY ordernumber
8 HAVING total > 1000 AND itemsCount > 600;

```

	ordernumber	itemsCount	total
▶	10106	675	52151.81
	10126	617	57131.92
	10135	607	55601.84
	10165	670	67392.85
	10168	642	50743.65
	10204	619	58793.53
	10207	615	59265.14
	10212	612	59830.55
	10222	717	56822.65

Suppose you want to find all orders that have shipped and total sales greater than 1500, you can join the **orderdetails** table with the **orders** table using the **INNER JOIN** clause and apply a condition on **status** column and **total** aggregate as shown in the following query:

```

1 SELECT
2     a.ordernumber, status, SUM(priceeach*quantityOrdered) total
3 FROM
4     orderdetails a
5     INNER JOIN
6     orders b ON b.ordernumber = a.ordernumber
7 GROUP BY ordernumber, status
8 HAVING status = 'Shipped' AND total > 1500;

```

	ordernumber	status	total
►	10100	Shipped	10223.83
	10101	Shipped	10549.01
	10102	Shipped	5494.78
	10103	Shipped	50218.95
	10104	Shipped	40206.20
	10105	Shipped	53959.21
	10106	Shipped	52151.81

The **HAVING** clause is only useful when you use it with the **GROUP BY** clause to generate the output of the high-level reports. For example, you can use the **HAVING** clause to answer statistical questions like finding the number orders this month, this quarter, or this year that have total sales greater than 10K.

In this tutorial, you have learned how to use the MySQL **HAVING** clause with the **GROUP BY** clause to specify filter conditions for groups of rows or aggregates.

### MySQL ROLLUP

The following statement **creates a new table** named **sales** that stores the order values summarized by product lines and years. The data comes from the **products**, **orders**, and **orderDetails** tables in the **sample database**.

```
1 CREATE TABLE sales
2 SELECT
3     productLine,
4     YEAR(orderDate) orderYear,
5     quantityOrdered * priceEach orderValue
6 FROM
7     orderDetails
8     INNER JOIN
9     orders USING (orderNumber)
10    INNER JOIN
11    products USING (productCode)
12 GROUP BY
13     productLine ,
14     YEAR(orderDate);
```

The following query returns all rows from the **sales** table:

```
1 SELECT
2     *
3 FROM
4     sales;
```

	productLine	orderYear	orderValue
▶	Vintage Cars	2003	4080.00
	Classic Cars	2003	5571.80
	Trucks and Buses	2003	3284.28
	Trains	2003	2770.95
	Ships	2003	5072.71
	Planes	2003	4825.44
	Motorcycles	2003	2440.50
	Classic Cars	2004	8124.98
	Vintage Cars	2004	2819.28
	Trains	2004	4646.88
	Ships	2004	4301.15
	Planes	2004	2857.35
	Motorcycles	2004	2598.77
	Trucks and Buses	2004	4615.64
	Motorcycles	2005	4004.88
	Classic Cars	2005	5971.35
	Vintage Cars	2005	5346.50
	Trucks and Buses	2005	6295.03
	Trains	2005	1603.20
	Ships	2005	3774.00
	Planes	2005	4018.00

## MySQL ROLLUP

A grouping set is a set of columns to which you want to group. For example, the following query creates a grouping set denoted by (productline)

```
1 SELECT
2     productline,
3     SUM(orderValue) totalOrderValue
4 FROM
5     sales
6 GROUP BY
7     productline;
```

	productline	totalOrderValue
▶	Vintage Cars	12245.78
	Classic Cars	19668.13
	Trucks and Buses	14194.95
	Trains	9021.03
	Ships	13147.86
	Planes	11700.79
	Motorcycles	9044.15

The following query creates an empty grouping set denoted by  $()$ :

```

1 SELECT
2     SUM(orderValue) totalOrderValue
3 FROM
4     sales;
```

	totalOrderValue
▶	89022.69

If you want to generate two or more grouping sets together in one query, you may use the **UNION ALL** operator as follows:

```

1 SELECT
2     productline,
3     SUM(orderValue) totalOrderValue
4 FROM
5     sales
6 GROUP BY
7     productline
8 UNION ALL
9 SELECT
10    NULL,
11    SUM(orderValue) totalOrderValue
12 FROM
13    sales;
```

Here is the query output:

	productline	totalOrderValue
▶	Vintage Cars	12245.78
	Classic Cars	19668.13
	Trucks and Buses	14194.95
	Trains	9021.03
	Ships	13147.86
	Planes	11700.79
	Motorcycles	9044.15
	NULL	89022.69

Because the **UNION ALL** requires all queries to have the same number of columns, we added **NULL** in the select list of the second query to fulfill this requirement.

The **NULL** in the **productLine** column identifies the grand total super-aggregate line.

This query is able to generate the total order values by product lines and also the grand total row.

However, it has two problems:

1. The query is quite lengthy.
2. The performance of the query may not be good since the database engine has to internally execute two separate queries and combine the result sets into one.

To solve those issues, you can use the **ROLLUP** clause.

The **ROLLUP** clause is an extension of the **GROUP BY** clause with the following syntax:

```

1 SELECT
2     select_list
3 FROM
4     table_name
5 GROUP BY
6     c1, c2, c3 WITH ROLLUP;
```

The **ROLLUP** generates multiple grouping sets based on the columns or expression specified in the **GROUP BY** clause.

See the following query:

```

1 SELECT
2     productLine,
3     SUM(orderValue) totalOrderValue
4 FROM
5     sales
6 GROUP BY
7     productline WITH ROLLUP;

```

Here is the output:

	productLine	totalOrderValue
▶	Classic Cars	19668.13
	Motorcycles	9044.15
	Planes	11700.79
	Ships	13147.86
	Trains	9021.03
	Trucks and Buses	14194.95
	Vintage Cars	12245.78
	NULL	89022.69

As clearly shown in the output, the **ROLLUP** clause generates not only the subtotals but also the grand total of the order values.

If you have more than one column specified in the **GROUP BY** clause, the **ROLLUP** clause assumes a hierarchy among the input columns.

For example:

```

1 GROUP BY c1, c2, c3 WITH ROLLUP

```

The **ROLLUP** assumes that there is the following hierarchy:

```

1 c1 > c2 > c3

```

And it generates the following grouping sets:

```

1 (c1, c2, c3)
2 (c1, c2)
3 (c1)
4 ()

```

And in case you have two columns specified in the **GROUP BY** clause:



```
1 GROUP BY c1, c2 WITH ROLLUP
```

then the **ROLLUP** generates the following grouping sets:

```
1 (c1, c2)
2 (c1)
3 ()
```

See the following query example:

```
1 SELECT
2     productLine,
3     orderYear,
4     SUM(orderValue) totalOrderValue
5 FROM
6     sales
7 GROUP BY
8     productline,
9     orderYear
10 WITH ROLLUP;
```

	productLine	orderYear	totalOrderValue
▶	Classic Cars	2003	5571.80
	Classic Cars	2004	8124.98
	Classic Cars	2005	5971.35
	Classic Cars	NULL	19668.13
	Motorcycles	2003	2440.50
	Motorcycles	2004	2598.77
	Motorcycles	2005	4004.88
	Motorcycles	NULL	9044.15
	Planes	2003	4825.44
	Planes	2004	2857.35
	Planes	2005	4018.00
	Planes	NULL	11700.79
	Ships	2003	5072.71
	Ships	2004	4301.15
	Ships	2005	3774.00
	Ships	NULL	13147.86
	Trains	2003	2770.95
	Trains	2004	4646.88
	Trains	2005	1603.20
	Trains	NULL	9021.03
	Trucks and Buses	2003	3284.28
	Trucks and Buses	2004	4615.64
	Trucks and Buses	2005	6295.03
	Trucks and Buses	NULL	14194.95
	Vintage Cars	2003	4080.00
	Vintage Cars	2004	2819.28
	Vintage Cars	2005	5346.50
	Vintage Cars	NULL	12245.78
	NULL	NULL	89022.69

The **ROLLUP** generates the subtotal row every time the product line changes and the grand total at the end of the result.

The hierarchy in this case is:

```
1 | productLine > orderYear
```

If you reverse the hierarchy, for example:

```

1 SELECT
2     orderYear,
3     productLine,
4     SUM(orderValue) totalOrderValue
5 FROM
6     sales
7 GROUP BY
8     orderYear,
9     productline
10 WITH ROLLUP;

```

	orderYear	productLine	totalOrderValue
▶	2003	Classic Cars	5571.80
	2003	Motorcycles	2440.50
	2003	Planes	4825.44
	2003	Ships	5072.71
	2003	Trains	2770.95
	2003	Trucks and Buses	3284.28
	2003	Vintage Cars	4080.00
	2003	NULL	28045.68
	2004	Classic Cars	8124.98
	2004	Motorcycles	2598.77
	2004	Planes	2857.35
	2004	Ships	4301.15
	2004	Trains	4646.88
	2004	Trucks and Buses	4615.64
	2004	Vintage Cars	2819.28
	2004	NULL	29964.05
	2005	Classic Cars	5971.35
	2005	Motorcycles	4004.88
	2005	Planes	4018.00
	2005	Ships	3774.00
	2005	Trains	1603.20
	2005	Trucks and Buses	6295.03
	2005	Vintage Cars	5346.50
	2005	NULL	31012.96
	NULL	NULL	89022.69

The **ROLLUP** generates the subtotal every time the year changes and the grand total at the end of the result set.

The hierarchy in this example is:

```
1 | orderYear > productLine
```

### **GROUPING() function**

To check whether **NULL** in the result set represents the subtotals or grand totals, you use the **GROUPING()** function.

The **GROUPING()** function returns 1 when **NULL** occurs in a supper-aggregate row, otherwise, it returns 0.

The **GROUPING()** function can be used in the select list, **HAVING** clause, and (as of MySQL 8.0.12 ) **ORDER BY** clause.

Consider the following query:

```
1 | SELECT
2 |     orderYear,
3 |     productLine,
4 |     SUM(orderValue) totalOrderValue,
5 |     GROUPING(orderYear),
6 |     GROUPING(productLine)
7 | FROM
8 |     sales
9 | GROUP BY
10 |     orderYear,
11 |     productline
12 | WITH ROLLUP;
```

The following picture shows the output:

	orderYear	productLine	totalOrderValue	GROUPING(orderYear)	GROUPING(productLine)
►	2003	Classic Cars	5571.80	0	0
	2003	Motorcycles	2440.50	0	0
	2003	Planes	4825.44	0	0
	2003	Ships	5072.71	0	0
	2003	Trains	2770.95	0	0
	2003	Trucks and Buses	3284.28	0	0
	2003	Vintage Cars	4080.00	0	0
	2003	NULL	28045.68	0	1
	2004	Classic Cars	8124.98	0	0
	2004	Motorcycles	2598.77	0	0
	2004	Planes	2857.35	0	0
	2004	Ships	4301.15	0	0
	2004	Trains	4646.88	0	0
	2004	Trucks and Buses	4615.64	0	0
	2004	Vintage Cars	2819.28	0	0
	2004	NULL	29964.05	0	1
	2005	Classic Cars	5971.35	0	0
	2005	Motorcycles	4004.88	0	0
	2005	Planes	4018.00	0	0
	2005	Ships	3774.00	0	0
	2005	Trains	1603.20	0	0
	2005	Trucks and Buses	6295.03	0	0
	2005	Vintage Cars	5346.50	0	0
	2005	NULL	31012.96	0	1
	NULL	NULL	89022.69	1	1

The **GROUPING(orderYear)** returns 1 when **NULL** in the **orderYear** column occurs in a super-aggregate row, 0 otherwise.

Similarly, the **GROUPING(productLine)** returns 1 when **NULL** in the **productLine** column occurs in a super-aggregate row, 0 otherwise.

We often use **GROUPING()** function to substitute meaningful labels for super-aggregate **NULL** values instead of displaying it directly.

The following example shows how to combine the **IF()** function with the **GROUPING()** function to substitute labels for the super-aggregate **NULL** values in **orderYear** and **productLine** columns:

```

1 SELECT
2     IF(GROUPING(orderYear),
3         'All Years',
4         orderYear) orderYear,
5     IF(GROUPING(productLine),
6         'All Product Lines',
7         productLine) productLine,
8     SUM(orderValue) totalOrderValue
9 FROM
10    sales
11 GROUP BY
12     orderYear ,
13     productline
14 WITH ROLLUP;

```

	orderYear	productLine	totalOrderValue
▶	2003	Classic Cars	5571.80
	2003	Motorcycles	2440.50
	2003	Planes	4825.44
	2003	Ships	5072.71
	2003	Trains	2770.95
	2003	Trucks and Buses	3284.28
	2003	Vintage Cars	4080.00
	2003	All Product Lines	28045.68
	2004	Classic Cars	8124.98
	2004	Motorcycles	2598.77
	2004	Planes	2857.35
	2004	Ships	4301.15
	2004	Trains	4646.88
	2004	Trucks and Buses	4615.64
	2004	Vintage Cars	2819.28
	2004	All Product Lines	29964.05
	2005	Classic Cars	5971.35
	2005	Motorcycles	4004.88
	2005	Planes	4018.00
	2005	Ships	3774.00
	2005	Trains	1603.20
	2005	Trucks and Buses	6295.03
	2005	Vintage Cars	5346.50
	2005	All Product Lines	31012.96
	All Years	All Product Lines	89022.69

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## MySQL Subquery

A MySQL subquery is a query nested within another query such as **SELECT**, **INSERT**, **UPDATE** or **DELETE**. In addition, a MySQL subquery can be nested inside another subquery.

A MySQL subquery is called an inner query while the query that contains the subquery is called an outer query. A subquery can be used anywhere that expression is used and must be closed in parentheses.

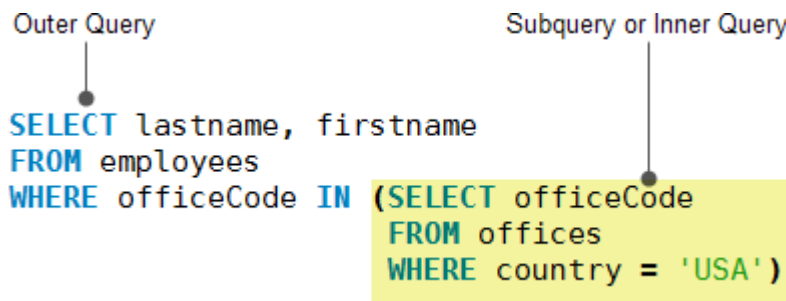
The following query returns employees who work in the offices located in the USA.

```

1  SELECT
2      lastName, firstName
3  FROM
4      employees
5  WHERE
6      officeCode IN (SELECT
7                      officeCode
8                      FROM
9                      offices
10                     WHERE
11                     country = 'USA');
```

In this example:

- The subquery returns all *office codes* of the offices located in the USA.
- The outer query selects the last name and first name of employees who work in the offices whose office codes are in the result set returned by the subquery.



When the query is executed, the subquery runs first and returns a result set. Then, this result set is used as an input of the outer query.



MySQL subquery in **WHERE** clause

We will use the **payments** table in the sample database for the demonstration.

<b>payments</b>
* customerNumber
* checkNumber
paymentDate
amount

### MySQL subquery with comparison operators

You can use comparison operators e.g., =, >, <, etc., to compare a single value returned by the subquery with the expression in the WHERE clause.

For example, the following query returns the customer who has the maximum payment.

```

1 SELECT
2   customerNumber, checkNumber, amount
3 FROM
4   payments
5 WHERE
6   amount = (SELECT
7             MAX(amount)
8             FROM
9             payments);

```

	customerNumber	checkNumber	amount
►	141	JE105477	120166.58

In addition to the equality operator, you can use other comparison operators such as greater than (>), less than(<), etc.

For example, you can find customers whose payments are greater than the average payment using a subquery. First, use a subquery to calculate the average payment using the [AVG](#) aggregate function. Then, in the outer query, query the payments that are greater than the average payment returned by the subquery.

```

1 SELECT
2     customerNumber, checkNumber, amount
3 FROM
4     payments
5 WHERE
6     amount > (SELECT
7                 AVG(amount)
8                 FROM
9                 payments);

```

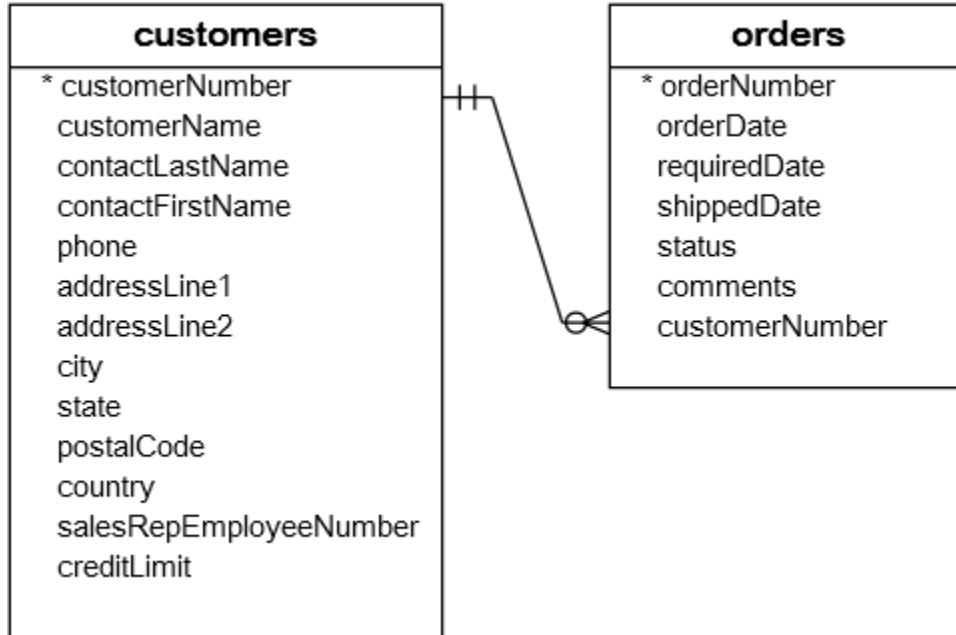
	customerNumber	checkNumber	amount
►	112	HQ55022	32641.98
	112	ND748579	33347.88
	114	GG31455	45864.03
	114	MA765515	82261.22
	114	NR27552	44894.74
	119	LN373447	47924.19
	119	NG94694	49523.67
	121	DB889831	50218.95
	121	MA302151	34638.14

### MySQL subquery with IN and NOT IN operators

If a subquery returns more than one value, you can use other operators such as IN or NOT

IN operator in the **WHERE** clause.

See the following **customers** and **orders** tables:



For example, you can use a subquery with **NOT IN** operator to find the customers who have not placed any orders as follows:

```
1 SELECT
2     customerName
3 FROM
4     customers
5 WHERE
6     customerNumber NOT IN (SELECT DISTINCT
7                             customerNumber
8                             FROM
9                                 orders);
```

customername
Havel & Zbyszek Co
American Souvenirs Inc
Porto Imports Co.
Asian Shopping Network, Co
Natürlich Autos
ANG Resellers
Messner Shopping Network
Franken Gifts, Co
BG&E Collectables

### MySQL subquery in the **FROM** clause

When you use a subquery in the **FROM** clause, the result set returned from a subquery is used as a temporary table. This table is referred to as a derived table or materialized subquery.

The following subquery finds the maximum, minimum and average number of items in sale orders:

```

1 SELECT
2     MAX(items), MIN(items), FLOOR(AVG(items))
3 FROM
4     (SELECT
5         orderNumber, COUNT(orderNumber) AS items
6     FROM
7         orderdetails
8     GROUP BY orderNumber) AS lineitems;
```

	MAX(items)	MIN(items)	FLOOR(AVG(items))
►	18	1	9

Note that the [FLOOR\(\)](#) is used to remove decimal places from the average values of items.

### MySQL correlated subquery

In the previous examples, you notice that a subquery is independent. It means that you can execute the subquery as a standalone query, for example:

```

1 SELECT
2     orderNumber,
3     COUNT(orderNumber) AS items
4 FROM
5     orderdetails
6 GROUP BY orderNumber;

```

Unlike a standalone subquery, a correlated subquery is a subquery that uses the data from the outer query. In other words, a correlated subquery depends on the outer query. A correlated subquery is evaluated once for each row in the outer query.

In the following query, we select products whose buy prices are greater than the average buy price of all products in each product line.

```

1 SELECT
2     productname,
3     buyprice
4 FROM
5     products p1
6 WHERE
7     buyprice > (SELECT
8                 AVG(buyprice)
9                 FROM
10                    products
11                 WHERE
12                    productline = p1.productline)

```

	productname	buyprice
►	1952 Alpine Renault 1300	98.58
	1996 Moto Guzzi 1100i	68.99
	2003 Harley-Davidson Eagle Drag Bike	91.02
	1972 Alfa Romeo GTA	85.68
	1962 LanciaA Delta 16V	103.42
	1968 Ford Mustang	95.34
	2001 Ferrari Enzo	95.59
	1958 Setra Bus	77.90

The inner query executes for every product line because the product line is changed for every row. Hence, the average buy price will also change. The outer query filters only products whose buy price is greater than the average buy price per product line from the subquery.

### MySQL subquery with EXISTS and NOT EXISTS

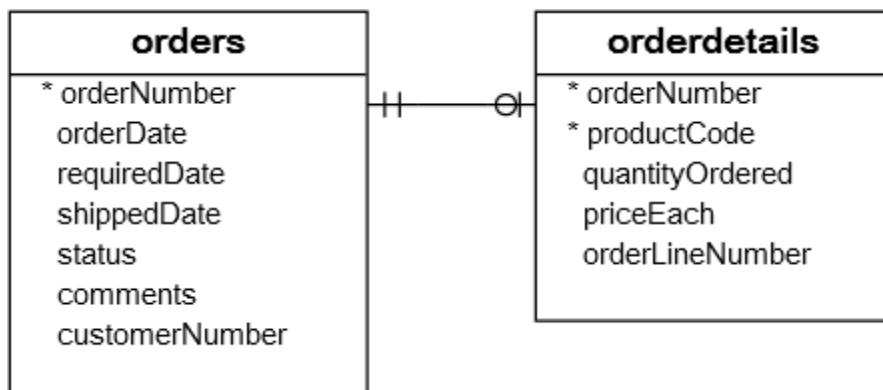
When a subquery is used with the [EXISTS](#) or [NOT EXISTS](#) operator, a subquery returns a Boolean value of **TRUE** or **FALSE**. The following query illustrates a subquery used with the **EXISTS** operator:

```
1 SELECT
2   *
3 FROM
4   table_name
5 WHERE
6   EXISTS( subquery );
```

In the query above, if the subquery returns any rows, **EXISTS subquery** returns **TRUE**, otherwise, it returns **FALSE**.

The **EXISTS** and **NOT EXISTS** are often used in the correlated subqueries.

Let's take a look at the orders and orderDetails table in the sample database:



The following query selects sales orders whose total values are greater than 60K.

```

1 SELECT
2     orderNumber,
3     SUM(priceEach * quantityOrdered) total
4 FROM
5     orderdetails
6     INNER JOIN
7     orders USING (orderNumber)
8 GROUP BY orderNumber
9 HAVING SUM(priceEach * quantityOrdered) > 60000;

```

orderNumber	total
10165	67392.85
10287	61402.00
10310	61234.67

It returns 3 rows, meaning that there are 3 sales orders whose total values are greater than 60K. You can use the query above as a correlated subquery to find customers who placed at least one sales order with the total value greater than 60K by using the **EXISTS** operator:

```

1 SELECT
2     customerNumber,
3     customerName
4 FROM
5     customers
6 WHERE
7     EXISTS( SELECT
8         orderNumber, SUM(priceEach * quantityOrdered)
9         FROM
10            orderdetails
11            INNER JOIN
12            orders USING (orderNumber)
13        WHERE
14            customerNumber = customers.customerNumber
15        GROUP BY orderNumber
16        HAVING SUM(priceEach * quantityOrdered) > 60000);

```

customerNumber	customerName
148	Dragon Souvenirs, Ltd.
259	Toms Spezialitäten, Ltd
298	Vida Sport, Ltd

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## MySQL Derived Table

A derived table is a virtual table returned from a **SELECT** statement. A derived table is similar to a **temporary table**, but using a derived table in the **SELECT** statement is much simpler than a temporary table because it does not require steps of creating the temporary table.

The term derived table and **subquery** is often used interchangeably. When a stand-alone subquery is used in the **FROM** clause of a **SELECT** statement, we call it a derived table.

The following illustrates a query that uses a derived table:

```
SELECT column_list
FROM (
    SELECT column_list
    FROM table_1
) derived_table_name
WHERE derived_table_name.c1 > 0;
```

Note that a stand-alone subquery is a subquery which can execute independently of the statement containing it.

Unlike a subquery, a derived table must have an **alias** so that you can reference its name later in the query. If a derived table does not have an alias, MySQL will issue the following error:

```
1 | Every derived table must have its own alias.
```

The following illustrates an SQL statement that uses a derived table:

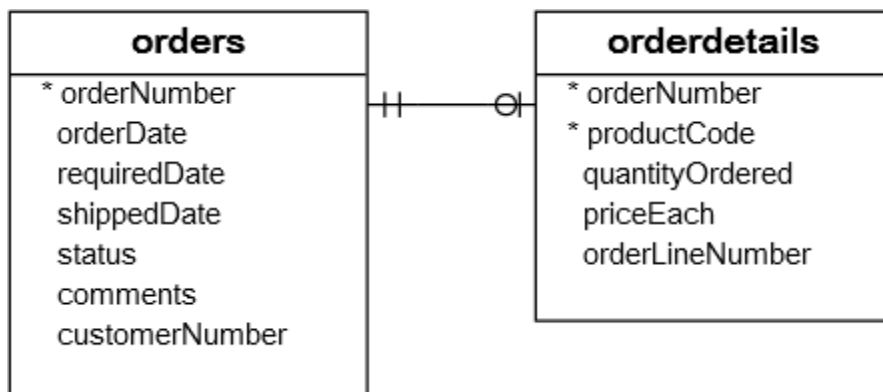
```

1 SELECT
2     column_list
3 FROM
4     (SELECT
5         column_list
6     FROM
7         table_1) derived_table_name;
8 WHERE derived_table_name.c1 > 0;

```

### A simple MySQL derived table example

The following query gets the top 5 products by sales revenue in 2003 from the **orders** and **orderdetails** tables in the **sample database**:



```

1 SELECT
2     productCode,
3     ROUND(SUM(quantityOrdered * priceEach)) sales
4 FROM
5     orderdetails
6     INNER JOIN
7     orders USING (orderNumber)
8 WHERE
9     YEAR(shippedDate) = 2003
10 GROUP BY productCode
11 ORDER BY sales DESC
12 LIMIT 5;

```

	productCode	sales
►	S18_3232	103480
	S10_1949	67985
	S12_1108	59852
	S12_3891	57403
	S12_1099	56462

You can use the result of this query as a derived table and join it with the **products** table as follows:

<b>products</b>
* productCode productName productLine productScale productVendor productDescription quantityInStock buyPrice MSRP

```

1  SELECT
2      productName, sales
3  FROM
4      (SELECT
5          productCode,
6          ROUND(SUM(quantityOrdered * priceEach)) sales
7      FROM
8          orderdetails
9      INNER JOIN orders USING (orderNumber)
10     WHERE
11         YEAR(shippedDate) = 2003
12     GROUP BY productCode
13     ORDER BY sales DESC
14     LIMIT 5) top5products2003
15  INNER JOIN
16     products USING (productCode);

```

The following shows the output of the query above:

	productName	sales
►	1992 Ferrari 360 Spider red	103480
	1952 Alpine Renault 1300	67985
	2001 Ferrari Enzo	59852
	1969 Ford Falcon	57403
	1968 Ford Mustang	56462

In this example:

1. First, the subquery executed to create a result set or derived table.
2. Then, the outer query executed that joined the **top5product2003** derived table with the **products** table using the **productCode** column.

A more complex MySQL derived table example

Suppose you have to classify the customers in the year of 2003 into 3 groups: **platinum**, **gold**, and **silver**. In addition, you need to know the number of customers in each group with the following conditions:

1. Platinum customers who have orders with the volume greater than 100K
2. Gold customers who have orders with the volume between 10K and 100K
3. Silver customers who have orders with the volume less than 10K

To construct this query, first, you need to put each customer into the respective group using **CASE** expression and GROUP BY clause as follows:

```

1 SELECT
2     customerNumber,
3     ROUND(SUM(quantityOrdered * priceEach)) sales,
4     (CASE
5         WHEN SUM(quantityOrdered * priceEach) < 10000 THEN 'Silver'
6         WHEN SUM(quantityOrdered * priceEach) BETWEEN 10000 AND 100000 THEN 'Gold'
7         WHEN SUM(quantityOrdered * priceEach) > 100000 THEN 'Platinum'
8     END) customerGroup
9 FROM
10    orderdetails
11    INNER JOIN
12    orders USING (orderNumber)
13 WHERE
14     YEAR(shippedDate) = 2003
15 GROUP BY customerNumber;

```

The following is the output of the query:

	customerNumber	sales	customerGroup
►	103	14571	Gold
	112	32642	Gold
	114	53429	Gold
	121	51710	Gold
	124	167783	Platinum
	128	34651	Gold
	129	40462	Gold
	131	22293	Gold
	141	189840	Platinum

Then, you can use this query as the derived table and perform grouping as follows:

```

1 SELECT
2     customerGroup,
3     COUNT(cg.customerGroup) AS groupCount
4 FROM
5     (SELECT
6         customerNumber,
7         ROUND(SUM(quantityOrdered * priceEach)) sales,
8         (CASE
9             WHEN SUM(quantityOrdered * priceEach) < 10000 THEN 'Silver'
10            WHEN SUM(quantityOrdered * priceEach) BETWEEN 10000 AND 100000 THEN 'Gold'
11            WHEN SUM(quantityOrdered * priceEach) > 100000 THEN 'Platinum'
12            END) customerGroup
13     FROM
14         orderdetails
15     INNER JOIN orders USING (orderNumber)
16     WHERE
17         YEAR(shippedDate) = 2003
18     GROUP BY customerNumber) cg
19 GROUP BY cg.customerGroup;

```

The query returns the customer groups and the number of customers in each.

	customerGroup	groupCount
►	Gold	61
	Silver	8
	Platinum	4

In this tutorial, you have learned how to use the MySQL derived tables which are subqueries in the FROM clause to simplify complex queries.

## MySQL EXISTS

The **EXISTS** operator is a Boolean operator that returns either true or false.

The **EXISTS** operator is often used in a **subquery** to test for an “exist” condition.

The following illustrates the common usage of the **EXISTS** operator.

```
1 SELECT
2     select_list
3 FROM
4     a_table
5 WHERE
6     [NOT] EXISTS(subquery);
```

If the subquery returns any row, the **EXISTS** operator returns true, otherwise, it returns false.

In addition, the **EXISTS** operator terminates further processing immediately once it finds a matching row. Because of this characteristic, you can use the **EXISTS** operator to improve the performance of the query in some cases.

The **NOT** operator negates the **EXISTS** operator. In other words, the **NOT EXISTS** returns true if the subquery returns no row, otherwise it returns false.

You can use **SELECT \***, **SELECT column**, **SELECT a\_constant**, or anything in the subquery.

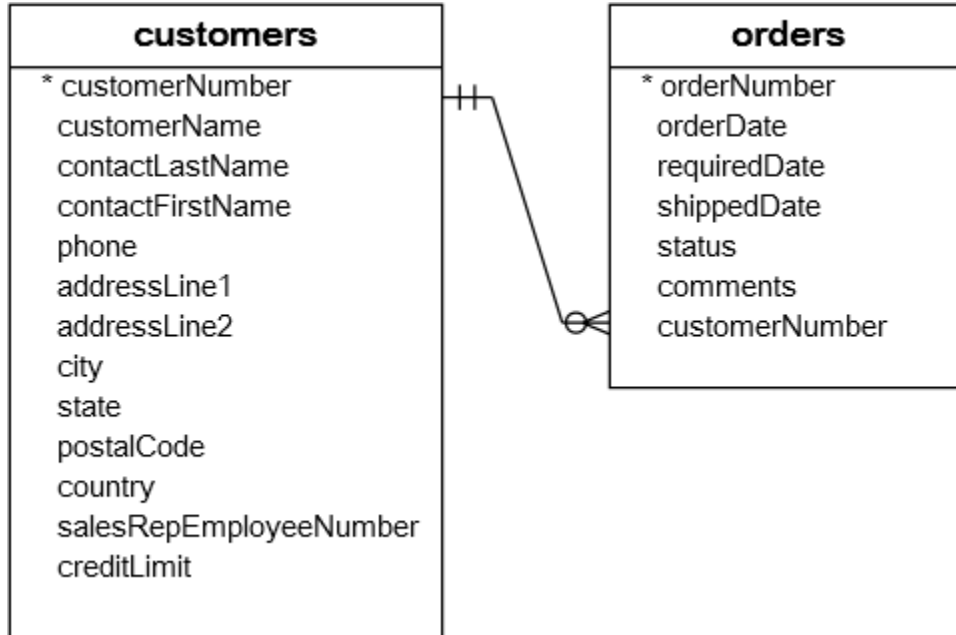
The results are the same because MySQL ignores the **select\_list** that appears in the SELECT clause.

### MySQL EXISTS examples

Let's take some examples of using the **EXISTS** operator to understand how it works.

### MySQL SELECT EXISTS example

Let's take a look at the **customers** and **orders** tables in the sample database.



Suppose you want to find the customer who has placed at least one sales order, you use the **EXISTS** operator as follows:

```
1 SELECT
2     customerNumber, customerName
3 FROM
4     customers
5 WHERE
6     EXISTS( SELECT
7             1
8             FROM
9                 orders
10            WHERE
11                orders.customerNumber = customers.customerNumber);
```



	customerNumber	customerName
►	103	Atelier graphique
	112	Signal Gift Stores
	114	Australian Collectors, Co.
	119	La Rochelle Gifts
	121	Baane Mini Imports
	124	Mini Gifts Distributors Ltd.
	128	Blauer See Auto, Co.
	129	Mini Wheels Co.
	131	Land of Toys Inc.

For each row in the **customers** table, the query checks the **customerNumber** in the **orders** table.

If the **customerNumber**, which appears in the **customers** table, exists in the **orders** table, the subquery returns the first matching row. As the result, the **EXISTS** operator returns true and stops scanning the **orders** table. Otherwise, the subquery returns no row and the **EXISTS** operator returns false.

To get the customer who has not placed any sales orders, you use the **NOT EXISTS** operator as the following statement:

```

1 SELECT
2     customerNumber, customerName
3 FROM
4     customers
5 WHERE
6     NOT EXISTS( SELECT
7                 1
8                 FROM
9                     orders
10                WHERE
11                    orders.customerNumber = customers.customerNumber);

```

	customerNumber	customerName
▶	125	Havel & Zbyszek Co
	168	American Souvenirs Inc
	169	Porto Imports Co.
	206	Asian Shopping Network, Co
	223	Natürlich Autos
	237	ANG Resellers
	247	Messner Shopping Network
	273	Franken Gifts, Co
	293	BG&E Collectables

### MySQL UPDATE EXISTS example

Assume that you have to update the phone's extensions of the employees who work at the San Francisco office.

To find employees who work at the **San Francisco** office, you use the **EXISTS** operator as the following **UPDATE** statement:

```
1 SELECT
2     employeenumber, firstname, lastname, extension
3 FROM
4     employees
5 WHERE
6     EXISTS( SELECT
7             1
8             FROM
9                 offices
10            WHERE
11                city = 'San Francisco'
12                AND offices.officeCode = employees.officeCode);
```

	employeenumber	firstname	lastname	extension
►	1002	Diane	Murphy	x5800
	1056	Mary	Patterson	x4611
	1076	Jeff	Firrelli	x9273
	1143	Anthony	Bow	x5428
	1165	Leslie	Jennings	x3291
	1166	Leslie	Thompson	x4065

Suppose you want to add the number 5 at every phone's extension of the employees who work at the San Francisco office, you can use the **EXISTS** operator in **WHERE** clause of the **UPDATE** statement as follows:

```

1 UPDATE employees
2 SET
3     extension = CONCAT(extension, '1')
4 WHERE
5     EXISTS( SELECT
6             1
7             FROM
8                 offices
9             WHERE
10                city = 'San Francisco'
11                AND offices.officeCode = employees.officeCode);

```

### MySQL INSERT EXISTS example

Suppose you want to archive the customers who have not placed any sales order in a separate table. To achieve this, you follow the steps below.

First, create a new table for archiving the customers by copying the structure from the **customers** table.

```

1 CREATE TABLE customers_archive LIKE customers;

```

Second, insert the customers who have not placed any sales order into the **customers\_archive** table using the following **INSERT** statement.

```

1 INSERT INTO customers_archive
2 SELECT * FROM customers
3 WHERE NOT EXISTS( SELECT
4     1
5     FROM
6     orders
7     WHERE
8     orders.customernumber = customers.customernumber);

```

Third, query data from the **customers\_archive** table to verify the insert operation.

```

1 SELECT
2     *
3 FROM
4     customers_archive;

```

	customerNumber	customerName	contactLastName	contactFirstName	phone	addressLine1
▶	125	Havel & Zbyszek Co	Piestrzeniewicz	Zbyszek	(26) 642-7555	ul. Filtrowa 68
	168	American Souvenirs Inc	Franco	Keith	2035557845	149 Spinnaker Dr.
	169	Porto Imports Co.	de Castro	Isabel	(1) 356-5555	Estrada da saúde n. 58
	206	Asian Shopping Network, Co	Walker	Brydey	+612 9411 1555	Suntec Tower Three
	223	Natürlich Autos	Kloss	Horst	0372-555188	Taucherstraße 10
	237	ANG Resellers	Camino	Alejandra	(91) 745 6555	Gran Vía, 1
	247	Messner Shopping Network	Messner	Renate	069-0555984	Magazinweg 7

### MySQL DELETE EXISTS example

One final task in archiving the customers data is to delete the customers that exist in the **customers\_archive** table from the **customers** table.

To do this, you use the **EXISTS** operator in **WHERE** clause of the **DELETE** statement as follows:

```
1 DELETE FROM customers
2 WHERE
3     EXISTS( SELECT
4         1
5     FROM
6         customers_archive a
7
8     WHERE
9         a.customernumber = customers.customerNumber);
```

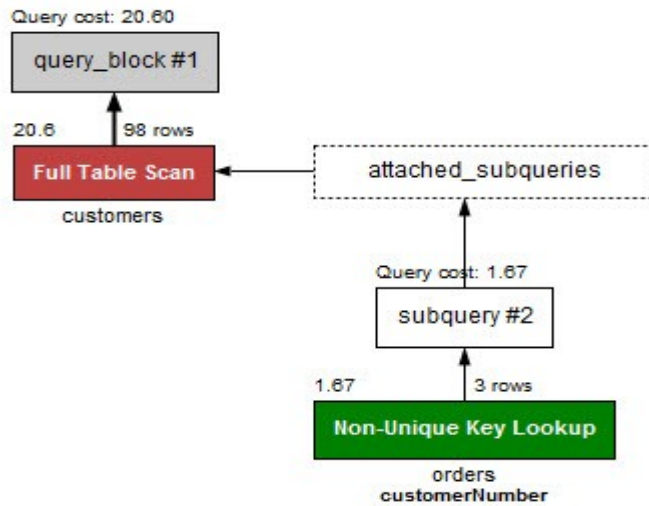
### MySQL EXISTS vs. IN

To find the customer who has placed at least one sales order, you can use the IN operator as follows:

```
1 SELECT
2     customerNumber, customerName
3 FROM
4     customers
5 WHERE
6     customerNumber IN (SELECT
7         customerNumber
8     FROM
9         orders);
```

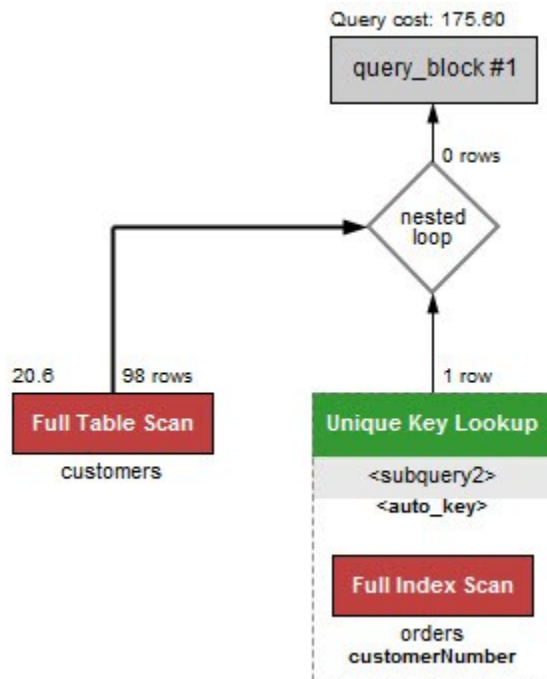
Let's compare the query that uses the IN operator with the one that uses the EXISTS operator by using the EXPLAIN statement.

```
1 EXPLAIN SELECT
2     customerNumber, customerName
3 FROM
4     customers
5 WHERE
6     EXISTS( SELECT
7         1
8     FROM
9         orders
10    WHERE
11        orders.customernumber = customers.customernumber);
```



Now, check the performance of the query that uses the **IN** operator.

```
1 SELECT
2     customerNumber, customerName
3 FROM
4     customers
5 WHERE
6     customerNumber IN (SELECT
7                         customerNumber
8                         FROM
9                         orders);
```



The query that uses the **EXISTS** operator is much faster than the one that uses the **IN** operator. The reason is that the **EXISTS** operator works based on the “at least found” principle. It returns true and stops scanning table once at least one matching row found.

On the other hands, when the **IN** operator is combined with a subquery, MySQL must process the subquery first and then uses the result of the subquery to process the whole query.

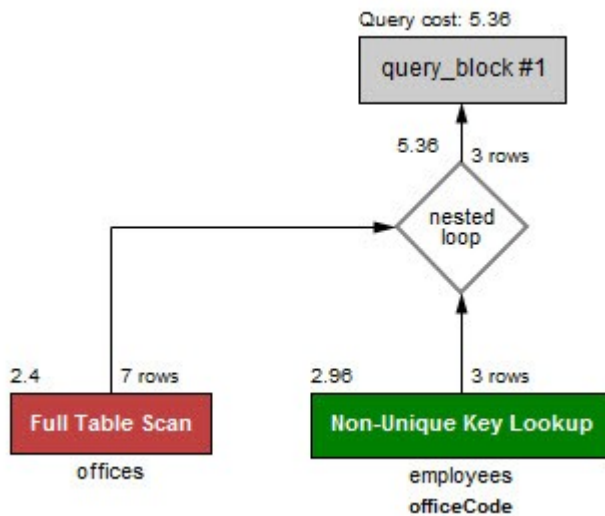
The general rule of thumb is that if the subquery contains a large volume of data, the **EXISTS** operator provides better performance.

However, the query that uses the **IN** operator will perform faster if the result set returned from the subquery is very small.

For example, the following statement uses the **IN** operator selects all employees who work at the office in San Francisco.

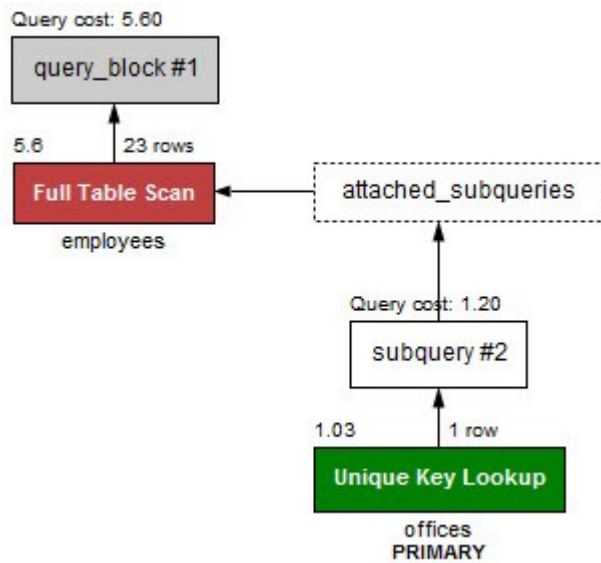
```
1 SELECT
2     employeenumber, firstname, lastname
3 FROM
4     employees
5 WHERE
6     officeCode IN (SELECT
7                     officeCode
8                     FROM
9                         offices
10                    WHERE
11                        offices.city = 'San Francisco');
```

Let's check the performance of the query.



It is a little bit faster than the query that uses the **EXISTS** operator that we mentioned in the first example. See the performance of the query that uses the **EXIST** operator below:





In this tutorial, we have discussed the MySQL EXISTS operator and introduced you to some guidelines for using the **EXISTS** operator to improve the query's performance.

## MySQL UNION

MySQL **UNION** operator

MySQL **UNION** operator allows you to combine two or more result sets of queries into a single result set. The following illustrates the syntax of the **UNION** operator:

```

1 SELECT column_list
2 UNION [DISTINCT | ALL]
3 SELECT column_list
4 UNION [DISTINCT | ALL]
5 SELECT column_list
6 ...

```

To combine result set of two or more queries using the **UNION** operator, there are the basic rules that you must follow:

- First, the number and the orders of columns that appear in all SELECT statements must be the same.
- Second, the data types of columns must be the same or convertible.

By default, the **UNION** operator removes duplicate rows even if you don't specify the DISTINCT operator explicitly.

Let's see the following sample tables: **t1** and **t2**:

```
1 DROP TABLE IF EXISTS t1;
2 DROP TABLE IF EXISTS t2;
3
4 CREATE TABLE t1 (
5     id INT PRIMARY KEY
6 );
7
8 CREATE TABLE t2 (
9     id INT PRIMARY KEY
10 );
11
12 INSERT INTO t1 VALUES (1),(2),(3);
13 INSERT INTO t2 VALUES (2),(3),(4);
```

The following statement combines result sets returned from **t1** and **t2** tables:

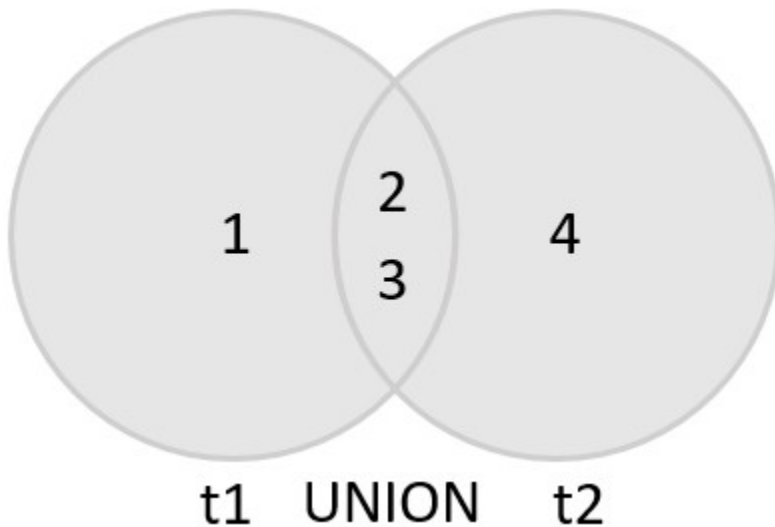
```
1 SELECT id
2 FROM t1
3 UNION
4 SELECT id
5 FROM t2;
```

The final result set contains the distinct values from separate result sets returned by the queries:

```
1 +----+
2 | id |
3 +----+
4 |  1 |
5 |  2 |
6 |  3 |
7 |  4 |
8 +----+
9 4 rows in set (0.00 sec)
```

Because the rows with value 2 and 3 are duplicates, the **UNION** operator removed it and kept only distinct ones.

The following Venn diagram illustrates the union of two result sets that come from **t1** and **t2** tables:



If you use the **UNION ALL** explicitly, the duplicate rows, if available, remain in the result. Because **UNION ALL** does not need to handle duplicates, it performs faster than **UNION DISTINCT**.

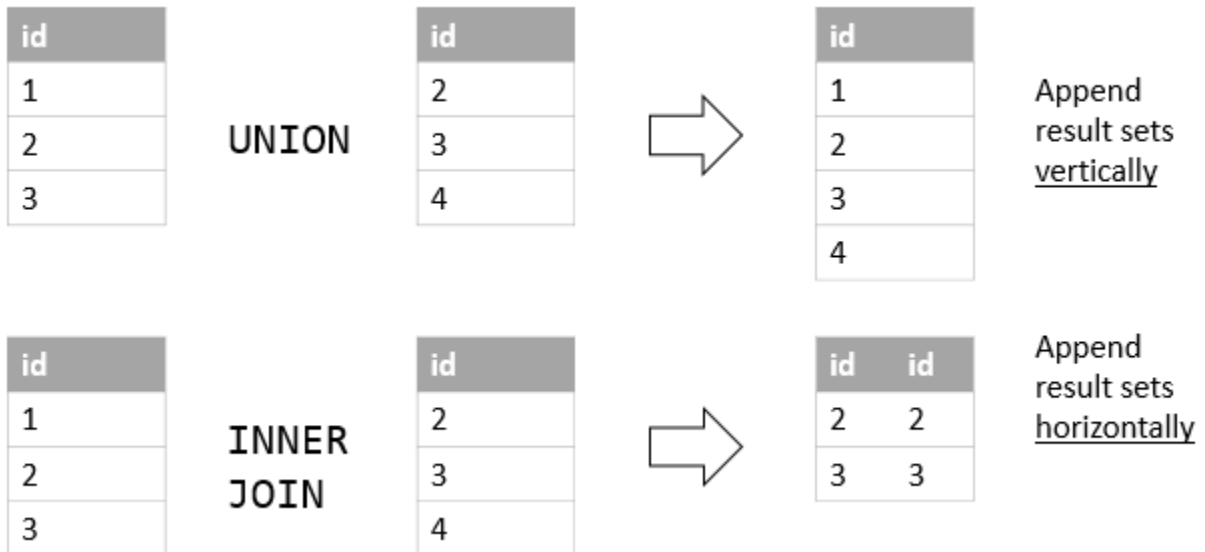
```
1 SELECT id
2 FROM t1
3 UNION ALL
4 SELECT id
5 FROM t2;
```

```
1  +-----+
2  | id |
3  +-----+
4  |  1 |
5  |  2 |
6  |  3 |
7  |  2 |
8  |  3 |
9  |  4 |
10 +-----+
11 6 rows in set (0.00 sec)
```

As you can see, the duplicates appear in the combined result set because of the **UNION ALL** operation.

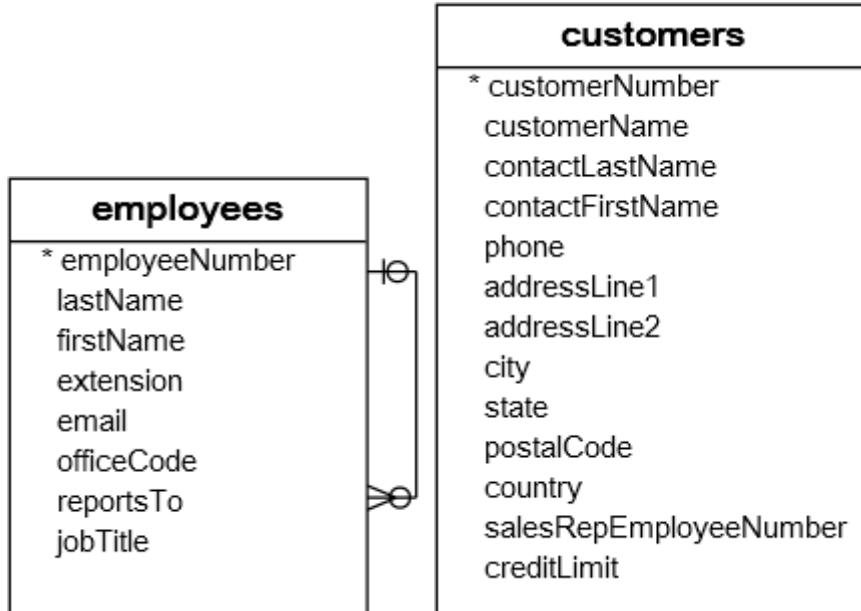
**UNION vs. JOIN**

A **JOIN** combines result sets horizontally, a **UNION** appends result set vertically. The following picture illustrates the difference between **UNION** and **JOIN**:



MySQL **UNION** and column alias examples

We will use the **customers** and **employees** tables in the sample database for the demonstration:



Suppose you want to combine the first name and last name of both employees and customers into a single result set, you can use the **UNION** operator as follows:

```
1 SELECT
2     firstName,
3     lastName
4 FROM
5     employees
6 UNION
7 SELECT
8     contactFirstName,
9     contactLastName
10 FROM
11     customers;
```

Here is the output:

firstName	lastName
Jean	King
Peter	Ferguson
Janine	Labrune
Jonas	Bergulfsen
Susan	Nelson
Zbyszek	Piestrzeniewi
Roland	Keitel
Julie	Murphy

As you can see, the MySQL **UNION** operator uses the column names of the first **SELECT** statement for labeling the columns in the output.

If you want to use your own column aliases, you need to specify them explicitly in the first **SELECT** statement as shown in the following example:

```

1 SELECT
2     concat(firstName, ' ', lastName) fullname
3 FROM
4     employees
5 UNION SELECT
6     concat(contactFirstName, ' ', contactLastName)
7 FROM
8     customers;
```

fullname
▶ Diane Murphy
Mary Patterson
Jeff Firrelli
William Patterson
Gerard Bondur
Anthony Bow
Leslie Jennings
Leslie Thompson
Julie Firrelli
Steve Patterson

In this example, instead of using the default column label from the first query, we used a column alias **fullname** for labeling the output.

## MySQL UNION and ORDER BY

If you want to sort the result of a union, you use an **ORDER BY** clause in the last **SELECT** statement as shown in the following example:

```

1 SELECT
2     concat(firstName, ' ', lastName) fullname
3 FROM
4     employees
5 UNION SELECT
6     concat(contactFirstName, ' ', contactLastName)
7 FROM
8     customers
9 ORDER BY fullname;
```

fullname
Adrian Huxley
Akiko Shimamura
Alejandra Camino
Alexander Feuer
Alexander Semenov
Allen Nelson
Andy Fixter
Ann Brown
Anna O'Hara
Annette Roulet

Notice that if you place the **ORDER BY** clause in each **SELECT** statement, it will not affect the order of the rows in the final result set.

MySQL also provides you with alternative option to sort a result set based on column position using **ORDER BY** clause as follows:

```

1 SELECT
2     concat(firstName, ' ', lastName) fullname
3 FROM
4     employees
5 UNION SELECT
6     concat(contactFirstName, ' ', contactLastName)
7 FROM
8     customers
9 ORDER BY 1;
```



In this tutorial, you have learned how to use MySQL **UNION** statement to combine data from multiple queries into a single result set.

### MySQL MINUS

**MINUS** is one of three set operations in the SQL standard that includes **UNION**, **INTERSECT**, and **MINUS**.

**MINUS** compares results of two queries and returns distinct rows from the first query that aren't output by the second query.

The following illustrates the syntax of the **MINUS** operator:

```
1 SELECT column_list_1 FROM table_1
2 MINUS
3 SELECT columns_list_2 FROM table_2;
```

The basic rules for a query that uses **MINUS** operator are the following:

- The number and order of columns in both **column\_list\_1** and **column\_list\_2** must be the same.
- The data types of the corresponding columns in both queries must be compatible.

Suppose we have two tables' **t1** and **t2** with the following structure and data:

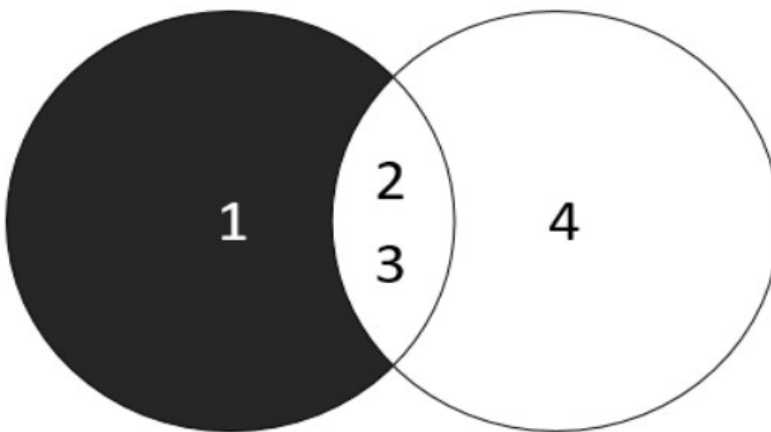
```
1 CREATE TABLE t1 (
2     id INT PRIMARY KEY
3 );
4
5 CREATE TABLE t2 (
6     id INT PRIMARY KEY
7 );
8
9 INSERT INTO t1 VALUES (1),(2),(3);
10 INSERT INTO t2 VALUES (2),(3),(4);
```

The following query returns distinct values from the query of the **t1** table that are not found on the result of the query of the **t2** table.

```
1 SELECT id FROM t1
2 MINUS
3 SELECT id FROM t2;
```



The following Venn diagram illustrates the **MINUS** operator:



Note that some database systems e.g., Microsoft SQL Server, PostgreSQL, etc., use the **EXCEPT** instead of **MINUS**, which have the same function.

### MySQL **MINUS** operator

Unfortunately, MySQL does not support **MINUS** operator. However, you can use the [MySQL join](#) to simulate it.

To emulate the **MINUS** of two queries, you use the following syntax:

```
1 SELECT
2     column_list
3 FROM
4     table_1
5     LEFT JOIN table_2 ON join_predicate
6 WHERE
7     table_2.id IS NULL;
```

For example, the following query uses the **LEFT JOIN** clause to return the same result as the **MINUS** operator:

```
1 SELECT
2     id
3 FROM
4     t1
5     LEFT JOIN
6     t2 USING (id)
7 WHERE
8     t2.id IS NULL;
```

In this tutorial, you have learned about the SQL MINUS operator and how to implement MySQL MINUS operator using **LEFT JOIN** clause.

## MySQL INTERSECT

The **INTERSECT** operator is a set operator that returns only distinct rows of two queries or more queries.

The following illustrates the syntax of the **INTERSECT** operator.

```
1 (SELECT column_list
2 FROM table_1)
3 INTERSECT
4 (SELECT column_list
5 FROM table_2);
```

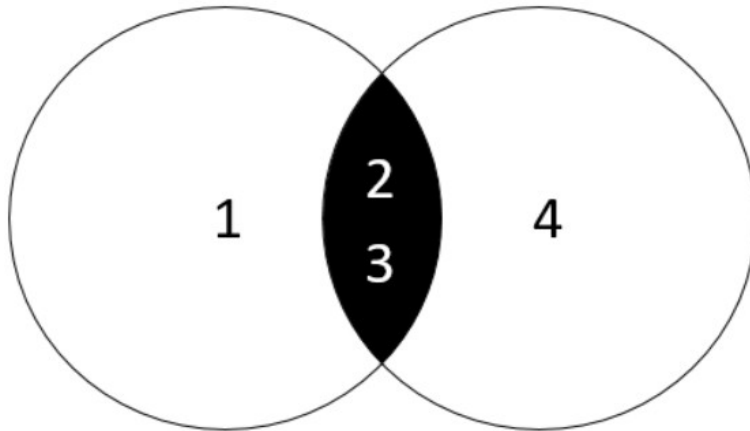
The **INTERSECT** operator compares the result of two queries and returns the distinct rows that are output by both left and right queries.

To use the **INTERSECT** operator for two queries, the following rules are applied:

1. The order and the number of columns must be the same.

2. The data types of the corresponding columns must be compatible.

The following diagram illustrates the **INTERSECT** operator.



The left query produces a result set of (1,2,3).

The right query returns a result set of (2,3,4).

The **INTERSECT** operator returns the distinct rows of both result sets which include (2,3).

Unlike the **UNION** operator, the **INTERSECT** operator returns the intersection between two circles.

Note that SQL standard has three set operators that include **UNION**, **INTERSECT**, and **MINUS**.

### MySQL **INTERSECT** simulation

Unfortunately, MySQL does not support the **INTERSECT** operator. However, you can simulate the **INTERSECT** operator.

Let's create some sample data for the demonstration.

The following statements create tables **t1** and **t2**, and then insert data into both tables.

```
1 CREATE TABLE t1 (  
2     id INT PRIMARY KEY  
3 );  
4  
5 CREATE TABLE t2 LIKE t1;  
6  
7 INSERT INTO t1(id) VALUES(1),(2),(3);  
8  
9 INSERT INTO t2(id) VALUES(2),(3),(4);
```

The following query returns rows from the **t1** table.

```
1 SELECT id  
2 FROM t1;
```

```
1 id  
2 ---  
3 1  
4 2  
5 3
```

The following query returns the rows from the **t2** table:

```
1 SELECT id  
2 FROM t2;
```

```
1 id  
2 ---  
3 2  
4 3  
5 4
```

### **Simulate MySQL INTERSECT operator using DISTINCT operator and INNER JOIN clause.**

The following statement uses **DISTINCT** operator and **INNER JOIN** clause to return the distinct rows in both tables:

```

1 SELECT DISTINCT
2   id
3 FROM t1
4   INNER JOIN t2 USING(id);

```

```

1 id
2 ---
3 2
4 3

```

How it works.

1. The **INNER JOIN** clause returns rows from both left and right tables.
2. The **DISTINCT** operator removes the duplicate rows.

### Simulate MySQL INTERSECT operator using IN operator and subquery

The following statement uses the **IN** operator and a [subquery](#) to return the intersection of the two result sets.

```

1 SELECT DISTINCT
2   id
3 FROM
4   t1
5 WHERE
6   id IN (SELECT
7         id
8         FROM
9         t2);

```

```

1 id
2 ---
3 2
4 3

```

How it works.

1. The subquery returns the first result set.
2. The outer query uses the **IN** operator to select only values that are in the first result set.  
The **DISTINCT** operator ensures that only distinct values are selected.

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## MySQL Insert

The **INSERT** statement allows you to insert one or more rows into a table. The following illustrates the syntax of the **INSERT** statement:

```
1 INSERT INTO table(c1, c2, ...)  
2 VALUES (v1, v2, ...);
```

In this syntax,

- First, specify the table name and a list of comma-separated columns inside parentheses after the **INSERT INTO** clause.
- Then, put a comma-separated list of values of the corresponding columns inside the parentheses following the **VALUES** keyword.

The number of columns and values must be the same. In addition, the positions of columns must be corresponding with the positions of their values.

To add multiple rows into a table using a single **INSERT** statement, you use the following syntax:

```
1 INSERT INTO table(c1, c2, ...)  
2 VALUES  
3     (v11, v12, ...),  
4     (v21, v22, ...),  
5     ...  
6     (vnn, vn2, ...);
```

In this syntax, rows are separated by commas in the **VALUES** clause.

## MySQL INSERT examples

Let's create a new table named **tasks** for practicing the **INSERT** statement.



```

1 CREATE TABLE IF NOT EXISTS tasks (
2     task_id INT AUTO_INCREMENT,
3     title VARCHAR(255) NOT NULL,
4     start_date DATE,
5     due_date DATE,
6     priority TINYINT NOT NULL DEFAULT 3,
7     description TEXT,
8     PRIMARY KEY (task_id)
9 );

```

### Using simple INSERT statement example

The following statement adds a new row to the **tasks** table:

```

1 INSERT INTO
2 tasks(title,priority)
3 VALUES
4 ('Learn MySQL INSERT Statement',1);

```

MySQL returns the following message after the statement executed:

```

1 1 row(s) affected

```

It means that one row has been inserted into the **tasks** table successfully.

You can verify it by using the following query:

```

1 SELECT
2 *
3 FROM
4 tasks;

```

Here is the output:

	task_id	title	start_date	due_date	priority	description
►	1	Learn MySQL INSERT Statement	NULL	NULL	1	NULL

In this example, we specified the values for only **title** and **priority** columns. For other columns, MySQL uses the default values.

The **task\_id** column is an auto-increment column. It means that MySQL generates a sequential integer whenever a row is added to the table.

The `start_date`, `due_date`, and `description` columns use `NULL` as the default value, therefore, MySQL uses `NULL` to insert into those columns if you don't specify their values in the `INSERT` statement.

### Inserting rows using default values

If you want to insert a default value into a column, you have two ways:

- First, ignore both column name and its value in the `INSERT` statement.
- Second, specify the column name in the `INSERT INTO` clause and use the `DEFAULT` keyword in the `VALUES` clause.

The following example demonstrates how the second way:

```
1 INSERT INTO
2   tasks(title,priority)
3 VALUES
4   ('Understanding DEFAULT keyword in INSERT statement',DEFAULT);
```

In this example, we specified the `priority` column and the `DEFAULT` keyword.

Because the default value for the `priority` column is 3 as declared in the table definition:

```
1 priority TINYINT NOT NULL DEFAULT 3
```

MySQL uses the number 3 to insert into the `priority` column.

The following shows the contents of the `tasks` table after the insert:

```
1 SELECT
2   *
3 FROM
4   tasks;
```

	task_id	title	start_date	due_date	priority	description
▶	1	Learn MySQL INSERT Statement	NULL	NULL	1	NULL
	2	Understanding DEFAULT keyword in INSERT	NULL	NULL	3	NULL

### Inserting dates into the table

To insert a literal date value into a column, you use the following format:

```
1 'YYYY-MM-DD'
```

In this format:

- YYYY represents a four-digit year e.g., 2018.
- MM represents a two-digit month e.g., 01, 02, and 12.
- DD represents a two-digit day e.g., 01, 02, 30.

The following example adds a new row to the **tasks** table with the start and due date values:

```
1 INSERT INTO tasks(title, start_date, due_date)
2 VALUES('Insert date into table','2018-01-09','2018-09-15');
```

The following picture shows the contents of the **tasks** table after the insert:

	task_id	title	start_date	due_date	priority	description
▶	1	Learn MySQL INSERT Statement	NULL	NULL	1	NULL
	2	Understanding DEFAULT keyword in INSERT statement	NULL	NULL	3	NULL
	3	Insert date into table	2018-01-09	2018-09-15	3	NULL

It is possible to use expressions in the VALUES clause. For example, the following statement adds a new task using the current date for start date and due date columns:

```
1 INSERT INTO tasks(title, start_date, due_date)
2 VALUES
3 ('Use current date for the task', CURRENT_DATE(), CURRENT_DATE())
```

In this example, we used the **CURRENT\_DATE()** function as the values for the **start\_date** and **due\_date** columns. Note that the **CURRENT\_DATE()** function is a date function that returns the current system date.

Here are the contents of the **tasks** table after insert:

	task_id	title	start_date	due_date	priority	description
▶	1	Learn MySQL INSERT Statement	NULL	NULL	1	NULL
	2	Understanding DEFAULT keyword in INSERT statement	NULL	NULL	3	NULL
	3	Insert date into table	2018-01-09	2018-09-15	3	NULL
	4	Use current date for the task	2018-09-02	2018-09-02	3	NULL

## Inserting multiple rows example

The following statement adds three rows to the **tasks** table:

```
1 INSERT INTO tasks(title, priority)
2 VALUES
3 ('My first task', 1),
4 ('It is the second task', 2),
5 ('This is the third task of the week', 3);
```

In this example, each row data is specified as a list of values in the **VALUES** clause.

MySQL returns the following message:

```
1 3 row(s) affected Records: 3 Duplicates: 0 Warnings: 0
```

It means that three rows have been inserted successfully with no duplicates or warnings.

The **tasks** table has the following data after insert:

	task_id	title	start_date	due_date	priority	description
▶	1	Learn MySQL INSERT Statement	NULL	NULL	1	NULL
	2	Understanding DEFAULT keyword in INSERT statement	NULL	NULL	3	NULL
	3	Insert date into table	2018-01-09	2018-09-15	3	NULL
	4	Use current date for the task	2018-09-02	2018-09-02	3	NULL
	5	My first task	NULL	NULL	1	NULL
	6	It is the second task	NULL	NULL	2	NULL
	7	This is the third task of the week	NULL	NULL	3	NULL

In this tutorial, you have learned how to use the MySQL **INSERT** statement to add one or more rows into a table.

## MySQL INSERT INTO SELECT

In the previous tutorial, you learned how to add one or more rows into a table using the **INSERT** statement with a list of column values specified in the **VALUES** clause.

```
1 INSERT INTO table_name(c1,c2,...)
2 VALUES(v1,v2,...);
```

Besides using row values in the **VALUES** clause, you can use the result of a **SELECT** statement as the data source for the **INSERT** statement.

The following illustrates the syntax of the **INSERT INTO SELECT** statement:

```
1 INSERT INTO table_name(column_list)
2 SELECT
3     select_list
4 FROM
5     another_table;
```

As you can see, instead of using the **VALUES** clause, you can use a **SELECT** statement.

The **SELECT** statement can retrieve data from one or more tables.

The **INSERT INTO SELECT** statement is very useful when you want to copy data from other tables to a table.

MySQL **INSERT INTO SELECT** example

Suppose we have the following **suppliers** table with the following structure:

```
1 CREATE TABLE suppliers (
2     supplierNumber INT AUTO_INCREMENT,
3     supplierName VARCHAR(50) NOT NULL,
4     phone VARCHAR(50),
5     addressLine1 VARCHAR(50),
6     addressLine2 VARCHAR(50),
7     city VARCHAR(50),
8     state VARCHAR(50),
9     postalCode VARCHAR(50),
10    country VARCHAR(50),
11    customerNumber INT
12    PRIMARY KEY (supplierNumber)
13 );
```

Note that you will learn how to create a new table in the future tutorial. For now, you just need to execute this statement to create the **suppliers** table.

Because of the new contracts, all customers from California, USA become the company's suppliers. The following query finds all customers in California, USA:

```

1 SELECT
2     customerNumber,
3     customerName,
4     phone,
5     addressLine1,
6     addressLine2,
7     city,
8     state,
9     postalCode,
10    country
11 FROM
12     customers
13 WHERE
14     country = 'USA' AND
15     state = 'CA';

```

	customerNumber	customerName	phone	addressLine1	addressLine2	city	state	postalCode	country
►	124	Mini Gifts Distributors Ltd.	4155551450	5677 Strong St.	NULL	San Rafael	CA	97562	USA
	129	Mini Wheels Co.	6505555787	5557 North Pendale Street	NULL	San Francisco	CA	94217	USA
	161	Technics Stores Inc.	6505556809	9408 Furth Circle	NULL	Burlingame	CA	94217	USA
	205	Toys4GrownUps.com	6265557265	78934 Hillside Dr.	NULL	Pasadena	CA	90003	USA
	219	Boards & Toys Co.	3105552373	4097 Douglas Av.	NULL	Glendale	CA	92561	USA
	239	Collectable Mini Designs Co.	7605558146	361 Furth Circle	NULL	San Diego	CA	91217	USA
	321	Corporate Gift Ideas Co.	6505551386	7734 Strong St.	NULL	San Francisco	CA	94217	USA
	347	Men 'R' US Retailers, Ltd.	2155554369	6047 Douglas Av.	NULL	Los Angeles	CA	91003	USA
	450	The Sharp Gifts Warehouse	4085553659	3086 Ingle Ln.	NULL	San Jose	CA	94217	USA
	475	West Coast Collectables Co.	3105553722	3675 Furth Circle	NULL	Burbank	CA	94019	USA
	487	Signal Collectibles Ltd.	4155554312	2793 Furth Circle	NULL	Brisbane	CA	94217	USA

Now, you need to insert these customers from the **customers** table into the **suppliers** table. The following **INSERT INTO SELECT** statement helps you to do so:

```
1 INSERT INTO suppliers (  
2     supplierName,  
3     phone,  
4     addressLine1,  
5     addressLine2,  
6     city,  
7     state,  
8     postalCode,  
9     country,  
10    customerNumber  
11 )  
12 SELECT  
13     customerName,  
14     phone,  
15     addressLine1,  
16     addressLine2,  
17     city,  
18     state ,  
19     postalCode,  
20     country,  
21     customerNumber  
22 FROM  
23     customers  
24 WHERE  
25     country = 'USA' AND  
26     state = 'CA';
```

MySQL returned the following message:

```
1 11 row(s) affected Records: 11 Duplicates: 0 Warnings: 0
```

It means that 11 rows from the **customers** table have been inserted into the **suppliers** table successfully with no duplicates or warnings.

The following query returns the data from the **suppliers** table after insert:

```

1 SELECT
2   *
3 FROM
4   suppliers;

```

	supplierNumber	supplierName	phone	addressLine1	addressLine2	city	state	postalCode	country	customerNumber
3		Technics Stores Inc.	6505556809	9408 Furth Circle	NULL	Burlingame	CA	94217	USA	161
4		Toys4GrownUps.com	6265557265	78934 Hillside Dr.	NULL	Pasadena	CA	90003	USA	205
5		Boards & Toys Co.	3105552373	4097 Douglas Av.	NULL	Glendale	CA	92561	USA	219
6		Collectable Mini Designs Co.	7605558146	361 Furth Circle	NULL	San Diego	CA	91217	USA	239
7		Corporate Gift Ideas Co.	6505551386	7734 Strong St.	NULL	San Francisco	CA	94217	USA	321
8		Men 'R' US Retailers, Ltd.	2155554369	6047 Douglas Av.	NULL	Los Angeles	CA	91003	USA	347
9		The Sharp Gifts Warehouse	4085553659	3086 Ingle Ln.	NULL	San Jose	CA	94217	USA	450
10		West Coast Collectables Co.	3105553722	3675 Furth Circle	NULL	Burbank	CA	94019	USA	475
11		Signal Collectibles Ltd.	4155554312	2793 Furth Circle	NULL	Brisbane	CA	94217	USA	487

## MySQL INSERT ON DUPLICATE KEY UPDATE

The **INSERT ON DUPLICATE KEY UPDATE** is a MySQL's extension to the SQL standard's **INSERT** statement.

When you insert a new row into a table if the row causes a duplicate in **UNIQUE** index or **PRIMARY KEY**, MySQL will issue an error.

However, if you specify the **ON DUPLICATE KEY UPDATE** option in the **INSERT** statement, MySQL will update the existing row with the new values instead.

The syntax of **INSERT ON DUPLICATE KEY UPDATE** statement is as follows:

```

1 INSERT INTO table (column_list)
2 VALUES (value_list)
3 ON DUPLICATE KEY UPDATE
4   c1 = v1,
5   c2 = v2,
6   ...;

```

The only addition to the **INSERT** statement is the **ON DUPLICATE KEY UPDATE** clause where you specify a list of column-value-pair assignments in case of duplicate.

Basically, the statement first tries to insert a new row into the table. If a duplicate error occurs, it will update the existing row with the value specified in the **ON DUPLICATE KEY UPDATE** clause.

MySQL returns the number of affected-rows based on the action it performs:



- If the new row is inserted, the number of affected-rows is 1.
- If the existing row is updated, the number of affected-rows is 2.
- If the existing row is updated using its current values, the number of affected-rows is 0.

To use the values from the **INSERT** clause in the **DUPLICATE KEY UPDATE** clause, you use the **VALUES()** function as follows:

```
1 INSERT INTO table_name(c1)
2 VALUES(c1)
3 ON DUPLICATE KEY UPDATE c1 = VALUES(c1) + 1;
```

The statement above sets the value of the **c1** to its current value specified by the expression **VALUES(c1)** plus 1 if there is a duplicate in **UNIQUE** index or **PRIMARY KEY**.

MySQL **INSERT ON DUPLICATE KEY UPDATE** example

Let's take a look at an example of using the **INSERT ON DUPLICATE KEY UPDATE** to understand how it works.

First, create a table named **devices** to store the network devices.

```
1 CREATE TABLE devices (
2     id INT AUTO_INCREMENT PRIMARY KEY,
3     name VARCHAR(100)
4 );
```

Next, insert rows into the **devices** table.

```
1 INSERT INTO devices(name)
2 VALUES('Router F1'),('Switch 1'),('Switch 2');
```

Then, query the data from the **devices** table to verify the insert:

```
1 SELECT
2     id,
3     name
4 FROM
5     devices;
```

	id	name
►	1	Router F1
	2	Switch 1
	3	Switch 2

Now, we have three rows in the **devices** table.

After that, insert one more row into the **devices** table.

```
1 INSERT INTO
2   devices(name)
3 VALUES
4   ('Printer')
5 ON DUPLICATE KEY UPDATE name = 'Printer';
```

	id	name
▶	1	Router F1
	2	Switch 1
	3	Switch 2
	4	Printer

Because there is no duplicate, MySQL inserts a new row into the **devices** table. The statement above has the same effect as the following statement:

```
1 INSERT INTO devices(name)
2 VALUES ('Printer');
```

Finally, insert a row with a duplicate value in the **id** column.

```
1 INSERT INTO devices(id,name)
2 VALUES
3   (4, 'Printer')
4 ON DUPLICATE KEY UPDATE name = 'Central Printer';
```

MySQL issues the following message:

```
1 2 row(s) affected
```

Because a row with id 4 already exists in the **devices** table, the statement updates the name from **Printer** to **Central Printer**.

	id	name
▶	1	Router F1
	2	Switch 1
	3	Switch 2
	4	Central Printer

### MySQL INSERT IGNORE Statement

When you use the **INSERT** statement to add multiple rows to a table and if an error occurs during the processing, MySQL terminates the statement and returns an error. As the result, no rows are inserted into the table.

However, if you use the **INSERT IGNORE** statement, the rows with invalid data that cause the error are ignored and the rows with valid data are inserted into the table.

The syntax of the **INSERT IGNORE** statement is as follows:

```
1 INSERT IGNORE INTO table(column_list)
2 VALUES( value_list),
3   ( value_list),
4   ...
```

Note that the **IGNORE** clause is an extension of MySQL to the SQL standard.

MySQL **INSERT IGNORE** example

We will **create a new table** called **subscribers** for the demonstration.

```
1 CREATE TABLE subscribers (
2   id INT PRIMARY KEY AUTO_INCREMENT,
3   email VARCHAR(50) NOT NULL UNIQUE
4 );
```

The **UNIQUE** constraint ensures that no duplicate email exists in the **email** column.

The following statement inserts a new row into the **subscribers** table:

```
1 INSERT INTO subscribers(email)
2 VALUES('john.doe@gmail.com');
```

It worked as expected.

Let's execute another statement that inserts two rows into the **subscribers** table:

```
1 INSERT INTO subscribers(email)
2 VALUES('john.doe@gmail.com'),
3    ('jane.smith@ibm.com');
```

It returns an error.

1 Error Code: 1062. Duplicate entry 'john.doe@gmail.com' for key 'email'

As indicated in the error message, the

email **john.doe@gmail.com** violates the **UNIQUE** constraint.

However, if you use the **INSERT IGNORE** statement instead.

```
1 INSERT IGNORE INTO subscribers(email)
2 VALUES('john.doe@gmail.com'),
3    ('jane.smith@ibm.com');
```

MySQL returned a message indicating that one row was inserted and the other row was ignored.

```
1 1 row(s) affected, 1 warning(s): 1062 Duplicate entry 'john.doe@gmail.com' for key 'email'
1 Records: 2 Duplicates: 1 Warnings: 1
```

To find the detail of the warning, you can use the **SHOW WARNINGS** command as shown below:

```
1 SHOW WARNINGS;
```

In conclusion, when you use the **INSERT IGNORE** statement, instead of issuing an error, MySQL issued a warning in case an error occurs.

If you query data from **subscribers** table, you will find that only one row was actually inserted and the row that causes the error was not.

MySQL **INSERT IGNORE** and **STRICT** mode

When the **strict mode** is on, MySQL returns an error and aborts the **INSERT** statement if you try to insert invalid values into a table.

However, if you use the **INSERT IGNORE** statement, MySQL will issue a warning instead of an error. In addition, it will try to adjust the values to make them valid before adding the value to the table.

Consider the following example.

First, we **create a new table** named **tokens**:

```
1 CREATE TABLE tokens (  
2   s VARCHAR(6)  
3 );
```

In this table, the column **s** accepts only string whose lengths are less than or equal to six.

Second, insert a string whose length is seven into the **tokens** table.

```
1 INSERT INTO tokens VALUES('abcdefg');
```

MySQL issued the following error because the strict mode is on.

```
1 Error Code: 1406. Data too long for column 's' at row 1
```

Third, use the **INSERT IGNORE** statement to insert the same string.

```
1 INSERT IGNORE INTO tokens VALUES('abcdefg');
```

MySQL truncated data before inserting it into the **tokens** table. In addition, it issues a warning.

In this tutorial, you have learned how to use the MySQL **INSERT IGNORE** statement to insert rows into a table and ignore error for rows that cause errors.

## MySQL UPDATE

You use the **UPDATE** statement to update existing data in a table. You can also use the **UPDATE** statement to change column values of a single row, a group of rows, or all rows in a table.

The following illustrates the syntax of the MySQL **UPDATE** statement:

```
1 UPDATE [LOW_PRIORITY] [IGNORE] table_name
2 SET
3     column_name1 = expr1,
4     column_name2 = expr2,
5     ...
6 [WHERE
7     condition];
```

In the **UPDATE** statement:

- First, specify the table name that you want to update data after the **UPDATE** keyword.
- Second, the SET clause specifies which column that you want to modify and the new values. To update multiple columns, you use a list of comma-separated assignments. You supply a value in each column's assignment in the form of a literal value, an expression, or a subquery.
- Third, specify which rows to be updated using a condition in the WHERE clause.  
The **WHERE** clause is optional. If you omit the **WHERE** clause, the **UPDATE** statement will update all rows in the table.

Notice that the **WHERE** clause is so important that you should not forget. Sometimes, you may want to change just one row; However, you may forget the **WHERE** clause and accidentally update all rows of the table.

MySQL supports two modifiers in the **UPDATE** statement.

1. The **LOW\_PRIORITY** modifier instructs the **UPDATE** statement to delay the update until there is no connection reading data from the table. The **LOW\_PRIORITY** takes effect for

the storage engines that use table-level locking only, for example, MyISAM, MERGE, MEMORY.

2. The **IGNORE** modifier enables the **UPDATE** statement to continue updating rows even if errors occurred. The rows that cause errors such as duplicate-key conflicts are not updated.

### MySQL **UPDATE** examples

Let's practice the **UPDATE** statement with some tables in the MySQL sample database.

#### Using MySQL **UPDATE** to modify values in a single column example

In this example, we are going to update the email of **Mary Patterson** to the new email **mary.patterson@classicmodelcars.com**.

First, to ensure the update is successful, we query Mary's email from the **employees** table using the following **SELECT** statement:

```
1 SELECT
2     firstname, lastname, email
3 FROM
4     employees
5 WHERE
6     employeeNumber = 1056;
```

	firstname	lastname	email
►	Mary	Patterson	mpatterson@classicmodelcars.com

Second, we can update Mary's email to the new email **mary.patterson@classicmodelcars.com** using the **UPDATE** statement as shown in the following query:

```
1 UPDATE employees
2 SET
3     email = 'mary.patterson@classicmodelcars.com'
4 WHERE
5     employeeNumber = 1056;
```

Because we just want to update one row, we use the **WHERE** clause to specify the row using the employee number **1056**. The **SET** clause sets the value of the **email** column to the new email.



Third, we execute the **SELECT** statement again to verify the change.

```

1 SELECT
2     firstname, lastname, email
3 FROM
4     employees
5 WHERE
6     employeeNumber = 1056;

```

	firstname	lastname	email
►	Mary	Patterson	mary.patterson@classicmodelcars.com

### Using MySQL **UPDATE** to modify values in multiple columns

To update values in the multiple columns, you need to specify the assignments in the **SET** clause. For example, the following statement updates both last name and email columns of employee number 1056:

```

1 UPDATE employees
2 SET
3     lastname = 'Hill',
4     email = 'mary.hill@classicmodelcars.com'
5 WHERE
6     employeeNumber = 1056;

```

Let's check the changes:

```

1 SELECT
2     firstname, lastname, email
3 FROM
4     employees
5 WHERE
6     employeeNumber = 1056;

```

	firstname	lastname	email
►	Mary	Hill	mary.hill@classicmodelcars.com

### Using MySQL **UPDATE** to update rows returned by a **SELECT** statement

You can supply the values for the **SET** clause from a **SELECT** statement that queries data from other tables.

For example, in the **customers** table, some customers do not have any sale representative. The value of the column **saleRepEmployeeNumber** is **NULL** as follows:

```
1 SELECT
2     customername, salesRepEmployeeNumber
3 FROM
4     customers
5 WHERE
6     salesRepEmployeeNumber IS NULL;
```

	customername	salesRepEmployeeNumber
▶	Havel & Zbyszek Co	NULL
	Porto Imports Co.	NULL
	Asian Shopping Network, Co	NULL
	Natürlich Autos	NULL
	ANG Resellers	NULL
	Messner Shopping Network	NULL
	Franken Gifts, Co	NULL
	BG&E Collectables	NULL

We can take a sale representative and update for those customers.

To do this, we can select a random employee whose job title is **Sales Rep** from the **employees** table and update it for the **employees** table.

This query selects a random employee from the **employees** table whose job title is the **Sales Rep**.

```
1 SELECT
2     employeeNumber
3 FROM
4     employees
5 WHERE
6     jobtitle = 'Sales Rep'
7 ORDER BY RAND()
8 LIMIT 1;
```

To update the sales representative employee number column in the **customers** table, we place the query above in the **SET** clause of the **UPDATE** statement as follows:

```
1 UPDATE customers
2 SET
3     salesRepEmployeeNumber = (SELECT
4         employeeNumber
5     FROM
6         employees
7     WHERE
8         jobtitle = 'Sales Rep'
9     LIMIT 1)
10 WHERE
11     salesRepEmployeeNumber IS NULL;
```

If you query data from the **employees** table, you will see that every customer has a sales representative. In other words, the following query returns no row.

```
1 SELECT
2     salesRepEmployeeNumber
3 FROM
4     customers
5 WHERE
6     salesRepEmployeeNumber IS NOT NULL;
```

## MySQL UPDATE JOIN

### MySQL UPDATE JOIN syntax

You often use joins to query rows from a table that have (in the case of **INNER JOIN**) or may not have (in the case of **LEFT JOIN**) matching rows in another table. In MySQL, you can use the **JOIN** clauses in the **UPDATE** statement to perform the cross-table update.

The syntax of the MySQL **UPDATE JOIN** is as follows:

```
1 UPDATE T1, T2,
2 [INNER JOIN | LEFT JOIN] T1 ON T1.C1 = T2.C1
3 SET T1.C2 = T2.C2,
4     T2.C3 = expr
5 WHERE condition
```

Let's examine the MySQL **UPDATE JOIN** syntax in greater detail:

- First, specify the main table ( **T1** ) and the table that you want the main table to join to ( **T2** ) after the **UPDATE** clause. Notice that you must specify at least one table after the **UPDATE** clause. The data in the table that is not specified after the **UPDATE** clause will not be updated.
- Next, specify a kind of join you want to use i.e., either **INNER JOIN** or **LEFT JOIN** and a join predicate. The **JOIN** clause must appear right after the **UPDATE** clause.
- Then, assign new values to the columns in **T1** and/or **T2** tables that you want to update.
- After that, specify a condition in the **WHERE** clause to limit rows to rows for updating.

If you follow the **UPDATE** statement tutorial, you will notice that there is another way to update data cross-table using the following syntax:

```
1 UPDATE T1, T2
2 SET T1.c2 = T2.c2,
3     T2.c3 = expr
4 WHERE T1.c1 = T2.c1 AND condition
```

This **UPDATE** statement works the same as **UPDATE JOIN** with an implicit **INNER JOIN** clause. It means you can rewrite the above statement as follows:

```
1 UPDATE T1, T2
2 INNER JOIN T2 ON T1.C1 = T2.C1
3 SET T1.C2 = T2.C2,
4     T2.C3 = expr
5 WHERE condition
```

Let's take a look at some examples of using the **UPDATE JOIN** statement to having a better understanding.

#### MySQL UPDATE JOIN examples

We are going to use a new sample database named **empdb** in for demonstration. This sample database consists of two tables:

- The **employees** table stores employee data with employee id, name, performance, and salary.
- The **merits** table stores employee performance and merit's percentage.

The following statements create and load data in the **empdb** sample database:

```

1 CREATE DATABASE IF NOT EXISTS empdb;
2
3 USE empdb;
4
5 -- create tables
6 CREATE TABLE merits (
7     performance INT(11) NOT NULL,
8     percentage FLOAT NOT NULL,
9     PRIMARY KEY (performance)
10 );
11
12 CREATE TABLE employees (
13     emp_id INT(11) NOT NULL AUTO_INCREMENT,
14     emp_name VARCHAR(255) NOT NULL,
15     performance INT(11) DEFAULT NULL,
16     salary FLOAT DEFAULT NULL,
17     PRIMARY KEY (emp_id),
18     CONSTRAINT fk_performance FOREIGN KEY (performance)
19         REFERENCES merits (performance)
20 );
21
22 -- insert data for merits table
23 INSERT INTO merits(performance,percentage)
24 VALUES(1,0),
25         (2,0.01),
26         (3,0.03),
27         (4,0.05),
28         (5,0.08);
29
30 -- insert data for employees table
31 INSERT INTO employees(emp_name,performance,salary)
32 VALUES('Mary Doe', 1, 50000),
33         ('Cindy Smith', 3, 65000),
34         ('Sue Greenspan', 4, 75000),
35         ('Grace Dell', 5, 125000),
36         ('Nancy Johnson', 3, 85000),
37         ('John Doe', 2, 45000),
38         ('Lily Bush', 3, 55000);

```

### MySQL UPDATE JOIN example with INNER JOIN clause

Suppose you want to adjust the salary of employees based on their performance.

The merit's percentages are stored in the **merits** table, therefore, you have to use the **UPDATE INNER JOIN** statement to adjust the salary of employees in the **employees** table based on the **percentage** stored in the **merits** table.

The link between the **employees** and **merit** tables is the **performance** field. See the following query:

```
1 UPDATE employees
2     INNER JOIN
3     merits ON employees.performance = merits.performance
4 SET
5     salary = salary + salary * percentage;
```

	emp_id	emp_name	performance	salary
►	1	Mary Doe	1	50000
	2	Cindy Smith	3	66950
	3	Sue Greenspan	4	78750
	4	Grace Dell	5	135000
	5	Nancy Johnson	3	87550
	6	John Doe	2	45450
	7	Lily Bush	3	56650

How the query works.

We specify only the **employees** table after **UPDATE** clause because we want to update data in the **employees** table only.

For each row in the **employees** table, the query checks the value in the performance column against the value in the performance column in the **merits** table. If it finds a match, it gets the **percentage** in the **merits** table and updates the **salary** column in the **employees** table.

Because we omit the **WHERE** clause in the **UPDATE** statement, all the records in the **employees** table get updated.

### MySQL UPDATE JOIN example with LEFT JOIN

Suppose the company hires two more employees:

```
1 INSERT INTO employees(emp_name, performance, salary)
2 VALUES('Jack William', NULL, 43000),
3     ('Ricky Bond', NULL, 52000);
```

Because these employees are new hires so their performance data is not available or **NULL**.

	emp_id	emp_name	performance	salary
▶	1	Mary Doe	1	50000
	2	Cindy Smith	3	66950
	3	Sue Greenspan	4	78750
	4	Grace Dell	5	135000
	5	Nancy Johnson	3	87550
	6	John Doe	2	45450
	7	Lily Bush	3	56650
	8	Jack William	NULL	43000
	9	Ricky Bond	NULL	52000

To increase the salary for new hires, you cannot use the **UPDATE INNER JOIN** statement because their performance data is not available in the **merit** table. This is why the **UPDATE LEFT JOIN** comes to the rescue.

The **UPDATE LEFT JOIN** statement basically updates a row in a table when it does not have a corresponding row in another table.

For example, you can increase the salary for a new hire by 1.5% using the following statement:

```

1 UPDATE employees
2     LEFT JOIN
3     merits ON employees.performance = merits.performance
4 SET
5     salary = salary + salary * 0.015
6 WHERE
7     merits.percentage IS NULL;
```

	emp_id	emp_name	performance	salary
▶	1	Mary Doe	1	50000
	2	Cindy Smith	3	66950
	3	Sue Greenspan	4	78750
	4	Grace Dell	5	135000
	5	Nancy Johnson	3	87550
	6	John Doe	2	45450
	7	Lily Bush	3	56650
	8	Jack William	NULL	43645
	9	Ricky Bond	NULL	52780

In this tutorial, we have shown you how to use the MySQL **UPDATE JOIN** with the **INNER JOIN** and **LEFT JOIN** clauses to perform the cross-table update.



## MySQL DELETE

To delete data from a table, you use the MySQL **DELETE** statement. The following illustrates the syntax of the **DELETE** statement:

```
1 DELETE FROM table_name
2 WHERE condition;
```

In this statement:

- First, specify the table from which you delete data.
- Second, use a condition to specify which rows to delete in the **WHERE** clause. If the row matches the condition, it will be deleted.

Notice that the **WHERE** clause is optional. If you omit the **WHERE** clause, the **DELETE** statement will delete all rows in the table.

Besides deleting data from a table, the **DELETE** statement returns the number of rows deleted.

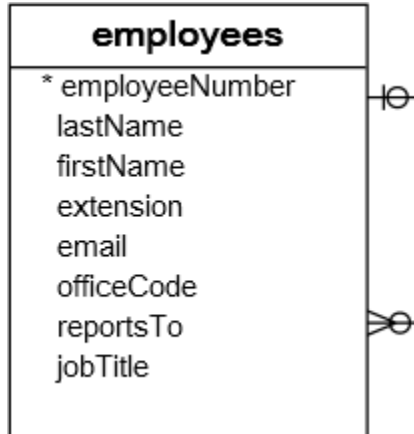
To delete data from multiple tables using a single **DELETE** statement, you use the **DELETE JOIN** statement which we will cover in the next lesson.

To delete all rows in a table without the need of knowing how many rows deleted, you should use the **TRUNCATE TABLE** statement to get better performance.

For a table that has a foreign key constraint, when you delete rows from the parent table, the rows in the child table will be deleted automatically by using the **ON DELETE CASCADE** option.

### MySQL **DELETE** examples

We will use the **employees** table in the **sample database** for the demonstration.



Note that once you delete data, it is gone. Therefore, you should backup your database before performing the **DELETE** statements in the next section.

Suppose you want to delete employees whose the **officeNumber** are 4, you use the **DELETE** statement with the **WHERE** clause as shown in the following query:

```
1 DELETE FROM employees
2 WHERE
3     officeCode = 4;
```

To delete all rows from the **employees** table, you use the **DELETE** statement without the **WHERE** clause as follows:

```
1 DELETE FROM employees;
```

All rows in the **employees** table deleted.

MySQL **DELETE** and **LIMIT** clause

If you want to limit the number of rows to be deleted, you use the **LIMIT** clause as follows:

```
1 DELETE FROM table
2 LIMIT row_count;
```

Note that the order of rows in a table is unspecified, therefore, when you use the **LIMIT** clause, you should always use the **ORDER BY** clause.

```
1 DELETE FROM table_name
2 ORDER BY c1, c2, ...
3 LIMIT row_count;
```

Consider the following **customers** table in the **sample database**:

customers
* customerNumber customerName contactLastName contactFirstName phone addressLine1 addressLine2 city state postalCode country salesRepEmployeeNumber creditLimit

For example, the following statement sorts customers by customer's names alphabetically and deletes the first 10 customers:

```
1 DELETE FROM customers
2 ORDER BY customerName
3 LIMIT 10;
```

Similarly, the following **DELETE** statement selects customers in **France**, sorts them by credit limit in from low to high, and deletes the first 5 customers:

```
1 DELETE FROM customers
2 WHERE country = 'France'
3 ORDER BY creditLimit
4 LIMIT 5;
```

## MySQL DELETE JOIN

In the previous tutorial, you learned how to delete rows of multiple tables by using:

- A single **DELETE** statement on multiple tables.
- A single **DELETE** statement on multiple related tables which the child table have an **ON DELETE CASCADE** referential action for the foreign key.

This tutorial introduces to you a more flexible way to delete data from multiple tables using **INNER JOIN** or **LEFT JOIN** clause with the **DELETE** statement.

### MySQL DELETE JOIN with INNER JOIN

MySQL also allows you to use the **INNER JOIN** clause in the **DELETE** statement to delete rows from a table and the matching rows in another table.

For example, to delete rows from both **T1** and **T2** tables that meet a specified condition, you use the following statement:

```
1 DELETE T1, T2
2 FROM T1
3 INNER JOIN T2 ON T1.key = T2.key
4 WHERE condition;
```

Notice that you put table names **T1** and **T2** between the **DELETE** and **FROM** keywords. If you omit **T1** table, the **DELETE** statement only deletes rows in **T2** table. Similarly, if you omit **T2** table, the **DELETE** statement will delete only rows in **T1** table.

The expression **T1.key = T2.key** specifies the condition for matching rows between **T1** and **T2** tables that will be deleted.

The condition in the **WHERE** clause determine rows in the **T1** and **T2** that will be deleted.

### MySQL DELETE JOIN with INNER JOIN example

Suppose, we have two tables **t1** and **t2** with the following structures and data:

```
1 DROP TABLE IF EXISTS t1, t2;
2
3 CREATE TABLE t1 (
4     id INT PRIMARY KEY AUTO_INCREMENT
5 );
6
7 CREATE TABLE t2 (
8     id VARCHAR(20) PRIMARY KEY,
9     ref INT NOT NULL
10 );
11
12 INSERT INTO t1 VALUES (1),(2),(3);
13
14 INSERT INTO t2(id,ref) VALUES('A',1),('B',2),('C',3);
```

id
1
2
3



id	Ref
A	1
B	2
C	3



```
DELETE
    t1 , t2
FROM
    t1
    INNER JOIN t2
        ON t2.ref = t1.id
WHERE
    t1.id = 1;
```

The following statement deletes the row with id 1 in the **t1** table and also row with **ref** 1 in the **t2** table using **DELETE...INNER JOIN** statement:

```
1 DELETE t1,t2 FROM t1
2     INNER JOIN
3     t2 ON t2.ref = t1.id
4 WHERE
5     t1.id = 1;
```

The statement returned the following message:

```
1 | 2 row(s) affected
```

It indicated that two rows have been deleted.

### MySQL **DELETE JOIN** with **LEFT JOIN**

We often use the **LEFT JOIN** clause in the **SELECT** statement to find rows in the left table that have or don't have matching rows in the right table.

We can also use the **LEFT JOIN** clause in the **DELETE** statement to delete rows in a table (left table) that does not have matching rows in another table (right table).

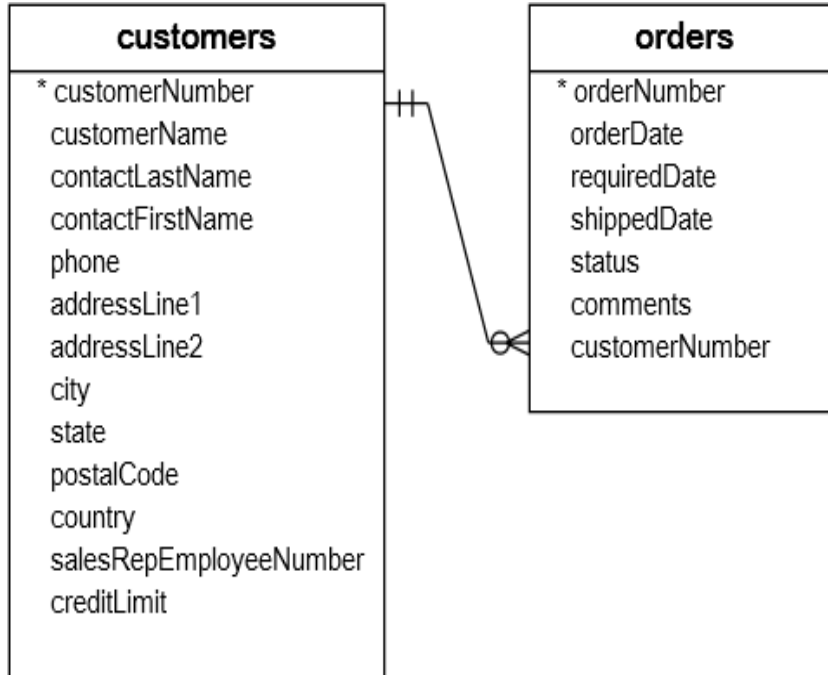
The following syntax illustrates how to use **DELETE** statement with **LEFT JOIN** clause to delete rows from **T1** table that does not have corresponding rows in the **T2** table:

```
1 | DELETE T1
2 | FROM T1
3 |     LEFT JOIN
4 |     T2 ON T1.key = T2.key
5 | WHERE
6 |     T2.key IS NULL;
```

Note that we only put **T1** table after the **DELETE** keyword, not both **T1** and **T2** tables like we did with the **INNER JOIN** clause.

### MySQL **DELETE JOIN** with **LEFT JOIN** example

See the following **customers** and **orders** tables in the sample database:



Each customer has zero or more orders. However, each order belongs to one and only one customer.

We can use **DELETE** statement with **LEFT JOIN** clause to clean up our customers master data. The following statement removes customers who have not placed any order:

```
1 DELETE customers
2 FROM customers
3     LEFT JOIN
4     orders ON customers.customerNumber = orders.customerNumber
5 WHERE
6     orderNumber IS NULL;
```

We can verify the delete by finding whether customers who do not have any order exists using the following query:

```
1 SELECT
2     c.customerNumber,
3     c.customerName,
4     orderNumber
5 FROM
6     customers c
7     LEFT JOIN
8     orders o ON c.customerNumber = o.customerNumber
9 WHERE
10    orderNumber IS NULL;
```

The query returned an empty result set which is what we expected.

In this tutorial, you have learned how to use the MySQL **DELETE JOIN** statement to delete data from two or more tables.



## MySQL ON DELETE CASCADE: Deleting Data From Multiple Related Tables

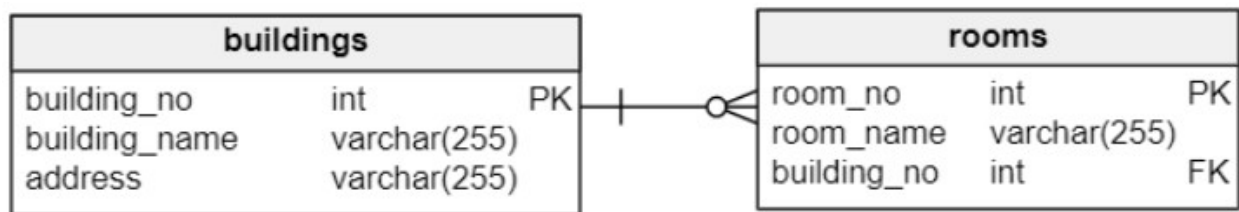
In the previous tutorial, you learned how to delete data from multiple related tables using a single **DELETE** statement. However, MySQL provides a more effective way called **ON DELETE CASCADE** referential action for a foreign key that allows you to delete data from child tables automatically when you delete the data from the parent table.

### MySQL ON DELETE CASCADE example

Let's take a look at an example of using MySQL **ON DELETE CASCADE**.

Suppose we have two tables: **buildings** and **rooms**. In this database model, each building has one or more rooms. However, each room belongs to one only one building. A room would not exist without a building.

The relationship between the **buildings** and **rooms** tables is one-to-many (1:N) as illustrated in the following database diagram:



When we delete a row from the **buildings** table, we also want to delete the rows in the **rooms** table that references to the rows in the **buildings** table. For example, when we delete a row with building no. 2 in the **buildings** table as the following query:

```

1 DELETE FROM buildings
2 WHERE
3     building_no = 2;
  
```

We want the rows in the **rooms** table that refers to building number 2 will be also removed.

The following are steps that demonstrate how MySQL **ON DELETE CASCADE** referential action works.

**Step 1.** Create the **buildings** table:

```

1 CREATE TABLE buildings (
2     building_no INT PRIMARY KEY AUTO_INCREMENT,
3     building_name VARCHAR(255) NOT NULL,
4     address VARCHAR(255) NOT NULL
5 );

```

**Step 2.** Create the **rooms** table:

```

1 CREATE TABLE rooms (
2     room_no INT PRIMARY KEY AUTO_INCREMENT,
3     room_name VARCHAR(255) NOT NULL,
4     building_no INT NOT NULL,
5     FOREIGN KEY (building_no)
6         REFERENCES buildings (building_no)
7         ON DELETE CASCADE
8 );

```

Notice that we add the **ON DELETE CASCADE** clause at the end of the foreign key constraint definition.

**Step 3.** Insert data into the **buildings** table:

```

1 INSERT INTO buildings(building_name,address)
2 VALUES('ACME Headquarters', '3950 North 1st Street CA 95134'),
3        ('ACME Sales', '5000 North 1st Street CA 95134');

```

**Step 4.** Query data from the **buildings** table:

```

1 SELECT * FROM buildings;

```

	building_no	building_name	address
▶	1	ACME Headquarters	3950 North 1st Street CA 95134
	2	ACME Sales	5000 North 1st Street CA 95134

We have two rows in the **buildings** table.

**Step 5.** Insert data into the **rooms** table:

```

1 INSERT INTO rooms(room_name,building_no)
2 VALUES('Amazon',1),
3         ('War Room',1),
4         ('Office of CEO',1),
5         ('Marketing',2),
6         ('Showroom',2);

```

**Step 6.** Query data from the **rooms** table:

```

1 SELECT * FROM rooms;

```

	room_no	room_name	building_no
►	1	Amazon	1
	2	War Room	1
	3	Office of CEO	1
	4	Marketing	2
	5	Showroom	2

We have 3 rooms that belong to building 1 and 2 rooms that belong to the building 2.

**Step 7.** Delete the building with building no. 2:

```

1 DELETE FROM buildings
2 WHERE
3     building_no = 2;

```

**Step 8.** Query data from **rooms** table:

```

1 SELECT * FROM rooms;

```

	room_no	room_name	building_no
►	1	Amazon	1
	2	War Room	1
	3	Office of CEO	1

As you can see, all the rows that reference to **building\_no** 2 were deleted.

Notice that **ON DELETE CASCADE** works only with tables with the storage engines support foreign keys e.g., InnoDB. Some table types do not support foreign keys such as MyISAM so you should choose appropriate storage engines for the tables that you plan to use the MySQL **ON DELETE CASCADE** referential action.

Sometimes, it is useful to know which table is affected by the MySQL **ON DELETE CASCADE** referential action when you delete data from a table. You can query this data from the **referential\_constraints** in the **information\_schema** database as follows:

```
1  USE information_schema;
2
3  SELECT
4      table_name
5  FROM
6      referential_constraints
7  WHERE
8      constraint_schema = 'database_name'
9      AND referenced_table_name = 'parent_table'
10     AND delete_rule = 'CASCADE'
```

For example, to find tables that associated with the **buildings** table with the **CASCADE** deletion rule in the **classicmodels** database, you use the following query:

```
1  USE information_schema;
2
3  SELECT
4      table_name
5  FROM
6      referential_constraints
7  WHERE
8      constraint_schema = 'classicmodels'
9      AND referenced_table_name = 'buildings'
10     AND delete_rule = 'CASCADE'
```

	table_name
►	rooms

In this tutorial, we have shown you step by step how to use the MySQL **ON DELETE CASCADE** referential action for a foreign key to delete data automatically from the child tables when you delete data from the parent table.

## MySQL REPLACE

The MySQL **REPLACE** statement is a MySQL extension to the standard SQL. The MySQL **REPLACE** statement works as follows:

- If the new row already does not exist, the MySQL **REPLACE** statement inserts a new row.
- If the new row already exist, the **REPLACE** statement deletes the old row first and then inserts a new row. In some cases, the **REPLACE** statement updates the existing row only.

To determine whether the new row already exists in the table, MySQL uses PRIMARY KEY or **UNIQUE KEY** index. If the table does not have one of these indexes, the **REPLACE** statement is equivalent to the INSERT statement.

To use the MySQL **REPLACE** statement, you need to have at least both **INSERT** and **DELETE** privileges.

Notice that there is a REPLACE string function which is not the **REPLACE** statement covered in this tutorial.

### MySQL REPLACE statement example

Let's take a look at an example of using the **REPLACE** statement to have a better understanding of how it works.

First, create a new table named **cities** as follows:

```
1 CREATE TABLE cities (  
2     id INT AUTO_INCREMENT PRIMARY KEY,  
3     name VARCHAR(50),  
4     population INT NOT NULL  
5 );
```

Next, insert some rows into the **cities** table:

```

1 INSERT INTO cities(name,population)
2 VALUES('New York',8008278),
3    ('Los Angeles',3694825),
4    ('San Diego',1223405);

```

We query data from the **cities** table to verify the insert operation.

```

1 SELECT
2     *
3 FROM
4     cities;

```

	id	name	population
▶	1	New York	8008278
	2	Los Angeles	3694825
	3	San Diego	1223405

We have three cities in the **cities** table.

Then, suppose we want to update the population of the New York city to 1008256. We can use the UPDATE statement as follows:

```

1 UPDATE cities
2 SET
3     population = 1008256
4 WHERE
5     id = 1;

```

We query the data from the **cities** table again to verify the update.

```

1 SELECT
2     *
3 FROM
4     cities;

```

The **UPDATE** statement updated the data as expected.

After that, use the **REPLACE** statement to update the population of the Los Angeles city to **3696820**.

```

1 REPLACE INTO cities(id,population)
2 VALUES(2,3696820);

```

Finally, query the data of the **cities** table again to verify the replacement.

```
1 SELECT
2 *
3 FROM
4 cities;
```

	id	name	population
▶	1	New York	1008256
	2	NULL	3696820
	3	San Diego	1223405

The name column is **NULL** now. You may expect that the value of the name column remains intact. However, the **REPLACE** statement does not behave this way. In this case, the **REPLACE** statement works as follows:

1. The **REPLACE** statement first inserts the new row into the **cities** table with the information provided by the column list. The insertion fails because the row with id 2 already exists in the **cities** table, therefore, MySQL raises a duplicate-key error.
2. The **REPLACE** statement then updates the row that has the key specified in the value of the **id** column. In the normal process, it would delete the old row with conflict id first and then inserts a new row.

We know that the **REPLACE** statement did not delete the old row and inserted the new row because the value of the id column is 2 instead of 4.

## MySQL REPLACE and INSERT

The first form of the **REPLACE** statement is similar to the **INSERT** statement except the keyword **INSERT** is replaced by the **REPLACE** keyword as follows:

```
1 REPLACE INTO table_name(column_list)
2 VALUES(value_list);
```

For example, if you want to insert a new row into the **cities** table, you use the following query:

```
1 REPLACE INTO cities(name,population)
2 VALUES('Phoenix',1321523);
```

Notice that the default values of the columns that do not appear in the **REPLACE** statement will be inserted into the corresponding columns. In case the column that has the **NOT NULL** attribute and does not have a default value, and you don't specify the value in the **REPLACE** statement, MySQL will raise an error. This is a difference between the **REPLACE** and **INSERT** statements. For example, in the following statement, we specify only the value for the **name** column, not the **population** column. MySQL raises an error message. Because the **population** column does not accept a **NULL** value and we did not specify a default value for it when we defined the **cities** table.

```
1 REPLACE INTO cities(name)
2 VALUES('Houston');
```

This is the error message that MySQL issued:

```
1 Error Code: 1364. Field 'population' doesn't have a default value
```

## MySQL REPLACE and UPDATE

The second form of **REPLACE** statement is similar to the **UPDATE** statement as follows:

```
1 REPLACE INTO table
2 SET column1 = value1,
3   column2 = value2;
```

Notice that there is no **WHERE** clause in the **REPLACE** statement.

For example, if you want to update the population of the **Phoenix** city to **1768980**, you use the **REPLACE** statement as follows:

```
1 REPLACE INTO table
2 SET column1 = value1,
3   column2 = value2;
```

Unlike the **UPDATE** statement, if you don't specify the value for the column in the **SET** clause, the **REPLACE** statement will use the default value of that column.



```

1 SELECT
2   *
3 FROM
4   cities;

```

	id	name	population
▶	1	New York	1008256
	2	HULL	3696820
	3	San Diego	1223405
	4	Phoenix	1768980

## MySQL REPLACE INTO and SELECT

The third form of **REPLACE** statement is similar to INSERT INTO SELECT statement:

```

1 REPLACE INTO table_1(column_list)
2 SELECT column_list
3 FROM table_2
4 WHERE where_condition;

```

Suppose, you want to copy the city with id value 1, you use the **REPLACE INTO SELECT** statement as the following query:

```

1 REPLACE INTO cities(name,population)
2 SELECT name,population FROM cities
3 WHERE id = 1;

```

## MySQL REPLACE statement usages

There are several important points you need to know when you use the **REPLACE** statement:

- If you develop an application that supports not only MySQL database but also other relational database management systems (RDBMS), you should avoid using the **REPLACE** statement because other RDBMS may not support it. Instead, you can use the combination of the DELETE and INSERT statements within a transaction.
- If you are using the **REPLACE** statement in the table that has triggers and the deletion of duplicate-key error occurs, the triggers will be fired in the following sequence: **BEFORE**

**INSERT BEFORE DELETE** , **AFTER DELETE** , **AFTER INSERT** in case the **REPLACE** statement deletes current row and inserts the new row. In case the **REPLACE** statement updates the current row, the **BEFORE UPDATE** and **AFTER UPDATE** triggers are fired.

In this tutorial, you've learned different forms of **REPLACE** statement to insert or update data in tables.

<http://www.mysqltutorial.org/basic-mysql-tutorial.aspx>

## MySQL SELECT

Summary: in this tutorial, you will learn how to use MySQL SELECT statement to query data from tables or views.

### Introduction to MySQL SELECT statement

The SELECT statement allows you to get the data from tables or views. A table consists of rows and columns like a spreadsheet. Often, you want to see a subset rows, a subset of columns, or a combination of two. The result of the SELECT statement is called a result set that is a list of rows, each consisting of the same number of columns.

See the following employees table in the sample database. It has eight columns: employee number, last name, first name, extension, email, office code, reports to, job title and many rows.

	employeeNum	lastName	firstName	extension	email	officeCode	reportsTo	jobTitle
►	1002	Murphy	Diane	x5800	dmurphy@classicmodelcars.com	1	NULL	President
	1056	Patterson	Mary	x4611	mpatterso@classicmodelcars.com	1	1002	VP Sales
	1076	Firelli	Jeff	x9273	jfirelli@classicmodelcars.com	1	1002	VP Marketing
	1088	Patterson	William	x4871	wpatterson@classicmodelcars.com	6	1056	Sales Manager (APAC)
	1102	Bondur	Gerard	x5408	gbondur@classicmodelcars.com	4	1056	Sale Manager (EMEA)
	1143	Bow	Anthony	x5428	abow@classicmodelcars.com	1	1056	Sales Manager (NA)
	1165	Jennings	Leslie	x3291	ljennings@classicmodelcars.com	1	1143	Sales Rep
	1166	Thompson	Leslie	x4065	lthompson@classicmodelcars.com	1	1143	Sales Rep
	1188	Firelli	Julie	x2173	jfirelli@classicmodelcars.com	2	1143	Sales Rep
	1216	Patterson	Steve	x4334	spatterson@classicmodelcars.com	2	1143	Sales Rep
	1286	Tseng	Foon Yue	x2248	ftseng@classicmodelcars.com	3	1143	Sales Rep
	1323	Vanauf	George	x4102	gvanauf@classicmodelcars.com	3	1143	Sales Rep
	1337	Bondur	Loui	x6493	lbondur@classicmodelcars.com	4	1102	Sales Rep
	1370	Hernandez	Gerard	x2028	ghernande@classicmodelcars.com	4	1102	Sales Rep
	1401	Castillo	Pamela	x2759	pcastillo@classicmodelcars.com	4	1102	Sales Rep
	1501	Rott	Larry	x2311	lrott@classicmodelcars.com	7	1102	Sales Rep

The SELECT statement controls which columns and rows that you want to see. For example, if you are only interested in the first name, last name, and job title of all employees or you just want to view the information of every employee whose job title is the sales rep, the SELECT statement helps you to do this.

Let's take look into the syntax of the SELECT statement:

```
1 SELECT
2     column_1, column_2, ...
3 FROM
4     table_1
5 [INNER | LEFT | RIGHT] JOIN table_2 ON conditions
6 WHERE
7     conditions
8 GROUP BY column_1
9 HAVING group_conditions
10 ORDER BY column_1
11 LIMIT offset, length;
```

The SELECT statement consists of several clauses as explained in the following list:

SELECT followed by a list of comma-separated columns or an asterisk (\*) to indicate that you want to return all columns.

- FROM specifies the table or view where you want to query the data.
- JOIN gets related data from other tables based on specific join conditions.
- WHERE clause filters row in the result set.
- GROUP BY clause groups a set of rows into groups and applies aggregate functions on each group.
- HAVING clause filters group based on groups defined by GROUP BY clause.
- ORDER BY clause specifies a list of columns for sorting.
- LIMIT constrains the number of returned rows.

The SELECT and FROM clauses are required in the statement. Other parts are optional.

#### MySQL SELECT statement examples

The **SELECT** statement allows you to query partial data of a table by specifying a list of comma-separated columns in the **SELECT** clause. For instance, if you want to view only first name, last name, and job title of the employees, you use the following query:

```
1 SELECT
2     lastname, firstname, jobtitle
3 FROM
4     employees;
```

Even though the **employees** table has many columns, the **SELECT** statement just returns data of three columns of all rows in the table as highlighted in the picture below:

	employeeNumber	lastName	firstName	extension	email	officeCode	reportsTo	jobTitle
►	1002	Murphy	Diane	x5800	dmurphy@classicmodelcars.com	1	NULL	President
	1056	Patterson	Mary	x4611	mpatterso@classicmodelcars.com	1	1002	VP Sales
	1076	Firelli	Jeff	x9273	jfirelli@classicmodelcars.com	1	1002	VP Marketing
	1088	Patterson	William	x4871	wpatterson@classicmodelcars.com	6	1056	Sales Manager (APAC)
	1102	Bondur	Gerard	x5408	gbondur@classicmodelcars.com	4	1056	Sale Manager (EMEA)
	1143	Bow	Anthony	x5428	abow@classicmodelcars.com	1	1056	Sales Manager (NA)
	1165	Jennings	Leslie	x3291	ljennings@classicmodelcars.com	1	1143	Sales Rep
	1166	Thompson	Leslie	x4065	lthompson@classicmodelcars.com	1	1143	Sales Rep
	1188	Firelli	Julie	x2173	jfirelli@classicmodelcars.com	2	1143	Sales Rep
	1216	Patterson	Steve	x4334	spatterson@classicmodelcars.com	2	1143	Sales Rep
	1286	Tseng	Foon Yue	x2248	ftseng@classicmodelcars.com	3	1143	Sales Rep
	1323	Vanauf	George	x4102	gvanauf@classicmodelcars.com	3	1143	Sales Rep
	1337	Bondur	Loui	x6493	lbondur@classicmodelcars.com	4	1102	Sales Rep
	1370	Hernandez	Gerard	x2028	ghemande@classicmodelcars.com	4	1102	Sales Rep
	1401	Castillo	Pamela	x2759	pcastillo@classicmodelcars.com	4	1102	Sales Rep
	1501	Rott	Larry	x2311	lrott@classicmodelcars.com	7	1102	Sales Rep

	lastname	firstname	jobtitle
►	Murphy	Diane	President
	Patterson	Mary	VP Sales
	Firelli	Jeff	VP Marketing
	Patterson	William	Sales Manager (APAC)
	Bondur	Gerard	Sale Manager (EMEA)
	Bow	Anthony	Sales Manager (NA)
	Jennings	Leslie	Sales Rep
	Thompson	Leslie	Sales Rep
	Firelli	Julie	Sales Rep
	Patterson	Steve	Sales Rep
	Tseng	Foon Yue	Sales Rep
	Vanauf	George	Sales Rep
	Bondur	Loui	Sales Rep
	Hernandez	Gerard	Sales Rep

If you want to get data for all columns in the **employees** table, you can list all column names in the **SELECT** clause. Or you just use the asterisk (\*) to indicate that you want to get data from all columns of the table like the following query:

```
1 SELECT * FROM employees;
```

It returns all columns and rows in the **employees** table.

You should use the asterisk (\*) for testing only. In practical, you should list the columns that you want to get data explicitly because of the following reasons:

- The asterisk (\*) returns data from the columns that you may not use. It produces unnecessary I/O disk and network traffic between the MySQL database server and application.
- If you explicit specify the columns, the result set is more predictable and easier to manage. Imagine when you use the asterisk (\*) and someone [changes the table by adding more columns](#), you will end up with a result set that is different from what you expected.
- Using asterisk (\*) may expose sensitive information to unauthorized users.

## MySQL DISTINCT

**Summary:** in this tutorial, you will learn how to use **MySQL DISTINCT** clause with the **SELECT** statement to eliminate duplicate rows in a result set.

### Introduction to MySQL **DISTINCT** clause

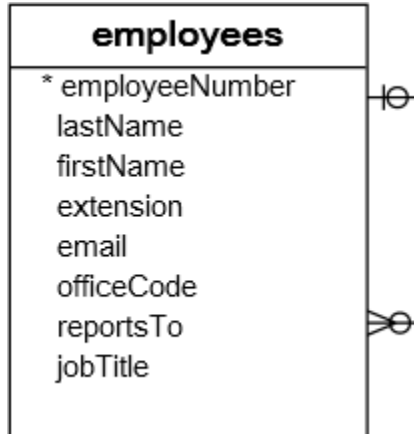
When querying data from a table, you may get duplicate rows. In order to remove these duplicate rows, you use the **DISTINCT** clause in the [SELECT](#) statement.

The syntax of using the **DISTINCT** clause is as follows:

```
1 SELECT DISTINCT
2     columns
3 FROM
4     table_name
5 WHERE
6     where_conditions;
```

### MySQL **DISTINCT** examples

Let's take a look at a simple example of using the **DISTINCT** clause to select the unique last names of employees from the **employees** table.



First, query the last names of employees from the **employees** table using the **SELECT** statement as follows:

```
1 SELECT
2     lastname
3 FROM
4     employees
5 ORDER BY lastname;
```

lastname
Bondur
Bondur
Bott
Bow
Castillo
Firrelli
Firrelli
Fixter
Gerard
Hernandez
Jennings

As clearly shown in the output, some employees have the same last name e.g, **Bondur**, **Firrelli**.

To remove the duplicate last names, you add the **DISTINCT** clause to the **SELECT** statement as follows:

```
1 SELECT DISTINCT
2   lastname
3 FROM
4   employees
5 ORDER BY lastname;
```

lastname
Bondur
Bott
Bow
Castillo
Firrelli
Fixter
Gerard
Hernandez
Jennings
Jones

The duplicate last names are eliminated in the result set when we used the **DISTINCT** clause.

## MySQL **DISTINCT** and **NULL** values

If a column has **NULL** values and you use the **DISTINCT** clause for that column, MySQL keeps only one **NULL** value and eliminates the other because the **DISTINCT** clause treats all **NULL** values as the same value.

For example, in the **customers** table, we have many rows whose **state** column has **NULL** values.



customers
* customerNumber
customerName
contactLastName
contactFirstName
phone
addressLine1
addressLine2
city
state
postalCode
country
salesRepEmployeeNumber
creditLimit

When you use the **DISTINCT** clause to query the customers' states, you will see unique states and **NULL** as the following query:

```
1 SELECT DISTINCT
2     state
3 FROM
4     customers;
```

state
NULL
NV
Victoria
CA
NY
PA
CT
MA
Osaka
BC
Québec
Isle of Wight
NSW
NJ

## MySQL **DISTINCT** with multiple columns

You can use the **DISTINCT** clause with more than one column. In this case, MySQL uses the combination of values in these columns to determine the uniqueness of the row in the result set.

For example, to get the unique combination of city and state from the **customers** table, you use the following query:

```
1 SELECT DISTINCT
2   state, city
3 FROM
4   customers
5 WHERE
6   state IS NOT NULL
7 ORDER BY state , city;
```

	state	city
	BC	Tsawassen
	BC	Vancouver
	CA	Brisbane
	CA	Burbank
	CA	Burlingame
	CA	Glendale
	CA	Los Angeles
	CA	Pasadena
	CA	San Diego
	CA	San Francisco
	CA	San Jose
	CA	San Rafael
	Co. Cork	Cork
	CT	Bridgewater
	CT	Glendale

Without the **DISTINCT** clause, you will get the duplicate combination of state and city as follows:

```
1 SELECT
2     state, city
3 FROM
4     customers
5 WHERE
6     state IS NOT NULL
7 ORDER BY state , city;
```

state	city
BC	Tsawassen
BC	Vancouver
CA	Brisbane
CA	Burbank
CA	Burlingame
CA	Glendale
CA	Los Angeles
CA	Pasadena
CA	San Diego
CA	San Francisco
CA	San Francisco
CA	San Jose
CA	San Rafael
Co. Cork	Cork
CT	Bridgewater
CT	Glendale

## DISTINCT clause vs. GROUP BY clause

If you use the **GROUP BY** clause in the **SELECT** statement without using [aggregate functions](#), the **GROUP BY** clause behaves like the **DISTINCT** clause.

The following statement uses the **GROUP BY** clause to select the unique states of customers from the **customers** table.

```
1 SELECT
2   state
3 FROM
4   customers
5 GROUP BY state;
```

	state
▶	NULL
	BC
	CA
	Co. Cork
	CT
	Isle of Wight
	MA

You can achieve a similar result by using the **DISTINCT** clause:

```
1 SELECT DISTINCT
2   state
3 FROM
4   customers;
```

	state
▶	NULL
	NV
	Victoria
	CA
	NY
	PA

Generally speaking, the **DISTINCT** clause is a special case of the **GROUP BY** clause. The difference between **DISTINCT** clause and **GROUP BY** clause is that the **GROUP BY** clause sorts the result set whereas the **DISTINCT** clause does not.

If you add the **ORDER BY** clause to the statement that uses the **DISTINCT** clause, the result set is sorted and it is the same as the one returned by the statement that uses **GROUP BY** clause.

```
1 SELECT DISTINCT
2   state
3 FROM
4   customers
5 ORDER BY state;
```

## MySQL **DISTINCT** and aggregate functions

You can use the **DISTINCT** clause with an [aggregate function](#) e.g., [SUM](#), [AVG](#), and [COUNT](#), to remove duplicate rows before the aggregate functions are applied to the result set.

For example, to count the unique states of customers in the U.S., you use the following query:

```
1 SELECT
2     COUNT(DISTINCT state)
3 FROM
4     customers
5 WHERE
6     country = 'USA';
```

	COUNT(DISTINCT state)
▶	8

## MySQL **DISTINCT** with **LIMIT** clause

In case you use the **DISTINCT** clause with the [LIMIT](#) clause, MySQL immediately stops searching when it finds the number of unique rows specified in the **LIMIT** clause.

The following query selects the first five non-null unique states in the **customers** table.

```
1 SELECT DISTINCT
2     state
3 FROM
4     customers
5 WHERE
6     state IS NOT NULL
7 LIMIT 5;
```

	state
▶	NV
	Victoria
	CA
	NY
	PA

In this tutorial, we have shown you various ways of using MySQL **DISTINCT** clause such as eliminating duplicate rows and counting non-NULL values.

# MySQL ORDER BY

**Summary:** in this tutorial, you will learn how to sort a result set using **MySQL ORDER BY** clause.

## Introduction to MySQL **ORDER BY** clause

When you use the [SELECT statement](#) to query data from a table, the result set is not sorted in any orders. To sort the result set, you use the **ORDER BY** clause. The **ORDER BY** clause allows you to:

- Sort a result set by a single column or multiple columns.
- Sort a result set by different columns in ascending or descending order.

The following illustrates the syntax of the **ORDER BY** clause:

```
1 SELECT column1, column2, ...
2 FROM tbl
3 ORDER BY column1 [ASC|DESC], column2 [ASC|DESC], ...
```

The **ASC** stands for ascending and the **DESC** stands for descending. By default, the **ORDER BY** clause sorts the result set in ascending order if you don't specify **ASC** or **DESC** explicitly. Let's practice with some examples of using the **ORDER BY** clause.

## MySQL ORDER BY examples

See the following **customers** table in the [sample database](#).

customers
* customerNumber customerName contactLastName contactFirstName phone addressLine1 addressLine2 city state postalCode country salesRepEmployeeNumber creditLimit

The following query selects contacts from the **customers** table and sorts the contacts by last name in ascending order.

```
1 SELECT
2   contactLastname,
3   contactFirstname
4 FROM
5   customers
6 ORDER BY
7   contactLastname;
```

	contactLastname	contactFirstname
►	Accorti	Paolo
	Altagar,G M	Raanan
	Andersen	Mel
	Anton	Carmen
	Ashworth	Rachel
	Barajas	Miguel
	Benitez	Violeta
	Bennett	Helen
	Berglund	Christina



If you want to sort the contacts by last name in descending order, you specify the **DESC** after the **contactLastname** column in the **ORDER BY** clause as the following query:

```

1 SELECT
2   contactLastname,
3   contactFirstname
4 FROM
5   customers
6 ORDER BY
7   contactLastname DESC;
```

	contactLastname	contactFirstname
►	Young	Jeff
	Young	Julie
	Young	Mary
	Young	Dorothy
	Yoshido	Juri
	Walker	Brydey
	Victorino	Wendy
	Urs	Braun
	Tseng	Jerry

In the query above, the **ORDER BY** clause sorts the result set by the last name in descending order first and then sorts the sorted result set by the first name in ascending order to produce the final result set.

### MySQL ORDER BY sort by an expression example

The **ORDER BY** clause also allows you to sort the result set based on an expression. See the following **orderdetails** table.

<b>orderdetails</b>
* orderNumber
* productCode
quantityOrdered
priceEach
orderLineNumber

The following query selects the order line items from the **orderdetails** table. It calculates the subtotal for each line item and sorts the result set based on the order number, order line number, and subtotal.

```

1 SELECT
2   ordernumber,
3   orderlinenumber,
4   quantityOrdered * priceEach
5 FROM
6   orderdetails
7 ORDER BY
8   ordernumber,
9   orderLineNumber,
10  quantityOrdered * priceEach;

```

	ordernumber	orderlinenumber	FORMAT(quantityOrdered * priceEach, 2)
►	10100	1	1,729.21
	10100	2	2,754.50
	10100	3	4,080.00
	10100	4	1,660.12
	10101	1	4,343.56
	10101	2	2,040.10
	10101	3	1,463.85
	10101	4	2,701.50

We used **subtotal** as the [column alias](#) for the expression `quantityOrdered * priceEach` and sorted the result set based on the **subtotal** alias.

### MySQL **ORDER BY** with custom sort order

The **ORDER BY** clause enables you to define your own custom sort order for the values in a column using the **FIELD ()** function.

See the following **orders** table.

orders
* orderNumber orderDate requiredDate shippedDate status comments customerNumber

For example, if you want to sort the orders based on the following status by the following order:

- In Process
- On Hold
- Canceled
- Resolved
- Disputed
- Shipped

You can use the **FIELD** function to map those values to a list of numeric values and use the numbers for sorting; See the following query:

```
1 SELECT
2     orderNumber, status
3 FROM
4     orders
5 ORDER BY FIELD(status,
6     'In Process',
7     'On Hold',
8     'Cancelled',
9     'Resolved',
10    'Disputed',
11    'Shipped');
```

	orderNumber	status
▶	10420	In Process
	10421	In Process
	10422	In Process
	10423	In Process
	10424	In Process
	10425	In Process
	10334	On Hold
	10401	On Hold
	10407	On Hold

In this tutorial, we've shown you various techniques to sort a result set by using the MySQL **ORDER BY** clause.

## MySQL WHERE

**Summary:** you will learn how to use **MySQL WHERE** clause in the **SELECT** statement to filter rows in the result set.

### Introduction to MySQL **WHERE** clause

The **WHERE** clause allows you to specify the search condition for the rows returned by the query. The following shows the syntax of the **WHERE** clause:

```
1 SELECT
2     select_list
3 FROM
4     table_name
5 WHERE
6     search_condition;
```

The **search\_condition** is a combination of one or more predicates using the logical operator **AND**, **OR** and **NOT**. In SQL, a predicate is an expression that evaluates to true, false, or unknown.

Any row from the **table\_name** that causes the **search\_condition** to evaluate to true will be included in the final result set.

Besides the **SELECT** statement, you can use the **WHERE** clause in the **UPDATE** and **DELETE** statement to specify which rows to update and delete.

### MySQL **WHERE** clause examples

We will use the **employees** table from the [sample database](#) for the demonstration.

	employeeNum	lastName	firstName	extension	email	officeCode	reportsTo	jobTitle
▶	1002	Murphy	Diane	x5800	dmurphy@classicmodelcars.com	1	NULL	President
	1056	Patterson	Mary	x4611	mpatterso@classicmodelcars.com	1	1002	VP Sales
	1076	Firelli	Jeff	x9273	jfirelli@classicmodelcars.com	1	1002	VP Marketing
	1088	Patterson	William	x4871	wpatterson@classicmodelcars.com	6	1056	Sales Manager (APAC)
	1102	Bondur	Gerard	x5408	gbondur@classicmodelcars.com	4	1056	Sale Manager (EMEA)
	1143	Bow	Anthony	x5428	abow@classicmodelcars.com	1	1056	Sales Manager (NA)
	1165	Jennings	Leslie	x3291	ljennings@classicmodelcars.com	1	1143	Sales Rep
	1166	Thompson	Leslie	x4065	lthompson@classicmodelcars.com	1	1143	Sales Rep
	1188	Firelli	Julie	x2173	jfirelli@classicmodelcars.com	2	1143	Sales Rep
	1216	Patterson	Steve	x4334	spatterson@classicmodelcars.com	2	1143	Sales Rep
	1286	Tseng	Foon Yue	x2248	ftseng@classicmodelcars.com	3	1143	Sales Rep
	1323	Vanauf	George	x4102	gvanauf@classicmodelcars.com	3	1143	Sales Rep
	1337	Bondur	Loui	x6493	lbondur@classicmodelcars.com	4	1102	Sales Rep
	1370	Hernandez	Gerard	x2028	ghernande@classicmodelcars.com	4	1102	Sales Rep
	1401	Castillo	Pamela	x2759	pcastillo@classicmodelcars.com	4	1102	Sales Rep
	1501	Rott	Larry	x2311	lrott@classicmodelcars.com	7	1102	Sales Rep

The following query finds the employees whose job title is **Sales Rep**:

```

1 SELECT
2     lastname,
3     firstname,
4     jobtitle
5 FROM
6     employees
7 WHERE
8     jobtitle = 'Sales Rep';

```

	employeeNumber	lastName	firstName	extension	email	officeCode	reportsTo	jobTitle
▶	1002	Murphy	Diane	x5800	dmurphy@classicmodelcars.com	1	NULL	President
	1056	Patterson	Mary	x4611	mpatterso@classicmodelcars.com	1	1002	VP Sales
	1076	Firelli	Jeff	x9273	jfirelli@classicmodelcars.com	1	1002	VP Marketing
	1088	Patterson	William	x4871	wpatterson@classicmodelcars.com	6	1056	Sales Manager (APAC)
	1102	Bondur	Gerard	x5408	gbondur@classicmodelcars.com	4	1056	Sale Manager (EMEA)
	1143	Bow	Anthony	x5428	abow@classicmodelcars.com	1	1056	Sales Manager (NA)
	1165	Jennings	Leslie	x3291	ljennings@classicmodelcars.com	1	1143	Sales Rep
	1166	Thompson	Leslie	x4065	lthompson@classicmodelcars.com	1	1143	Sales Rep
	1188	Firelli	Julie	x2173	jfirelli@classicmodelcars.com	2	1143	Sales Rep
	1216	Patterson	Steve	x4334	spatterson@classicmodelcars.com	2	1143	Sales Rep
	1286	Tseng	Foon Yue	x2248	ftseng@classicmodelcars.com	3	1143	Sales Rep
	1323	Vanauf	George	x4102	gvanauf@classicmodelcars.com	3	1143	Sales Rep
	1337	Bondur	Loui	x6493	lbondur@classicmodelcars.com	4	1102	Sales Rep
	1370	Hernandez	Gerard	x2028	ghernandez@classicmodelcars.com	4	1102	Sales Rep

Even though the **WHERE** clause appears at the end of the statement, MySQL evaluates the expression in the **WHERE** clause first to select the matching rows. It chooses the rows that have a job title as **Sales Rep**

```
1 | jobtitle = 'Sales Rep';
```

MySQL then selects the columns from the select list in the **SELECT** clause. The highlighted area contains the columns and rows in the final result set.

	lastname	firstname	jobtitle
▶	Jennings	Leslie	Sales Rep
	Thompson	Leslie	Sales Rep
	Firelli	Julie	Sales Rep
	Patterson	Steve	Sales Rep
	Tseng	Foon Yue	Sales Rep
	Vanauf	George	Sales Rep
	Bondur	Loui	Sales Rep

You can form a simple condition like the query above, or a very complex one that combines multiple expressions with logical operators.

For example, to find all sales rep in the office code 1, you use the following query:

```

1 SELECT
2     lastname,
3     firstname,
4     jobtitle
5 FROM
6     employees
7 WHERE
8     jobtitle = 'Sales Rep' AND
9     officeCode = 1;

```

	lastname	firstname	jobtitle
►	Jennings	Leslie	Sales Rep
	Thompson	Leslie	Sales Rep

The following table shows the comparison operators that you can use to form filtering expressions in the **WHERE** clause.

Operator	Description
=	Equal to. You can use it with almost any data types.
<> or !=	Not equal to.
<	Less than. You typically use it with numeric and date/time data types.
>	Greater than.
<=	Less than or equal to
>=	Greater than or equal to

The following query uses the not equal to (<>) operator to find all employees who are not the Sales Rep:

```

1 SELECT
2     lastname,
3     firstname,
4     jobtitle
5 FROM
6     employees
7 WHERE
8     jobtitle <> 'Sales Rep';

```

	lastname	firstname	jobtitle
▶	Murphy	Diane	President
	Patterson	Mary	VP Sales
	Firelli	Jeff	VP Marketing
	Patterson	William	Sales Manager (APAC)
	Bondur	Gerard	Sale Manager (EMEA)
	Bow	Anthony	Sales Manager (NA)

The following query find employees whose office code is greater than 5:

```
1 SELECT
2     lastname,
3     firstname,
4     officeCode
5 FROM
6     employees
7 WHERE
8     officecode > 5;
```

	lastname	firstname	officeCode
▶	Patterson	William	6
	Bott	Larry	7
	Jones	Barry	7
	Fixter	Andy	6
	Marsh	Peter	6
	King	Tom	6

The following query returns employees with office code less than or equal 4 ( $\leq 4$ ):

```
1 SELECT
2     lastname,
3     firstname,
4     officeCode
5 FROM
6     employees
7 WHERE
8     officecode <= 4;
```



	lastname	firstname	officeCode
▶	Murphy	Diane	1
	Patterson	Mary	1
	Firrelli	Jeff	1
	Bondur	Gerard	4

## More on MySQL **WHERE** clause...

MySQL provides you with some other operators for using in the **WHERE** clause to form complex search conditions such as:

- [BETWEEN](#) selects values within a range of values.
- [LIKE](#) matches values based on pattern matching.
- [IN](#) specifies if a value matches any value in a set.
- [IS NULL](#) checks if the value is [NULL](#).

In this tutorial, you have learned how to use the MySQL **WHERE** clause to filter rows based on conditions.

## MySQL AND Operator

**Summary:** in this tutorial, you will learn how to the MySQL **AND** operator to combine multiple Boolean expressions to filter data.

### Introduction to MySQL AND operator

The **AND** operator is a logical operator that combines two or more [Boolean](#) expressions and returns true only if both expressions evaluate to true. The **AND** operator returns false if one of the two expressions evaluate to false.

Here is the syntax of the **AND** operator:

```
1 boolean_expression_1 AND boolean_expression_2
```

The following table illustrates the results of the **AND** operator when combining true, false, and null.

	TRUE	FALSE	NULL
TRUE	TRUE	FALSE	NULL
FALSE	FALSE	FALSE	FALSE
NULL	NULL	FALSE	NULL

The **AND** operator is often used in the [WHERE](#) clause of the [SELECT](#), [UPDATE](#), [DELETE](#) statement to form a condition. The **AND** operator is also used in join conditions of the [INNER JOIN](#) and [LEFT JOIN](#) clauses.

When evaluating an expression that has the **AND** operator, MySQL stops evaluating the remaining parts of the expression whenever it can determine the result. This function is called short-circuit evaluation.

Consider the following example.

```
1 SELECT 1 = 0 AND 1 / 0 ;
```

```
1 1 = 0 AND 1 / 0
2 -----
3 0
```

Note that in MySQL, zero is considered false and non-zero is treated as true.

MySQL only evaluates the first part **1 = 0** of the expression **1 = 0 AND 1 / 0**. Because the expression **1 = 0** returns false, MySQL can conclude the result of the whole expression, which is false. MySQL does not evaluate the remaining part of the expression, which is **1/0**; If it did, it would issue an error because of the division by zero error.

### MySQL **AND** operator examples

Let's use the **customers** table in the [sample database](#) for the demonstration.

customers
* customerNumber customerName contactLastName contactFirstName phone addressLine1 addressLine2 city state postalCode country salesRepEmployeeNumber creditLimit

The following statement use the AND operator to find customers who locate in California (CA), USA:

```
1 SELECT
2     customername,
3     country,
4     state
5 FROM
6     customers
7 WHERE
8     country = 'USA' AND state = 'CA';
```

	customername	country	state
►	Mini Gifts Distributors Ltd.	USA	CA
	Mini Wheels Co.	USA	CA
	Technics Stores Inc.	USA	CA
	Toys4GrownUps.com	USA	CA
	Boards & Toys Co.	USA	CA
	Collectable Mini Designs Co.	USA	CA
	Corporate Gift Ideas Co.	USA	CA
	Men 'R' US Retailers, Ltd.	USA	CA
	The Sharp Gifts Warehouse	USA	CA
	West Coast Collectables Co.	USA	CA
	Signal Collectibles Ltd.	USA	CA

By using the **AND** operator, you can combine more than two Boolean expressions. For example, the following query returns the customers who locate in California, USA, and have the credit limit greater than 100K.

```

1 SELECT
2   customername,
3   country,
4   state,
5   creditlimit
6 FROM
7   customers
8 WHERE country = 'USA'
9    AND state = 'CA'
10    AND creditlimit > 100000;

```

	customername	country	state	creditlimit
►	Mini Gifts Distributors Ltd.	USA	CA	210500
	Collectable Mini Designs Co.	USA	CA	105000
	Corporate Gift Ideas Co.	USA	CA	105000

## MySQL OR Operator

**Summary:** in this tutorial, you will learn how to use the MySQL **OR** operator to combine Boolean expressions for filtering data.

### Introduction to the MySQL **OR** operator

The MySQL **OR** operator combines two Boolean expressions and returns true when either condition is true.

The following illustrates the syntax of the **OR** operator.

```
1 boolean_expression_1 OR boolean_expression_2
```

Both **boolean\_expression\_1** and **boolean\_expression\_2** are Boolean expressions that return true, false, or NULL.

The following table shows the result of the **OR** operator.

	TRUE	FALSE	NULL
TRUE	TRUE	TRUE	TRUE
FALSE	TRUE	FALSE	NULL
NULL	TRUE	NULL	NULL

## MySQL **OR** short-circuit evaluation

MySQL uses short-circuit evaluation for the **OR** operator. In other words, MySQL stops evaluating the remaining parts of the statement when it can determine the result.

See the following example.

```
1 SELECT 1 = 1 OR 1 / 0;
```

```
1 1 = 1 OR 1 / 0
2 -----
3 1
```

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# MySQL OR Operator

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	TRUE	FALSE	NULL
TRUE	TRUE	TRUE	TRUE
FALSE	TRUE	FALSE	NULL
NULL	TRUE	NULL	NULL

## MySQL **OR** short-circuit evaluation

MySQL uses short-circuit evaluation for the **OR** operator. In other words, MySQL stops evaluating the remaining parts of the statement when it can determine the result.

See the following example.

```
1 SELECT 1 = 1 OR 1 / 0;
```

[Try It Out](#)

```
1 1 = 1 OR 1 / 0
```

```
2 -----
```

```
3 1
```

Because the expression `1 = 1` always returns true, MySQL does not evaluate the `1 / 0`. If it did, it would issue an error because of the division by zero error.

## Operator precedence

When you use more than one logical operator in an expression, MySQL always evaluates the **OR** operators after the **AND** operators. This is called operator precedence which determines the order of evaluation of the operators. MySQL evaluates the operator with the higher precedence first. See the following example.

```
1 SELECT true OR false AND false;
```

```
1 true OR false AND false
2 -----
3 1
```

How it works

3. First, MySQL evaluates the **AND** operator, therefore the expression **false AND false** returns false.
4. Second, MySQL evaluates the **OR** operator hence the expression **true OR false** returns true.

To change the order of evaluation, you use the parentheses, for example:

```
1 SELECT (true OR false) AND false;
```

```
1 (true OR false) AND false
2 -----
3 0
```

How it works

3. First, MySQL evaluates the expression in the parenthesis **(true OR false)** returns true
4. Second, MySQL evaluates the remaining part of the statement, **true AND false** returns false.

## MySQL **OR** operator examples

We will use the customers table in the [sample database](#) for the demonstration.

customers
* customerNumber
customerName
contactLastName
contactFirstName
phone
addressLine1
addressLine2
city
state
postalCode
country
salesRepEmployeeNumber
creditLimit

For example, to get the customers who locate in the USA or France, you use the **OR** operator in the **WHERE** clause as follows:

```
1 SELECT
2   customername,
3   country
4 FROM
5   customers
6 WHERE country = 'USA'
7    OR country = 'France';
```

To learn more, visit <https://www.mysqltutorial.org/>