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**LECTURE 21** 

### **SQL** the Sequel

Expanding our SQL syntax.

Data 100/Data 200, Spring 2025 @ UC Berkeley

Narges Norouzi and Josh Grossman

Content credit: Acknowledgments





# Goals for Today's Lecture

Lecture 21, Data 100 Spring 2025

#### Continue our tour of SQL

- Finish Basic Queries
- Grouping
- Filtering Groups
- Perform EDA in SQL
- Join Tables Together
- IMDB Demo





# Finish Basic Queries

Lecture 21, Data 100 Spring 2025

#### Finish Basic Queries

- Grouping
- Filtering Groups
- Perform EDA in SQL
- Join Tables Together
- IMDB Demo



#### **New keywords**

```
2079322
```

```
SELECT <column list>
FROM 
[WHERE column list>]
[ORDER BY <column list>]
[LIMIT <number of rows>]
[OFFSET <number of rows>];
```

## **Goal of this section**

By the end of this section, you will learn these new keywords!



#### But first, more SELECT

Recall our simplest query, which returns the full relation:

nameyearcutehiccup201010drogon2011-100dragon 220190puff2010100smaug2011None

FROM Dragon;
table name

**SELECT** specifies the column(s) that we wish to appear in the output. **FROM** specifies the database table from which to select data.

Every query must include a **SELECT** clause (how else would we know what to return?) and a **FROM** clause (how else would we know where to get the data?)

An asterisk (\*) is shorthand for "all columns". Let's see a bit more in our demo.



#### But first, more **SELECT**

Recall our simplest query, which returns the full relation:

SELECT FROM Dragon; table name

hiccup 2010 10 2011 drogon -100 dragon 2 2019 0 puff 2010 100 2011 None smaug

year

name

cute

We can also **SELECT** only a **subset of the columns**:

	column expression list
SELECT cute,	year
FROM Dragon;	

cute	year	4
10	2010	Columns selecte
-100	2011	specified order
0	2019	
100	2010	
None	2011	

in

#### **Aliasing with AS**



To rename a **SELECT**ed column, use the **AS** keyword

SELECT	cute	AS	cuteness,
	year	AS	birth
FROM Di	ragon	;	

An **alias** is a name given to a column or table by a programmer. Here, "cuteness" is an alias of the original "cute" column (and "birth" is an alias of "year")

cuteness	birth
10	2010
-100	2011
0	2019
100	2010
None	2011



#### Uniqueness with DISTINCT



To return only unique values, combine **SELECT** with the **DISTINCT** keyword

## SELECT DISTINCT year FROM Dragon;

Notice that 2010 and 2011 only appear once each in the output.

name	year	cute
hiccup	2010	10
drogon	2011	-100
dragon 2	2019	0
puff	2010	100
smaug	2011	None



#### WHERE: Select a rows based on conditions

To select only some rows of a table, we can use the WHERE keyword.

SELECT name, year FROM Dragon WHERE cute > 0; condition

name	year
hiccup	2010
puff	2010





#### WHERE: Select a rows based on conditions



Comparators OR, AND, and NOT let us form more complex conditions.

	condition	
•	0 <b>OR</b> year > 2013;	
FROM Dragon		
SELECT name,	year	

name	cute	year
hiccup	10	2010
puff	100	2010
dragon 2	0	2019

Check if values are contained IN a specified list

SELECT name, year FROM Dragon WHERE name IN ('hiccup', 'puff');

name	year
puff	2010
hiccup	2010



#### Strings and SQL

Strings in SQL should use **single quote:** 

- 'Hello World' is a String
- "Hello World" is a column name which contains a space (you can do that...)

Double quoted strings refer to columns:

SELECT "birth weight" FROM patient WHERE "first name" = 'Joey'



#### WHERE with NULL Values



NULL (the SQL equivalent of NaN) is stored in a special format – we can't use the "standard" operators =, >, and <.

Instead, check if something IS or IS NOT NULL

hiccup 10

SELECT name, cute
FROM Dragon
WHERE cute IS NOT NULL;

name cute

hiccup 10

dragon -100

Always work with NULLs using the **IS** operator. NULL does not work with standard comparisons: in fact, NULL = NULL actually returns False!



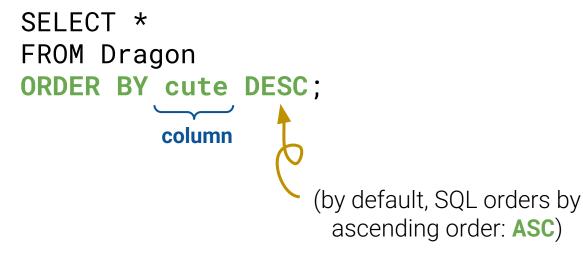
puff

100

#### **ORDER BY: Sort rows**



Specify which column(s) we should order the data by



name	year	cute
puff	2010	100
hiccup	2010	10
dragon 2	2019	0
drogon	2011	-100
smaug	2011	None



#### ORDER BY: Sort rows



Specify which column(s) we should order the data by

SELECT \*
FROM Dragon
ORDER BY year, cute DESC;

Can also order by multiple columns (for tiebreaks)

Sorts year in ascending order and cute in descending order. If you want year to be ordered in descending order as well, you need to specify year DESC, cute DESC;

name	year	cute
puff	2010	100
hiccup	2010	10
drogon	2011	-100
smaug	2011	None
dragon 2	2019	0



#### OFFSET and LIMIT?

1. SELECT \*
FROM Dragon
LIMIT 2;

A.

hiccup 2010 10

drogon 2011 -100

name year cute
hiccup 2010 10
drogon 2011 -100
dragon 2 2019 0
Dragon

2. SELECT \*
 FROM Dragon
 LIMIT 2
 OFFSET 1;

name year cute
drogon 2011 -100
dragon 2 2019 0

matches each relation?
What do you think the
LIMIT and OFFSET
keywords do?

**Matching**: Which query







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# Matching: Which query matches each relation?

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#### OFFSET and LIMIT

The LIMIT keyword lets you retrieve N rows (like pandas head).

SELECT \*
FROM Dragon
LIMIT 2;

name	year	cute	
hiccup	2010	10	
drogon	2011	-100	

name	year	cute
hiccup	2010	10
drogon	2011	-100
dragon 2	2019	0
Dr	ragon	<i>/</i>

The **OFFSET** keyword tells SQL to skip the first N rows of the output, then apply **LIMIT**.

SELECT *
FROM Dragon
LIMIT 2
OFFSET 1:

year	cute
2011	-100
2019	0
	2011

Unless you use ORDER BY, there is no guaranteed order of rows in the relation!



#### New keywords



```
SELECT <column list>
FROM 
[WHERE predicate>]
[ORDER BY <column list>]
[LIMIT <number of rows>]
[OFFSET <number of rows>];
```

## **Summary So Far**

- All queries must include **SELECT** and **FROM**. The remaining keywords are optional.
- By convention, use **all caps** for keywords in SQL statements.
- Use newlines to make code more readable.



#### Sampling



We can use **RANDOM** or **SAMPLE** to get a sample of the dataset.

```
%%sql
SELECT *
FROM Dragon
ORDER BY RANDOM()
LIMIT 2
```

Randomizes the entire table (reorder rows randomly) and returns two rows as requested.

```
%%sql
SELECT *
FROM Dragon USING SAMPLE reservoir(2 ROWS) REPEATABLE (100);
```

Uses a seed to randomly draw two samples from the table.

It's more efficient than ordering the entire table using RANDOM.





#### Finish Basic Queries

- Grouping
- Filtering Groups
- Perform EDA in SQL
- Join Tables Together
- IMDB Demo

### Grouping

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#### The Dish Table



We're ready for a more complicated table.

SELECT \*
FROM Dish;

cost	type	name
10	entree	ravioli
13	entree	ramen
7	entree	taco
4	appetizer	edamame
4	appetizer	fries
4	appetizer	potsticker
5	dessert	ice cream



#### The Dish Table



We're ready for a more complicated table.

SELECT \*
FROM Dish;

Notice the repeated dish types. What if we wanted to investigate trends across each group?

name	type	cost
ravioli	entree	10
ramen	entree	13
taco	entree	7
edamame	appetizer	4
fries	appetizer	4
potsticker	appetizer	4
ice cream	dessert	5

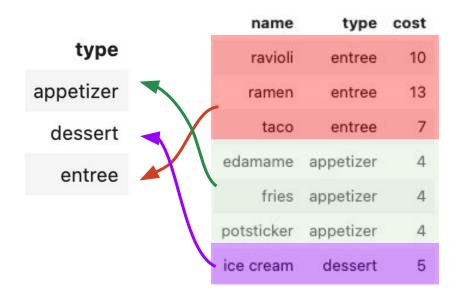


#### **GROUP BY**



**GROUP** BY is similar to pandas groupby().

SELECT type FROM Dish GROUP BY type;





#### **Aggregating Across Groups**



Like pandas, SQL has aggregate functions: MAX, SUM, AVG, FIRST, etc.

For more aggregations, see: <a href="https://duckdb.org/docs/sql/aggregates.html">https://duckdb.org/docs/sql/aggregates.html</a>

SELECT type, SUM(cost)
FROM Dish
GROUP BY type;

эе	sum("cost")
ee	30
ert	5
er	12

Wait, something's weird...



#### **Declarative Programming**

Wait, something's weird...

SELECT type, SUM(cost)
FROM Dish
GROUP BY type;

We told SQL to SUM in our SELECT statement...

...but didn't specify the groups until GROUP BY

This is okay!

Unlike Python, SQL is a declarative programming language.

Declarative programming is a non-imperative style of programming in which programs describe their desired results without explicitly listing commands or steps that must be performed.

<u>Wikipedia</u>



#### **Declarative Programming**



Declarative programming is a non-imperative style of programming in which programs describe their desired results without explicitly listing commands or steps that must be performed.

<u>Wikipedia</u>

#### What this means to us:

- We "declare" our desired end result
- SQL handles the rest! We do not need to specify any logical steps for how this result should be created

We just need to follow the **SQL order of operations** with our clauses to allow SQL to parse our request. Everything else will be handled behind the scenes. (SELECT, FROM, WHERE, GROUP BY, HAVING, ORDER BY, LIMIT) (more info)

#### High-level cheat sheet on order of **execution** by the SQL engine:

- SELECT 4. GROUP BY
- 2. FROM 5. ORDER BY
- 3. WHERE



#### **Using Multiple Aggregation Functions**

```
SELECT type,
SUM(cost),
MIN(cost),
MAX(name)
FROM Dish
GROUP BY type;
```







#### **Using Multiple Aggregation Functions**

SELECT type,
SUM(cost),
MIN(cost),
MAX(name)
FROM Dish
GROUP BY type;



max("name")	min("cost")	sum("cost")	type
taco	7	30	entree
ice cream	5	5	dessert
potsticker	4	12	appetizer







#### The COUNT Aggregation

COUNT is used to count the number of rows belonging to a group.

SELECT year, COUNT(cute)	year cou	nt(cute)
FROM Dragon	2010	2
GROUP BY year;	2011	1
Similar to pandas groupby().count()	2019	1

SELECT year, COUNT(\*)
FROM Dragon
GROUP BY year;
Similar to pandas

Similar to pandas
groupby().size()

year	count_star()
2010	2
2011	2
2019	1



count(\*) returns the number of rows in each group, including rows with **NULLs**.



#### **New keywords**



```
SELECT <column expression list>
FROM 
[WHERE <predicate>]
[GROUP BY <column list>]
[ORDER BY <column list>]
[LIMIT <number of rows>]
[OFFSET <number of rows>];
```

#### Summary So Far

- By convention, use all caps for keywords in SQL statements.
- Use newlines to make SQL code more readable.
- **AS** keyword: rename columns during selection process.
- Column Expressions may include aggregation functions (MAX, MIN, etc.)





### **Filtering Groups**

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#### Filtering Groups With HAVING



What if we only want to keep groups that obey a certain condition?

HAVING filters groups by applying some condition across all rows in each group.

How to interpret: "keep only the groups **HAVING** some condition"

SELECT columns
FROM table
GROUP BY grouping\_column
HAVING condition\_applied\_across\_group;

Same as filter in groupby ("type").filter(lambda f: condition)



#### **Animation:** WHERE vs. HAVING



- Rows, use **WHERE**.
- Groups, use HAVING.

WHERE precedes HAVING.



FROM Dish
WHERE cost > 4
GROUP BY type
HAVING MAX(cost) < 10;</pre>





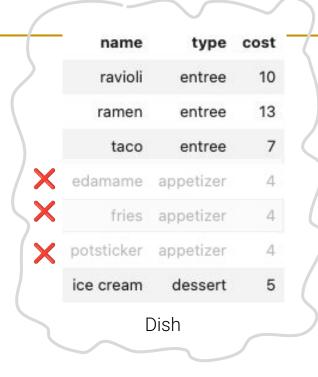
#### **Animation:** WHERE vs. HAVING

#### To filter:

- Rows, use **WHERE**.
- Groups, use HAVING.

WHERE precedes HAVING.

SELECT \*
FROM Dish
WHERE cost > 4
GROUP BY type
HAVING MAX(cost) < 10;





#### **Animation:** WHERE vs. HAVING

#### To filter:

- Rows, use **WHERE**.
- Groups, use **HAVING**.

WHERE precedes HAVING.

SELECT \*
FROM Dish
WHERE cost > 4
GROUP BY type



HAVING MAX(cost) < 10;





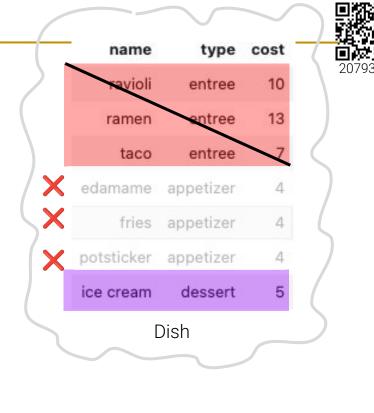
#### **Animation:** WHERE vs. HAVING

#### To filter:

- Rows, use **WHERE**.
- Groups, use HAVING.

WHERE precedes HAVING.

SELECT \*
FROM Dish
WHERE cost > 4
GROUP BY type
HAVING MAX(cost) < 10;</pre>





### Quick Check: WHERE vs. HAVING

How many rows will be returned from the following query?

```
SELECT year, MAX(cute)
FROM Dragon
WHERE name in ('hiccup','dragon','puff')
GROUP BY year
HAVING MIN(cute) >= 0;
```

	name	year	cute	
	hiccup	2010	10	
	drogon	2011	-100	
dr	agon 2	2019	0	
	puff	2010	100	
	smaug	2011	None	
\		Dragon		







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# How many rows will be returned from the following query?

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#### Quick Check: WHERE vs. HAVING



How many rows will be returned from the following query?

```
SELECT year, MAX(cute)
FROM Dragon
WHERE name in ('hiccup','dragon','puff')
GROUP BY year
HAVING MIN(cute) >= 0;
                      max(cute)
                 year
```

2010

100





# **New keywords**



```
SELECT <column expression list>
FROM 
[WHERE <predicate>]
[GROUP BY <column list>]
[HAVING <predicate>]
[ORDER BY <column list>]
[LIMIT <number of rows>]
[OFFSET <number of rows>];
```

# Summary So Far

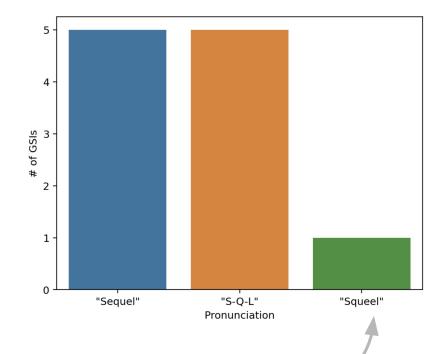
- By convention, use all caps for keywords in SQL statements.
- Use newlines to make SQL code more readable.
- AS keyword: rename columns during selection process.
- WHERE: rows; HAVING: groups. WHERE precedes HAVING.



# Interlude

"Sequel" or "S-Q-L"? Your TAs are split.





A new variant, which was a surprise to everyone involved.





# Perform EDA in SQL

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#### The IMDB Dataset



IMDB = "Internet Movie Database"

# Contains information about movies and actors. For example, the Title table:

tconst	titleType	primaryTitle	originalTitle	isAdult	startYear	endYear	runtimeMinutes	genres
381681	movie	Before Sunset	Before Sunset	0	2004	None	80	Drama,Romance
81846	tvMiniSeries	Cosmos	Cosmos	0	1980	1980	780	Documentary
8526872	movie	Dolemite Is My Name	Dolemite Is My Name	0	2019	None	118	Biography,Comedy,Drama
309593	movie	Final Destination 2	Final Destination 2	0	2003	None	90	Horror,Thriller
882977	movie	Snitch	Snitch	0	2013	None	112	Action,Drama,Thriller
9619798	movie	The Wrong Missy	The Wrong Missy	0	2020	None	90	Comedy,Romance
1815862	movie	After Earth	After Earth	0	2013	None	100	Action, Adventure, Sci-Fi
2800240	movie	Serial (Bad) Weddings	Qu'est-ce qu'on a fait au Bon Dieu?	0	2014	None	97	Comedy
2562232	movie	Birdman or (The Unexpected Virtue of Ignorance)	Birdman or (The Unexpected Virtue of Ignorance)	0	2014	None	119	Comedy, Drama
356910	movie	Mr. & Mrs. Smith	Mr. & Mrs. Smith	0	2005	None	120	Action,Comedy,Crime



### Working with Text: LIKE



We can perform simple text comparisons in SQL using the LIKE keyword

How to interpret: "look for entries that are LIKE the provided example string"

SELECT titleType, primaryTitle
FROM Title
WHERE primaryTitle LIKE '%Star Wars%';

DuckDB and most real DBMSs also support:

SIMILAR TO '.\*Star Wars.\*'

titleType	primaryTitle
movie	Star Wars: Episode IV - A New Hope
movie	Star Wars: Episode V - The Empire Strikes Back
movie	Star Wars: Episode VI - Return of the Jedi
movie	Star Wars: Episode I - The Phantom Menace
movie	Star Wars: Episode II - Attack of the Clones
movie	Star Wars: Episode III - Revenge of the Sith

Two "wildcard" characters:

- % means "look for any character, any number of times"
- \_ means "look for exactly 1 character"



# **Converting Data Types: CAST**



To convert a column to a different data type, use the CAST keyword as part of the SELECT statement. Returns a *column* of the new data type, which we then SELECT for our output.

# SELECT primaryTitle, CAST(runtimeMinutes AS INT) FROM Title;

primaryTitle	CAST(runtimeMinutes AS INTEGER)
Miss Jerry	45
The Corbett-Fitzsimmons Fight	100
Bohemios	100
The Story of the Kelly Gang	70
The Prodigal Son	90
Robbery Under Arms	None
Hamlet	None
Don Quijote	None

Creates a copy of the column with all values of converted to the new data type. We then SELECT this column to include it in the output.

Similar to .astype in pandas



# **Applying Conditions: CASE**



We create conditional statements (like a Python if) using CASE

```
CASE WHEN <condition> THEN <value>
WHEN <other condition> THEN <other value>
...
ELSE <yet another value>
END
```

Conceptually, very similar to CAST – the CASE statement creates a new column, which we then SELECT to appear in the output.



# **Applying Conditions: CASE**

FROM Title;



We create conditional statements (like a Python if) using CASE

```
SELECT titleType, startYear,
```

```
CASE WHEN startYear < 1950 THEN 'old'
WHEN startYear < 2000 THEN 'mid-aged'
ELSE 'new'
END AS movie_age
```

All of this occurs within the SELECT statement

titleType	startYear	movie_age
movie	1894	old
movie	1897	old
movie	1905	old
movie	1906	old
movie	1907	old
movie	1907	old





# Joins Tables Together

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#### **Multidimensional Data**



To minimize redundant information, databases typically store data across **fact** and **dimension tables** 

**Fact table:** central table, contains raw facts that typically have pure numerical values. It has information to link its entries to records in other dimension tables. Tends to have few columns, many records.

**Dimension table:** contains more detailed information about each type of fact stored in the fact table (each column). Tends to have more columns and fewer records than fact tables.

#### Products | Fact Table

1 Toddets   1 det 1 dble			
drink_id	topping_id	store_id	
3451	a	a236	
6724	b	d462	
9056	С	k378	

#### **Drinks** | Dimension Table

drink_id	name	ice_level	sweetness		
3451	Black Milk Tea	75	75		
6724	Mango Au Lait	50	100		
9056	Matcha Latte	100	100		

#### Toppings | Dimension Table

topping_id	name
a	Brown Sugar Pearl
b	Lychee Jelly
С	Custard

#### Stores | Dimension Table

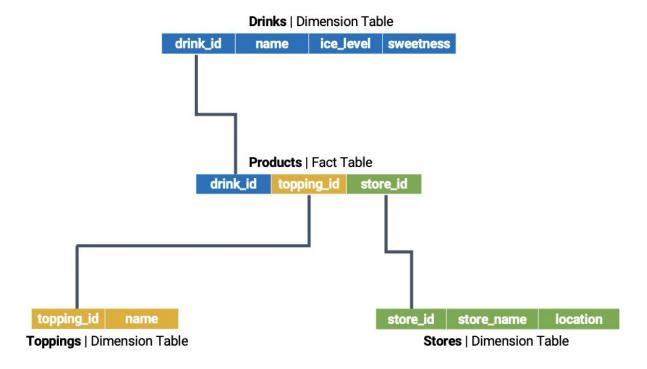
store_id	store_name	location
a236	Sweetheart	Durant
d462	Feng Cha	Durant
k378	Yi Fang	Bancroft



#### **Multidimensional Data**



A structure that uses fact and dimension tables is called a **star schema** 













Persian Ragdoll Bengal

_			
id	name		
0	Apricot		
1	Boots		
2	Cally		
4	Eugene		



id	breed		
1	persian		
2	ragdoll		
4	bengal		
5	persian		



Pishi\*





#### **Inner Join**



In an **inner join**, we combine every row from the first table with its matching entry in the second table. If a row in one table does not have a match, it is omitted

S

id	name
0	Apricot
1	Boots
2	Cally
4	Eugene

t

id	breed
1	persian
2	ragdoll
4	bengal
5	persian

Match rows with the same ID across the tables. Exclude rows with no matching ID



#### **Inner Join**



In an **inner join**, we combine every row from the first table with its matching entry in the second table. If a row in one table does not have a match, it is omitted

	S		t
id	name	id	breed
0	Apricot	1	persian
1	Boots	2	ragdoll
2	Cally	4	bengal
4	Eugene	5	persian

This is the default behavior of pd.merge



### **JOIN Syntax**



Specify joins between tables as part of the FROM statement

Desired type of join

SELECT \*
FROM table1 INNER JOIN table2
ON table1.key = table2.key

What columns to use to determine matching entries

	S		t
id	name	id	breed
0	Apricot	· 1	persian
1	Boots	2	ragdoll
2	Cally	4	bengal
4	Eugene	5	persian

SELECT \*
FROM s
INNER JOIN t
ON s.id = t.id

s.id	name	t.id	breed
1	Boots	1	persian
2	Cally	2	ragdoll
4	Eugene	4	bengal



#### **Cross Join**

In a **cross join**, we find *every* possible combination of rows across the two tables. A cross join is also called a cartesian product.

	S
id	name
0	Apricot
1	Boots
2	Cally
4	Eugene



#### **Cross Join**



In a **cross join**, we find *every* possible combination of rows across the two tables. A cross join is also called a cartesian product.

	s		t
id	name	id	breed
0	Apricot	, 1	persian
1	Boots	2	ragdoll
2	Cally	4	bengal
4	Eugene	5	persian

Notice that there is no need to specify a matching key (what columns to use for merging)

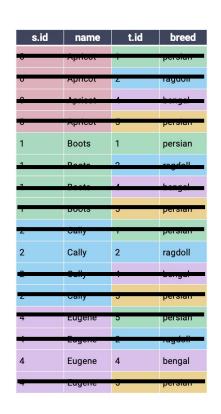
s.id	name	t.id	breed
0	Apricot	1	persian
0	Apricot	2	ragdoll
0	Apricot	4	bengal
0	Apricot	5	persian
1	Boots	1	persian
1	Boots	2	ragdoll
1	Boots	4	bengal
1	Boots	5	persian
2	Cally	1	persian
2	Cally	2	ragdoll
2	Cally	4	bengal
2	Cally	5	persian
4	Eugene	5	persian
4	Eugene	2	ragdoll
4	Eugene	4	bengal
4	Eugene	5	persian



# Inner Join: Cross Join With Filtering

Conceptually, you can imagine an inner join as a cross join filtered to include only matching rows.<sup>20/93</sup>

SELECT \*
FROM s CROSS JOIN t
WHERE s.id = t.id;





s.id	name	t.id	breed
1	Boots	1	persian
2	Cally	2	ragdoll
4	Eugene	4	bengal

SELECT \*
FROM s INNER JOIN t
ON s.id = t.id;



#### **Left Outer Join**



In a **left outer join** (or just **left join**), keep all rows from the left table and *only matching* rows from the right table. Fill NULL for any missing values.

S id breed id name SELECT Apricot persian FROM S LEFT JOTN t Boots ragdoll ON s.id = t.id; Cally bengal Eugene 5 persian

s.id	name	t.id	breed
0	Apricot	-	-
1	Boots	1	persian
2	Cally	2	ragdoll
4	Eugene	4	bengal

The "left table" is whichever table is referenced first in the JOIN statement.

Fill values without matching entries in the right table with NULL



# **Right Outer Join**



In a **right outer join** (or just **right join**), keep all rows from the right table and *only matching* rows from the left table. Fill NULL for any missing values.

S breed id name SELECT Apricot persian FROM s RIGHT JOIN t **Boots** ragdoll ON s.id = t.id; Cally bengal Eugene persian

s.id	name	t.id	breed
1	Boots	1	persian
2	Cally	2	ragdoll
4	Eugene	4	bengal
_	_	5	persian

The "right table" is whichever table is referenced second in the JOIN statement.



#### **Full Outer Join**



In a **full outer join**, keep *all rows* from both the left and right tables. Pair any matching rows, then fill missing values with NULL. Conceptually similar to performing both left and right joins.

id name

id breed

Apricot

Boots

Cally

Eugene

id breed

ragdoll

persian

persian

persian

persian

persian

SELECT *	
FROM s FULL JOIN	t
ON s.id = t.id;	

s.id	name	t.id	breed
0	Apricot	-	-
1	Boots	1	persian
2	Cally	2	ragdoll
4	Eugene	4	bengal
-	-	5	persian



### **Aliasing in Joins**



When working with long table names, we often create aliases that are easier to refer to (just as we did with columns on Tuesday).

SELECT primaryTitle, averageRating
FROM Title AS T INNER JOIN Rating AS R
ON T.tconst = R.tconst;

We can then reference columns using the aliased table names

primaryTitle	averageRating	
A Trip to the Moon	8.2	
The Birth of a Nation	6.3	
The Cabinet of Dr. Caligari	8.1	
The Kid	8.3	
Nosferatu	7.9	
Sherlock Jr.	8.2	
Battleship Potemkin	8.0	
The Gold Rush	8.2	
Metropolis	8.3	
The General	8.1	



# **Aliasing in Joins**



primaryTitle averageRating

When working with long table names, we often create aliases that are easier to refer to (just as we did with columns yesterday).

	primary ricie	averagenating
SELECT primaryTitle, averageRating	A Trip to the Moon	8.2
FROM Title AS T INNER JOIN Rating AS R	The Birth of a Nation	6.3
ON T.tconst = R.tconst;	The Cabinet of Dr. Caligari	8.1
	The Kid	8.3
The AS is actually optional! We usually include it for	Nosferatu	7.9
clarity.	Sherlock Jr.	8.2
	Battleship Potemkin	8.0
SELECT primaryTitle, averageRating	The Gold Rush	8.2
FROM Title T INNER JOIN Rating R	Metropolis	8.3
ON T.tconst = R.tconst;	The General	8.1



### **Common Table Expression**



Common table expression allow you to compose multiple queries.

```
WITH
table name1 AS (
  SELECT ...
table name2 AS (
  SELECT ...
SELECT ...
FROM
    table name1,
    table name2, ...
```

```
WITH
good_action_movies AS (
  SFLECT *
  FROM Title T JOIN Rating R ON T.tconst = R.tconst
  WHERE genres LIKE '%Action%' AND averageRating > 7 AND numVotes > 5000
prolific actors AS (
  SELECT N.nconst, primaryName, COUNT(*) as numRoles
  FROM Name N JOIN Principal P ON N.nconst = P.nconst
  WHERE category = 'actor'
  GROUP BY N.nconst, primaryName
SELECT primaryTitle, primaryName, numRoles, ROUND(averageRating) AS rating
FROM good_action_movies m, prolific_actors a, principal p
WHERE p.tconst = m.tconst AND p.nconst = a.nconst
ORDER BY rating DESC, numRoles DESC
LIMIT 10
```



### Finish Basic Queries

- Grouping
- Filtering Groups
- Perform EDA in SQL
- Join Tables Together
- IMDB Demo

# **IMDB** Demo

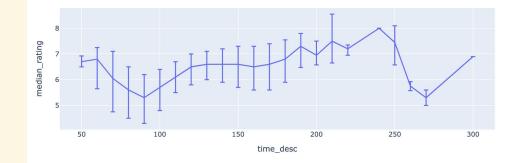
Lecture 21, Data 100 Spring 2025



# **Demo Slides**

# **Typical Database Workflow**

- Query large amounts of data in a 20799 database using SQL. Write SQL queries to perform broad filtering and cleaning of the data
- After querying data, use pandas to perform more detailed analysis (visualization, modeling, etc.)







**LECTURE 21** 

# **SQL II**

Data 100/Data 200, Spring 2025 @ UC Berkeley

Narges Norouzi and Josh Grossman

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