CSE 302 Database Management Systems Sessional

Lab - 5

GROUP FUNCTIONS

Group Function

- Also known as "Multiple-Row Functions".
- They operates on set of rows to give one result per group.
- These set may be the whole table or the table split into groups.
- These are similar to the "aggregate functions" or "Group By" functions in Access

Group Functions

- SUM
- AVG
- COUNT
- MIN
- MAX

Group Functions

- GROUP BY clause
 - To identify groups of records to be processed
- ORDER BY clause
 - To sort the records
- HAVING clause
 - To restrict the groups displayed

SELECT * | column1, column2, ...
FROM tableName
WHERE Condition
GROUP BY column1, column2, ...
ORDER BY cloumn1, column2, ...
HAVING group condition

Group Functions

SUM function

- Calculates the total amount in a numeric field for a group of records.
 - SUM(n) where n is a numeric column
 - SUM(ALL n) the same as above
 - SUM(DISTINCT n) returns only the unique numeric values

SUM function

• Display total salary of all employees.

SELECT SUM(Salary) "Total Salary" FROM Employee;

• Display total salary of the employees of e_city_001.

SELECT SUM(Salary) "Total Salary of E_CITY_001" FROM Employee
WHERE Employee_city='e_city_001';

AVG function

- AVG(column containing numeric data)
- AVG(DISTINCT [column containing numeric data])
 - DISTINCT keyword returns only unique values

AVG function

• Display average salary of all employees.

SELECT AVG(Salary) " Average Salary" FROM Employee;

• Display average salary of the employees of e_city_001.

SELECT AVG (Salary) "Average Salary of E_CITY_001" FROM Employee
WHERE Employee_city='e_city_001';

MAX and MIN function

- Returns the largest and smallest values in a specified column.
- MAX(ALL c) or MIN(ALL c)
 - where c is any numeric, character, or date field
- MAX(c) or MIN(c)
 - the same result as above
- MAX(DISTINCT c) or MIN(DISTINCT c)
 - returns the highest or lowest distinct value

MAX and MIN function

Display the maximum salary of employees.

SELECT MAX(Salary) "Highest Salary" FROM Employee;

• Display the minimum DOB of employees.

SELECT MIN(EMPLOYEE_DOB) FROM EMPLOYEE;

COUNT function

- Counts the records that have non-NULL values
- Counts the total records meeting a specific condition

COUNT function

Display the count of cities.

SELECT COUNT(EMPLOYEE_CITY) FROM EMPLOYEE;

- This counts all categories (including duplicates)
- Display the count of unique cities only.

SELECT COUNT(DISTINCT EMPLOYEE_CITY) FROM EMPLOYEE;

This counts unique (or distinct) categories

Group functions and NULL values

• All Group functions except COUNT(*) ignore null values in the column.

COUNT Function - NULL Values

- Including the NULL values
 - COUNT(*) counts all the records, even NULLS
 - Whenever NULL values may affect the COUNT the function, use an * as the argument, rather than a column name.

SELECT COUNT(*) FROM EMPLOYEE;

• Divides the table of information into smaller groups.

```
SELECT .....
FROM .....
GROUP BY column1, column2,...;
```

Divide the Employee table into groups by City.
 Then calculate the average salary for each group.

SELECT Employee_city, Avg(Salary)
FROM Employee
GROUP BY Employee_city;

- The query execution goes like this:
 - The records in the Employee table are grouped by City
 - The average Salary for each City is calculated.

 Display the Sum of All Balance of the Same City according to their account type.

SELECT Cust_city, SUM(Balance), Type FROM Customer NATURAL JOIN Depositor NATURAL JOIN Account GROUP BY Cust_city, Type;

- The GROUP BY first groups the results by cust_city
- Then groups the Account TYPE within each customer City group.
- Then the SUM function calculates the Balance total.

ORDER BY Clause

ORDER BY Clause

• Divide the Employee table into groups by City. Then calculate the average salary for each group and order the result by average salary.

```
SELECT Employee_city, Avg(Salary)
FROM Employee
GROUP BY Employee_city
ORDER BY Avg(Salary);
```

Order by Descending order-

```
SELECT Employee_city, Avg(Salary)
FROM Employee
GROUP BY Employee_city
ORDER BY Avg(Salary) DESC;
```

HAVING Clause

HAVING Clause

- To further restrict groups returned by a query (Specifies which groups will be returned)
- Use a HAVING clause instead of a WHERE clause when group functions are involved.

HAVING(condition)

HAVING Clause

 Display the cust_city, total balance and account type of customers with balance>1000.

SELECT Cust_city, SUM(Balance), Type
FROM Customer NATURAL JOIN Depositor
NATURAL JOIN Account
GROUP BY Cust_city, Type
HAVING SUM(Balance)>1000;

WHERE and HAVING

Both can be used in the same query.

SELECT Cust_city, SUM(Balance), Type FROM Customer NATURAL JOIN Depositor NATURAL JOIN Account

WHERE Cust_dob > '01-JAN-80' GROUP BY Cust_city, Type HAVING SUM(Balance)>1000;

SELECT Employee_city, Avg(Salary)
FROM Employee
WHERE Employee_startdate>'01-JAN-80'
GROUP BY Employee_city
HAVING AVG(Salary)>1000;

Nesting Group Functions

 Group Functions can be nested to a depth of two.

SELECT Max(Avg(Salary))
FROM Employee
GROUP BY Employee_city;

Some general rules

- For using a mixture of individual items(Employee_city) and group functions (AVG) in the same SELECT statement, you must include a GROUP BY Clause that specifies the individual items.
- You can't use WHERE Clause to restrict groups.
- You have to use the HAVING Clause to restrict groups.

Practice Problems for Group Functions

 Write a query to display the number of customer with the same city.

• Display the Manager Number and the Salary of the lowest paid employee for that manager.

• Display the Manager Number and the difference between the highest and the lowest Salary of the employee for that manager.

 Display the minimum, maximum, sum and average salary for each group of employee having the same city.

CONSTRAINTS

Constraints

 Constraints are rules to enforce business rules, practices, and policies

- Why do we need constraints?
 - To keep the database reliable.
 - To prevent a user from entering non-sensical data.
 - The business or other organization has certain rules that cannot be violated.
- Constraints are used for implementing the rules.

Reasons for using Constraints

- Enforce rules at the table level whenever a row is inserted, updated or deleted from the table.
 The constraints must be satisfied for the operation to be succeed.
- Prevent the deletion of a table if there are dependencies from other tables.
- Provide rules fro Oracle tools such as Oracle Developer.

Types of Constraints

Constraint	Abbr.	Description
PRIMARY KEY	_pk	 Determine which column(s) uniquely identifies each record. It can not be NULL. Data values must be unique.
FOREIGN KEY	_fk	 •In a one-to-many relationship, it is added to the 'many' table. •The constraint ensures that if a value is inserted into a specified column, it must already exist in the 'one' table, or the record is not added.
UNIQUE	_uk	•Ensures that all data values stored in a specific column are unique. •It differs from the PK in that it allows NULL values.
CHECK	_ck	•Ensures that a specified condition is true before the data value is added to the table.
NOT NULL	_nn	•Ensures that a specified column can not contain any NULL value. •It can only be created in the column level approach to table creation.

Ways of applying Constraints

• As part of a **CREATE TABLE** command

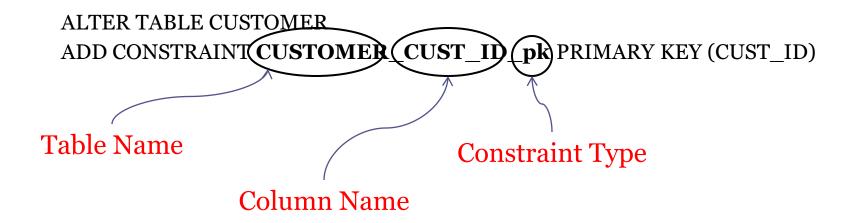
or

As part of an ALTER TABLE command

Syntax for entering a constraint name

TableName_ColumName_ConstraintType

Apply the Primary Key constraint on the CUST_ID column of Customer table.



PRIMARY KEY

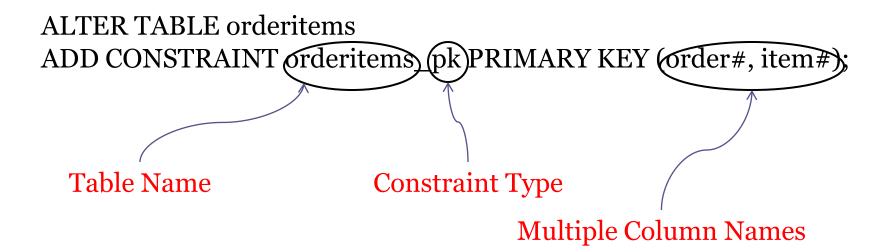
```
Create table Customer
(
    Cust_id VARCHAR2(12) PRIMARY KEY,
    Cust_nam VARCHAR2(12),
    Cust_dob DATE,
    Cust_street VARCHAR2(12),
    Cust_city VARCHAR2(12),
);
```

```
Create table Customer
(
Cust_id VARCHAR2(12),
Cust_nam VARCHAR2(12),
Cust_dob DATE,
Cust_street VARCHAR2(12),
Cust_city VARCHAR2(12),
CUST_city VARCHAR2(12),
CONSTRAINT Customer_CUST_ID_pk PRIMARY KEY(CUST_ID)
);
```

```
ALTER TABLE CUSTOMER
ADD CONSTRAINT Customer_CUST_ID_pk PRIMARY KEY(CUST_ID);
```

PRIMARY KEY - COMPOSITE

• Simply list the column names within parentheses after the constraint type.



 After this constraint is added to the ORDERITEMS table, a user can enter only a unique combination of Order# and Item# for each new row.

FOREIGN KEY

ALTER TABLE Depositor

ADD CONSTRAINT Depositor_Cust_ID_fk FOREIGN KEY (Cust_ID) REFERENCES Customer (Cust_ID);

- A record cannot be deleted in the parent table (CUSTOMER) if matching entries exist in the child table.
- That is, you cannot delete a customer form the CUSTOMERS table if there are Account in the DEPOSITOR table that Customer.
- But what if you really want to remove a customer (from the CUSTOMERS table) that does have related Account (in the DEPOSITOR table).

FOREIGN KEY

- The conventional method is to
 - First, remove the related records from the child table (DEPOSITOR)
 - Then, remove the customer record form the CUSTOMER table.
- A simpler method is available:

ALTER TABLE DEPOSITOR
ADD CONSTRAINT DEPOSITOR _CUST_ID_fk
FOREIGN KEY (CUST_ID) REFERENCES CUSTOMER (CUST_ID) ON
DELETE CASCADE;

- If a record is deleted from the parent table, then any corresponding records in the child table are also automatically deleted.
 - To try the above, you have to first remove the original FOREIGN KEY constraint:

ALTER TABLE DEPOSITOR DROP CONSTRAINT DEPOSITOR _CUST_ID_fk;

FOREIGN KEY - Composite

```
CREATE TABLE Depositor

(
Cust_id VARCHAR2(12) NOT NULL,
Account_id VARCHAR2(12) NOT NULL,
COSNTRAINT DEPOSITOR_CUST_ID_FK FOREIGN
KEY(CUST_ID) REFERENCES CUSTOMER(CUST_ID),
COSNTRAINT DEPOSITOR_ACCOUNT_ID_FK FOREIGN
KEY(ACCOUNT_ID) REFERENCES ACCOUNT(ACCOUNT_ID)
);
```

CHECK

```
Create table Account
Account id VARCHAR2(12) NOT NULL UNIQUE,
Balance NUMBER(20,5) CHECK( Balance>0),
Type VARCHAR2(8)
);
Create table Account
Account id VARCHAR2(12) NOT NULL UNIQUE,
Balance NUMBER(20,5) CHECK( Balance>0),
Type VARCHAR2(8)
CONSTRAINT Account_Balance_ck CHECK(Balance>o)
);
```

UNIQUE

```
Create table Account
Account_id VARCHAR2(12) NOT NULL,
Balance NUMBER(20,5),
Type VARCHAR2(8),
CONSTRAINT Account_ACCID_uk UNIQUE(Account_id)
);
ALTER TABLE ACCOUNT
ADD CONSTRAINT ACCOUNT_ACCOUNT_ID_uk
 UNIQUE(ACCOUNT_ID);
```

UNIQUE

• A UNIQUE constraint allows NULL values unless define NOT NULL in the same column

 A PRIMARY KEY constraint does not allow NULL values

NOT NULL

```
Create table Customer
 Cust id VARCHAR2(12) NOT NULL,
             VARCHAR2(12),
 Cust name
 Cust dob
             DATE,
 Cust street VARCHAR2(12),
 Cust_city VARCHAR2(12)
);
ALTER TABLE CUSTOMER
MODIFY (CUST ID NOT NULL);
```

ADD Constraints

- You can add, drop, enable or disable a constraint, but you cannot modify its structure.
- You can add a NOT NULL constraint to an existing column by using the MODIFY Clause of the ALTER TABLE statement.

DROP Constraints

- To drop a constraint, you can identify the constraint name from the USER_CONSTRAINTS and then use ALTER TABLE command with the DROP clause.
- To remove the primary key constraint from the Customer Table and drop the associated FOREIGN KEY constraint-

ALTER TABLE CUSTOMER DROP PRIMARY KEY CASCADE;

Viewing constraints

• Query the USER_CONSTRAINTS table to view all the constraint definition and names.

```
SELECT CONSTRAINT_NAME, CONSTRAINT_TYPE, SEARCH_CONDITION
FROM USER_CONSTRAINTS
WHERE TABLE_NAME='CUSTOMER';
```

 Viewing The Columns Associated With Constraints

SELECT CONSTRAINT_NAME, COLUMN_NAME FROM USER_CONS_COLUMNS WHERE TABLE_NAME='CUSTOMER';

Practice Problems for Constraints

- Add a FOREIGN KEY CONSTRAINT on the EMPLOYEE table that ensures that each Employee's Manager also exists in Employee Table.
- CREATE TABLE BORROWER in such a way that Cust_ID must be in Customer table and Loan_ID must be in LOAN table.

FUNCTIONS

CASE Based Functions

CASE CONVERSION FUNCTIONS

- To convert letters to lower or upper case
- Most database administrators rarely need to use character functions
- Application developers frequently include them to create user-friendly database interfaces
- In Oracle, the comparisons of data are casesensitive.

CASE CONVERSION FUNCTIONS

```
SELECT branch_name
FROM branch
WHERE branch_city = "HORSENECK";
```

- Executing it No rows will be returned.
 - Why?
 - The branch city we're looking for is stored in as "Horseneck". But the search key has been entered in upper case as "HORSENECK".

CASE CONVERSION FUNCTIONS

- 2 Functions
 - LOWER Converts character strings to lowercase
 - UPPER Converts character strings to uppercase

LOWER

SELECT branch_name FROM branch WHERE lower(branch_city) = "horseneck";

- The LOWER function temporarily converts the branch_city values to lower case.
- Thus, the "Horseneck" branch_city is converted to "horseneck", which matches the search key "horseneck"

UPPER

SELECT branch_name FROM branch WHERE upper(branch_city) = "HORSENECK";

INITCAP

• To convert character strings to mixed case, with each word beginning with a capital letter.

SELECT INITCAP(branch_name)
FROM branch
WHERE branch_name='North town';

SELECT INITCAP(branch_name) AS Branch_Name FROM branch
WHERE branch_name='North town';

CHARACTER MANIPULATION FUNCTIONS

SUBSTR

Used to return a substring, or portion of a string

SUBSTR(character string, beginning character position, length of string to be returned)

- SELECT branch_name,
 SUBSTR(branch_name,1,3) FROM branch;
- SELECT branch_name,
 SUBSTR(branch_name,4,2) FROM branch;

LENGTH

LENGTH(character string)

SELECT branch_name, LENGTH(branch_name) FROM branch;

LPAD

LPAD(string to be padded, length of string after padding, symbol used to pad)

SELECT branch_name, LPAD(branch_name,12,' ') FROM branch;

RPAD

RPAD(string to be padded, length of string after padding, symbol used to pad)

SELECT branch_name, RPAD(branch_name,12,' ') FROM branch;

LTRIM

• Removes a specific string of characters from the left side of the data

LTRIM(data, specific string to be removed from the left side of the data)

SELECT cust_id, LTRIM(cust_id,'C') FROM customer;

RTRIM

• Removes a specific string of characters from the right side of the data

RTRIM(data, specific string to be removed from the right side of the data)

SELECT cust_id, LTRIM(cust_id,'C') FROM customer;

REPLACE

• Similar to "search and replace" in some application programs

REPLACE(column, string to be found, string replacement)

SELECT cust_id, REPLACE(cust_id, 'Cooo', 'Cust') FROM customer;

CONCAT

- Concatenates the data from two columns
- Combines only two items (columns or string literals)

CONCAT(column or string, column or string)

SELECT cust_name, CONCAT('Customer Number: ', cust_id) "Number" FROM customer;

 To concatenate more than two items, you must nest a CONCAT function inside another CONCAT function

NUMERIC FUNCTIONS

ROUND

- To round numeric fields to the stated precision
 - If position is a positive number, it refers to the right side of the decimal point.
 - If position is a negative number, function rounds to the left side of the decimal point.

ROUND(numeric field to be rounded, position of the digit to which the data should be rounded)

ROUND

SELECT ROUND(3162.845, 1) AS ROUNDED FROM dual;

^a 3162.8

SELECT ROUND(3162.8451297, 5) AS ROUNDED FROM dual;

· 3162.84513

ROUND

SELECT ROUND(3162.845, -2) AS ROUNDED FROM dual;

⁻ 3200

SELECT ROUND(1234,-2) AS ROUNDED FROM dual;

1200

TRUNC

- To truncate a numeric value to a specific position
 - If position is a positive number, it refers to the right side of the decimal point.
 - If position is a negative number, function rounds to the left side of the decimal point.

TRUNC(numeric field to be rounded, position of the digit from which the data should be removed)

TRUNC

SELECT TRUNC(15.79,1) "Truncate" FROM DUAL;

^o 15.7

SELECT TRUNC(123456.76,-4) "Truncate" FROM DUAL;

¹ 120000

DATE FUNCTIONS

DATE

• DATE function displays date values in a DD-MON-YY format

Difference between Two dates

```
SELECT Employee_id, Employee_dob,
Employee_startdate,
Employee_startdate - Employee_dob
FROM Employee;
```

Difference between Two dates

• The delay between the two dates in weeks:

```
SELECT Employee_id, Employee_dob,
Employee_startdate,
(Employee_startdate - Employee_dob)/7
"DELAY IN WEEKS"
FROM Employee;
```

MONTHS_BETWEEN

Determines the number of months between two dates

MONTHS_BETWEEN(later date, earlier date)

SELECT Employee_id,
MONTHS_BETWEEN (Employee_startdate,
Employee_dob) "Delay in Months"
FROM Employee;

ADD_MONTHS

ADD_MONTHS(beginning date, number of months to add to the date)

SELECT Employee_id, ADD_MONTHS (Employee_startdate, 60) "First Promotion date"

FROM Employee Order by "First Promotion date";

NEXT_DAY

 Determines the next occurrence of a specific day of the week after a given date

NEXT_DAY(starting date, day of week to be identified)

SELECT Employee_id, NEXT_DAY(Employee_startdate, "MONDAY") "First Monday After Joining" FROM Employee;

TO_DATE

 The default format for entering a date in an Oracle database is

DD-MON-YY

Example: 31-MAR-03

- The TO_DATE function enables a database application user to enter a date in a familiar common format.
- Syntax: TO_DATE(date entered by user, format model for the date entered)
- Both arguments are character strings; thus enclose each in single quotation marks

The Nesting of Functions

A function is used as an argument inside another function

Rules

- One must include all arguments for each function.
- For every open parenthesis, there must be a corresponding closed parenthesis.
- The inner function is resolved first, then the outer function.

The Nesting of Functions

• To determine the number of months between the Employee_startdate and Employee_dob, we use the MONTHS_BETWEEN function.

SELECT Employee_id, **MONTHS_BETWEEN**(Employee_startdate, Employee_dob) "Delay in Months"
FROM Employee;

• To suppress the decimal places generated by the Months_Between function, we can use the result of the Months_Between function as an input to the TRUNC function.

SELECT Employee_id, **TRUNC(MONTHS_BETWEEN** (**Employee_startdate, Employee_dob),o)** "Delay in Months" FROM Employee;

THANK YOU