SQL1

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ORACLE®

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Preface

Profile

Before You Begin This Course

Before you begin this course, you should be able to use a graphical user interface (GUI). Required prerequisites are familiarity with data processing concepts and techniques.

How This Course Is Organized

Introduction to Oracle9i: SQL is an instructor-led course featuring lectures and hands-on exercises. Online demonstrations and written practice sessions reinforce the concepts and skills introduced.

Related Publications

Oracle Publications

Title	Part Number
Oracle9i Reference, Release 1 (9.0.1)	A90190-01
Oracle9i SQL Reference, Release 1 (9.0.1)	A90125-01
Oracle9i Concepts, Release 1 (9.0.0)	A88856-01
Oracle9i Server Application Developer's Guide Fundamentals	
Release 1 (9.0.1)	A88876-01
*iSQL*Plus User's Guide and Reference, Release 9.0.0*	
*SQL*Plus User's Guide and Reference, Release 9.0.1*	A88827-01

Additional Publications

- System release bulletins
- Installation and user's guides
- *read.me* files
- International Oracle User's Group (IOUG) articles
- *Oracle Magazine*

Typographic Conventions

What follows are two lists of typographical conventions used specifically within text or within code.

Typographic Conventions Within Text

Convention	Object or Term	Example
Uppercase	Commands, functions, column names, table names, PL/SQL objects, schemas	Use the `SELECT` command to view information stored in the `LAST_NAME` column of the `EMPLOYEES` table.
Lowercase, italic	Filenames, syntax variables, usernames, passwords	**where:** *role* is the name of the role to be created.
Initial cap	Trigger and button names	Assign a When-Validate-Item trigger to the ORD block. Choose Cancel.
Italic	Books, names of courses and manuals, and emphasized words or phrases	For more information on the subject see *Oracle Server SQL Language Reference Manual* Do *not* save changes to the database.
Quotation marks	Lesson module titles referenced within a course	This subject is covered in Lesson 3, "Working with Objects."

Typographic Conventions (continued)

Typographic Conventions Within Code

Convention	Object or Term	Example
Uppercase	Commands, functions	`SELECT employee_id` `FROM  employees;`
Lowercase, italic	Syntax variables	`CREATE ROLE` *`role`*`;`

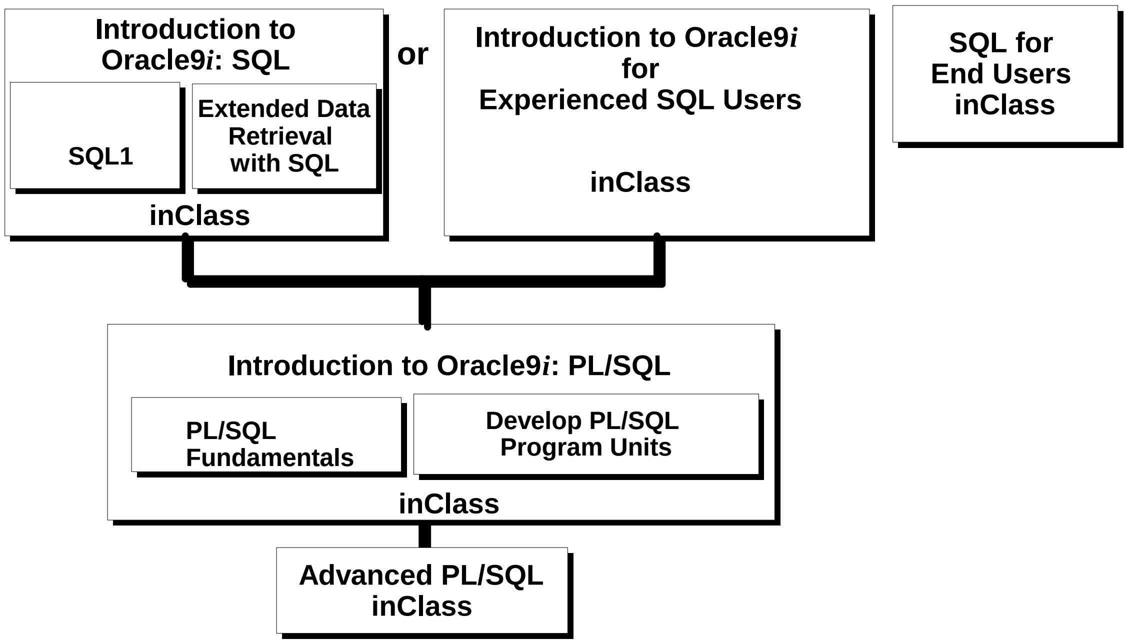
Initial cap	Forms triggers	`Form module: ORD`
		`Trigger level: S_ITEM.QUANTITY item`
		`Trigger name: When-Validate-Item`
		`. . .`

Lowercase	Column names, table names, filenames, PL/SQL objects	`. . .`
		`OG_ACTIVATE_LAYER`
		`(OG_GET_LAYER ('prod_pie_layer'))`
		`. . .`
		
		`SELECT last_name`
		`FROM employees;`

Bold	Text that must be entered by a user	**`CREATE USER scott`** **`IDENTIFIED BY tiger;`**

Curriculum Map

Languages Curriculum for Oracle9*i*



Integrated Languages Curriculum

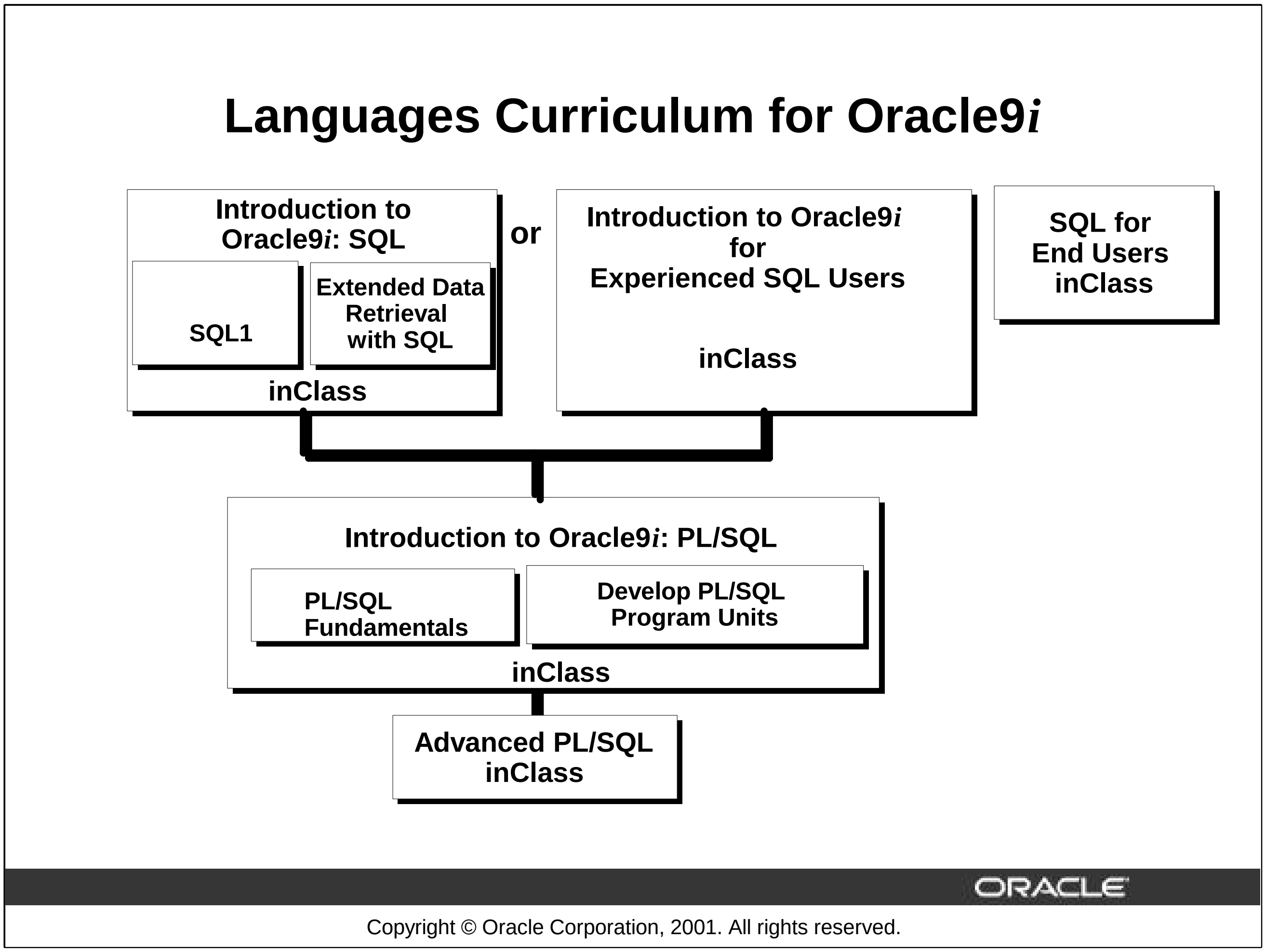
Introduction to Oracle9i: SQL consists of two modules, *SQL1* and *Extended Data Retrieval with SQL*. *SQL1* covers creating database structures and storing, retrieving, and manipulating data in a relational database. *Extended Data Retrieval with SQL* covers advanced `SELECT` statements, Oracle SQL, and *i*SQL*Plus Reporting.

For people who have worked with other relational databases and have knowledge of SQL, another course called *Introduction to Oracle9i for Experienced SQL Users* is offered. This course covers the SQL statements that are not part of ANSI SQL but are specific to Oracle.

Introduction to Oracle9i: PL/SQL consists of two modules, *PL/SQL Fundamentals* and *Develop PL/SQL Program Units*. *PL/SQL Fundamentals* covers PL/SQL basics including the PL/SQL language structure, flow of execution and interface with SQL. *Develop PL/SQL Program Units* covers how to create stored procedures, functions, packages, and triggers as well as maintaining and debugging program code.

SQL for End Users is geared towards individuals with little programming background and covers the basic SQL statements. This course is for end users that need to know some basic SQL programming.

Advanced PL/SQL is appropriate for individuals who have experience in PL/SQL programming. It covers coding efficiency topics, object-oriented programming, working with external code, and the advanced features of the Oracle-supplied packages.



Integrated Languages Curriculum

The slide lists various modules and courses that are available in the languages curriculum. The following table lists the modules and courses with their equivalent TBTs.

Course or Module	Equivalent TBT
SQL1	*Oracle SQL: Basic SELECT Statements* *Oracle SQL: Data Retrieval Techniques* *Oracle SQL: DML and DDL*
Extended Data Retrieval with SQL	*Oracle SQL and SQL*Plus: Advanced SELECT Statements* *Oracle SQL and SQL*Plus: SQL*Plus and Reporting*
Introduction to Oracle9i for Experienced SQL Users	*Oracle SQL Specifics: Retrieving and Formatting Data* *Oracle SQL Specifics: Creating and Managing Database Objects*
PL/SQL Fundamentals	*PL/SQL: Basics*
Develop PL/SQL Program Units	*PL/SQL: Procedures, Functions, and Packages* *PL/SQL: Database Programming*
SQL for End Users	*SQL for End Users: Part 1* *SQL for End Users: Part 2*
Advanced PL/SQL	*Advanced PL/SQL: Implementation and Advanced Features* *Advanced PL/SQL: Design Considerations and Object Types*

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Introduction

Objectives

After completing this lesson, you should be able to do the following:

- **List the features of Oracle9*i***
- **Discuss the theoretical and physical aspects of a relational database**
- **Describe the Oracle implementation of the RDBMS and ORDBMS**

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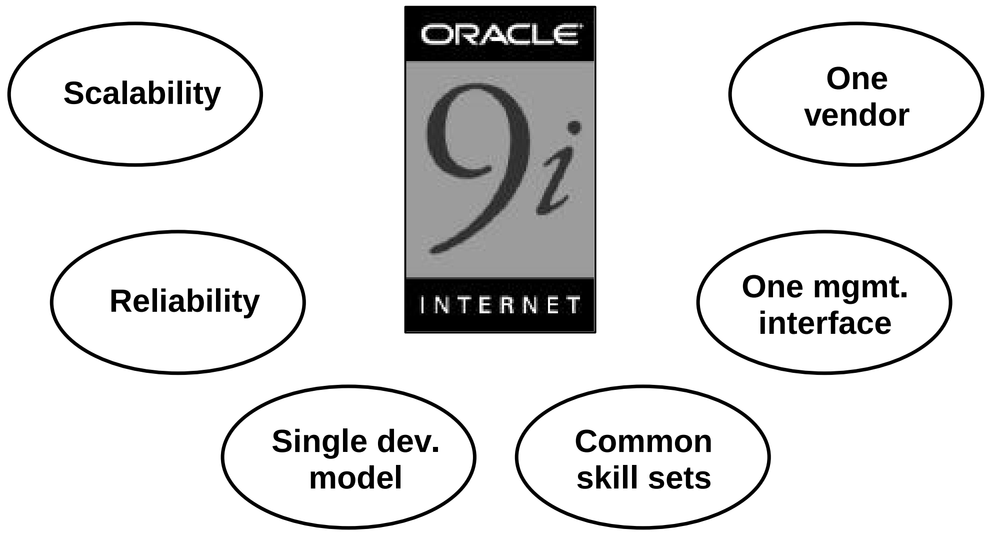
Lesson Aim

In this lesson, you gain an understanding of the relational database management system (RDBMS) and the object relational database management system (ORDBMS). You are also introduced to the following:

- SQL statements that are specific to Oracle
- *i*SQL*Plus, which is used for executing SQL and for formatting and reporting purposes

Oracle9*i*



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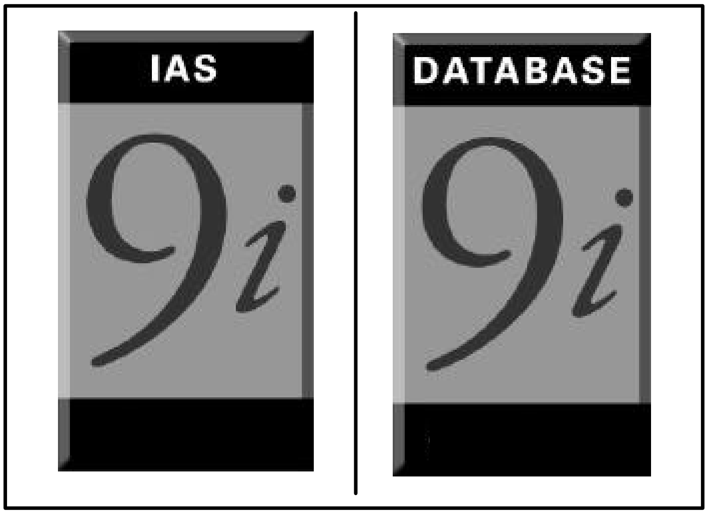
Oracle9*i* Features

Oracle offers a comprehensive high-performance infrastructure for e-business. It is called Oracle9*i*. Oracle9*i* includes everything needed to develop, deploy, and manage Internet applications.

Benefits include:

- Scalability from departments to enterprise e-business sites
- Robust, reliable, available, secure architecture
- One development model, easy deployment options
- Leverage an organization's current skillset throughout the Oracle platform (including SQL, PL/SQL, Java, and XML)
- One management interface for all applications
- Industry standard technologies, no proprietary lock-in

Oracle9*i*



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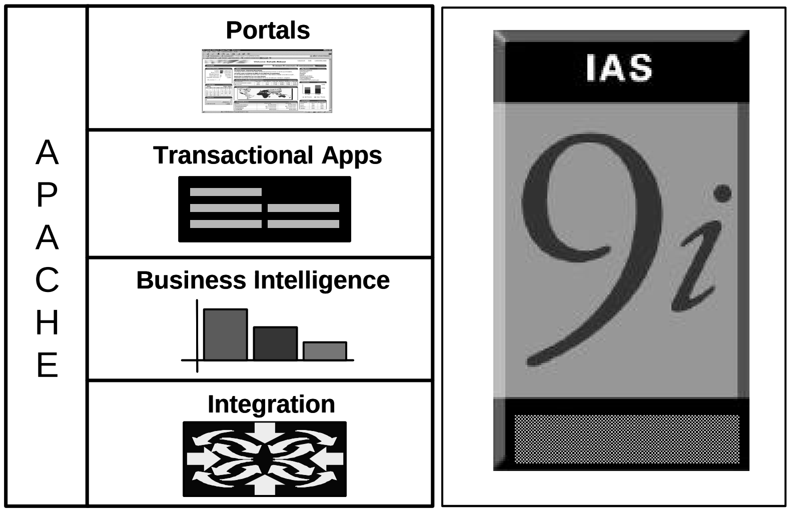
Oracle9*i*

There are two products, Oracle9*i* Application Server and Oracle9*i* Database, that provide a complete and simple infrastructure for Internet applications.

Oracle9*i* Application Server



Oracle9*i* Application Server

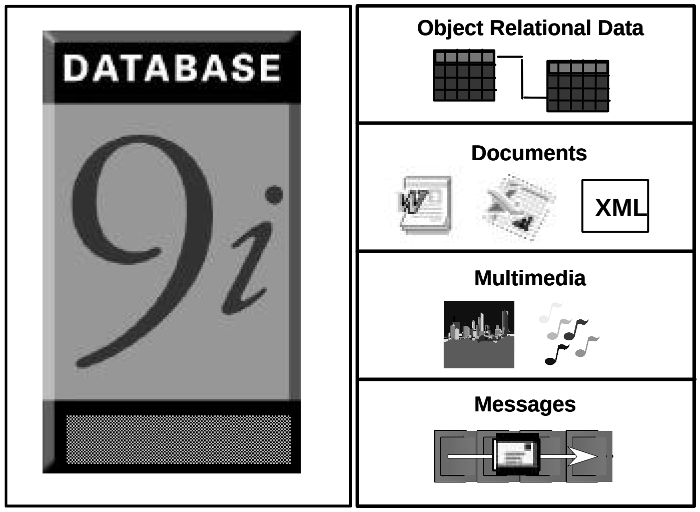
The Oracle9*i* Application Server (Oracle9*i*AS) runs all your applications. The Oracle9*i* Database stores all your data.

Oracle9*i* Application Server is the only application server to include services for all the different server applications you will want to run. Oracle9*i*AS can run your:

- Portals or Web sites
- Java transactional applications
- Business intelligence applications

It also provides integration between users, applications, and data throughout your organization.

Oracle9*i* Database



Oracle9*i* Database

The roles of the two products are very straightforward. Oracle9*i* Database manages all your data. This is not just the object relational data that you expect an enterprise database to manage. It can also be unstructured data like:

- Spreadsheets
- Word documents
- PowerPoint presentations
- XML
- Multimedia data types like MP3, graphics, video, and more

The data does not even have to be in the database. Oracle9*i* Database has services through which you can store metadata about information stored in file systems. You can use the database server to manage and serve information wherever it is located.

Oracle9*i* Database

- **Performance and availability leader**
- **Richest feature set**

Oracle9*i* Database

The starting point for any discussion about application deployment is the database. Oracle9*i* Database is the new flagship product from Oracle. It has an incredibly rich feature set.

Oracle9*i* Database is the only database specifically designed as an Internet development and deployment platform, extending Oracle's long-standing technology leadership in the areas of data management, transaction processing, and data warehousing to the new medium of the Internet. Built directly inside the database, breakthrough Internet features help companies and developers build Internet-savvy applications that lower costs, enhance customer and supplier interaction, and provide global information access across platforms and across the enterprise.

The Oracle9*i* Database is an object relational database management system (ORDBMS). It has the full capabilities and functionality of a relational database, plus the features of an object database.

Oracle9*i*: Object Relational Database Management System

- User-defined data types and objects
- Fully compatible with relational database
- Support of multimedia and large objects
- High-quality database server features

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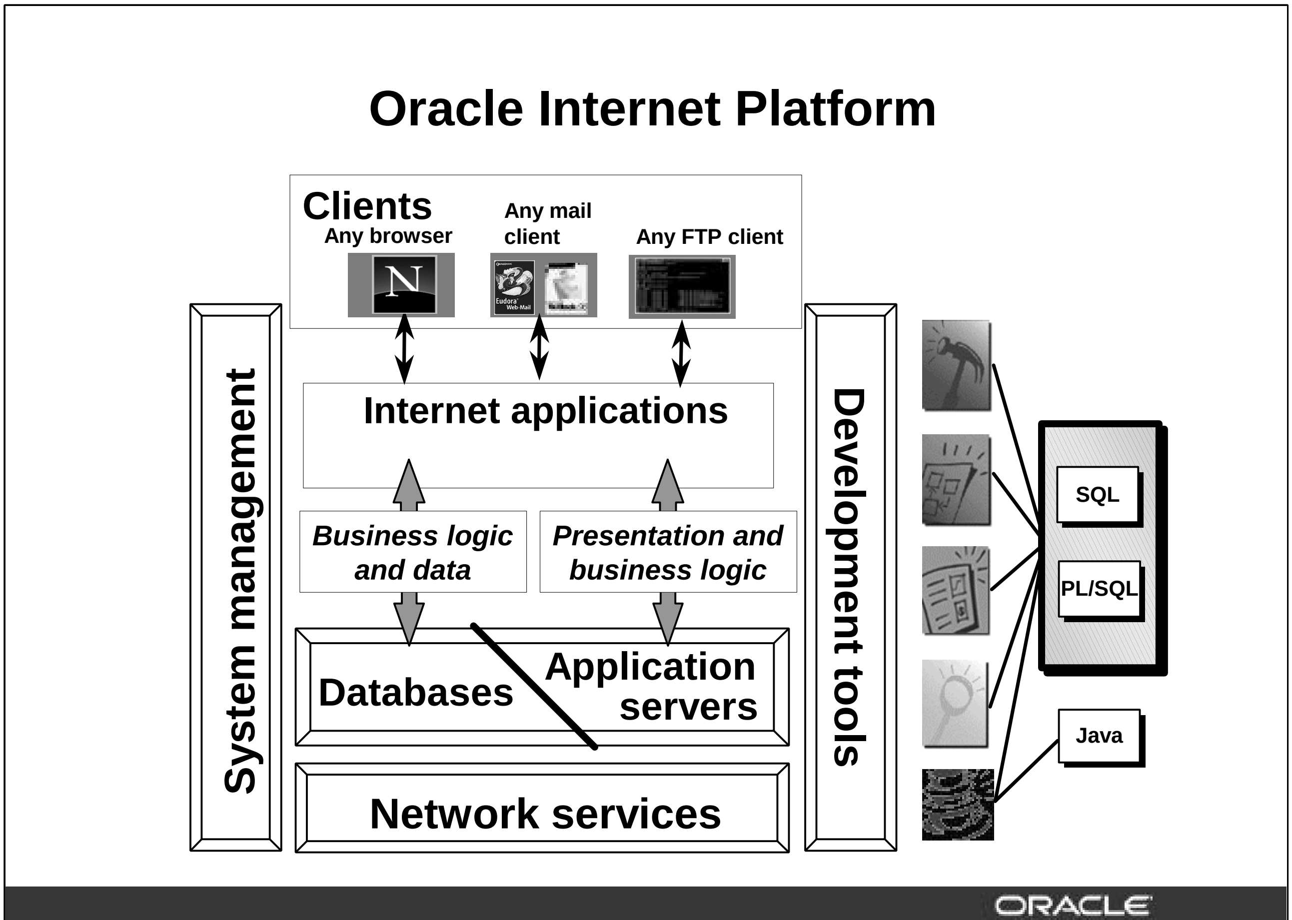
About Oracle9*i*

The Oracle server extends the data modeling capabilities to support an object relational database model that brings object-oriented programming, complex datatypes, complex business objects, and full compatibility with the relational world.

It includes several features for improved performance and functionality of online transaction processing (OLTP) applications, such as better sharing of run-time data structures, larger buffer caches, and deferrable constraints. Data warehouse applications will benefit from enhancements such as parallel execution of insert, update, and delete operations; partitioning; and parallel-aware query optimization. Operating within the Network Computing Architecture (NCA) framework, Oracle9*i* supports client-server and Web-based applications that are distributed and multitiered.

Oracle9*i* can scale tens of thousands of concurrent users, support up to 512 petabytes of data (a petabyte is 1,000 terabytes), and can handle any type of data, including text, spatial, image, sound, video, and time series as well as traditional structured data.

For more information, see *Oracle9i Concepts*.



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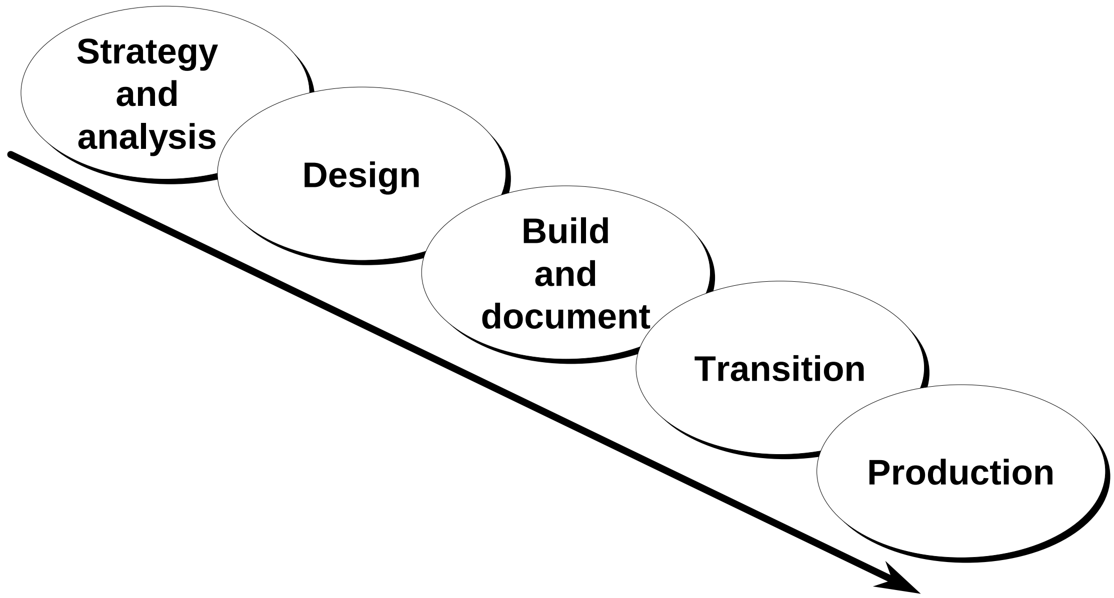
Oracle Internet Platform

Oracle offers a comprehensive high-performance Internet platform for e-commerce and data warehousing. This integrated platform includes everything needed to develop, deploy, and manage Internet applications. The Oracle Internet Platform is built on three core pieces:

- Browser-based clients to process presentation
- Application servers to execute business logic and serve presentation logic to browser-based clients
- Databases to execute database-intensive business logic and serve data

Oracle offers a wide variety of the most advanced graphical user interface (GUI) driven development tools to build business applications, as well as a large suite of software applications for many areas of business and industry. Stored procedures, functions, and packages can be written by using SQL, PL/SQL, or Java.

System Development Life Cycle



System Development Life Cycle

From concept to production, you can develop a database by using the system development life cycle, which contains multiple stages of development. This top-down, systematic approach to database development transforms business information requirements into an operational database.

Strategy and Analysis

- Study and analyze the business requirements. Interview users and managers to identify the information requirements. Incorporate the enterprise and application mission statements as well as any future system specifications.
- Build models of the system. Transfer the business narrative into a graphical representation of business information needs and rules. Confirm and refine the model with the analysts and experts.

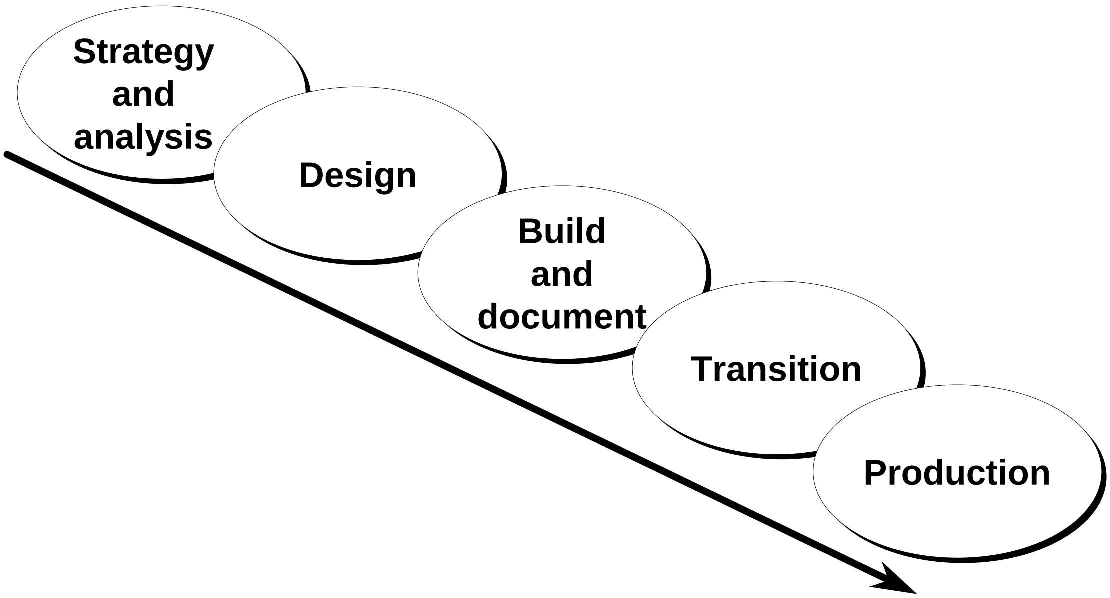
Design

Design the database based on the model developed in the strategy and analysis phase.

Build and Document

- Build the prototype system. Write and execute the commands to create the tables and supporting objects for the database.
- Develop user documentation, Help text, and operations manuals to support the use and operation of the system.

System Development Life Cycle



System Development Life Cycle (continued)

Transition

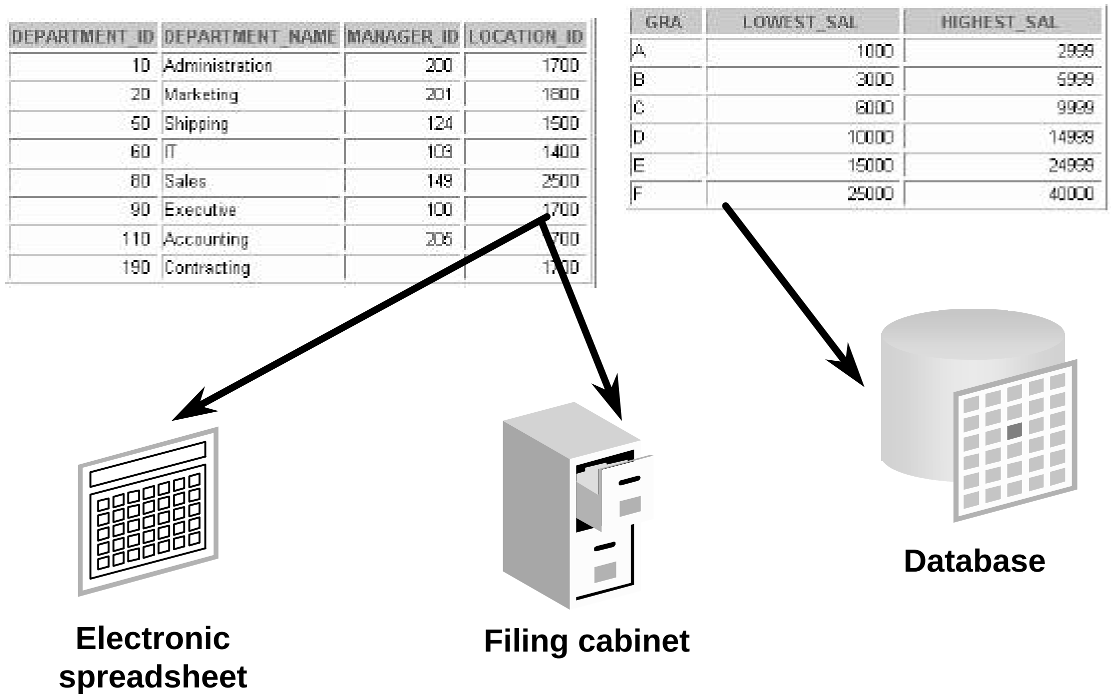
Refine the prototype. Move an application into production with user acceptance testing, conversion of existing data, and parallel operations. Make any modifications required.

Production

Roll out the system to the users. Operate the production system. Monitor its performance, and enhance and refine the system.

Note: The various phases of the system development life cycle can be carried out iteratively. This course focuses on the build phase of the system development life cycle.

Data Storage on Different Media



DEPARTMENT_ID	DEPARTMENT_NAME	MANAGER_ID	LOCATION_ID
10	Administration	200	1700
20	Marketing	201	1800
50	Shipping	124	1500
60	IT	103	1400
80	Sales	149	2500
90	Executive	100	1700
110	Accounting	205	1700
190	Contracting		1700

GRA	LOWEST_SAL	HIGHEST_SAL
A	1000	2999
B	3000	5999
C	6000	9999
D	10000	14999
E	15000	24999
F	25000	40000

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Storing Information

Every organization has some information needs. A library keeps a list of members, books, due dates, and fines. A company needs to save information about employees, departments, and salaries. These pieces of information are called *data.*

Organizations can store data on various media and in different formats, such as a hard-copy document in a filing cabinet or data stored in electronic spreadsheets or in databases.

A *database* is an organized collection of information.

To manage databases, you need database management systems (DBMS). A DBMS is a program that stores, retrieves, and modifies data in the database on request. There are four main types of databases: *hierarchical*, *network*, *relational*, and more recently *object relational.*

Note: Oracle7 is a relational database management system and Oracle8, 8*i*, and 9*i* are object relational database management systems.

Relational Database Concept

- Dr. E.F. Codd proposed the relational model for database systems in 1970.
- It is the basis for the relational database management system (RDBMS).
- The relational model consists of the following:
  - Collection of objects or relations
  - Set of operators to act on the relations
  - Data integrity for accuracy and consistency

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Relational Model

The principles of the relational model were first outlined by Dr. E. F. Codd in a June 1970 paper called "A Relational Model of Data for Large Shared Data Banks." In this paper, Dr. Codd proposed the relational model for database systems.

The more popular models used at that time were hierarchical and network, or even simple flat file data structures. Relational database management systems (RDBMS) soon became very popular, especially for their ease of use and flexibility in structure. In addition, a number of innovative vendors, such as Oracle, supplemented the RDBMS with a suite of powerful application development and user products, providing a total solution.

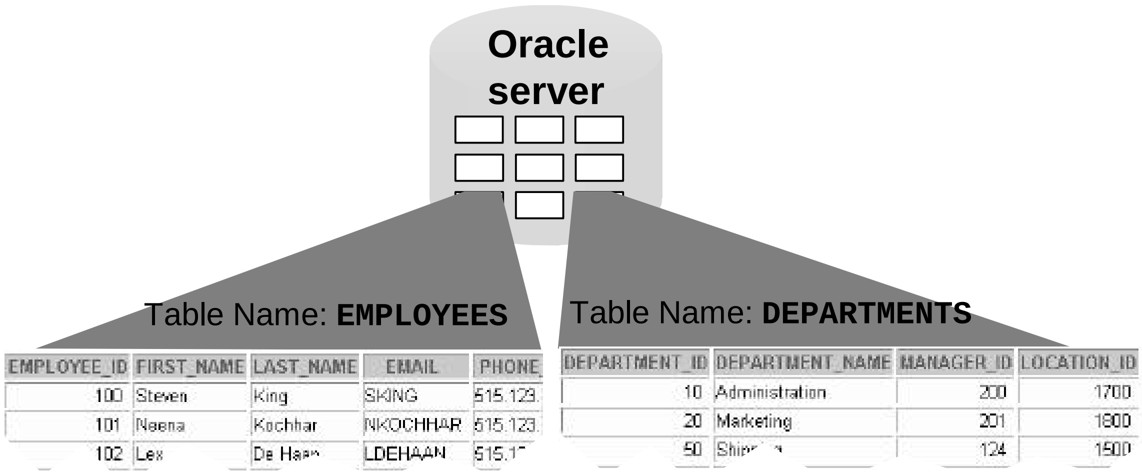
Components of the Relational Model

- Collections of objects or relations that store the data
- A set of operators that can act on the relations to produce other relations
- Data integrity for accuracy and consistency

For more information, see E. F. Codd, *The Relational Model for Database Management Version 2* (Reading, Mass.: Addison-Wesley, 1990).

Definition of a Relational Database

A relational database is a collection of relations or two-dimensional tables.



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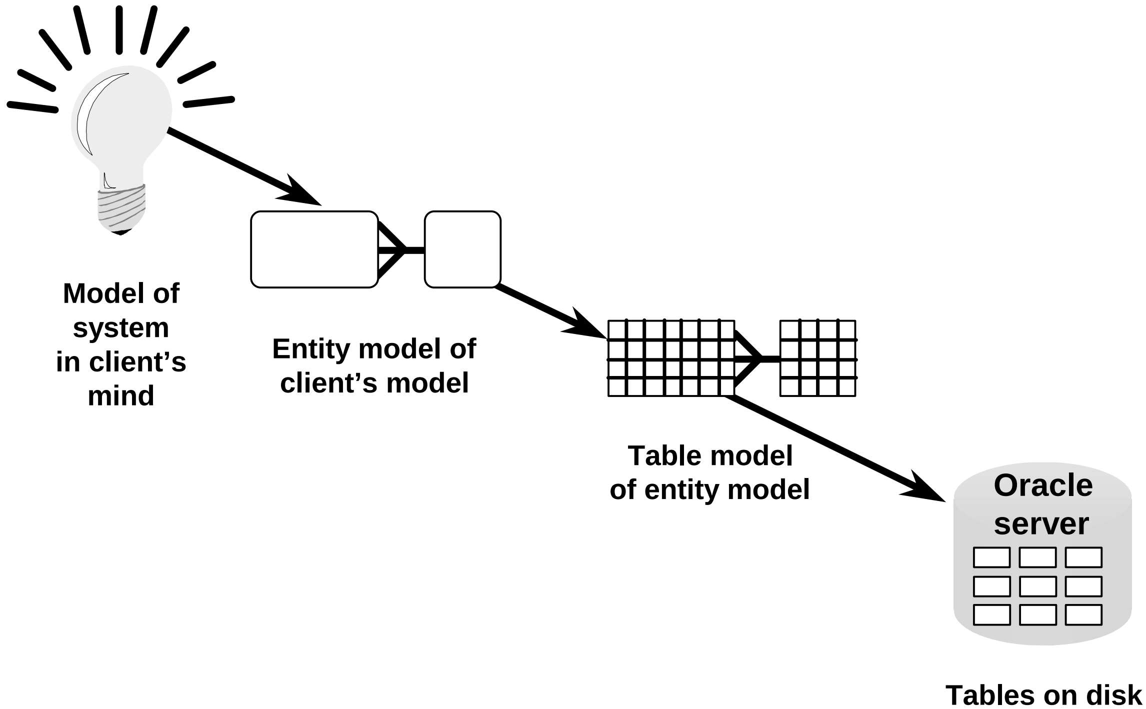
Definition of a Relational Database

A relational database uses relations or two-dimensional tables to store information.

For example, you might want to store information about all the employees in your company. In a relational database, you create several tables to store different pieces of information about your employees, such as an employee table, a department table, and a salary table.

Data Models



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Data Models

Models are a cornerstone of design. Engineers build a model of a car to work out any details before putting it into production. In the same manner, system designers develop models to explore ideas and improve the understanding of the database design.

Purpose of Models

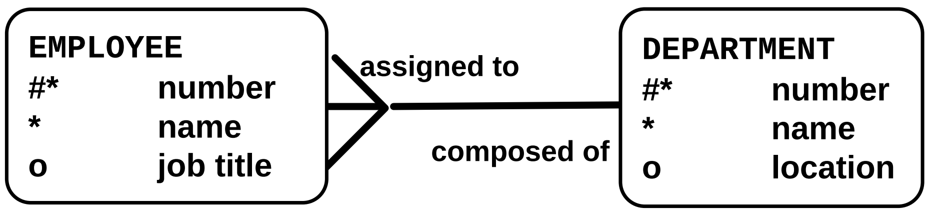
Models help communicate the concepts in people's minds. They can be used to do the following:

- Communicate
- Categorize
- Describe
- Specify
- Investigate
- Evolve
- Analyze
- Imitate

The objective is to produce a model that fits a multitude of these uses, can be understood by an end user, and contains sufficient detail for a developer to build a database system.

Entity Relationship Model

- **Create an entity relationship diagram from business specifications or narratives**



- **Scenario**
  - **“. . . Assign one or more employees to a department . . .”**
  - **“. . . Some departments do not yet have assigned employees . . .”**

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ER Modeling

In an effective system, data is divided into discrete categories or entities. An entity relationship (ER) model is an illustration of various entities in a business and the relationships between them. An ER model is derived from business specifications or narratives and built during the analysis phase of the system development life cycle. ER models separate the information required by a business from the activities performed within a business. Although businesses can change their activities, the type of information tends to remain constant. Therefore, the data structures also tend to be constant.

Benefits of ER Modeling

- Documents information for the organization in a clear, precise format
- Provides a clear picture of the scope of the information requirement
- Provides an easily understood pictorial map for the database design
- Offers an effective framework for integrating multiple applications

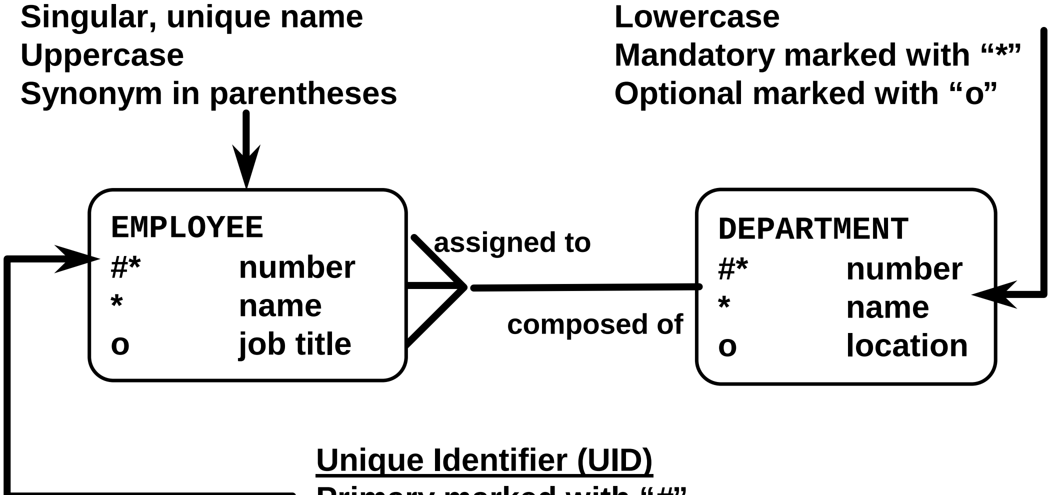
Key Components

- Entity: A thing of significance about which information needs to be known. Examples are departments, employees, and orders.
- Attribute: Something that describes or qualifies an entity. For example, for the employee entity, the attributes would be the employee number, name, job title, hire date, department number, and so on. Each of the attributes is either required or optional. This state is called *optionality*.
- Relationship: A named association between entities showing optionality and degree. Examples are employees and departments, and orders and items.

Entity Relationship Modeling Conventions

Entity
Soft box
Singular, unique name
Uppercase
Synonym in parentheses

Attribute
Singular name
Lowercase
Mandatory marked with “*”
Optional marked with “o”



Unique Identifier (UID)
Primary marked with “#”
Secondary marked with “(#)”

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ER Modeling (continued)

Entities

To represent an entity in a model, use the following conventions:

- Soft box with any dimensions
- Singular, unique entity name
- Entity name in uppercase
- Optional synonym names in uppercase within parentheses: ( )

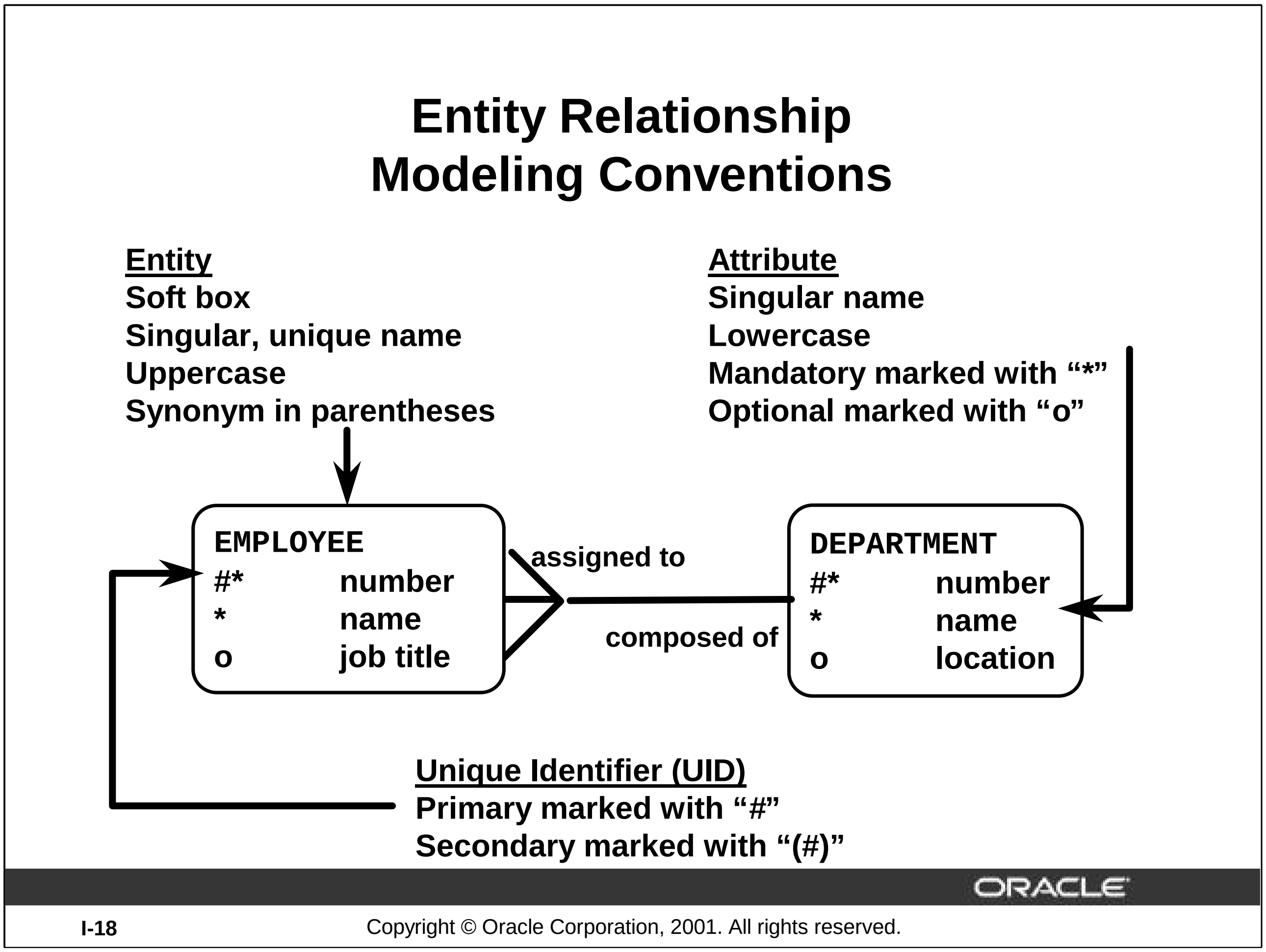
Attributes

To represent an attribute in a model, use the following conventions:

- Use singular names in lowercase.
- Tag mandatory attributes, or values that must be known, with an asterisk: *.
- Tag optional attributes, or values that may be known, with the letter o.

Relationships

Symbol	Description
Dashed line	Optional element indicating “may be”
Solid line	Mandatory element indicating “must be”
Crow’s foot	Degree element indicating “one or more”
Single line	Degree element indicating “one and only one”



ER Modeling (continued)

Relationships

Each direction of the relationship contains:

- A label, for example, *taught by* or *assigned to*
- An optionality, either *must be* or *may be*
- A degree, either *one and only one* or *one or more*

Note: The term *cardinality* is a synonym for the term *degree*.

Each source entity {may be | must be} relationship name {one and only one | one or more} destination entity.

Note: The convention is to read clockwise.

Unique Identifiers

A unique identifier (UID) is any combination of attributes or relationships, or both, that serves to distinguish occurrences of an entity. Each entity occurrence must be uniquely identifiable.

- Tag each attribute that is part of the UID with a number symbol: #
- Tag secondary UIDs with a number sign in parentheses: (#)

Relating Multiple Tables

- **Each row of data in a table is uniquely identified by a primary key (PK).**
- **You can logically relate data from multiple tables using foreign keys (FK).**

Table Name: **`DEPARTMENTS`**

DEPARTMENT_ID	DEPARTMENT_NAME	MANAGER_ID	LOCATION_ID
10	Administration	200	1700
20	Marketing	201	1800
50	Shipping	124	1500
60	IT	103	1400
80	Sales	149	2500
90	Executive	100	1700
110	Accounting	205	1700
190	Contracting		1700

Table Name: **`EMPLOYEES`**

EMPLOYEE_ID	FIRST_NAME	LAST_NAME	DEPARTMENT_ID
174	Ellen	Abel	80
142	Curtis	Davies	50
102	Lex	De Haan	90
104	Bruce	Ernst	60
202	Pat	Fay	20
206	William	Gietz	110

Primary key **Foreign key** **Primary key**

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Relating Multiple Tables

Each table contains data that describes exactly one entity. For example, the `EMPLOYEES` table contains information about employees. Categories of data are listed across the top of each table, and individual cases are listed below. Using a table format, you can readily visualize, understand, and use information.

Because data about different entities is stored in different tables, you may need to combine two or more tables to answer a particular question. For example, you may want to know the location of the department where an employee works. In this scenario, you need information from the `EMPLOYEES` table (which contains data about employees) and the `DEPARTMENTS` table (which contains information about departments). With an RDBMS you can relate the data in one table to the data in another by using the foreign keys. A foreign key is a column or a set of columns that refer to a primary key in the same table or another table.

You can use the ability to relate data in one table to data in another to organize information in separate, manageable units. Employee data can be kept logically distinct from department data by storing it in a separate table.

Guidelines for Primary Keys and Foreign Keys

- You cannot use duplicate values in a primary key.
- Primary keys generally cannot be changed.
- Foreign keys are based on data values and are purely logical, not physical, pointers.
- A foreign key value must match an existing primary key value or unique key value, or else be null.
- A foreign key must reference either a primary key or unique key column.

Relational Database Terminology

EMPLOYEE_ID	LAST_NAME	SALARY	COMMISSION_PCT	DEPARTMENT_ID
100	King	24000		90
101	Kochhar	17000		90
102	De Haan	17000		90
103	Hunold	9000		60
104	Ernst	6000		60
107	Lorentz	4200		60
124	Mourgos	5800		50
141	Rajs	3500		50
142	Davies	3100		50
143	Matos	2600		50
144	Vargas	2500		50
149	Zlotkey	10500	.2	80
174	Abel	11000	.3	80
176	Taylor	8600	.2	80
178	Grant	7000	.15	
200	Whalen	4400		10
201	Hartstein	13000		20
202	Fay	6000		20
205	Higgins	12000		110
206	Gietz	8300		110

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Terminology Used in a Relational Database

A relational database can contain one or many tables. A *table* is the basic storage structure of an RDBMS. A table holds all the data necessary about something in the real world, such as employees, invoices, or customers.

The slide shows the contents of the EMPLOYEES *table* or *relation.* The numbers indicate the following:

1. A single *row* or tuple representing all data required for a particular employee. Each row in a table should be identified by a primary key, which allows no duplicate rows. The order of rows is insignificant; specify the row order when the data is retrieved.
2. A *column* or attribute containing the employee number. The employee number identifies a *unique* employee in the EMPLOYEES table. In this example, the employee number column is designated as the *primary key*. A primary key must contain a value, and the value must be unique.
3. A column that is not a key value. A column represents one kind of data in a table; in the example, the salary of all the employees. Column order is insignificant when storing data; specify the column order when the data is retrieved.
4. A column containing the department number, which is also a *foreign key*. A foreign key is a column that defines how tables relate to each other. A foreign key refers to a primary key or a unique key in the same table or in another table. In the example, DEPARTMENT_ID *uniquely* identifies a department in the DEPARTMENTS table.
5. A field may have no value in it. This is called a null value. In the EMPLOYEES table, only employees who have a role of sales representative have a value in the COMMISSION_PCT (commission) field.
6. A *field* can be found at the intersection of a row and a column. There can be only one value in it.

Relational Database Properties

A relational database:

- Can be accessed and modified by executing structured query language (SQL) statements
- Contains a collection of tables with no physical pointers
- Uses a set of operators

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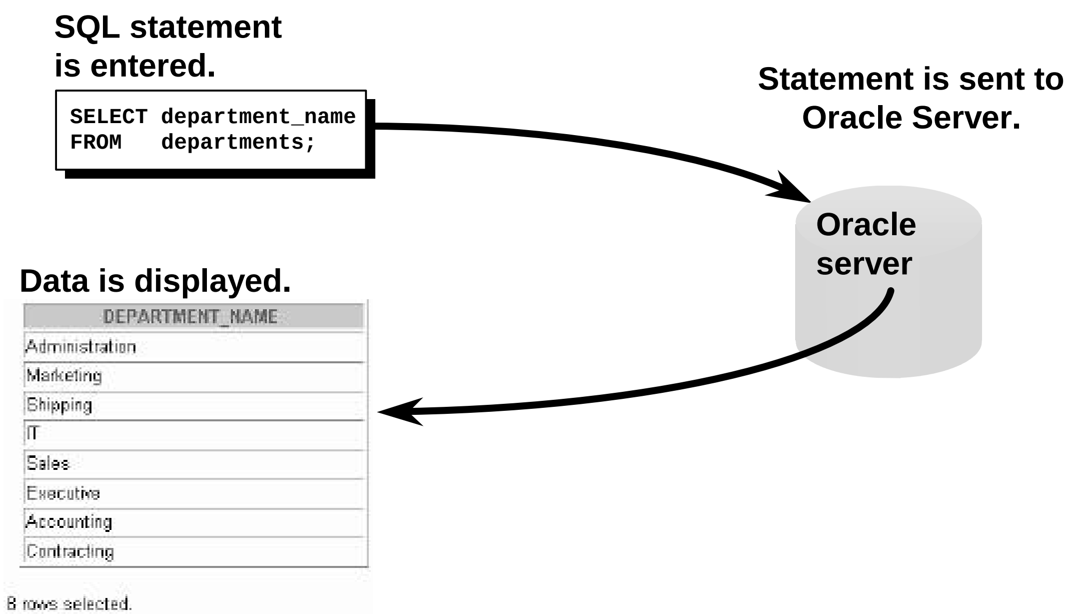
Properties of a Relational Database

In a relational database, you do not specify the access route to the tables, and you do not need to know how the data is arranged physically.

To access the database, you execute a structured query language (SQL) statement, which is the American National Standards Institute (ANSI) standard language for operating relational databases. The language contains a large set of operators for partitioning and combining relations. The database can be modified by using the SQL statements.

Communicating with a RDBMS Using SQL



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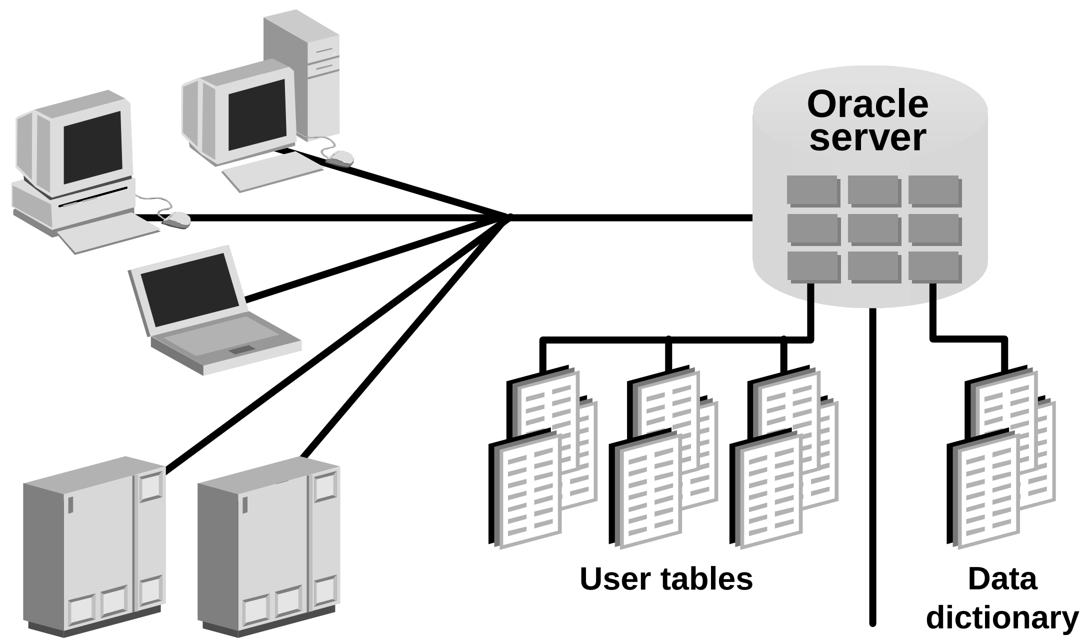
Structured Query Language

Using SQL, you can communicate with the Oracle server. SQL has the following advantages:

- Efficient
- Easy to learn and use
- Functionally complete (With SQL, you can define, retrieve, and manipulate data in the tables.)

Relational Database Management System



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Relational Database Management System

Oracle provides a flexible RDBMS called Oracle9*i*. Using its features, you can store and manage data with all the advantages of a relational structure plus PL/SQL, an engine that provides you with the ability to store and execute program units. Oracle9*i* also supports Java and XML. The Oracle server offers the options of retrieving data based on optimization techniques. It includes security features that control how a database is accessed and used. Other features include consistency and protection of data through locking mechanisms.

The Oracle9*i* server is an object-relational database management system that provides an open, comprehensive, and integrated approach to information management. An Oracle server consists of an Oracle database and an Oracle server instance. Every time a database is started, a system global area (SGA) is allocated, and Oracle background processes are started. The system global area is an area of memory used for database information shared by the database users. The combination of the background processes and memory buffers is called an Oracle instance.

SQL Statements

SELECT	Data retrieval
INSERT UPDATE DELETE MERGE	Data manipulation language (DML)
CREATE ALTER DROP RENAME TRUNCATE	Data definition language (DDL)
COMMIT ROLLBACK SAVEPOINT	Transaction control
GRANT REVOKE	Data control language (DCL)

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SQL Statements

Oracle SQL complies with industry-accepted standards. Oracle Corporation ensures future compliance with evolving standards by actively involving key personnel in SQL standards committees. Industry-accepted committees are the American National Standards Institute (ANSI) and the International Standards Organization (ISO). Both ANSI and ISO have accepted SQL as the standard language for relational databases.

Statement	Description
SELECT	Retrieves data from the database
INSERT UPDATE DELETE MERGE	Enters new rows, changes existing rows, and removes unwanted rows from tables in the database, respectively. Collectively known as *data manipulation language* (DML).
CREATE ALTER DROP RENAME TRUNCATE	Sets up, changes, and removes data structures from tables. Collectively known as *data definition language* (DDL).
COMMIT ROLLBACK SAVEPOINT	Manages the changes made by DML statements. Changes to the data can be grouped together into logical transactions.
GRANT REVOKE	Gives or removes access rights to both the Oracle database and the structures within it. Collectively known as *data control language* (DCL).

Tables Used in the Course

EMPLOYEES

EMPLOYEE_ID	FIRST_NAME	LAST_NAME	EMAIL	HIRE_DATE	JOB_ID	SALARY	COMMISSION_PC
100	Steven	King	SKING	17-JUN-87	AD_PRES	24000	
101	Neena	Kochhar	NKOCHHAR	21-SEP-89	AD_VP	17000	
102	Lex	De Haan	LDEHAAN	13-JAN-93	AD_VP	17000	
103	Alexander	Hunold	AHUNOLD	03-JAN-90	IT_PROG	9000	
104	Bruce	Ernst	BERNST	21-MAY-91	IT_PROG	6000	
107	Diana	Lorentz	DLORENTZ	07-FEB-99	IT_PROG	4200	
124	Kevin	Mourgos	KMOURGOS	16-NOV-99	ST_MAN	5800	
141	Trenna	Rajs	TRAJS	17-OCT-95	ST_CLERK	3500	
142	Curtis	Davies	CDAVIES	29-JAN-97	ST_CLERK	3100	
143	Randall	Matos	RMATOS	15-MAR-98	ST_CLERK	2600	
144	Peter	Vargas	PVARGAS	09-JUL-98	ST_CLERK	2500	
149	Eleni	Zlotkey	EZLOTKEY	29-JAN-00	SA_MAN	10500	
				MAY-96	SA_REP	11000	.3
				MAR-98	SA_REP	8600	.2
				MAY-9			
				SEP-8			
				FEB-9			
				AUG-9			
				JUN-9			
				JUN-9			

DEPARTMENT_ID	DEPARTMENT_NAME	MANAGER_ID	LOCATION_ID
10	Administration	200	1700
20	Marketing	201	1800
50	Shipping	124	1500
60	IT	103	1400
80	Sales	149	2500
90	Executive	100	1700
110	Accounting	205	1700
190	Contracting		1700

DEPARTMENTS

GRA	LOWEST_SAL	HIGHEST_SAL
A	1000	2999
B	3000	5999
C	6000	9999
D	10000	14999
E	15000	24999
F	25000	40000

JOB_GRADES

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Tables Used in the Course

The following main tables are used in this course:

- `EMPLOYEES` table, which gives details of all the employees
- `DEPARTMENTS` table, which gives details of all the departments
- `JOB_GRADES` table, which gives details of salaries for various grades

Note: The structure and data for all the tables are provided in Appendix B.

Summary

- **The Oracle9*i* Server is the database for Internet computing.**
- **Oracle9*i* is based on the object relational database management system.**
- **Relational databases are composed of relations, managed by relational operations, and governed by data integrity constraints.**
- **With the Oracle Server, you can store and manage information by using the SQL language and PL/SQL engine.**

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Summary

Relational database management systems are composed of objects or relations. They are managed by operations and governed by data integrity constraints.

Oracle Corporation produces products and services to meet your relational database management system needs. The main products are the Oracle9*i* Database Server, with which you can store and manage information by using SQL, and the Oracle9*i* Application Server with which you can run all of your applications.

SQL

The Oracle Server supports ANSI standard SQL and contains extensions. SQL is the language used to communicate with the server to access, manipulate, and control data**.**

1

Writing Basic SQL SELECT Statements

Objectives

After completing this lesson, you should be able to do the following:

- **List the capabilities of SQL `SELECT` statements**
- **Execute a basic `SELECT` statement**
- **Differentiate between SQL statements and *i*SQL*Plus commands**

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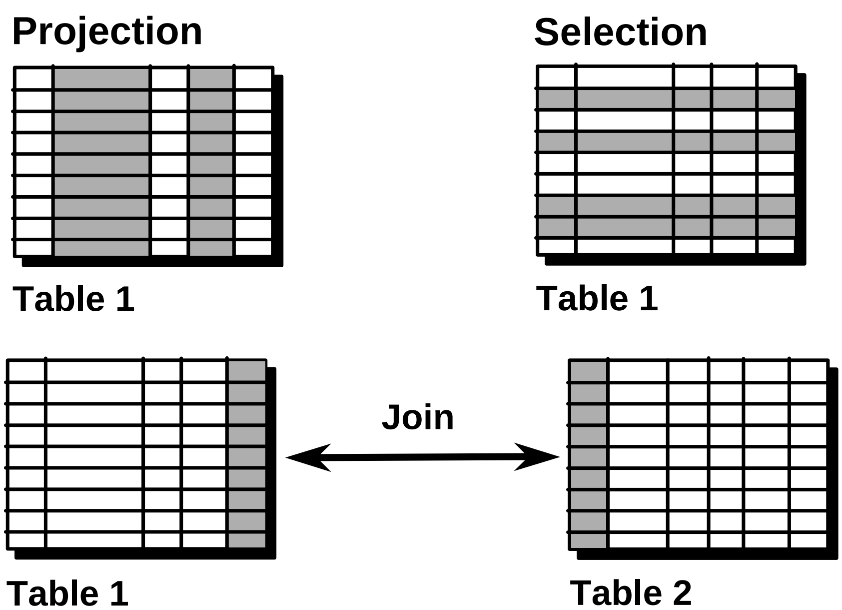
Lesson Aim

To extract data from the database, you need to use the structured query language (SQL) `SELECT` statement. You may need to restrict the columns that are displayed. This lesson describes all the SQL statements needed to perform these actions.

You may want to create `SELECT` statements that can be used more than once. This lesson also covers the *i*SQL*Plus environment where you execute SQL statements.

Note: *i*SQL*Plus is new in the Oracle9*i* product. It is a browser environment where you execute SQL commands. In prior releases of Oracle, SQL*Plus was the default environment where you executed SQL commands. SQL*Plus is still available and is described in Appendix C.

Capabilities of SQL SELECT Statements



1-3

Capabilities of SQL SELECT Statements

A SELECT statement retrieves information from the database. Using a SELECT statement, you can do the following:

- Projection: You can use the projection capability in SQL to choose the columns in a table that you want returned by your query. You can choose as few or as many columns of the table as you require.
- Selection: You can use the selection capability in SQL to choose the rows in a table that you want returned by a query. You can use various criteria to restrict the rows that you see.
- Joining: You can use the join capability in SQL to bring together data that is stored in different tables by creating a link between them. You learn more about joins in a later lesson.

Basic SELECT Statement

```
SELECT   *|{[DISTINCT] column|expression [alias],...}
FROM     table;
```

- **SELECT identifies *what* columns**
- **FROM identifies *which* table**

Basic SELECT Statement

In its simplest form, a SELECT statement must include the following:

- A SELECT clause, which specifies the columns to be displayed
- A FROM clause, which specifies the table containing the columns listed in the SELECT clause

In the syntax:

SELECT	is a list of one or more columns
*	selects all columns
DISTINCT	suppresses duplicates
column|*expression*	selects the named column or the expression
alias	gives selected columns different headings
FROM *table*	specifies the table containing the columns

Note: Throughout this course, the words *keyword*, *clause*, and *statement* are used as follows:

- A *keyword* refers to an individual SQL element.
  For example, SELECT and FROM are keywords.
- A *clause* is a part of a SQL statement.
  For example, SELECT employee_id, last_name, ... is a clause.
- A *statement* is a combination of two or more clauses.
  For example, SELECT * FROM employees is a SQL statement.

Selecting All Columns

```
SELECT *
FROM   departments;
```

DEPARTMENT_ID	DEPARTMENT_NAME	MANAGER_ID	LOCATION_ID
10	Administration	200	1700
20	Marketing	201	1800
50	Shipping	124	1500
60	IT	103	1400
80	Sales	149	2500
90	Executive	100	1700
110	Accounting	205	1700
190	Contracting		1700

8 rows selected.

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1-5

Selecting All Columns of All Rows

You can display all columns of data in a table by following the SELECT keyword with an asterisk (*). In the example on the slide, the department table contains four columns: DEPARTMENT_ID, DEPARTMENT_NAME, MANAGER_ID, and LOCATION_ID. The table contains seven rows, one for each department.

You can also display all columns in the table by listing all the columns after the SELECT keyword. For example, the following SQL statement, like the example on the slide, displays all columns and all rows of the DEPARTMENTS table:

```
SELECT  department_id, department_name, manager_id, location_id
FROM    departments;
```

Selecting Specific Columns

```
SELECT department_id, location_id
FROM   departments;
```

DEPARTMENT_ID	LOCATION_ID
10	1700
20	1800
50	1500
60	1400
80	2500
90	1700
110	1700
190	1700

8 rows selected.

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Selecting Specific Columns of All Rows

You can use the SELECT statement to display specific columns of the table by specifying the column names, separated by commas. The example on the slide displays all the department numbers and location numbers from the DEPARTMENTS table.

In the SELECT clause, specify the columns that you want, in the order in which you want them to appear in the output. For example, to display location before department number going from left to right, you use the following statement:

```
SELECT location_id, department_id
FROM departments;
```

LOCATION_ID	DEPARTMENT_ID
1700	10
1800	20
1500	50

8 rows selected.

Writing SQL Statements

- SQL statements are not case sensitive.
- SQL statements can be on one or more lines.
- Keywords cannot be abbreviated or split across lines.
- Clauses are usually placed on separate lines.
- Indents are used to enhance readability.

1-7

Writing SQL Statements

Using the following simple rules and guidelines, you can construct valid statements that are both easy to read and easy to edit:

- SQL statements are not case sensitive, unless indicated.
- SQL statements can be entered on one or many lines.
- Keywords cannot be split across lines or abbreviated.
- Clauses are usually placed on separate lines for readability and ease of editing.
- Indents should be used to make code more readable.
- Keywords typically are entered in uppercase; all other words, such as table names and columns, are entered in lowercase.

Executing SQL Statements

Using *i*SQL*Plus, click the Execute button to run the command or commands in the editing window.

Column Heading Defaults

- *i*SQL*Plus:
  - Default heading justification: Center
  - Default heading display: Uppercase
- SQL*Plus:
  - Character and Date column headings are left-justified
  - Number column headings are right-justified
  - Default heading display: Uppercase

1-8

Column Heading Defaults

In *i*SQL*Plus, column headings are displayed in uppercase and centered.

```
SELECT last_name, hire_date, salary
FROM   employees;
```

LAST_NAME	HIRE_DATE	SALARY
King	17-JUN-87	24000
Kochhar	21-SEP-89	17000
De Haan	13-JAN-93	17000
Hunold	03-JAN-90	9000
Ernst	21-MAY-91	6000
Higgins	07-JUN-94	12000
Gietz	07-JUN-94	8300

20 rows selected.

You can override the column heading display with an alias. Column aliases are covered later in this lesson.

Arithmetic Expressions

Create expressions with number and date data by using arithmetic operators.

Operator	Description
+	Add
-	Subtract
*	Multiply
/	Divide

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Arithmetic Expressions

You may need to modify the way in which data is displayed, perform calculations, or look at what-if scenarios. These are all possible using arithmetic expressions. An arithmetic expression can contain column names, constant numeric values, and the arithmetic operators.

Arithmetic Operators

The slide lists the arithmetic operators available in SQL. You can use arithmetic operators in any clause of a SQL statement except in the `FROM` clause.

Using Arithmetic Operators

```
SELECT last_name, salary, salary + 300
FROM   employees;
```

LAST_NAME	SALARY	SALARY+300
King	24000	24300
Kochhar	17000	17300
De Haan	17000	17300
Hunold	9000	9300
Ernst	6000	6300
Lorentz	4200	4500
Gietz	8300	8600

20 rows selected.

Using Arithmetic Operators

The example in the slide uses the addition operator to calculate a salary increase of $300 for all employees and displays a new SALARY+300 column in the output.

Note that the resultant calculated column SALARY+300 is not a new column in the EMPLOYEES table; it is for display only. By default, the name of a new column comes from the calculation that generated it—in this case, salary+300.

Note: The Oracle9*i* server ignores blank spaces before and after the arithmetic operator.

Operator Precedence

* / + –

- **Multiplication and division take priority over addition and subtraction.**
- **Operators of the same priority are evaluated from left to right.**
- **Parentheses are used to force prioritized evaluation and to clarify statements.**

Operator Precedence

If an arithmetic expression contains more than one operator, multiplication and division are evaluated first. If operators within an expression are of same priority, then evaluation is done from left to right.

You can use parentheses to force the expression within parentheses to be evaluated first.

Operator Precedence

```
SELECT last_name, salary, 12*salary+100
FROM   employees;
```

LAST_NAME	SALARY	12*SALARY+100
King	24000	288100
Kochhar	17000	204100
De Haan	17000	204100
Hunold	9000	108100
Ernst	6000	72100
Lorentz	4200	50500
Gietz	8300	99700

20 rows selected.

Operator Precedence (continued)

The example on the slide displays the last name, salary, and annual compensation of employees. It calculates the annual compensation as 12 multiplied by the monthly salary, plus a one-time bonus of $100. Notice that multiplication is performed before addition.

Note: Use parentheses to reinforce the standard order of precedence and to improve clarity. For example, the expression on the slide can be written as `(12*salary)+100` with no change in the result.

Using Parentheses

```
SELECT last_name, salary, 12*(salary+100)
FROM   employees;
```

LAST_NAME	SALARY	12*(SALARY+100)
King	24000	289200
Kochhar	17000	205200
De Haan	17000	205200
Hunold	9000	109200
Ernst	6000	73200
Lorentz	4200	51600
Gietz	8300	100800

20 rows selected.

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Using Parentheses

You can override the rules of precedence by using parentheses to specify the order in which operators are executed.

The example on the slide displays the last name, salary, and annual compensation of employees. It calculates the annual compensation as monthly salary plus a monthly bonus of $100, multiplied by 12. Because of the parentheses, addition takes priority over multiplication.

Defining a Null Value

- **A null is a value that is unavailable, unassigned, unknown, or inapplicable.**
- **A null is not the same as zero or a blank space.**

```
SELECT last_name, job_id, salary, commission_pct
FROM   employees;
```

LAST_NAME	JOB_ID	SALARY	COMMISSION_PCT
King	AD_PRES	24000	
Kochhar	AD_VP	17000	
Zlotkey	SA_MAN	10500	.2
Abel	SA_REP	11000	.3
Taylor	SA_REP	8600	.2
Higgins	AC_MGR	[illegible]	
Gietz	AC_ACCOUNT	8300	

20 rows selected.

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Null Values

If a row lacks the data value for a particular column, that value is said to be *null*, or to contain a null.

A null is a value that is unavailable, unassigned, unknown, or inapplicable. A null is not the same as zero or a space. Zero is a number, and a space is a character.

Columns of any data type can contain nulls. However, some constraints, `NOT NULL` and `PRIMARY KEY`, prevent nulls from being used in the column.

In the `COMMISSION_PCT` column in the `EMPLOYEES` table, notice that only a sales manager or sales representative can earn a commission. Other employees are not entitled to earn commissions. A null represents that fact.

Null Values in Arithmetic Expressions

Arithmetic expressions containing a null value evaluate to null.

```
SELECT last_name, 12*salary*commission_pct
FROM   employees;
```

LAST_NAME	12*SALARY*COMMISSION_PCT
King	
Kochhar	
Zlotkey	25200
Abel	39600
Taylor	20640
Higgins	
Gietz	

20 rows selected.

Null Values (continued)

If any column value in an arithmetic expression is null, the result is null. For example, if you attempt to perform division with zero, you get an error. However, if you divide a number by null, the result is a null or unknown.

In the example on the slide, employee King does not get any commission. Because the `COMMISSION_PCT` column in the arithmetic expression is null, the result is null.

For more information, see *Oracle9i SQL Reference*, "Basic Elements of SQL."

Defining a Column Alias

A column alias:

- Renames a column heading
- Is useful with calculations
- Immediately follows the column name - there can also be the optional AS keyword between the column name and alias
- Requires double quotation marks if it contains spaces or special characters or is case sensitive

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Column Aliases

When displaying the result of a query, *i*SQL*Plus normally uses the name of the selected column as the column heading. This heading may not be descriptive and hence may be difficult to understand. You can change a column heading by using a column alias.

Specify the alias after the column in the `SELECT` list using a space as a separator. By default, alias headings appear in uppercase. If the alias contains spaces or special characters (such as # or $), or is case sensitive, enclose the alias in double quotation marks (" ").

Using Column Aliases

```
SELECT last_name AS name, commission_pct comm
FROM   employees;
```

NAME	COMM
King	
Kochhar	
Higgins	
Gietz	

20 rows selected.

```
SELECT last_name  "Name",
       salary*12 "Annual Salary"
FROM   employees;
```

Name	Annual Salary
King	288000
Kochhar	204000
Higgins	144000
Gietz	99600

20 rows selected.

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Column Aliases (continued)

The first example displays the names and the commission percentages of all the employees. Notice that the optional AS keyword has been used before the column alias name. The result of the query is the same whether the AS keyword is used or not. Also notice that the SQL statement has the column aliases, name and comm, in lowercase, whereas the result of the query displays the column headings in uppercase. As mentioned in a previous slide, column headings appear in uppercase by default.

The second example displays the last names and annual salaries of all the employees. Because `Annual Salary` contain a space, it has been enclosed in double quotation marks. Notice that the column heading in the output is exactly the same as the column alias.

Concatenation Operator

A concatenation operator:

- Concatenates columns or character strings to other columns
- Is represented by two vertical bars (||)
- Creates a resultant column that is a character expression

Concatenation Operator

You can link columns to other columns, arithmetic expressions, or constant values to create a character expression by using the concatenation operator (||). Columns on either side of the operator are combined to make a single output column.

Using the Concatenation Operator

```
SELECT   last_name||job_id AS "Employees"
FROM     employees;
```

Employees
KingAD_PRES
KochharAD_VP
De HaanAD_VP
HunoldIT_PROG
GietzAC_ACCOUNT

20 rows selected.

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Concatenation Operator (continued)

In the example, `LAST_NAME` and `JOB_ID` are concatenated, and they are given the alias `Employees`. Notice that the employee last name and job code are combined to make a single output column.

The `AS` keyword before the alias name makes the `SELECT` clause easier to read.

Literal Character Strings

- A literal is a character, a number, or a date included in the SELECT list.
- Date and character literal values must be enclosed within single quotation marks.
- Each character string is output once for each row returned.

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Literal Character Strings

A literal is a character, a number, or a date that is included in the `SELECT` list and that is not a column name or a column alias. It is printed for each row returned. Literal strings of free-format text can be included in the query result and are treated the same as a column in the `SELECT` list.

Date and character literals *must* be enclosed within single quotation marks (`' '`); number literals need not.

Using Literal Character Strings

```
SELECT last_name  ||' is a '||job_id
       AS "Employee Details"
FROM   employees;
```

Employee Details
King is a AD_PRES
Kochhar is a AD_VP
De Haan is a AD_VP
Hunold is a IT_PROG
Ernst is a IT_PROG
Gietz is a AC_ACCOUNT

20 rows selected.

Literal Character Strings (continued)

The example on the slide displays last names and job codes of all employees. The column has the heading Employee Details. Notice the spaces between the single quotation marks in the SELECT statement. The spaces improve the readability of the output.

In the following example, the last name and salary for each employee are concatenated with a literal to give the returned rows more meaning.

```
SELECT last_name ||': 1 Month salary = '||salary Monthly
FROM   employees;
```

MONTHLY
King: 1 Month salary = 24000
Kochhar: 1 Month salary = 17000
De Haan: 1 Month salary = 17000
Hunold: 1 Month salary = 9000
Ernst: 1 Month salary = 6000
Lorentz: 1 Month salary = 4200
Mourgos: 1 Month salary = 5800
Rajs: 1 Month salary = 3500

20 rows selected.

Duplicate Rows

The default display of queries is all rows, including duplicate rows.

```
SELECT department_id
FROM   employees;
```

DEPARTMENT_ID
90
90
90
60
60
60
50
50

20 rows selected.

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Duplicate Rows

Unless you indicate otherwise, *i*SQL*Plus displays the results of a query without eliminating duplicate rows. The example on the slide displays all the department numbers from the `EMPLOYEES` table. Notice that the department numbers are repeated.

Eliminating Duplicate Rows

Eliminate duplicate rows by using the `DISTINCT` keyword in the `SELECT` clause.

```
SELECT DISTINCT department_id
FROM   employees;
```

DEPARTMENT_ID
10
20
50
60
80
90
110

8 rows selected.

Duplicate Rows (continued)

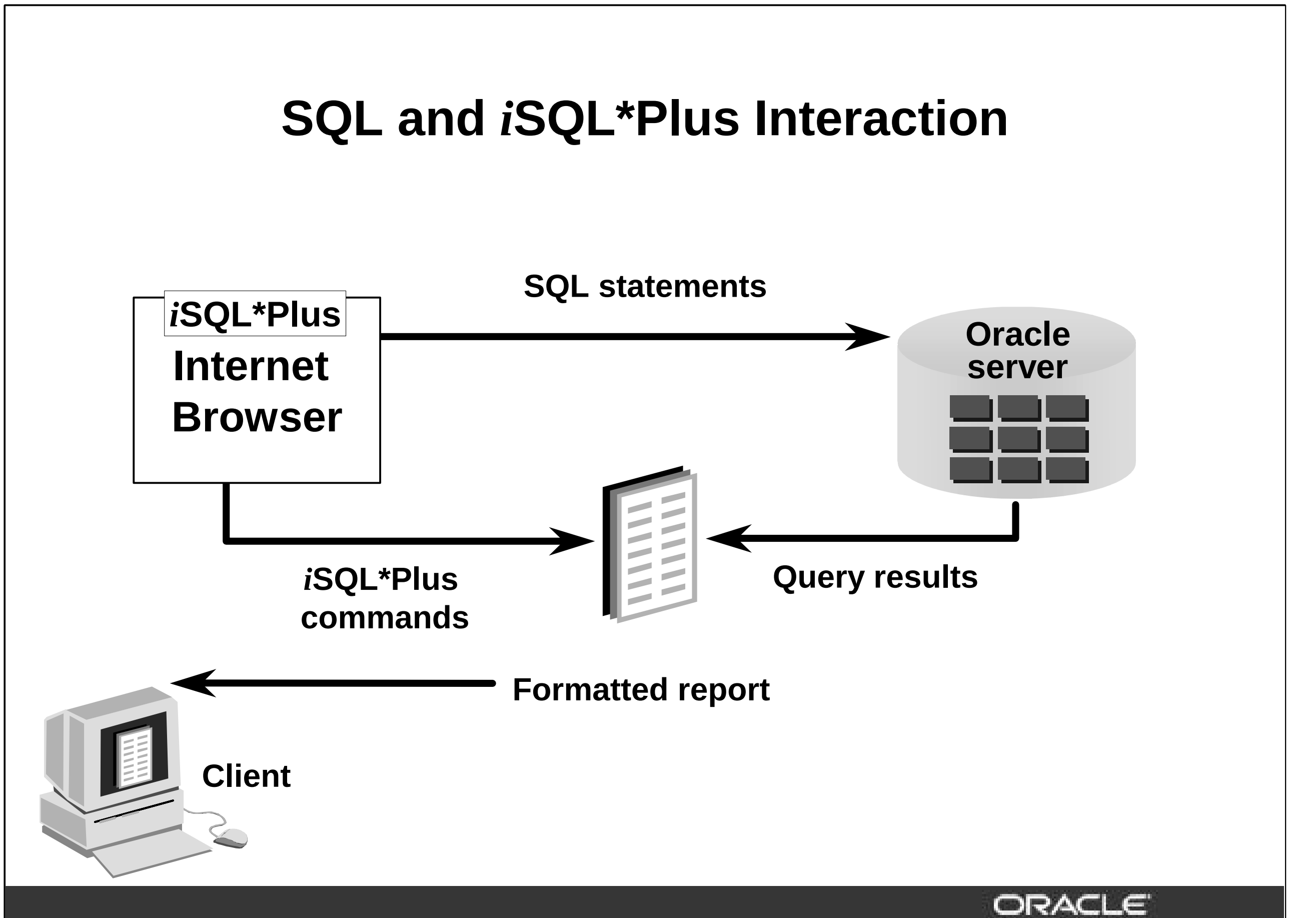
To eliminate duplicate rows in the result, include the `DISTINCT` keyword in the `SELECT` clause immediately after the `SELECT` keyword. In the example on the slide, the `EMPLOYEES` table actually contains 20 rows but there are only seven unique department numbers in the table.

You can specify multiple columns after the `DISTINCT` qualifier. The `DISTINCT` qualifier affects all the selected columns, and the result is every distinct combination of the columns.

```
SELECT  DISTINCT department_id, job_id
FROM  employees;
```

DEPARTMENT_ID	JOB_ID
10	AD_ASST
20	MK_MAN
20	MK_REP
50	ST_CLERK
50	ST_MAN
60	IT_PROG
80	SA_MAN
80	SA_REP

13 rows selected.



SQL and *i*SQL*Plus

SQL is a command language for communication with the Oracle server from any tool or application. Oracle SQL contains many extensions.

*iSQL*Plus* is an Oracle tool that recognizes and submits SQL statements to the Oracle server for execution and contains its own command language.

Features of SQL

- Can be used by a range of users, including those with little or no programming experience
- Is a nonprocedural language
- Reduces the amount of time required for creating and maintaining systems
- Is an English-like language

Features of *i*SQL*Plus

- Accessed from a browser
- Accepts ad hoc entry of statements
- Provides online editing for modifying SQL statements
- Controls environmental settings
- Formats query results into a basic report
- Accesses local and remote databases

SQL Statements Versus *i*SQL*Plus Commands

SQL

- A language
- ANSI standard
- Keyword cannot be abbreviated
- Statements manipulate data and table definitions in the database

SQL statements

***i*SQL*Plus**

- An environment
- Oracle proprietary
- Keywords can be abbreviated
- Commands do not allow manipulation of values in the database
- Runs on a browser
- Centrally loaded, does not have to be implemented on each machine

***i*SQL*Plus commands**

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SQL and *i*SQL*Plus (continued)

The following table compares SQL and *i*SQL*Plus:

SQL	***i*SQL*Plus**
Is a language for communicating with the Oracle server to access data	Recognizes SQL statements and sends them to the server
Is based on American National Standards Institute (ANSI) standard SQL	Is the Oracle proprietary interface for executing SQL statements
Manipulates data and table definitions in the database	Does not allow manipulation of values in the database
Does not have a continuation character	Has a dash (-) as a continuation character if the command is longer than one line
Cannot be abbreviated	Can be abbreviated
Uses functions to perform some formatting	Uses commands to format data

Overview of *i*SQL*Plus

After you log into *i*SQL*Plus, you can:

- **Describe the table structure**
- **Edit your SQL statement**
- **Execute SQL from *i*SQL*Plus**
- **Save SQL statements to files and append SQL statements to files**
- **Execute statements stored in saved files**
- **Load commands from a text file into the *i*SQL*Plus Edit window**

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*i*SQL*Plus

*i*SQL*Plus is an environment in which you can do the following:

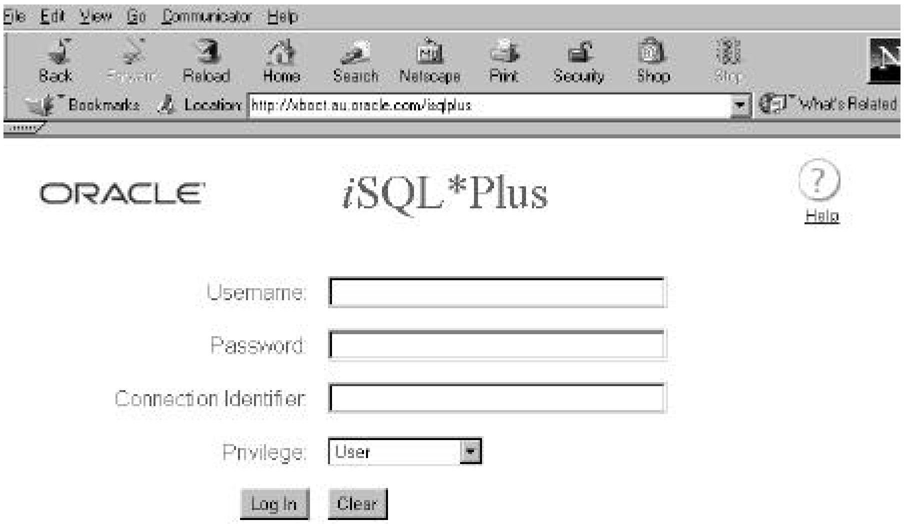
- Execute SQL statements to retrieve, modify, add, and remove data from the database
- Format, perform calculations on, store, and print query results in the form of reports
- Create script files to store SQL statements for repetitive use in the future

*i*SQL*Plus commands can be divided into the following main categories:

Category	**Purpose**
Environment	Affects the general behavior of SQL statements for the session
Format	Formats query results
File manipulation	Saves statements into text script files, and runs statements from text script files
Execution	Sends SQL statements from the browser to Oracle server
Edit	Modifies SQL statements in the Edit window
Interaction	Allows you to create and pass variables to SQL statements, print variable values, and print messages to the screen
Miscellaneous	Has various commands to connect to the database, manipulate the *i*SQL*Plus environment, and display column definitions

Logging In to *i*SQL*Plus

From your Windows browser environment:

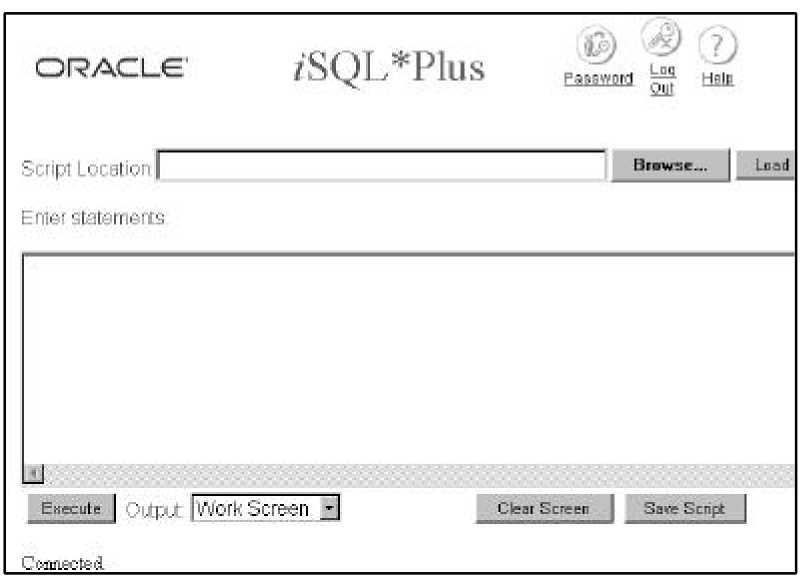


Logging In to *i*SQL*Plus

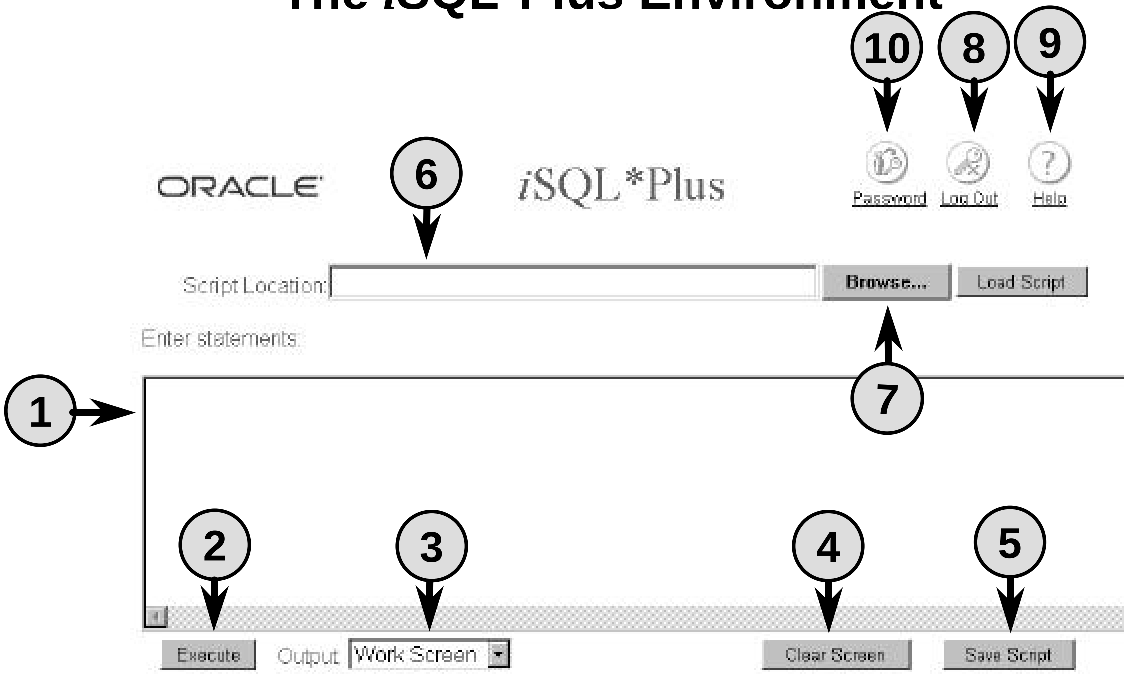
To log in through a browser environment:

1. Start the browser.
2. Enter the URL address of the *i*SQL*Plus environment.
3. Fill in the username, password and Oracle Connection Identifier fields.

After you have successfully logged in to *i*SQL*Plus, you see the following:



The *i*SQL*Plus Environment



The *i*SQL*Plus Environment

Within the Windows brower, the *i*SQL*Plus window has several key areas:

1. Edit window: The area where you type the SQL statements and *i*SQL*Plus commands.
2. Execute button: Click to execute the statements and commands in the edit window.
3. Output Option: Defaults to Work Screen, which displays the results of the SQL statement beneath the edit window. The other options are File or Window. File saves the contents to a specified file. Window places the output on the screen, but in a separate window.
4. Clear Screen button: Click to clear text from the edit window.
5. Save Script button: Saves the contents of the edit window to a file.
6. Script Locator: Identifies the name and location of a script file that you want to execute.
7. Browse button: Used to search for a script file using the Windows File Open dialog box.
8. Exit icon: Click to end the *i*SQL*Plus session and return to the *i*SQL*Plus LogOn window.
9. Help icon: Provides access to *i*SQL*Plus Help documentation.
10. Password button: Is used to change your password.

Displaying Table Structure

Use the *i*SQL*Plus `DESCRIBE` command to display the structure of a table.

```
DESC[RIBE] tablename
```


Displaying the Table Structure

In *i*SQL*Plus, you can display the structure of a table using the `DESCRIBE` command. The command shows the column names and data types, as well as whether a column *must* contain data.

In the syntax:

`tablename` is the name of any existing table, view, or synonym accessible to the user

Displaying Table Structure

```
DESCRIBE employees
```

Name	Null?	Type
EMPLOYEE_ID	NOT NULL	NUMBER(6)
FIRST_NAME		VARCHAR2(20)
LAST_NAME	NOT NULL	VARCHAR2(25)
EMAIL	NOT NULL	VARCHAR2(25)
PHONE_NUMBER		VARCHAR2(20)
HIRE_DATE	NOT NULL	DATE
JOB_ID	NOT NULL	VARCHAR2(10)
SALARY		NUMBER(8,2)
COMMISSION_PCT		NUMBER(2,2)
MANAGER_ID		NUMBER(6)
DEPARTMENT_ID		NUMBER(4)

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Displaying the Table Structure (continued)

The example on the slide displays the information about the structure of the `DEPARTMENTS` table.

In the result:

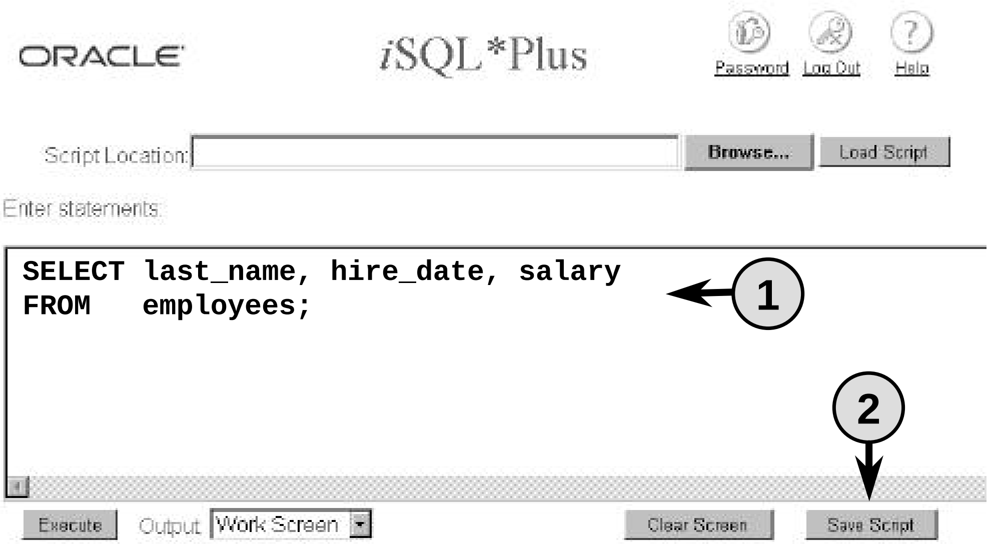
Null? indicates whether a column *must* contain data; `NOT NULL` indicates that a column must contain data

Type displays the data type for a column

The data types are described in the following table:

Data Type	Description
`NUMBER(`*p*`,`*s*`)`	Number value having a maximum number of digits *p*, with *s* digits to the right of the decimal point
`VARCHAR2(`*s*`)`	Variable-length character value of maximum size *s*
`DATE`	Date and time value between January 1, 4712 B.C., and December 31, 9999 A.D.
`CHAR(`*s*`)`	Fixed-length character value of size *s*

Interacting with Script Files

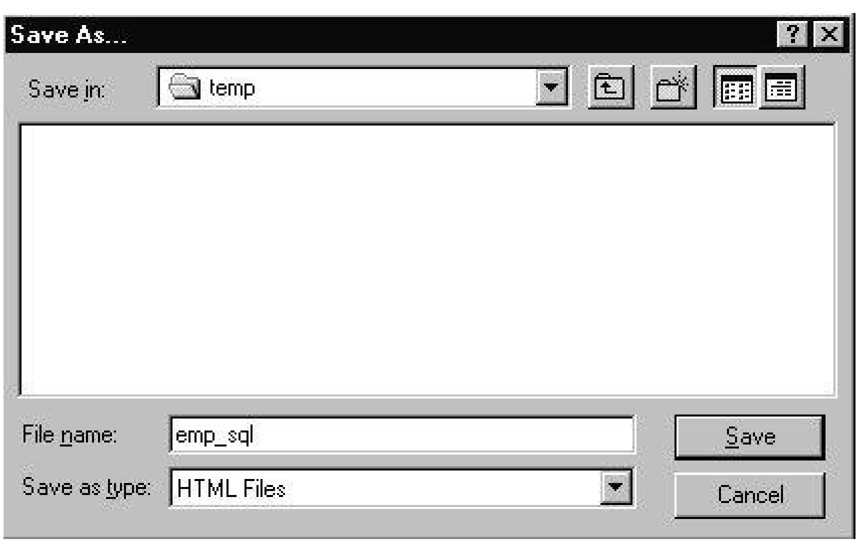


Interacting with Script Files

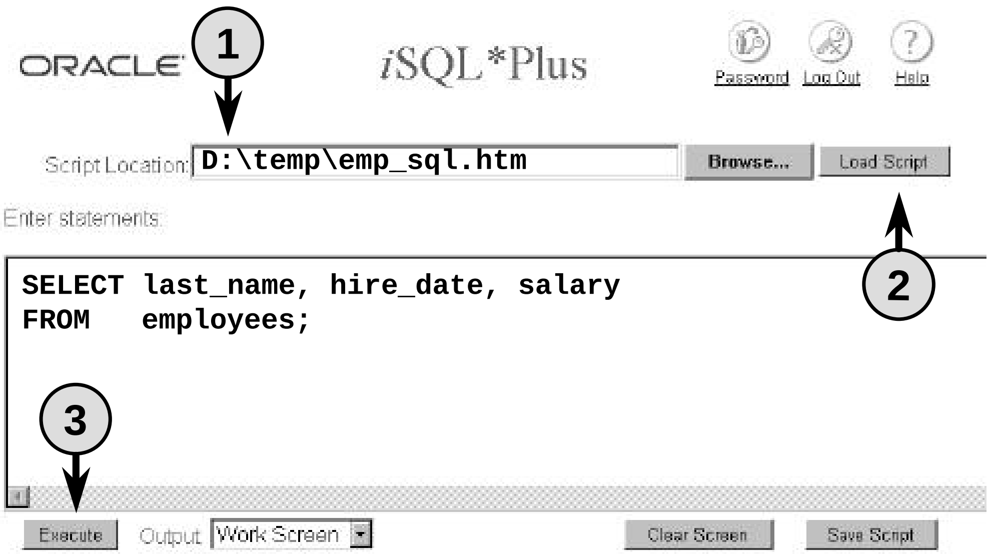
Placing Statements and Commands into a Text Script File

You can save commands and statements from the Edit window in *i*SQL*Plus to a text script file as follows:

1. Type the SQL statements into the edit window in *i*SQL*Plus.
2. Click the Save Script button. This opens the Windows File Save dialog box. Identify the name of the file. It defaults to `.html` extension. You can change the file type to a text file or save it as a `.sql` file.



Interacting with Script Files



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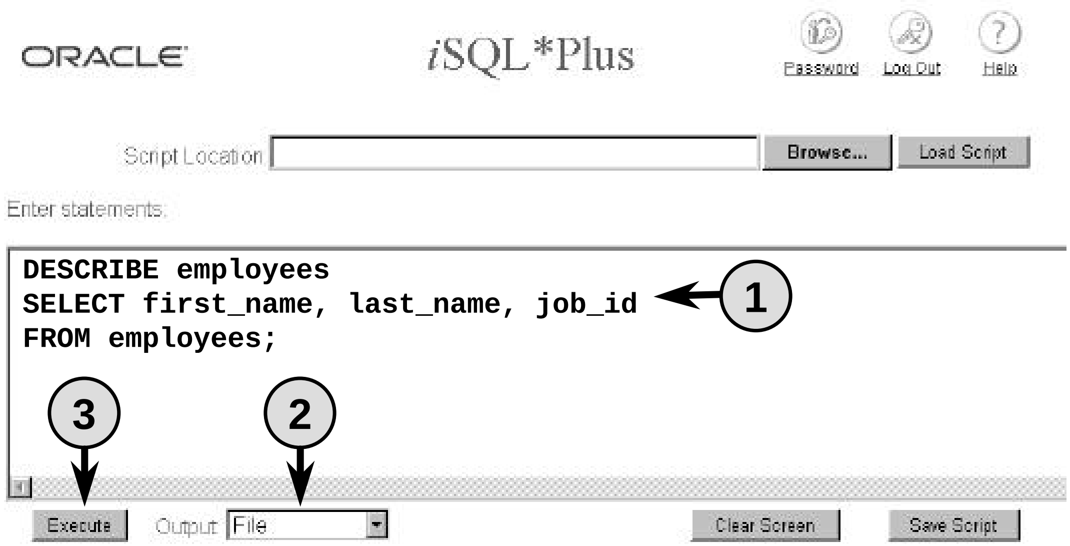
Interacting with Script Files

Using Statements and Commands from a Script File in *i*SQL*Plus

You can use previously saved commands and statements from a script file in *i*SQL*Plus as follows:

1. Type in the script name and location. Or, you can click the Browse button to find the script name and location.
2. Click the Load Script button. The file contents are loaded into the *i*SQL*Plus edit window.
3. Click the Execute button to run the contents of the *i*SQL*Plus edit window.

Interacting with Script Files

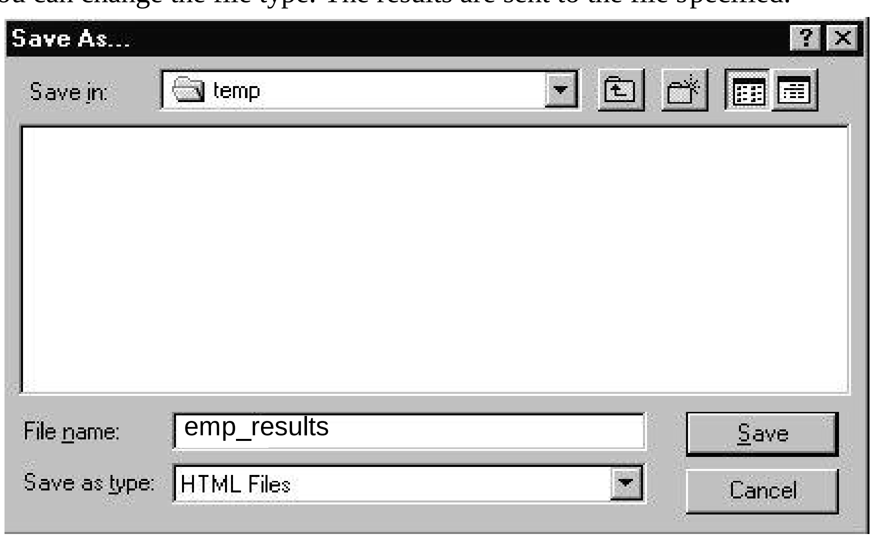


Interacting with Script Files

Saving Output to a File

You can save the results generated from a SQL statement or *i*SQL*Plus command to a file:

1. Type the SQL statements and *i*SQL*Plus commands into the edit window in *i*SQL*Plus.
2. Change the output option to Save.
3. Click the Execute button to run the contents of the *i*SQL*Plus edit window. This opens the Windows File Save dialog box. Identify the name of the file. It defaults to a `.html` extension. You can change the file type. The results are sent to the file specified.



Summary

In this lesson, you should have learned how to:

- **Write a SELECT statement that:**
  - **Returns all rows and columns from a table**
  - **Returns specified columns from a table**
  - **Uses column aliases to give descriptive column headings**
- **Use the *i*SQL*Plus environment to write, save, and execute SQL statements and *i*SQL*Plus commands.**

```
SELECT   *|{[DISTINCT] column|expression [alias],...}
FROM     table;
```


SELECT Statement

In this lesson, you should have learned about retrieving data from a database table with the SELECT statement.

```
SELECT   *|{[DISTINCT] column [alias],...}
FROM     table;
```

In the syntax:

SELECT	is a list of one or more columns
*	selects all columns
DISTINCT	suppresses duplicates
column|expression	selects the named column or the expression
alias	gives selected columns different headings
FROM *table*	specifies the table containing the columns

*i*SQL*Plus

*i*SQL*Plus is an execution environment that you can use to send SQL statements to the database server and to edit and save SQL statements. Statements can be executed from the SQL prompt or from a script file.

Note: The SQL*Plus environment is covered in Appendix C.

Practice Overview

This practice covers the following topics:

- Selecting all data from different tables
- Describing the structure of tables
- Performing arithmetic calculations and specifying column names
- Using *i*SQL*Plus

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Practice Overview

This is the first of many practices. The solutions (if you require them) can be found in Appendix A. Practices are intended to introduce all topics covered in the lesson. Questions 2–4 are paper-based.

In any practice, there may be "if you have time" or "if you want an extra challenge" questions. Do these only if you have completed all other questions within the allocated time and would like a further challenge to your skills.

Perform the practices slowly and precisely. You can experiment with saving and running command files. If you have any questions at any time, attract the instructor's attention.

Paper-Based Questions

For questions 2–4, circle either True or False.

Practice 1

1. Initiate an *i*SQL*Plus session using the user ID and password provided by the instructor.
2. *i*SQL*Plus commands access the database.
   True/False
3. The following `SELECT` statement executes successfully:

```
SELECT last_name, job_id, salary AS Sal
FROM   employees;
```

   True/False
4. The following `SELECT` statement executes successfully:

```
SELECT *
FROM   job_grades;
```

   True/False
5. There are four coding errors in this statement. Can you identify them?

```
SELECT    employee_id, last_name
sal x 12  ANNUAL SALARY
FROM      employees;
```

6. Show the structure of the `DEPARTMENTS` table. Select all data from the table.

Name	Null?	Type
DEPARTMENT_ID	NOT NULL	NUMBER(4)
DEPARTMENT_NAME	NOT NULL	VARCHAR2(30)
MANAGER_ID		NUMBER(6)
LOCATION_ID		NUMBER(4)

DEPARTMENT_ID	DEPARTMENT_NAME	MANAGER_ID	LOCATION_ID
10	Administration	200	1700
20	Marketing	201	1800
50	Shipping	124	1500
60	IT	103	1400
80	Sales	149	2500
90	Executive	100	1700
110	Accounting	205	1700
190	Contracting		1700

8 rows selected.

Practice 1 (continued)

7. Show the structure of the `EMPLOYEES` table. Create a query to display the last name, job code, hire date, and employee number for each employee, with employee number appearing first. Provide an alias STARTDATE for the HIRE_DATE column. Save your SQL statement to a file named `lab1_7.sql`.

Name	Null?	Type
EMPLOYEE_ID	NOT NULL	NUMBER(6)
FIRST_NAME		VARCHAR2(20)
LAST_NAME	NOT NULL	VARCHAR2(25)
EMAIL	NOT NULL	VARCHAR2(25)
PHONE_NUMBER		VARCHAR2(20)
HIRE_DATE	NOT NULL	DATE
JOB_ID	NOT NULL	VARCHAR2(10)
SALARY		NUMBER(8,2)
COMMISSION_PCT		NUMBER(2,2)
MANAGER_ID		NUMBER(6)
DEPARTMENT_ID		NUMBER(4)

8. Run your query in the file `lab1_7.sql`.

EMPLOYEE_ID	LAST_NAME	JOB_ID	StartDate
100	King	AD_PRES	17-JUN-87
101	Kochhar	AD_VP	21-SEP-89
102	De Haan	AD_VP	13-JAN-93
103	Hunold	IT_PROG	03-JAN-90
104	Ernst	IT_PROG	21-MAY-91
107	Lorentz	IT_PROG	07-FEB-99
124	Mourgos	ST_MAN	16-NOV-99
141	Rajs	ST_CLERK	17-OCT-95
142	Davies	ST_CLERK	29-JAN-97
143	Matos	ST_CLERK	15-MAR-98
144	Vargas	ST_CLERK	09-JUL-98
205	Higgins	AC_MGR	07-JUN-94
206	Gietz	AC_ACCOUNT	07-JUN-94

20 rows selected.

Practice 1 (continued)

9. Create a query to display unique job codes from the `EMPLOYEES` table.

JOB_ID
AC_ACCOUNT
AC_MGR
AD_ASST
AD_PRES
AD_VP
IT_PROG
MK_MAN
MK_REP
SA_MAN
SA_REP
ST_CLERK
ST_MAN

12 rows selected.

If you have time, complete the following exercises:

10. Copy the statement from `lab1_7.sql` into the *i*SQL*Plus Edit window. Name the column headings `Emp #`, `Employee`, `Job`, and `Hire Date`, respectively. Run your query again.

Emp #	Employee	Job	Hire Date
100	King	AD_PRES	17-JUN-87
101	Kochhar	AD_VP	21-SEP-89
102	De Haan	AD_VP	13-JAN-93
103	Hunold	IT_PROG	03-JAN-90
104	Ernst	IT_PROG	21-MAY-91
107	Lorentz	IT_PROG	07-FEB-99
124	Mourgos	ST_MAN	16-NOV-99
141	Rajs	ST_CLERK	17-OCT-95
142	Davies	ST_CLERK	29-JAN-97
143	Matos	ST_CLERK	15-MAR-98
144	Vargas	ST_CLERK	09-JUL-98
206	Gietz	AC_ACCOUNT	07-JUN-94

20 rows selected.

Practice 1 (continued)

11. Display the last name concatenated with the job ID, separated by a comma and space, and name the column `Employee and Title`.

Employee and Title
King, AD_PRES
Kochhar, AD_VP
De Haan, AD_VP
Hunold, IT_PROG
Ernst, IT_PROG
Lorentz, IT_PROG
Mourgos, ST_MAN
Rajs, ST_CLERK
Davies, ST_CLERK
Gietz, AC_ACCOUNT

20 rows selected.

If you want an extra challenge, complete the following exercise:

12. Create a query to display all the data from the `EMPLOYEES` table. Separate each column by a comma. Name the column `THE_OUTPUT`.

THE_OUTPUT
100,Steven,King,SKING,515.123.4567,AD_PRES,,17-JUN-87,24000,,90
101,Neena,Kochhar,NKOCHHAR,515.123.4568,AD_VP,100,21-SEP-89,17000,,90
102,Lex,De Haan,LDEHAAN,515.123.4569,AD_VP,100,13-JAN-93,17000,,90
103,Alexander,Hunold,AHUNOLD,590.423.4567,IT_PROG,102,03-JAN-90,9000,,60
104,Bruce,Ernst,BERNST,590.423.4568,IT_PROG,103,21-MAY-91,6000,,60
107,Diana,Lorentz,DLORENTZ,590.423.5567,IT_PROG,103,07-FEB-99,4200,,60
124,Kevin,Mourgos,KMOURGOS,650.123.5234,ST_MAN,100,16-NOV-99,5800,,50
141,Trenna,Rajs,TRAJS,650.121.8009,ST_CLERK,124,17-OCT-95,3500,,50
206,William,Gietz,WGIETZ,515.123.8181,AC_ACCOUNT,205,07-JUN-94,8300,,110

20 rows selected.

2

Restricting and Sorting Data

Objectives

After completing this lesson, you should be able to do the following:

- **Limit the rows retrieved by a query**
- **Sort the rows retrieved by a query**

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2-2

Lesson Aim

While retrieving data from the database, you may need to restrict the rows of data that are displayed or specify the order in which the rows are displayed. This lesson explains the SQL statements that you use to perform these actions.

Limiting Rows Using a Selection

EMPLOYEES

EMPLOYEE_ID	LAST_NAME	JOB_ID	DEPARTMENT_ID
100	King	AD_PRES	90
101	Kochhar	AD_VP	90
102	De Haan	AD_VP	90
103	Hunold	IT_PROG	60
104	Ernst	IT_PROG	60
107	Lorentz	IT_PROG	60
124	Mourgos	ST_MA	50

20 rows selected.

"retrieve all employees in department 90"

EMPLOYEE_ID	LAST_NAME	JOB_ID	DEPARTMENT_ID
100	King	AD_PRES	90
101	Kochhar	AD_VP	90
102	De Haan	AD_VP	90

Limiting Rows Using a Selection

In the example on the slide, assume that you want to display all the employees in department 90. The rows with a value of 90 in the `DEPARTMENT_ID` column are the only ones returned. This method of restriction is the basis of the `WHERE` clause in SQL.

Limiting the Rows Selected

- Restrict the rows returned by using the **WHERE** clause.

```
SELECT   *|{[DISTINCT] column|expression [alias],...}
FROM     table
[WHERE   condition(s)];
```

- The **WHERE** clause follows the **FROM** clause.

Limiting the Rows Selected

You can restrict the rows returned from the query by using the WHERE clause. A WHERE clause contains a condition that must be met, and it directly follows the FROM clause. If the condition is true, the row meeting the condition is returned.

In the syntax:

WHERE	restricts the query to rows that meet a condition
condition	is composed of column names, expressions, constants, and a comparison operator

The WHERE clause can compare values in columns, literal values, arithmetic expressions, or functions. It consists of three elements:

- Column name
- Comparison condition
- Column name, constant, or list of values

Using the WHERE Clause

```
SELECT employee_id, last_name, job_id, department_id
FROM   employees
WHERE  department_id = 90;
```

EMPLOYEE_ID	LAST_NAME	JOB_ID	DEPARTMENT_ID
100	King	AD_PRES	90
101	Kochhar	AD_VP	90
102	De Haan	AD_VP	90

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2-5

Using the WHERE Clause

In the example, the SELECT statement retrieves the name, job ID, and department number of all employees whose job ID is SA_REP.

Note that the job title SA_REP has been specified in uppercase to ensure that it matches the job ID column in the EMPLOYEES table. Character strings are case sensitive.

Character Strings and Dates

- **Character strings and date values are enclosed in single quotation marks.**
- **Character values are case sensitive, and date values are format sensitive.**
- **The default date format is DD-MON-RR.**

```
SELECT last_name, job_id, department_id
FROM   employees
WHERE  last_name = 'Goyal';
```


Character Strings and Dates

Character strings and dates in the `WHERE` clause must be enclosed in single quotation marks (`''`). Number constants, however, should not be enclosed in single quotation marks.

All character searches are case sensitive. In the following example, no rows are returned because the `EMPLOYEES` table stores all the last names in mixed case:

```
SELECT last_name, job_id, department_id
FROM   employees
WHERE  last_name = 'GOYAL';
```

Oracle databases store dates in an internal numeric format, representing the century, year, month, day, hours, minutes, and seconds. The default date display is DD-MON-RR.

Note: Changing the default date format is covered in a subsequent lesson.

Comparison Conditions

Operator	Meaning
=	Equal to
>	Greater than
>=	Greater than or equal to
<	Less than
<=	Less than or equal to
<>	Not equal to

2-7

Comparison Conditions

Comparison conditions are used in conditions that compare one expression to another value or expression. They are used in the WHERE clause in the following format:

Syntax

```
... WHERE expr operator value
```

For Example

```
... WHERE hire_date='01-JAN-95'
... WHERE salary>=6000
... WHERE last_name='Smith'
```

An alias cannot be used in the WHERE clause.

Note: The symbol != and ^= can also represent the *not equal to* condition.

Using Comparison Conditions

```
SELECT last_name, salary
FROM   employees
WHERE  salary <= 3000;
```

LAST_NAME	SALARY
Matos	2600
Vargas	2500

Using the Comparison Conditions

In the example, the SELECT statement retrieves the last name and salary from the EMPLOYEES table, where the employee salary is less than or equal to 3000. Note that there is an explicit value supplied to the WHERE clause. The explicit value of 3000 is compared to the salary value in the SALARY column of the EMPLOYEES table.

Other Comparison Conditions

Operator	Meaning
`BETWEEN ...AND...`	Between two values (inclusive),
`IN(set)`	Match any of a list of values
`LIKE`	Match a character pattern
`IS NULL`	Is a null value

Using the BETWEEN Condition

Use the BETWEEN condition to display rows based on a range of values.

```
SELECT last_name, salary
FROM   employees
WHERE  salary BETWEEN  2500 AND 3500;
```

Lower limit **Upper limit**

LAST_NAME	SALARY
Rajs	3500
Davies	3100
Matos	2600
Vargas	2500

The BETWEEN Condition

You can display rows based on a range of values using the BETWEEN range condition. The range that you specify contains a lower limit and an upper limit.

The SELECT statement on the slide returns rows from the EMPLOYEES table for any employee whose salary is between $2,500 and $3,500.

Values specified with the BETWEEN condition are inclusive. You must specify the lower limit first.

Using the IN Condition

Use the IN membership condition to test for values in a list.

```
SELECT employee_id, last_name, salary, manager_id
FROM   employees
WHERE  manager_id IN (100, 101, 201);
```

EMPLOYEE_ID	LAST_NAME	SALARY	MANAGER_ID
202	Fay	6000	201
200	Whalen	4400	101
205	Higgins	12000	101
101	Kochhar	17000	100
102	De Haan	17000	100
124	Mourgos	5800	100
149	Zlotkey	10500	100
201	Hartstein	13000	100

8 rows selected.

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The IN Condition

To test for values in a specified set of values, use the IN condition. The IN condition is also known as the *membership condition*.

The slide example displays employee numbers, last names, salaries, and manager's employee numbers for all the employees whose manager's employee number is 100, 101, or 201.

The IN condition can be used with any data type. The following example returns a row from the EMPLOYEES table for any employee whose last name is included in the list of names in the WHERE clause:

```
SELECT employee_id, manager_id, department_id
FROM   employees
WHERE  last_name IN ('Hartstein', 'Vargas');
```

If characters or dates are used in the list, they must be enclosed in single quotation marks ('').

Using the LIKE Condition

- Use the `LIKE` condition to perform wildcard searches of valid search string values.
- Search conditions can contain either literal characters or numbers:
  – `%` denotes zero or many characters.
  – `_` denotes one character.

```
SELECT   first_name
FROM     employees
WHERE    first_name LIKE 'S%';
```

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The LIKE Condition

You may not always know the exact value to search for. You can select rows that match a character pattern by using the `LIKE` condition. The character pattern-matching operation is referred to as a *wildcard* search. Two symbols can be used to construct the search string.

Symbol	Description
%	Represents any sequence of zero or more characters
_	Represents any single character

The `SELECT` statement on the slide returns the employee first name from the `EMPLOYEES` table for any employee whose first name begins with an *S*. Note the uppercase *S*. Names beginning with an *s* are not returned.

The `LIKE` condition can be used as a shortcut for some `BETWEEN` comparisons. The following example displays the last names and hire dates of all employees who joined between January 1995 and December 1995:

```
SELECT last_name, hire_date
FROM   employees
WHERE  hire_date LIKE '%95';
```

Using the LIKE Condition

- **You can combine pattern-matching characters.**

```
SELECT last_name
FROM   employees
WHERE  last_name LIKE '_o%';
```

LAST_NAME
Kochhar
Lorentz
Mourgos

- **You can use the ESCAPE identifier to search for the actual % and _ symbols.**

Combining Wildcard Characters

The % and _ symbols can be used in any combination with literal characters. The example on the slide displays the names of all employees whose last names have an *o* as the second character.

The ESCAPE Option

When you need to have an exact match for the actual % and _ characters, use the ESCAPE option. This option specifies what the escape character is. If you want to search for strings that contain 'SA_', you can use the following SQL statement:

```
SELECT employee_id, last_name, job_id
FROM   employees
WHERE  job_id LIKE '%SA\_%' ESCAPE '\';
```

EMPLOYEE_ID	LAST_NAME	JOB_ID
149	Zlotkey	SA_MAN
174	Abel	SA_REP
176	Taylor	SA_REP
178	Grant	SA_REP

The ESCAPE option identifies the backslash (\) as the escape character. In the pattern, the escape character precedes the underscore (_). This causes the Oracle Server to interpret the underscore literally.

Using the NULL Conditions

Test for nulls with the IS NULL operator.

```
SELECT last_name, manager_id
FROM   employees
WHERE  manager_id IS NULL;
```

LAST_NAME	MANAGER_ID
King	

The NULL Conditions

The NULL conditions include the IS NULL condition and the IS NOT NULL condition.

The IS NULL condition tests for nulls. A null value means the value is unavailable, unassigned, unknown, or inapplicable. Therefore, you cannot test with = because a null cannot be equal or unequal to any value. The slide example retrieves the last names and managers of all employees who do not have a manager.

For another example, to display last name, job ID, and commission for all employees who are NOT entitled to get a commission, use the following SQL statement:

```
SELECT last_name, job_id, commission_pct
FROM   employees
WHERE  commission_pct IS NULL;
```

LAST_NAME	JOB_ID	COMMISSION_PCT
King	AD_PRES	
Kochhar	AD_VP	
De Haan	AD_VP	
Gietz	AC_ACCOUN	

16 rows selected.

Logical Conditions

Operator	Meaning
`AND`	**Returns `TRUE` if *both* component conditions are true**
`OR`	**Returns `TRUE` if *either* component condition is true**
`NOT`	**Returns `TRUE` if the following condition is false**

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2-15

Logical Conditions

A logical condition combines the result of two component conditions to produce a single result based on them or inverts the result of a single condition. A row is returned only if the overall result of the condition is true. Three logical operators are available in SQL:

- `AND`
- `OR`
- `NOT`

All the examples so far have specified only one condition in the `WHERE` clause. You can use several conditions in one `WHERE` clause using the `AND` and `OR` operators.

Using the AND Operator

AND requires both conditions to be true.

```
SELECT employee_id, last_name, job_id, salary
FROM   employees
WHERE  salary >=10000
AND    job_id LIKE '%MAN%';
```

EMPLOYEE_ID	LAST_NAME	JOB_ID	SALARY
149	Zlotkey	SA_MAN	10500
201	Hartstein	MK_MAN	13000

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The AND Operator

In the example, both conditions must be true for any record to be selected. Therefore, only employees who have a job title that contains the string MAN *and* earn more than $10,000 are selected.

All character searches are case sensitive. No rows are returned if MAN is not in uppercase. Character strings must be enclosed in quotation marks.

AND Truth Table

The following table shows the results of combining two expressions with AND:

AND	TRUE	FALSE	NULL
TRUE	TRUE	FALSE	NULL
FALSE	FALSE	FALSE	FALSE
NULL	NULL	FALSE	NULL

Using the OR Operator

OR requires either condition to be true.

```
SELECT employee_id, last_name, job_id, salary
FROM   employees
WHERE  salary >= 10000
OR     job_id LIKE '%MAN%';
```

EMPLOYEE_ID	LAST_NAME	JOB_ID	SALARY
100	King	AD_PRES	24000
101	Kochhar	AD_VP	17000
102	De Haan	AD_VP	17000
124	Mourgos	ST_MAN	5800
149	Zlotkey	SA_MAN	10500
174	Abel	SA_REP	11000
201	Hartstein	MK_MAN	13000
205	Higgins	AC_MGR	12000

8 rows selected.

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The OR Operator

In the example, either condition can be true for any record to be selected. Therefore, any employee who has a job ID containing MAN *or* earns more than $10,000 is selected.

The OR Truth Table

The following table shows the results of combining two expressions with OR:

OR	TRUE	FALSE	NULL
TRUE	TRUE	TRUE	TRUE
FALSE	TRUE	FALSE	NULL
NULL	TRUE	NULL	NULL

Using the NOT Operator

```
SELECT last_name, job_id
FROM   employees
WHERE  job_id NOT IN ('IT_PROG', 'ST_CLERK', 'SA_REP');
```

LAST_NAME	JOB_ID
King	AD_PRES
Kochhar	AD_VP
De Haan	AD_VP
Mourgos	ST_MAN
Zlotkey	SA_MAN
Whalen	AD_ASST
Hartstein	MK_MAN
Fay	MK_REP
Higgins	AC_MGR
Gietz	AC_ACCOUNT

10 rows selected.

The NOT Operator

The slide example displays the last name and job ID of all employees whose job ID *is not* IT_PROG, ST_CLERK, or SA_REP.

The NOT Truth Table

The following table shows the result of applying the NOT operator to a condition:

NOT	TRUE	FALSE	NULL
	FALSE	TRUE	NULL

Note: The NOT operator can also be used with other SQL operators, such as BETWEEN, LIKE, and NULL.

```
... WHERE  job_id    NOT  IN ('AC_ACCOUNT', 'AD_VP')
... WHERE  salary    NOT  BETWEEN  10000 AND  15000
... WHERE  last_name NOT  LIKE '%A%'
... WHERE  commission_pct  IS   NOT  NULL
```

Rules of Precedence

Order Evaluated	Operator
1	Arithmetic operators
2	Concatenation operator
3	Comparison conditions
4	IS [NOT] NULL, LIKE, [NOT] IN
5	[NOT] BETWEEN
6	NOT logical condition
7	AND logical condition
8	OR logical condition

Override rules of precedence by using parentheses.

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Rules of Precedence

The rules of precedence determine the order in which expressions are evaluated and calculated. The table lists the default order of precedence. You can override the default order by using parentheses around the expressions you want to calculate first.

Rules of Precedence

```
SELECT last_name, job_id, salary
FROM   employees
WHERE  job_id = 'SA_REP'
OR     job_id = 'AD_PRES'
AND    salary > 15000;
```

LAST_NAME	JOB_ID	SALARY
King	AD_PRES	24000
Abel	SA_REP	11000
Taylor	SA_REP	8600
Grant	SA_REP	7000

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Example of the Precedence of the AND Operator

In the slide example, there are two conditions:

- The first condition is that the job ID is AD_PRES *and* the salary is greater than 15,000.
- The second condition is that the job ID is SA_REP.

Therefore, the SELECT statement reads as follows:

“Select the row if an employee is a president *and* earns more than $15,000, *or* if the employee is a sales representative.”

Rules of Precedence

Use parentheses to force priority.

```
SELECT  last_name, job_id, salary
FROM    employees
WHERE   (job_id = 'SA_REP'
OR      job_id = 'AD_PRES')
AND     salary > 15000;
```

LAST_NAME	JOB_ID	SALARY
King	AD_PRES	24000

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Using Parentheses

In the example, there are two conditions:

- The first condition is that the job ID is AD_PRES *or* SA_REP.
- The second condition is that salary is greater than $15,000.

Therefore, the `SELECT` statement reads as follows:

“Select the row if an employee is a president *or* a sales representative, *and* if the employee earns more than $15,000.”

ORDER BY Clause

- Sort rows with the `ORDER BY` clause
  - ASC: ascending order, default
  - DESC: descending order
- The `ORDER BY` clause comes last in the `SELECT` statement.

```
SELECT   last_name, job_id, department_id, hire_date
FROM     employees
ORDER BY hire_date;
```

LAST_NAME	JOB_ID	DEPARTMENT_ID	HIRE_DATE
King	AD_PRES	90	17-JUN-87
Whalen	AD_ASST	10	17-SEP-87
Kochhar	AD_VP	90	21-SEP-89
Hunold	IT_PROG	60	03-JAN-90
Ernst	IT_PROG	60	21-MAY-91
[illegible]	AD_VP	90	13-JAN-93

20 rows selected.

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The ORDER BY Clause

The order of rows returned in a query result is undefined. The `ORDER BY` clause can be used to sort the rows. If you use the `ORDER BY` clause, it must be the last clause of the SQL statement. You can specify an expression, or an alias, or column position as the sort condition.

Syntax

```
SELECT          expr
FROM            table
[WHERE          condition(s)]
[ORDER BY {column, expr} [ASC|DESC]];
```

In the syntax:

`ORDER BY`	specifies the order in which the retrieved rows are displayed
`ASC`	orders the rows in ascending order (this is the default order)
`DESC`	orders the rows in descending order

If the `ORDER BY` clause is not used, the sort order is undefined, and the Oracle server may not fetch rows in the same order for the same query twice. Use the `ORDER BY` clause to display the rows in a specific order.

Sorting in Descending Order

```
SELECT   last_name, job_id, department_id, hire_date
FROM     employees
ORDER BY hire_date DESC;
```

LAST_NAME	JOB_ID	DEPARTMENT_ID	HIRE_DATE
Zlotkey	SA_MAN	80	29-JAN-00
Mourgos	ST_MAN	50	16-NOV-99
Grant	SA_REP		24-MAY-99
Lorentz	IT_PROG	60	07-FEB-99
Vargas	ST_CLERK	50	09-JUL-98
Taylor	SA_REP	80	24-MAR-98
Matos	ST_CLERK	50	15-MAR-98
Fay	MK_REP	20	17-AUG-97
Davies	ST_CLERK	50	29-JAN-97
Abel	SA_REP	80	11-MAY-96
King	AD_PRES	90	17-JUN-87

20 rows selected.

Default Ordering of Data

The default sort order is ascending:

- Numeric values are displayed with the lowest values first—for example, 1–999.
- Date values are displayed with the earliest value first—for example, 01-JAN-92 before 01-JAN-95.
- Character values are displayed in alphabetical order—for example, *A* first and *Z* last.
- Null values are displayed last for ascending sequences and first for descending sequences.

Reversing the Default Order

To reverse the order in which rows are displayed, specify the `DESC` keyword after the column name in the `ORDER BY` clause. The slide example sorts the result by the most recently hired employee.

Sorting by Column Alias

```
SELECT employee_id, last_name, salary*12 annsal
FROM   employees
ORDER BY annsal;
```

EMPLOYEE_ID	LAST_NAME	ANNSAL
144	Vargas	30000
143	Matos	31200
142	Davies	37200
141	Rajs	42000
107	Lorentz	50400
200	Whalen	52800
124	Mourgos	69600
104	Ernst	72000
202	Fay	72000
178	Grant	84000
206	Gietz	99600
...		
100	King	288000

20 rows selected.

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Sorting by Column Aliases

You can use a column alias in the ORDER BY clause. The slide example sorts the data by annual salary.

Sorting by Multiple Columns

- **The order of `ORDER BY` list is the order of sort.**

```
SELECT last_name, department_id, salary
FROM   employees
ORDER BY department_id, salary DESC;
```

LAST_NAME	DEPARTMENT_ID	SALARY
Whalen	10	4400
Hartstein	20	13000
Fay	20	6000
Mourgos	50	5800
Rajs	50	3500
...		
Higgins	110	12000
Gietz	110	8300
Grant		7000

20 rows selected.

- **You can sort by a column that is not in the SELECT list.**

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Sorting by Multiple Columns

You can sort query results by more than one column. The sort limit is the number of columns in the given table.

In the `ORDER BY` clause, specify the columns, and separate the column names using commas. If you want to reverse the order of a column, specify `DESC` after its name. You can also order by columns that are not included in the `SELECT` clause.

Example

Display the last names and salaries of all employees. Order the result by department number, and then in descending order by salary.

```
SELECT    last_name, salary
FROM      employees
ORDER BY department_id, salary DESC;
```

Summary

In this lesson, you should have learned how to:

- **Use the `WHERE` clause to restrict rows of output**
  - **Use the comparison conditions**
  - **Use the `BETWEEN`, `IN`, `LIKE`, and `NULL` conditions**
  - **Apply the logical `AND`, `OR`, and `NOT` operators**
- **Use the `ORDER BY` clause to sort rows of output**

```
SELECT     *|{[DISTINCT] column|expression [alias],...}
FROM       table
[WHERE     condition(s)]
[ORDER BY  {column, expr, alias} [ASC|DESC]];
```

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Summary

In this lesson, you should have learned about restricting and sorting rows returned by the `SELECT` statement. You should also have learned how to implement various operators and conditions.

Practice 2 Overview

This practice covers the following topics:

- **Selecting data and changing the order of rows displayed**
- **Restricting rows by using the `WHERE` clause**
- **Sorting rows by using the `ORDER BY` clause**

Practice 2 Overview

This practice gives you a variety of exercises using the `WHERE` clause and the `ORDER BY` clause.

Practice 2

1. Create a query to display the last name and salary of employees earning more than $12,000. Place your SQL statement in a text file named `lab2_1.sql`. Run your query.

LAST_NAME	SALARY
King	24000
Kochhar	17000
De Haan	17000
Hartstein	13000

2. Create a query to display the employee last name and department number for employee number 176.

LAST_NAME	DEPARTMENT_ID
Taylor	80

3. Modify `lab2_1.sql` to display the last name and salary for all employees whose salary is not in the range of $5,000 and $12,000. Place your SQL statement in a text file named `lab2_3.sql`.

LAST_NAME	SALARY
King	24000
Kochhar	17000
De Haan	17000
Lorentz	4200
Rajs	3500
Davies	3100
Matos	2600
Vargas	2500
Whalen	4400
Hartstein	13000

10 rows selected.

Practice 2 (continued)

4. Display the employee last name, job ID, and start date of employees hired between February 20, 1998, and May 1, 1998. Order the query in ascending order by start date.

LAST_NAME	JOB_ID	HIRE_DATE
Matos	ST_CLERK	15-MAR-98
Taylor	SA_REP	24-MAR-98

5. Display the last name and department number of all employees in departments 20 and 50 in alphabetical order by name.

LAST_NAME	DEPARTMENT_ID
Davies	50
Fay	20
Hartstein	20
Matos	50
Mourgos	50
Rajs	50
Vargas	50

7 rows selected.

6. Modify `lab2_3.sql` to list the last name and salary of employees who earn between $5,000 and $12,000, and are in department 20 or 50. Label the columns `Employee` and `Monthly Salary`, respectively. Resave `lab2_3.sql` as `lab2_6.sql`. Run the statement in `lab2_6.sql`.

Employee	Monthly Salary
Mourgos	5800
Fay	6000

Practice 2 (continued)

7. Display the last name and hire date of every employee who was hired in 1994.

LAST_NAME	HIRE_DATE
Higgins	07-JUN-94
Gietz	07-JUN-94

8. Display the last name and job title of all employees who do not have a manager.

LAST_NAME	JOB_ID
King	AD_PRES

9. Display the last name, salary, and commission for all employees who earn commissions. Sort data in descending order of salary and commissions.

LAST_NAME	SALARY	COMMISSION_PCT
Abel	11000	.3
Zlotkey	10500	.2
Taylor	8600	.2
Grant	7000	.15

If you have time, complete the following exercises:

10. Display the last names of all employees where the third letter of the name is an *a*.

LAST_NAME
Grant
Whalen

11. Display the last name of all employees who have an *a* and an *e* in their last name.

LAST_NAME
De Haan
Davies
Whalen
Hartstein

Practice 2 (continued)

If you want an extra challenge, complete the following exercises:

12. Display the last name, job, and salary for all employees whose `job` is sales representative or stock clerk and whose salary is not equal to $2,500, $3,500, or $7,000.

LAST_NAME	JOB_ID	SALARY
Davies	ST_CLERK	3100
Matos	ST_CLERK	2600
Abel	SA_REP	11000
Taylor	SA_REP	8600

13. Modify `lab2_6.sql` to display the last name, salary, and commission for all employees whose commission amount is 20%. Resave `lab2_6.sql` as `lab2_13.sql`. Rerun the statement in `lab2_13.sql`.

Employee	Monthly Salary	COMMISSION_PCT
Zlotkey	10500	.2
Taylor	8600	.2

3

Single-Row Functions

Objectives

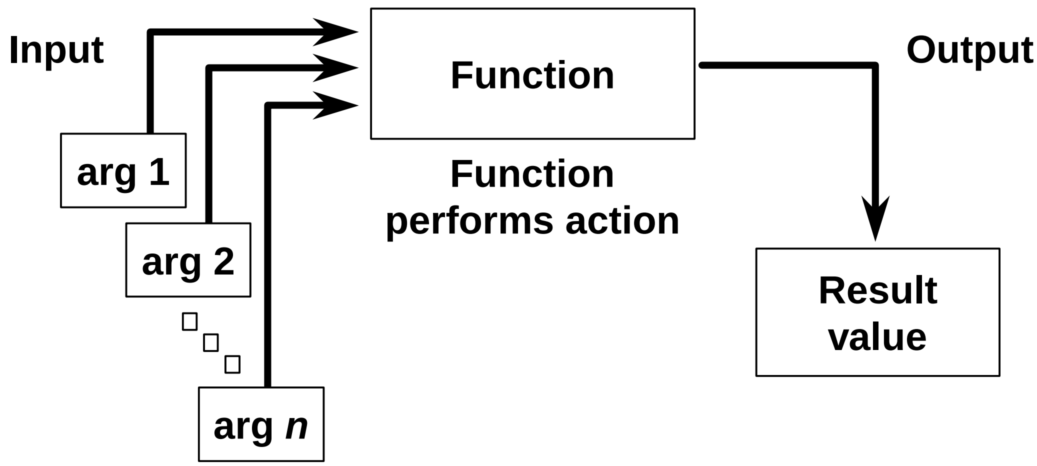
After completing this lesson, you should be able to do the following:

- **Describe various types of functions available in SQL**
- **Use character, number, and date functions in SELECT statements**
- **Describe the use of conversion functions**

Lesson Aim

Functions make the basic query block more powerful and are used to manipulate data values. This is the first of two lessons that explore functions. It focuses on single-row character, number, and date functions, as well as those functions that convert data from one type to another, for example, character data to numeric data.

SQL Functions



3-3

SQL Functions

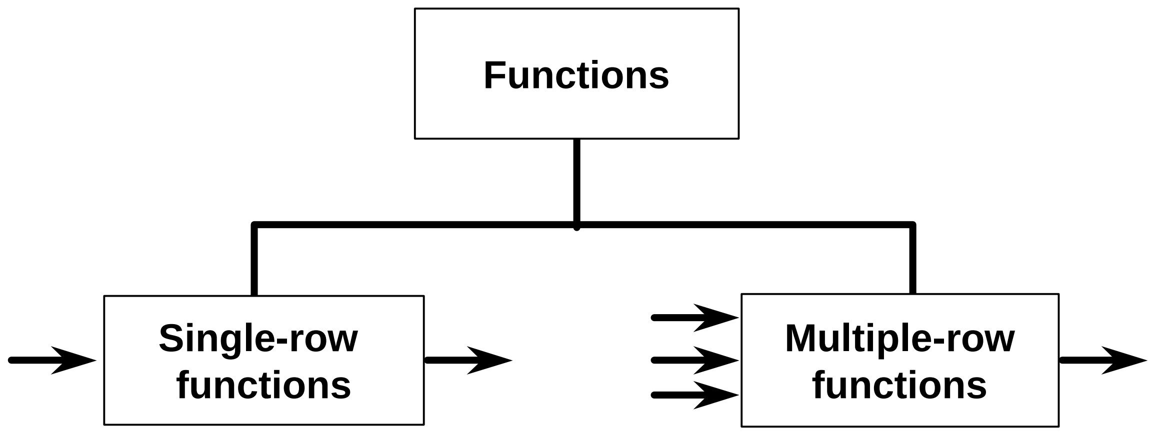
Functions are a very powerful feature of SQL and can be used to do the following:

- Perform calculations on data
- Modify individual data items
- Manipulate output for groups of rows
- Format dates and numbers for display
- Convert column data types

SQL functions sometimes take arguments and always return a value.

Note: Most of the functions described in this lesson are specific to Oracle's version of SQL.

Two Types of SQL Functions



SQL Functions (continued)

There are two distinct types of functions:

- Single-row functions
- Multiple-row functions

Single-Row Functions

These functions operate on single rows only and return one result per row. There are different types of single-row functions. This lesson covers the following ones:

- Character
- Number
- Date
- Conversion

Multiple-Row Functions

Functions can manipulate groups of rows to give one result per group of rows. These functions are known as group functions. This is covered in a later lesson.

For more information, see *Oracle9i SQL Reference* for the complete list of available functions and their syntax.

Single-Row Functions

Single row functions:

- **Manipulate data items**
- **Accept arguments and return one value**
- **Act on each row returned**
- **Return one result per row**
- **May modify the data type**
- **Can be nested**
- **Accept arguments which can be a column or an expression**

```
function_name [(arg1, arg2,...)]
```

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Single-Row Functions

Single-row functions are used to manipulate data items. They accept one or more arguments and return one value for each row returned by the query. An argument can be one of the following:

- User-supplied constant
- Variable value
- Column name
- Expression

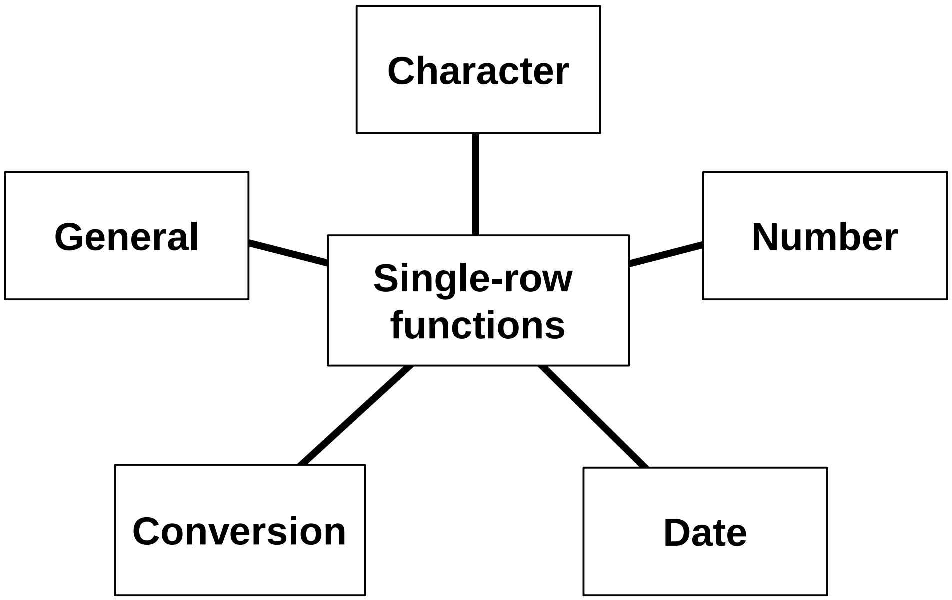
Features of single-row functions include:

- Acting on each row returned in the query
- Returning one result per row
- Possibly returning a data value of a different type than that referenced
- Possibly expecting one or more arguments
- Can be used in `SELECT`, `WHERE`, and `ORDER BY` clauses; can be nested

In the syntax:

function_name	is the name of the function.
arg1, arg2	is any argument to be used by the function. This can be represented by a column name or expression.

Single-Row Functions

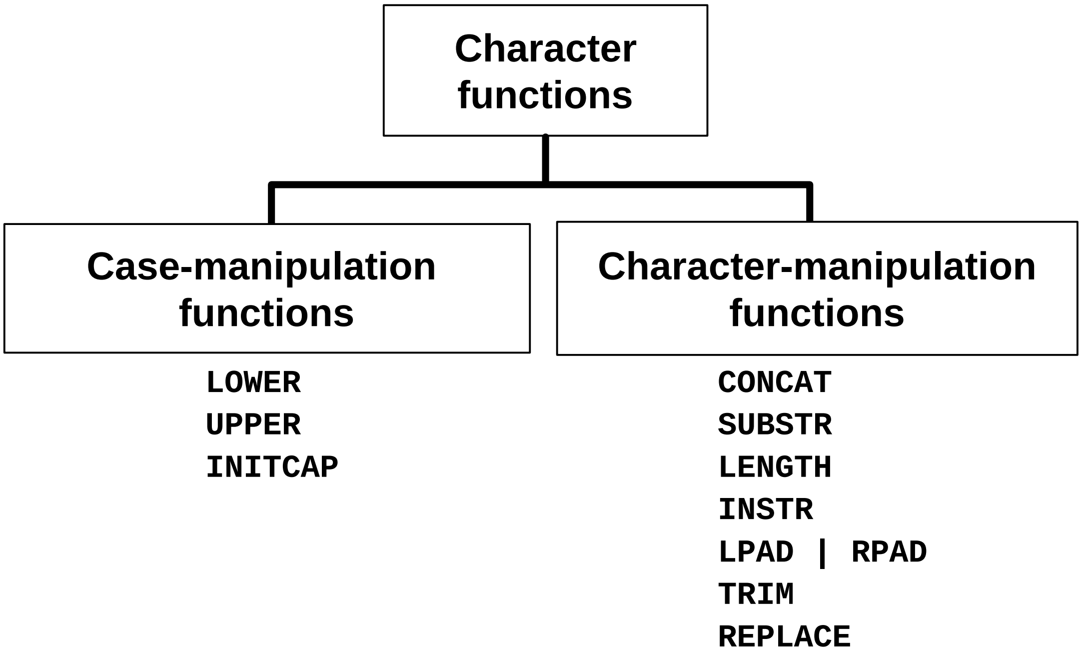


Single-Row Functions (continued)

This lesson covers the following single-row functions:

- Character functions: Accept character input and can return both character and number values
- Number functions: Accept numeric input and return numeric values
- Date functions: Operate on values of the `DATE` data type (All date functions return a value of `DATE` data type except the `MONTHS_BETWEEN` function, which returns a number.)
- Conversion functions: Convert a value from one data type to another
- General functions:
  - `NVL`
  - `NVL2`
  - `NULLIF`
  - `COALSECE`
  - `CASE`
  - `DECODE`

Character Functions



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Character Functions

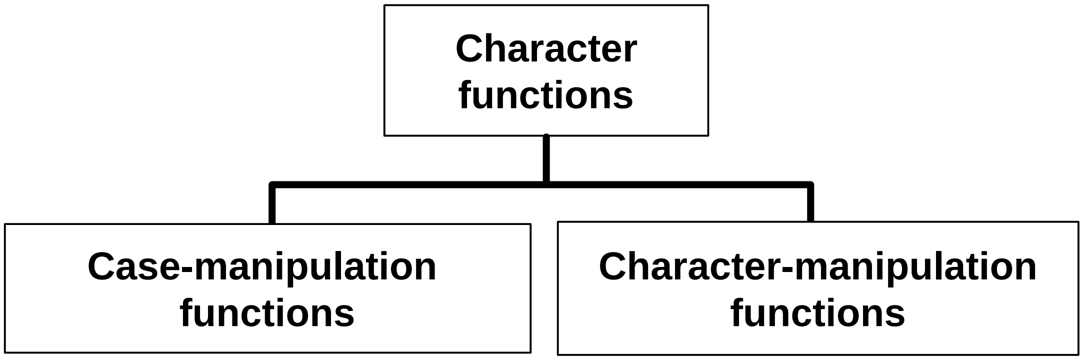
Single-row character functions accept character data as input and can return both character and numeric values. Character functions can be divided into the following:

- Case-manipulation functions
- Character-manipulation functions

Function	Purpose
LOWER(*column*|*expression*)	Converts alpha character values to lowercase
UPPER(*column*|*expression*)	Converts alpha character values to uppercase
INITCAP(*column*|*expression*)	Converts alpha character values to uppercase for the first letter of each word, all other letters in lowercase
CONCAT(*column1*|*expression1*, *column2*|*expression2*)	Concatenates the first character value to the second character value; equivalent to concatenation operator (||)
SUBSTR(*column*|*expression*,*m* [,*n*])	Returns specified characters from character value starting at character position *m*, *n* characters long (If *m* is negative, the count starts from the end of the character value. If *n* is omitted, all characters to the end of the string are returned.)

Note: The functions discussed in this lesson are only some of the available functions.

Character Functions



LOWER
UPPER
INITCAP

CONCAT
SUBSTR
LENGTH
INSTR
LPAD | RPAD
TRIM
REPLACE

Character Functions (continued)

Function	Purpose
`LENGTH(`*`column`*`|`*`expression`*`)`	Returns the number of characters in the expression
`INSTR(`*`column`*`|`*`expression, 'string', [,m], [n]`* `)`	Returns the numeric position of a named string. Optionally, you can provide a position *m* to start searching, and the occurrence *n* of the string. *m* and *n* default to 1, meaning start the search at the beginning of the search and report the first occurrence.
`LPAD(`*`column`*`|`*`expression, n,`* `'`*`string`*`')` `RPAD(`*`column`*`|`*`expression, n,`* `'`*`string`*`')`	Pads the character value right-justified to a total width of *n* character positions Pads the character value left-justified to a total width of *n* character positions
`TRIM(`*`leading`*`|`*`trailing`*`|`*`both, trim_character FROM trim_source`*`)`	Enables you to trim heading or trailing characters (or both) from a character string. If *`trim_character`* or *`trim_source`* is a character literal, you must enclose it in single quotes. This is a feature available from Oracle8*i* and later.
`REPLACE(`*`text, search_string, replacement_string`*`)`	Searches a text expression for a character string and, if found, replaces it with a specified replacement string

Case Manipulation Functions

These functions convert case for character strings.

Function	Result
`LOWER('SQL Course')`	`sql course`
`UPPER('SQL Course')`	`SQL COURSE`
`INITCAP('SQL Course')`	`Sql Course`

Case Manipulation Functions

`LOWER`, `UPPER`, and `INITCAP` are the three case-conversion functions.

- `LOWER`: Converts mixed case or uppercase character strings to lowercase
- `UPPER`: Converts mixed case or lowercase character strings to uppercase
- `INITCAP`: Converts the first letter of each word to uppercase and remaining letters to lowercase

```
SELECT 'The job id for '||UPPER(last_name)||' is '
        ||LOWER(job_id) AS "EMPLOYEE DETAILS"
FROM employees;
```

EMPLOYEE DETAILS
The job id for KING is ad_pres
The job id for KOCHHAR is ad_vp
The job id for DE HAAN is ad_vp
The job id for HUNOLD is it_prog
The job id for ERNST is it_prog
... id ... is ac_mgr
The job id for GIETZ is ac_account

20 rows selected.

Using Case Manipulation Functions

Display the employee number, name, and department number for employee Higgens:

```
SELECT employee_id, last_name, department_id
FROM   employees
WHERE  last_name = 'higgins';
no rows selected
```

```
SELECT employee_id, last_name, department_id
FROM   employees
WHERE  LOWER(last_name) = 'higgins';
```

EMPLOYEE_ID	LAST_NAME	DEPARTMENT_ID
205	Higgins	110

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Case Manipulation Functions (continued)

The slide example displays the employee number, name, and department number of employee Higgens.

The `WHERE` clause of the first SQL statement specifies the employee name as `higgens`. Because all the data in the `EMPLOYEES` table is stored in proper case, the name `higgens` does not find a match in the table, and no rows are selected.

The `WHERE` clause of the second SQL statement specifies that the employee name in the `EMPLOYEES` table is compared to `higgens,` converting the `LAST_NAME` column to lowercase for comparison purposes. Since both names are lowercase now, a match is found and one row is selected. The `WHERE` clause can be rewritten in the following manner to produce the same result:

```
...WHERE last_name = 'Higgins'
```

The name in the output appears as it was stored in the database. To display the name capitalized, use the `UPPER` function in the `SELECT` statement.

```
SELECT employee_id, UPPER(last_name), department_id
FROM   employees
WHERE  INITCAP(last_name) = 'Higgins';
```

Character-Manipulation Functions

These functions manipulate character strings:

Function	Result
`CONCAT('Hello', 'World')`	`HelloWorld`
`SUBSTR('HelloWorld',1,5)`	`Hello`
`LENGTH('HelloWorld')`	`10`
`INSTR('HelloWorld', 'W')`	`6`
`LPAD(salary,10,'*')`	`*****24000`
`RPAD(salary, 10, '*')`	`24000*****`
`TRIM('H' FROM 'HelloWorld')`	`elloWorld`

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Character Manipulation Functions

`CONCAT`, `SUBSTR`, `LENGTH`, `INSTR`, `LPAD`, `RPAD`, and `TRIM` are the character manipulation functions covered in this lesson.

- `CONCAT`: Joins values together (You are limited to using two parameters with `CONCAT.`)
- `SUBSTR`: Extracts a string of determined length
- `LENGTH`: Shows the length of a string as a numeric value
- `INSTR`: Finds numeric position of a named character
- `LPAD`: Pads the character value right-justified
- `RPAD`: Pads the character value left-justified
- `TRIM`: Trims heading or trailing characters (or both) from a character string (If *`trim_character`* or *`trim_source`* is a character literal, you must enclose it in single quotes.)

Using the Character-Manipulation Functions

```
SELECT employee_id, CONCAT(first_name, last_name) NAME, job_id,
       LENGTH (last_name), INSTR(last_name, 'a') "Contains 'a'?"
FROM   employees
WHERE  SUBSTR(job_id, 4) = 'REP';
```

EMPLOYEE_ID	NAME	JOB_ID	LENGTH(LAST_NAME)	Contains 'a'?
174	EllenAbel	SA_REP	4	0
176	JonathonTaylor	SA_REP	6	2
178	KimberelyGrant	SA_REP	5	3
202	PatFay	MK_REP	3	2

Character-Manipulation Functions (continued)

The slide example displays employee first names and last names joined together, the length of the employee last name, and the numeric position of the letter *a* in the employee last name for all employees who have the string REP contained in the job ID starting at the fourth position of the job ID.

Example

Modify the SQL statement on the slide to display the data for those employees whose last names end with an *n*.

```
SELECT employee_id, CONCAT(first_name, last_name) NAME,
       LENGTH (last_name), INSTR(last_name, 'a') "Contains 'a'?"
FROM   employees
WHERE  SUBSTR(last_name, -1, 1) = 'n';
```

EMPLOYEE_ID	NAME	LENGTH(LAST_NAME)	Contains 'a'?
102	LexDe Haan	7	5
200	JenniferWhalen	6	3
201	MichaelHartstein	9	2

Number Functions

- **ROUND: Rounds value to specified decimal**

  `ROUND(45.926, 2)` → `45.93`
- **TRUNC: Truncates value to specified decimal**

  `TRUNC(45.926, 2)` → `45.92`
- **MOD: Returns remainder of division**

  `MOD(1600, 300)` → `100`

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Number Functions

Number functions accept numeric input and return numeric values. This section describes some of the number functions.

Function	Purpose
ROUND(*column*|*expression*, *n*)	Rounds the column, expression, or value to *n* decimal places, or, if *n* is omitted, no decimal places. (If *n* is negative, numbers to left of the decimal point are rounded.)
TRUNC(*column*|*expression*,*n*)	Truncates the column, expression, or value to *n* decimal places, or, if *n* is omitted, then *n* defaults to zero
MOD(*m*,*n*)	Returns the remainder of *m* divided by *n*

Note: This list contains only some of the available number functions.

For more information, see *Oracle9i SQL Reference*, "Number Functions."

Using the ROUND Function

```
SELECT ROUND(45.923,2), ROUND(45.923,0),
       ROUND(45.923,-1)
FROM   DUAL;
```

ROUND(45.923,2)	ROUND(45.923,0)	ROUND(45.923,-1)
45.92	46	50

DUAL is a dummy table you can use to view results from functions and calculations.

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ROUND Function

The ROUND function rounds the column, expression, or value to *n* decimal places. If the second argument is 0 or is missing, the value is rounded to zero decimal places. If the second argument is 2, the value is rounded to two decimal places. Conversely, if the second argument is -2, the value is rounded to two decimal places to the left.

The ROUND function can also be used with date functions. You will see examples later in this lesson.

The DUAL Table

The DUAL table is owned by the user SYS and can be accessed by all users. It contains one column, DUMMY, and one row with the value X. The DUAL table is useful when you want to return a value once only, for instance, the value of a constant, pseudocolumn, or expression that is not derived from a table with user data. The DUAL table is generally used for SELECT clause syntax completeness, because both SELECT and FROM clauses are mandatory, and several calculations do not need to select from actual tables.

Using the TRUNC Function

```
SELECT  TRUNC(45.923,2), TRUNC(45.923),
        TRUNC(45.923,-2)
FROM   DUAL;
```

TRUNC(45.923,2)	TRUNC(45.923)	TRUNC(45.923,-2)
45.92	45	0

TRUNC Function

The TRUNC function truncates the column, expression, or value to *n* decimal places.

The TRUNC function works with arguments similar to those of the ROUND function. If the second argument is 0 or is missing, the value is truncated to zero decimal places. If the second argument is 2, the value is truncated to two decimal places. Conversely, if the second argument is -2, the value is truncated to two decimal places to the left.

Like the ROUND function, the TRUNC function can be used with date functions.

Using the MOD Function

Calculate the remainder of a salary after it is divided by 5000 for all employees whose job title is sales representative.

```
SELECT last_name, salary, MOD(salary, 5000)
FROM   employees
WHERE  job_id = 'SA_REP';
```

LAST_NAME	SALARY	MOD(SALARY,5000)
Abel	11000	1000
Taylor	8600	3600
Grant	7000	2000

MOD Function

The MOD function finds the remainder of value1 divided by value2. The slide example calculates the remainder of the salary after dividing it by 5,000 for all employees whose job ID is SA_REP.

Note: The MOD function is often used to determine if a value is odd or even.

Working with Dates

- **Oracle database stores dates in an internal numeric format: century, year, month, day, hours, minutes, seconds.**
- **The default date display format is DD-MON-RR.**
  - **Allows you to store 21st century dates in the 20th century by specifying only the last two digits of the year.**
  - **Allows you to store 20th century dates in the 21st century in the same way.**

```
SELECT last_name, hire_date
FROM   employees
WHERE  last_name like 'G%';
```

LAST_NAME	HIRE_DATE
Gietz	07-JUN-94
Grant	24-MAY-99

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Oracle Date Format

Oracle database stores dates in an internal numeric format, representing the century, year, month, day, hours, minutes, and seconds.

The default display and input format for any date is DD-MON-RR. Valid Oracle dates are between January 1, 4712 B.C. and December 31, 9999 A.D.

In the example in the slide, the `HIRE_DATE` for the employee Gietz is displayed in the default format DD-MON-RR. However, dates are not stored in the database in this format. All the components of the date and time are stored. So, although a `HIRE_DATE` such as 07-JUN-94 is displayed as day, month, and year, there is also *time* and *century* information associated with it. The complete data might be June 7th, 1994 5:10:43 p.m.

This data is stored internally as follows:

CENTURY	YEAR	MONTH	DAY	HOUR	MINUTE	SECOND
19	94	06	07	5	10	43

Centuries and the Year 2000

The Oracle server is year 2000 compliant. When a record with a date column is inserted into a table, the *century* information is picked up from the `SYSDATE` function. However, when the date column is displayed on the screen, the century component is not displayed by default.

The `DATE` data type always stores year information as a four-digit number internally: two digits for the century and two digits for the year. For example, the Oracle database stores the year as 1996 or 2001, and not just as 96 or 01.

Working with Dates

SYSDATE is a function that returns:

- **Date**
- **Time**

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The SYSDATE Function

SYSDATE is a date function that returns the current database server date and time. You can use SYSDATE just as you would use any other column name. For example, you can display the current date by selecting SYSDATE from a table. It is customary to select SYSDATE from a dummy table called DUAL.

Example

Display the current date using the DUAL table.

```
SELECT SYSDATE
FROM   DUAL;
```

SYSDATE
08-MAR-01

Arithmetic with Dates

- **Add or subtract a number to or from a date for a resultant date value.**
- **Subtract two dates to find the number of days between those dates.**
- **Add hours to a date by dividing the number of hours by 24.**

Arithmetic with Dates

Since the database stores dates as numbers, you can perform calculations using arithmetic operators such as addition and subtraction. You can add and subtract number constants as well as dates.

You can perform the following operations:

Operation	Result	Description
date + number	Date	Adds a number of days to a date
date - number	Date	Subtracts a number of days from a date
date - date	Number of days	Subtracts one date from another
date + number/24	Date	Adds a number of hours to a date

Using Arithmetic Operators with Dates

```
SELECT last_name, (SYSDATE-hire_date)/7 AS WEEKS
FROM   employees
WHERE  department_id = 90;
```

LAST_NAME	WEEKS
King	716.227563
Kochhar	598.084706
De Haan	425.227563

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Arithmetic with Dates (continued)

The example on the slide displays the last name and the number of weeks employed for all employees in department 90. It subtracts the date on which the employee was hired from the current date (SYSDATE) and divides the result by 7 to calculate the number of weeks that a worker has been employed.

Note: SYSDATE is a SQL function that returns the current date and time. Your results may differ from the example.

If a more current date is subtracted from an older date, the difference is a negative number.

Date Functions

Function	Description
`MONTHS_BETWEEN`	**Number of months between two dates**
`ADD_MONTHS`	**Add calendar months to date**
`NEXT_DAY`	**Next day of the date specified**
`LAST_DAY`	**Last day of the month**
`ROUND`	**Round date**
`TRUNC`	**Truncate date**

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Date Functions

Date functions operate on Oracle dates. All date functions return a value of `DATE` data type except `MONTHS_BETWEEN`, which returns a numeric value.

- `MONTHS_BETWEEN(`*`date1, date2`*`)`: Finds the number of months between *`date1`* and *`date2`*. The result can be positive or negative. If *`date1`* is later than *`date2`*, the result is positive; if *`date1`* is earlier than *`date2`*, the result is negative. The noninteger part of the result represents a portion of the month.
- `ADD_MONTHS(`*`date, n`*`)`: Adds *`n`* number of calendar months to *`date`*. The value of *`n`* must be an integer and can be negative.
- `NEXT_DAY(`*`date, 'char'`*`)`: Finds the date of the next specified day of the week `('`*`char`*`')` following *`date`*. The value of *`char`* may be a number representing a day or a character string.
- `LAST_DAY(`*`date`*`)`: Finds the date of the last day of the month that contains *`date`*.
- `ROUND(`*`date`*`[,'`*`fmt`*`'])`: Returns *`date`* rounded to the unit specified by the format model *`fmt`*. If the format model *fmt* is omitted, *date* is rounded to the nearest day.
- `TRUNC(`*`date`*`[, '`*`fmt`*`'])`: Returns *`date`* with the time portion of the day truncated to the unit specified by the format model *`fmt`*. If the format model *`fmt`* is omitted, *`date`* is truncated to the nearest day.

This list is a subset of the available date functions. The format models are covered later in this lesson. Examples of format models are month and year.

Using Date Functions

- **MONTHS_BETWEEN ('01-SEP-95','11-JAN-94')** → **19.6774194**
- **ADD_MONTHS ('11-JAN-94',6)** → **'11-JUL-94'**
- **NEXT_DAY ('01-SEP-95','FRIDAY')** → **'08-SEP-95'**
- **LAST_DAY('01-FEB-95')** → **'28-FEB-95'**

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Date Functions (continued)

For example, display the employee number, hire date, number of months employed, six-month review date, first Friday after hire date, and last day of the hire month for all employees employed for fewer than 36 months.

```
SELECT employee_id, hire_date,
       MONTHS_BETWEEN (SYSDATE, hire_date) TENURE,
       ADD_MONTHS (hire_date, 6) REVIEW,
       NEXT_DAY (hire_date, 'FRIDAY'), LAST_DAY(hire_date)
FROM   employees
WHERE  MONTHS_BETWEEN (SYSDATE, hire_date) < 36;
```

EMPLOYEE_ID	HIRE_DATE	TENURE	REVIEW	NEXT_DAY(	LAST_DAY(
107	07-FEB-99	25.0548529	07-AUG-99	12-FEB-99	28-FEB-99
124	16-NOV-99	15.7645303	16-MAY-00	19-NOV-99	30-NOV-99
143	15-MAR-98	35.7967884	15-SEP-98	20-MAR-98	31-MAR-98
144	09-JUL-98	31.9903368	09-JAN-99	10-JUL-98	31-JUL-98
149	29-JAN-00	13.3451755	29-JUL-00	04-FEB-00	31-JAN-00
176	24-MAR-98	35.5064658	24-SEP-98	27-MAR-98	31-MAR-98
178	24-MAY-99	21.5064658	24-NOV-99	28-MAY-99	31-MAY-99

7 rows selected.

Using Date Functions

Assume SYSDATE = '25-JUL-95':

- **ROUND(SYSDATE,'MONTH') → 01-AUG-95**
- **ROUND(SYSDATE ,'YEAR') → 01-JAN-96**
- **TRUNC(SYSDATE ,'MONTH') → 01-JUL-95**
- **TRUNC(SYSDATE ,'YEAR') → 01-JAN-95**

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Date Functions (continued)

The ROUND and TRUNC functions can be used for number and date values. When used with dates, these functions round or truncate to the specified format model. Therefore, you can round dates to the nearest year or month.

Example

Compare the hire dates for all employees who started in 1997. Display the employee number, hire date, and start month using the ROUND and TRUNC functions.

```
SELECT employee_id, hire_date,
       ROUND(hire_date, 'MONTH'), TRUNC(hire_date, 'MONTH')
FROM   employees
WHERE  hire_date LIKE '%97';
```

EMPLOYEE_ID	HIRE_DATE	ROUND(HIR	TRUNC(HIR
142	29-JAN-97	01-FEB-97	01-JAN-97
202	17-AUG-97	01-SEP-97	01-AUG-97

Practice 3, Part One: Overview

This practice covers the following topics:

- **Writing a query that displays the current date**
- **Creating queries that require the use of numeric, character, and date functions**
- **Performing calculations of years and months of service for an employee**

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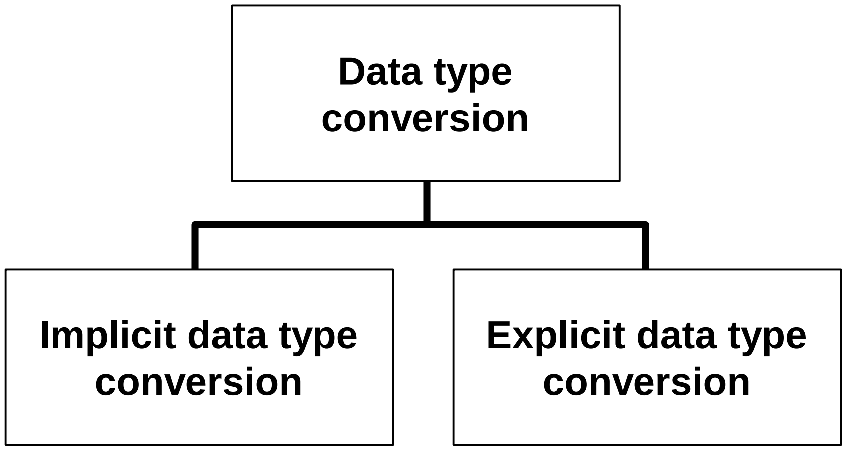
Practice 3, Part One

This practice is designed to give you a variety of exercises using different functions available for character, number, and date data types.

Complete questions 1-5 at the end of this lesson.

Conversion Functions



Conversion Functions

In addition to Oracle data types, columns of tables in an Oracle9*i* database can be defined using ANSI, DB2, and SQL/DS data types. However, the Oracle server internally converts such data types to Oracle8 data types.

In some cases, Oracle server uses data of one data type where it expects data of a different data type. When this happens, Oracle server can automatically convert the data to the expected data type. This data type conversion can be done *implicitly* by Oracle server, or *explicitly* by the user.

Implicit data type conversions work according to the rules explained in the next two slides.

Explicit data type conversions are done by using the conversion functions. Conversion functions convert a value from one data type to another. Generally, the form of the function names follows the convention `data type TO data type`. The first data type is the input data type; the last data type is the output.

Note: Although implicit data type conversion is available, it is recommended that you do explicit data type conversion to ensure the reliability of your SQL statements.

Implicit Data Type Conversion

For assignments, the Oracle server can automatically convert the following:

From	To
`VARCHAR2 or CHAR`	`NUMBER`
`VARCHAR2 or CHAR`	`DATE`
`NUMBER`	`VARCHAR2`
`DATE`	`VARCHAR2`

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Implicit Data Type Conversion

The assignment succeeds if the Oracle server can convert the data type of the value used in the assignment to that of the assignment target.

Implicit Data Type Conversion

For expression evaluation, the Oracle Server can automatically convert the following:

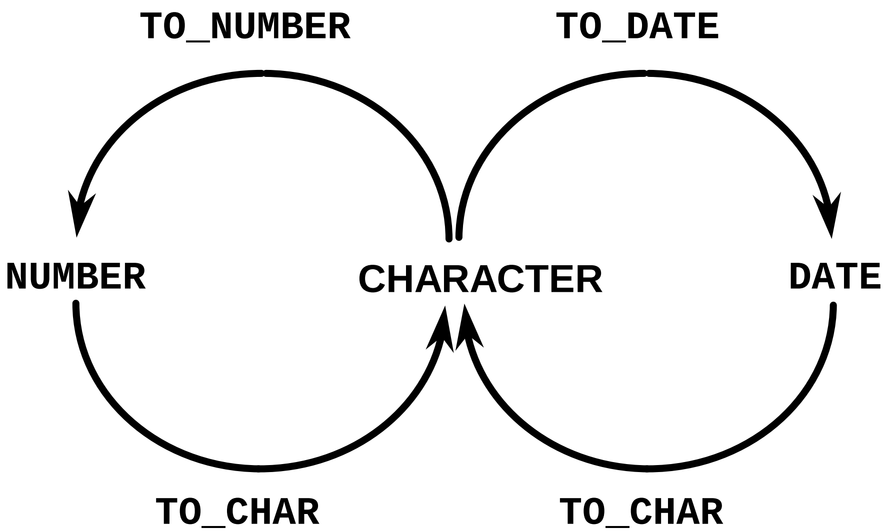
From	To
`VARCHAR2 or CHAR`	`NUMBER`
`VARCHAR2 or CHAR`	`DATE`

Implicit Data Type Conversion

In general, the Oracle server uses the rule for expressions when a data type conversion is needed in places not covered by a rule for assignment conversions.

Note: `CHAR` to `NUMBER` conversions succeed only if the character string represents a valid number.

Explicit Data Type Conversion

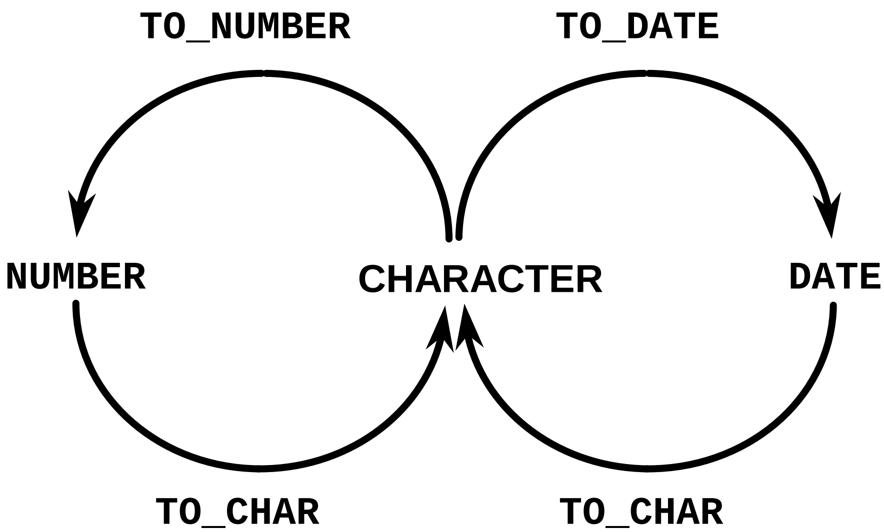


Explicit data type Conversion

SQL provides three functions to convert a value from one data type to another:

Function	Purpose
`TO_CHAR(`*number*`|`*date*`,[` *fmt*`],` `[`*nlsparams*`])`	Converts a number or date value to a `VARCHAR2` character string with format model *`fmt`*. **Number Conversion:** The `nlsparams` parameter specifies the following characters, which are returned by number format elements: • Decimal character • Group separator • Local currency symbol • International currency symbol If `nlsparams` or any other parameter is omitted, this function uses the default parameter values for the session.

Explicit Data Type Conversion



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Explicit data type Conversion (continued)

Function	Purpose
TO_CHAR(*number*|*date*,[*fmt*], [*nlsparams*])	**Date Conversion:** The nlsparams parameter specifies the language in which month and day names and abbreviations are returned. If this parameter is omitted, this function uses the default date languages for the session.
TO_NUMBER(*char,[fmt], [nlsparams]*)	Converts a character string containing digits to a number in the format specified by the optional format model *fmt*. The nlsparams parameter has the same purpose in this function as in the TO_CHAR function for number conversion.
TO_DATE(c*har*,[*fmt*],[*nlsparams*])	Converts a character string representing a date to a date value according to the *fmt* specified. If *fmt* is omitted, the format is DD-MON-YY. The nlsparams parameter has the same purpose in this function as in the TO_CHAR function for date conversion.

Explicit Data Type Conversion (continued)

Note: The list of functions mentioned in this lesson includes only some of the available conversion functions.

For more information, see *Oracle9i SQL Reference*, "Conversion Functions."

Using the TO_CHAR Function with Dates

```
TO_CHAR(date, 'format_model')
```

The format model:

- **Must be enclosed in single quotation marks and is case sensitive**
- **Can include any valid date format element**
- **Has an *fm* element to remove padded blanks or suppress leading zeros**
- **Is separated from the date value by a comma**

Displaying a Date in a Specific Format

Previously, all Oracle date values were displayed in the DD-MON-YY format. You can use the TO_CHAR function to convert a date from this default format to one specified by you.

Guidelines

- The format model must be enclosed in single quotation marks and is case sensitive.
- The format model can include any valid date format element. Be sure to separate the date value from the format model by a comma.
- The names of days and months in the output are automatically padded with blanks.
- To remove padded blanks or to suppress leading zeros, use the fill mode *fm* element.
- You can format the resulting character field with the *i*SQL*Plus COLUMN command covered in a later lesson.

```
SELECT employee_id, TO_CHAR(hire_date, 'MM/YY') Month_Hired
FROM   employees
WHERE  last_name = 'Higgins';
```

EMPLOYEE_ID	MONTH
205	06/94

Elements of the Date Format Model

YYYY	Full year in numbers
YEAR	Year spelled out
MM	Two-digit value for month
MONTH	Full name of the month
MON	Three-letter abbreviation of the month
DY	Three-letter abbreviation of the day of the week
DAY	Full name of the day of the week
DD	Numeric day of the month

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Sample Format Elements of Valid Date Formats

Element	Description
SCC or CC	Century; server prefixes B.C. date with -
Years in dates YYYY or SYYYY	Year; server prefixes B.C. date with -
YYY or YY or Y	Last three, two, or one digits of year
Y,YYY	Year with comma in this position
IYYY, IYY, IY, I	Four, three, two, or one digit year based on the ISO standard
SYEAR or YEAR	Year spelled out; server prefixes B.C. date with -
BC or AD	B.C./.D. indicator
B.C. or A.D.	B.C./A.D. indicator with periods
Q	Quarter of year
MM	Month: two-digit value
MONTH	Name of month padded with blanks to length of nine characters
MON	Name of month, three-letter abbreviation
RM	Roman numeral month
WW or W	Week of year or month
DDD or DD or D	Day of year, month, or week
DAY	Name of day padded with blanks to a length of nine characters
DY	Name of day; three-letter abbreviation
J	Julian day; the number of days since 31 December 4713 B.C.

Elements of the Date Format Model

- **Time elements format the time portion of the date.**

`HH24:MI:SS AM`	`15:45:32 PM`

- **Add character strings by enclosing them in double quotation marks.**

`DD "of" MONTH`	`12 of OCTOBER`

- **Number suffixes spell out numbers.**

`ddspth`	`fourteenth`

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Date Format Elements - Time Formats

Use the formats listed in the following tables to display time information and literals and to change numerals to spelled numbers.

Element	**Description**
AM or PM	Meridian indicator
A.M. or P.M.	Meridian indicator with periods
HH or HH12 or HH24	Hour of day, or hour (1–12), or hour (0–23)
MI	Minute (0–59)
SS	Second (0–59)
SSSSS	Seconds past midnight (0–86399)

Other Formats

Element	Description
/ . ,	Punctuation is reproduced in the result
“of the”	Quoted string is reproduced in the result

Specifying Suffixes to Influence Number Display

Element	Description
TH	Ordinal number (for example, DDTH for 4TH)
SP	Spelled-out number (for example, DDSP for FOUR)
SPTH or THSP	Spelled-out ordinal numbers (for example, DDSPTH for FOURTH)

Using the TO_CHAR Function with Dates

```
SELECT last_name,
       TO_CHAR(hire_date, 'fmDD Month YYYY') HIREDATE
FROM   employees;
```

LAST_NAME	HIREDATE
King	17 June 1987
Kochhar	21 September 1989
De Haan	13 January 1993
Hunold	3 January 1990
Ernst	21 May 1991
Lorentz	7 February 1999
Mourgos	16 November 1999
Rais	17 October 1995
Gietz	7 June 1994

20 rows selected.

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The TO_CHAR Function with Dates

The SQL statement on the slide displays the last names and hire dates for all the employees. The hire date appears as 17 June 1987.

Example

Modify the slide example to display the dates in a format that appears as Seventh of June 1994 12:00:00 AM.

```
SELECT  last_name,
        TO_CHAR(hire_date,
               'fmDdspth "of" Month YYYY fmHH:MI:SS AM')
        HIREDATE
FROM    employees;
```

LAST_NAME	HIREDATE
King	Seventeenth of June 1987 12:00:00 AM
Kochhar	Twenty-First of September 1989 12:00:00 AM
De Haan	Thirteenth of January 1993 12:00:00 AM
...tz	Seventh of June 1994 12:00:00 AM

20 rows selected.

Notice that the month follows the format model specified: in other words, the first letter is capitalized and the rest are lowercase.

Using the TO_CHAR Function with Numbers

```
TO_CHAR(number, 'format_model')
```

These are some of the format elements you can use with the TO_CHAR function to display a number value as a character:

9	Represents a number
0	Forces a zero to be displayed
$	Places a floating dollar sign
L	Uses the floating local currency symbol
.	Prints a decimal point
,	Prints a thousand indicator

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The TO_CHAR Function with Numbers

When working with number values such as character strings, you should convert those numbers to the character data type using the TO_CHAR function, which translates a value of NUMBER data type to VARCHAR2 data type. This technique is especially useful with concatenation.

Number Format Elements

If you are converting a number to the character data type, you can use the following format elements:

Element	Description	Example	Result
9	Numeric position (number of 9s determine display width)	999999	1234
0	Display leading zeros	099999	001234
$	Floating dollar sign	$999999	$1234
L	Floating local currency symbol	L999999	FF1234
.	Decimal point in position specified	999999.99	1234.00
,	Comma in position specified	999,999	1,234
MI	Minus signs to right (negative values)	999999MI	1234-
PR	Parenthesize negative numbers	999999PR	<1234>
EEEE	Scientific notation (format must specify four Es)	99.999EEEE	1.234E+03
V	Multiply by 10 *n* times (*n* = number of 9s after V)	9999V99	123400
B	Display zero values as blank, not 0	B9999.99	1234.00

Using the TO_CHAR Function with Numbers

```
SELECT TO_CHAR(salary, '$99,999.00') SALARY
FROM   employees
WHERE  last_name = 'Ernst';
```

SALARY
$6,000.00

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Guidelines

- The Oracle server displays a string of hash signs (#) in place of a whole number whose digits exceed the number of digits provided in the format model.
- The Oracle server rounds the stored decimal value to the number of decimal spaces provided in the format model.

Using the TO_NUMBER and TO_DATE Functions

- Convert a character string to a number format using the TO_NUMBER function:

```
TO_NUMBER(char[, 'format_model'])
```

- Convert a character string to a date format using the TO_DATE function:

```
TO_DATE(char[, 'format_model'])
```

- These functions have an fx modifier. This modifier specifies the exact matching for the character argument and date format model of a TO_DATE function

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The TO_NUMBER and TO_DATE Functions

You may want to convert a character string to either a number or a date. To accomplish this task, use the TO_NUMBER or TO_DATE functions. The format model you choose is based on the previously demonstrated format elements.

The "fx" modifier specifies exact matching for the character argument and date format model of a TO_DATE function:

- Punctuation and quoted text in the character argument must exactly match (except for case) the corresponding parts of the format model.
- The character argument cannot have extra blanks. Without fx, Oracle ignores extra blanks.
- Numeric data in the character argument must have the same number of digits as the corresponding element in the format model. Without fx, numbers in the character argument can omit leading zeroes.

Example

Display the names and hire dates of all the employees who joined on May 24, 1999. Because the fx modifier is used, an exact match is required and the spaces after the word 'May' are not recognized.

```
SELECT last_name, hire_date
FROM   employees
WHERE  hire_date = TO_DATE('May       24, 1999', 'fxMonth DD, YYYY')
```

```
ERROR at line 3:
ORA-01858: a non-numeric character was found where a numeric was expected
```

RR Date Format

Current Year	Specified Date	RR Format	YY Format
1995	27-OCT-95	1995	1995
1995	27-OCT-17	2017	1917
2001	27-OCT-17	2017	2017
2001	27-OCT-95	1995	2095

		If the specified two-digit year is:	
		0–49	50–99
If two digits of the current year are:	0–49	The return date is in the current century	The return date is in the century before the current one
	50–99	The return date is in the century after the current one	The return date is in the current century

The RR Date Format Element

The RR date format is similar to the YY element, but you can use it to specify different centuries. You can use the RR date format element instead of YY, so that the century of the return value varies according to the specified two-digit year and the last two digits of the current year. The table on the slide summarizes the behavior of the RR element.

Current Year	**Given Date**	**Interpreted (RR)**	**Interpreted (YY)**
1994	27-OCT-95	1995	1995
1994	27-OCT-17	2017	1917
2001	27-OCT-17	2017	2017

Example of RR Date Format

To find employees hired prior to 1990, use the RR format, which produces the same results whether the command is run in 1999 or now:

```
SELECT last_name, TO_CHAR(hire_date, 'DD-Mon-YYYY')
FROM   employees
WHERE  hire_date < TO_DATE('01-Jan-90', 'DD-Mon-RR');
```

LAST_NAME	TO_CHAR(HIR
King	17-Jun-1987
Kochhar	21-Sep-1989
Whalen	17-Sep-1987

The RR Date Format Element Example

To find employees who were hired prior to 1990, the RR format can be used. Since the year is now greater than 1999, the RR format interprets the year portion of the date from 1950 to 1999.

The following command, on the other hand, results in no rows being selected because the YY format interprets the year portion of the date in the current century (2090).

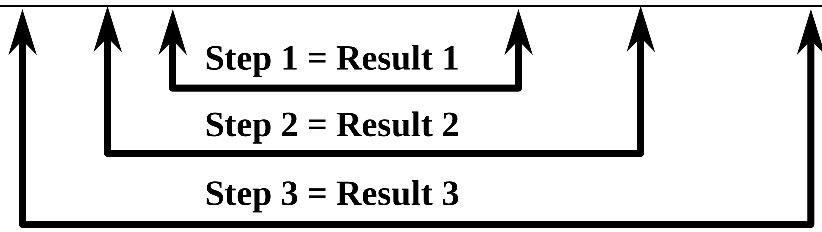
```
SELECT last_name, TO_CHAR(hire_date, 'DD-Mon-yyyy')
FROM   employees
WHERE  TO_DATE(hire_date, 'DD-Mon-yy') < '01-Jan-1990';

no rows selected
```

Nesting Functions

- **Single-row functions can be nested to any level.**
- **Nested functions are evaluated from deepest level to the least deep level.**

```
F3(F2(F1(col,arg1),arg2),arg3)
```



Nesting Functions

Single-row functions can be nested to any depth. Nested functions are evaluated from the innermost level to the outermost level. Some examples follow to show you the flexibility of these functions.

Nesting Functions

```
SELECT last_name,
       NVL(TO_CHAR(manager_id), 'No Manager')
FROM   employees
WHERE  manager_id IS NULL;
```

LAST_NAME	NVL(TO_CHAR(MANAGER_ID),'NOMANAGER')
King	No Manager

Nesting Functions (continued)

The slide example displays the head of the company, who has no manager. The evaluation of the SQL statement involves two steps:

1. Evaluate the inner function to convert a number value to a character string.
   – `Result1 = TO_CHAR(manager_id)`
2. Evaluate the outer function to replace the null value with a text string.
   – `NVL(Result1, 'No Manager')`

The entire expression becomes the column heading because no column alias was given.

Example

Display the date of the next Friday that is six months from the hire date. The resulting date should appear as Friday, August 13th, 1999. Order the results by hire date.

```
SELECT   TO_CHAR(NEXT_DAY(ADD_MONTHS
         (hire_date, 6), 'FRIDAY'),
         'fmDay, Month DDth, YYYY')
         "Next 6 Month Review"
FROM      employees
ORDER BY  hire_date;
```

General Functions

These functions work with any data type and pertain to using nulls.

- **`NVL (expr1, expr2)`**
- **`NVL2 (expr1, expr2, expr3)`**
- **`NULLIF (expr1, expr2)`**
- **`COALESCE (expr1, expr2, ..., exprn)`**

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General Functions

These functions work with any data type and pertain to the use of null values in the expression list.

Function	Description
`NVL`	Converts a null value to an actual value
`NVL2`	If `expr1` is not null, `NVL2` returns `expr2`. If `expr1` is null, `NVL2` returns `expr3`. The argument `expr1`can have any data type.
`NULLIF`	Compares two expressions and returns null if they are equal, or the first expression if they are not equal
`COALESCE`	Returns the first non-null expression in the expression list

Note: For more information on the hundreds of functions available, see *Oracle9i SQL Reference*, "Functions."

NVL Function

Converts a null to an actual value.

- **Data types that can be used are date, character, and number.**
- **Data types must match:**
  - **`NVL(commission_pct,0)`**
  - **`NVL(hire_date,'01-JAN-97')`**
  - **`NVL(job_id,'No Job Yet')`**

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The NVL Function

To convert a null value to an actual value, use the `NVL` function.

Syntax

`NVL (expr1, expr2)`

In the syntax:

expr1 is the source value or expression that may contain a null

expr2 is the target value for converting the null

You can use the `NVL` function to convert any data type, but the return value is always the same as the data type of *expr1*.

NVL Conversions for Various Data Types

Data Type	Conversion Example
NUMBER	NVL(*number_column*,9)
DATE	NVL(*date_column*, '01-JAN-95')
CHAR or VARCHAR2	NVL(*character_column*, 'Unavailable')

Using the NVL Function

```
SELECT last_name, salary, NVL(commission_pct, 0),
   (salary*12) + (salary*12*NVL(commission_pct, 0)) AN_SAL
FROM employees;
```

LAST_NAME	SALARY	NVL(COMMISSION_PCT,0)	AN_SAL
King	24000	0	288000
Kochhar	17000	0	204000
De Haan	17000	0	204000
Hunold	9000	0	108000
Ernst	6000	0	72000
Lorentz	4200	0	50400
Mourgos	5800	0	69600
Rajs	3500	0	42000
Davies	3100	0	37200
Matos	2600	0	31200
Vargas	2500	0	30000
Zlotkey	10500	.2	151200
Abel	11000	.3	171600

20 rows selected.

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The NVL Function

To calculate the annual compensation of all employees, you need to multiply the monthly salary by 12 and then add the commission percentage to it.

```
SELECT last_name, salary, commission_pct,
      (salary*12) + (salary*12*commission_pct) AN_SAL
FROM employees;
```

LAST_NAME	SALARY	COMMISSION_PCT	AN_SAL
Vargas	2500		
Zlotkey	10500	.2	151200
Abel	11000	.3	171600
[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]

20 rows selected.

Notice that the annual compensation is calculated only for those employees who earn a commission. If any column value in an expression is null, the result is null. To calculate values for all employees, you must convert the null value to a number before applying the arithmetic operator. In the example on the slide, the NVL function is used to convert null values to zero.

Using the NVL2 Function

```
SELECT last_name,  salary, commission_pct,
       NVL2(commission_pct,
                   'SAL+COMM', 'SAL') income
FROM   employees WHERE department_id IN (50, 80);
```

LAST_NAME	SALARY	COMMISSION_PCT	INCOME
Zlotkey	10500	.2	SAL+COMM
Abel	11000	.3	SAL+COMM
Taylor	8600	.2	SAL+COMM
Mourgos	5800		SAL
Rajs	3500		SAL
Davies	3100		SAL
Matos	2600		SAL
Vargas	2500		SAL

8 rows selected.

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The NVL2 Function

The NVL2 function examines the first expression. If the first expression is not null, then the NVL2 function returns the second expression. If the first expression is null, then the third expression is returned.

Syntax

NVL(*expr1, expr2, expr3*)

In the syntax:

expr1	is the source value or expression that may contain null
expr2	is the value returned if *expr1* is not null
expr3	is the value returned if *expr2* is null

In the example shown, the COMMISSION_PCT column is examined. If a value is detected, the second expression of SAL+COMM is returned. If the COMMISSION_PCT column holds a null values, the third expression of SAL is returned.

The argument *expr1* can have any data type. The arguments *expr2* and *expr3* can have any data types except LONG. If the data types of *expr2* and *expr3* are different, The Oracle server converts *expr3* to the data type of *expr2* before comparing them unless *expr3* is a null constant. In that case, a data type conversion is not necessary.

The data type of the return value is always the same as the data type of *expr2*, unless *expr2* is character data, in which case the return value's data type is VARCHAR2.

Using the NULLIF Function

```
SELECT first_name, LENGTH(first_name) "expr1",
       last_name,  LENGTH(last_name)  "expr2",
       NULLIF(LENGTH(first_name), LENGTH(last_name)) result
FROM   employees;
```

FIRST_NAME	expr1	LAST_NAME	expr2	RESULT
William	7	Gietz	5	7
Shelley	7	Higgins	7	
Pat	3	Fay	3	
Michael	7	Hartstein	9	7
Jennifer	8	Whalen	6	8
Kimberely	9	Grant	5	9
Jonathon	8	Taylor	6	8
Ellen	5	Abel	4	5
Eleni	5	Zlotkey	7	5
Peter	5	Vargas	6	5
Randall	7	Matos	5	7
Curtis	6	Davies	6	
Trenna	6	Rajs	4	6

20 rows selected.

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The NULLIF Function

The NULLIF function compares two expressions. If they are equal, the function returns null. If they are not equal, the function returns the first expression. You cannot specify the literal NULL for first expression.

Syntax

`NULLIF (`*`expr1`*`, `*`expr2`*`)`

In the syntax:

expr1	is the source value compared to *expr2*
expr2	is the source value compared with *expr1*. (If it is not equal to *expr1*, *expr1* is returned.)

In the example shown, the job ID in the EMPLOYEES table is compared to the job ID in the JOB_HISTORY table for any employee who is in both tables. The output shows the employee's current job. If the employee is listed more than once, that means the employee has held at least two jobs previously.

Note: The NULLIF function is logically equivalent to the following CASE expression. The CASE expression is discussed in a subsequent page:

```
CASE WHEN expr1 = expr 2 THEN NULL ELSE expr1 END
```

Using the COALESCE Function

- The advantage of the COALESCE function over the NVL function is that the COALESCE function can take multiple alternate values.
- If the first expression is not null, it returns that expression; otherwise, it does a COALESCE of the remaining expressions.

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The COALESCE Function

The `COALESCE` function returns the first non-null expression in the list.

Syntax

```
COALESCE (expr1, expr2, ... exprn)
```

In the syntax:

expr1	returns this expression if it is not null
expr2	returns this expression if the first expression is null and this expression is not null
exprn	returns this expression if the preceding expressions are null

Using the COALESCE Function

```
SELECT   last_name,
         COALESCE(commission_pct, salary, 10) comm
FROM     employees
ORDER BY commission_pct;
```

LAST_NAME	COMM
Grant	.15
Zlotkey	.2
Taylor	.2
Abel	.3
King	24000
Kochhar	17000
De Haan	17000
Hunold	9000
Matos	2600
Vargas	2500

20 rows selected.

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The COALESCE Function

In the example shown, if the COMMISSION_PCT value is not null, it is shown. If the COMMISSION_PCT value is null, then the SALARY is shown. If the COMMISSION_PCT and SALARY values are null, then the value 10 is shown.

Conditional Expressions

- **Provide the use of IF-THEN-ELSE logic within a SQL statement**
- **Use two methods:**
  - **`CASE` expression**
  - **`DECODE` function**

Conditional Expressions

Two methods used to implement conditional processing (IF-THEN-ELSE logic) within a SQL statement are the `CASE` expression and the `DECODE` function.

Note: The `CASE` expression is new in the Oracle9*i* Server release. The `CASE` expression complies with ANSI SQL; `DECODE` is specific to Oracle syntax.

The CASE Expression

Facilitates conditional inquiries by doing the work of an IF-THEN-ELSE statement:

```
CASE expr WHEN comparison_expr1 THEN return_expr1
         [WHEN comparison_expr2 THEN return_expr2
          WHEN comparison_exprn THEN return_exprn
          ELSE else_expr]
END
```


The CASE Expression

CASE expressions let you use IF-THEN-ELSE logic in SQL statements without having to invoke procedures.

In a simple CASE expression, Oracle searches for the first WHEN ... THEN pair for which expr is equal to comparison_expr and returns return_expr. If none of the WHEN ... THEN pairs meet this condition, and an ELSE clause exists, then Oracle returns else_expr. Otherwise, Oracle returns null. You cannot specify the literal NULL for all the return_exprs and the else_expr.

All of the expressions (expr, comparison_expr, and return_expr) must be of the same data type, which can be CHAR, VARCHAR2, NCHAR, or NVARCHAR2.

Using the CASE Expression

Facilitates conditional inquiries by doing the work of an IF-THEN-ELSE statement:

```
SELECT last_name, job_id, salary,
       CASE job_id WHEN 'IT_PROG'  THEN  1.10*salary
                   WHEN 'ST_CLERK' THEN  1.15*salary
                   WHEN 'SA_REP'   THEN  1.20*salary
       ELSE      salary END     "REVISED_SALARY"
FROM   employees;
```

Lorentz	IT_PROG	4200	4620
Mourgos	ST_MAN	5800	5800
Rajs	ST_CLERK	3500	4025
...			
Gietz	AC_ACCOUNT	8300	8300

20 rows selected.

Using the CASE Expression

In the preceding SQL statement, the value of JOB_ID is decoded. If JOB_ID is IT_PROG, the salary increase is 10%; if JOB_ID is ST_CLERK, the salary increase is 15%; if JOB_ID is SA_REP, the salary increase is 20%. For all other job roles, there is no increase in salary.

The same statement can be written with the DECODE function.

The DECODE Function

Facilitates conditional inquiries by doing the work of a CASE or IF-THEN-ELSE statement:

```
DECODE(col|expression, search1, result1
                       [, search2, result2,...,]
                       [, default])
```

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The DECODE Function

The DECODE function decodes an expression in a way similar to the IF-THEN-ELSE logic used in various languages. The DECODE function decodes *expression* after comparing it to each *search* value. If the expression is the same as *search*, *result* is returned.

If the default value is omitted, a null value is returned where a search value does not match any of the result values.

Using the DECODE Function

```
SELECT last_name, job_id, salary,
       DECODE(job_id, 'IT_PROG',  1.10*salary,
                      'ST_CLERK', 1.15*salary,
                      'SA_REP',   1.20*salary,
              salary)
       REVISED_SALARY
FROM   employees;
```

Lorentz	IT_PROG	4200	4620
Mourgos	ST_MAN	5800	5800
Rajs	ST_CLERK	3500	4025
...			
Gietz	AC_ACCOUNT	8300	8300

20 rows selected.

Using the DECODE Function

In the preceding SQL statement, the value of JOB_ID is tested. If JOB_ID is IT_PROG, the salary increase is 10%; if JOB_ID is ST_CLERK, the salary increase is 15%; if JOB_ID is SA_REP, the salary increase is 20%. For all other job roles, there is no increase in salary.

The same statement can be expressed in pseudocode as an IF-THEN-ELSE statement:

```
IF job_id = 'IT_PROG'     THEN  salary = salary*1.10
IF job_id = 'ST_CLERK'    THEN  salary = salary*1.15
IF job_id = 'SA_REP'      THEN  salart = salary*1.20
ELSE salary = salary
```

Using the DECODE Function

Display the applicable tax rate for each employee in department 80.

```
SELECT last_name, salary,
       DECODE (TRUNC(salary/2000, 0),
                         0, 0.00,
                         1, 0.09,
                         2, 0.20,
                         3, 0.30,
                         4, 0.40,
                         5, 0.42,
                         6, 0.44,
                            0.45) TAX_RATE
FROM   employees
WHERE  department_id = 80;
```

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Example

This slide shows another example using the DECODE function. In this example, we determine the tax rate for each employee in department 80 based on the monthly salary. The tax rates are as per the values mentioned in the following data.

Monthly Salary Range	***Rate***
$0.00 - 1999.99	00%
$2,000.00 - 3,999.99	09%
$4,000.00 - 5,999.99	20%
$6,000.00 - 7,999.99	30%
$8,000.00 - 9,999.99	40%
$10,000.00 - 11,999.99	42%
$12,200.00 - 13,999.99	44%
$14,000.00 or greater	45%

LAST_NAME	SALARY	TAX_RATE
Zlotkey	10500	.42
Abel	11000	.42
Taylor	8600	.4

Summary

In this lesson, you should have learned how to:

- **Perform calculations on data using functions**
- **Modify individual data items using functions**
- **Manipulate output for groups of rows using functions**
- **Alter date formats for display using functions**
- **Convert column data types using functions**
- **Use NVL functions**
- **Use IF-THEN-ELSE logic**

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Single-Row Functions

Single-row functions can be nested to any level. Single-row functions can manipulate the following:

- Character data: `LOWER`, `UPPER`, `INITCAP`, `CONCAT`, `SUBSTR`, `INSTR`, `LENGTH`
- Number data: `ROUND`, `TRUNC`, `MOD`
- Date data: `MONTHS_BETWEEN`, `ADD_MONTHS`, `NEXT_DAY`, `LAST_DAY`, `ROUND`, `TRUNC`
- Date values can also use arithmetic operators.
- Conversion functions can convert character, date, and numeric values: `TO_CHAR`, `TO_DATE`, `TO_NUMBER`
- There are several functions that pertain to nulls, including `NVL`, `NVL2`, `NULLIF`, and `COALESCE`.
- IF-THEN-ELSE logic can be applied within a SQL statement by using the `CASE` expression or the `DECODE` function.

SYSDATE and DUAL

`SYSDATE` is a date function that returns the current date and time. It is customary to select `SYSDATE` from a dummy table called `DUAL`.

Practice 3, Part Two: Overview

This practice covers the following topics:

- Creating queries that require the use of numeric, character, and date functions
- Using concatenation with functions
- Writing case-insensitive queries to test the usefulness of character functions
- Performing calculations of years and months of service for an employee
- Determining the review date for an employee

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Practice 3, Part Two

This practice is designed to give you a variety of exercises using different functions available for character, number, and date data types.

Remember that for nested functions, the results are evaluated from the innermost function to the outermost function.

Practice 3 - Part One

1. Write a query to display the current date. Label the column `Date`.

Date
08-MAR-01

2. For each employee, display the employee number, last_name, salary, and salary increased by 15% and expressed as a whole number. Label the column `New Salary`. Place your SQL statement in a text file named `lab3_2.sql`.

3. Run your query in the file `lab3_2.sql.`

EMPLOYEE_ID	LAST_NAME	SALARY	New Salary
100	King	24000	27600
101	Kochhar	17000	19550
102	De Haan	17000	19550
103	Hunold	9000	10350
104	Ernst	6000	6900
206	Gietz	8300	9545

20 rows selected.

4. Modify your query `lab3_2.sql` to add a column that subtracts the old salary from the new salary. Label the column `Increase`. Save the contents of the file as `lab3_4.sql`. Run the revised query.

EMPLOYEE_ID	LAST_NAME	SALARY	New Salary	Increase
100	King	24000	27600	3600
101	Kochhar	17000	19550	2550
102	De Haan	17000	19550	2550
103	Hunold	9000	10350	1350
104	Ernst	6000	6900	900
107	Lorentz	4200	4830	630
124	Mourgos	5800	6670	870
141	Rajs	3500	4025	525
142	Davies	3100	3565	465
143	Matos	2600	2990	390
144	Vargas	2500	2875	375
149	Zlotkey	10500	12075	1575
206	Gietz	8300	9545	124[illegible]

20 rows selected.

Practice 3, Part One: Overview (continued)

5. Write a query that displays the employee's last names with the first letter capitalized and all other letters lowercase, and the length of the names, for all employees whose name starts with J, A, or M. Give each column an appropriate label. Sort the results by the employees' last names.

Name	Length
Abel	4
Matos	5
Mourgos	7

Practice 3 - Part Two

6. For each employee, display the employee's last name, and calculate the number of months between today and the date the employee was hired. Label the column `MONTHS_WORKED`. Order your results by the number of months employed. Round the number of months up to the closest whole number.

   Note: Your results will differ.

LAST_NAME	MONTHS_WORKED
Zlotkey	13
Mourgos	16
Grant	22
Lorentz	25
Vargas	32
Taylor	36
Matos	36
Fay	43
Davies	49
Abel	58
Hartstein	61
Rajs	65
Higgins	81
Gietz	81
LAST_NAME	MONTHS_WORKED
De Haan	98
Ernst	118
Hunold	134
Kochhar	138
Whalen	162
King	165

20 rows selected.

Practice 3 - Part Two (continued)

7. Write a query that produces the following for each employee:
   <employee last name> earns <salary> monthly but wants <3 times salary>. Label the column Dream Salaries.

Dream Salaries
King earns $24,000.00 monthly but wants $72,000.00.
Kochhar earns $17,000.00 monthly but wants $51,000.00.
De Haan earns $17,000.00 monthly but wants $51,000.00.
Hunold earns $9,000.00 monthly but wants $27,000.00.
Ernst earns $6,000.00 monthly but wants $18,000.00.
Lorentz earns $4,200.00 monthly but wants $12,600.00.
Mourgos earns $5,800.00 monthly but wants $17,400.00.
Rajs earns $3,500.00 monthly but wants $10,500.00.
Davies earns $3,100.00 monthly but wants $9,300.00.
Gietz earns $8,300.00 monthly but wants $24,900.00.

20 rows selected.

If you have time, complete the following exercises:

8. Create a query to display the last name and salary for all employees. Format the salary to be 15 characters long, left-padded with $. Label the column SALARY.

LAST_NAME	SALARY
King	$$$$$$$$$$24000
Kochhar	$$$$$$$$$$17000
De Haan	$$$$$$$$$$17000
Hunold	$$$$$$$$$$$9000
Ernst	$$$$$$$$$$$6000
Lorentz	$$$$$$$$$$$4200
Mourgos	$$$$$$$$$$$5800
Rajs	$$$$$$$$$$$3500
Davies	$$$$$$$$$$$3100
Matos	$$$$$$$$$$$2600
Vargas	$$$$$$$$$$$2500
Zlotkey	$$$$$$$$$$10500
Abel	$$$$$$$$$$11000
Taylor	$$$$$$$$$$$8600
Gietz	$$$$$$$$$$$8300

20 rows selected.

Practice 3 - Part Two (continued)

9. Display each employee's last name, hire date, and salary review date, which is the first Monday after six months of service. Label the column REVIEW. Format the dates to appear in the format similar to "Monday, the Thirty-First of July, 2000."

LAST_NAME	HIRE_DATE	REVIEW
King	17-JUN-87	Monday, the Twenty-First of December, 1987
Kochhar	21-SEP-89	Monday, the Twenty-Sixth of March, 1990
De Haan	13-JAN-93	Monday, the Nineteenth of July, 1993
Hunold	03-JAN-90	Monday, the Ninth of July, 1990
Ernst	21-MAY-91	Monday, the Twenty-Fifth of November, 1991
Lorentz	07-FEB-99	Monday, the Ninth of August, 1999
Mourgos	16-NOV-99	Monday, the Twenty-Second of May, 2000
Gietz	07-JUN-94	Monday, the Twelfth of December, 1994

20 rows selected.

10. Display the last name, hire date, and day of the week on which the employee started. Label the column DAY. Order the results by the day of the week starting with Monday.

LAST_NAME	HIRE_DATE	DAY
Grant	24-MAY-99	MONDAY
Ernst	21-MAY-91	TUESDAY
Mourgos	16-NOV-99	TUESDAY
Taylor	24-MAR-98	TUESDAY
Rajs	17-OCT-95	TUESDAY
Gietz	07-JUN-94	TUESDAY
Higgins	07-JUN-94	TUESDAY
King	17-JUN-87	WEDNESDAY
De Haan	13-JAN-93	WEDNESDAY
Davies	29-JAN-97	WEDNESDAY
Hunold	03-JAN-90	WEDNESDAY
Kochhar	21-SEP-89	THURSDAY
Whalen	17-SEP-87	THURSDAY
Vargas	09-JUL-98	THURSDAY
Matos	15-MAR-98	SUNDAY

20 rows selected.

Practice 3 - Part Two (continued)

If you want an extra challenge, complete the following exercises:

11. Create a query that displays the employees' last names and commission amounts. If an employee does not earn commission, put "No Commission." Label the column `COMM`.

LAST_NAME	COMM
King	No Commission
Kochhar	No Commission
De Haan	No Commission
Hunold	No Commission
Ernst	No Commission
Lorentz	No Commission
Mourgos	No Commission
Rajs	No Commission
Davies	No Commission
Matos	No Commission
Vargas	No Commission
Zlotkey	.2
Abel	.3
Taylor	.2
Gietz	No Commission

20 rows selected.

12. Create a query that displays the employees' last names and indicates the amounts of their annual salaries with asterisks. Each asterisk signifies a thousand dollars. Sort the data in descending order of salary. Label the column `EMPLOYEES_AND_THEIR_SALARIES`.

EMPLOYEE_AND_THEIR_SALARIES
King ************************
Kochhar *****************
De Haan *****************
Hartstei *************
Higgins ************
Abel ***********
Zlotkey **********
Hunold *********
Taylor ********
Gietz ********
Vargas **

20 rows selected.

Practice 3 - Part Two (continued)

13. Using the `DECODE` function, write a query that displays the grade of all employees based on the value of the column `JOB_ID`, as per the following data:

Job	***Grade***
AD_PRES	A
ST_MAN	B
IT_PROG	C
SA_REP	D
ST_CLERK	E
None of the above	0

JOB_ID	G
AD_PRES	A
AD_VP	0
AD_VP	0
IT_PROG	C
IT_PROG	C
IT_PROG	C
ST_MAN	B
ST_CLERK	E
AC_ACCOUNT	0

20 rows selected.

14. Rewrite the statement in the preceding question using the `CASE` syntax.

4

Displaying Data from Multiple Tables

Objectives

After completing this lesson, you should be able to do the following:

- Write SELECT statements to access data from more than one table using equality and nonequality joins
- View data that generally does not meet a join condition by using outer joins
- Join a table to itself by using a self join

Lesson Aim

This lesson covers how to obtain data from more than one table.

Obtaining Data from Multiple Tables

EMPLOYEES

EMPLOYEE_ID	LAST_NAME	DEPARTMENT_ID
100	King	90
101	Kochhar	90
...	...	...
205	Higgins	110
206	Gietz	110

20 rows selected.

DEPARTMENTS

DEPARTMENT_ID	DEPARTMENT_NAME	LOCATION_ID
10	Administration	1700
20	Marketing	1800
50	Shipping	1500
...	...	...
190	Contracting	1700

8 rows selected.

EMPLOYEE_ID	DEPARTMENT_ID	DEPARTMENT_NAME
200	10	Administration
201	20	Marketing
202	20	Marketing
124	50	Shipping
141	50	Shipping
...	...	...
205	110	Accounting
206	110	Accounting

19 rows selected.

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Data from Multiple Tables

Sometimes you need to use data from more than one table. In the slide example, the report displays data from two separate tables.

- Employee IDs exist in the `EMPLOYEES` table.
- Department IDs exist in both the `EMPLOYEES` and `DEPARTMENTS` tables.
- Location IDs exist in the `DEPARTMENTS` table.

To produce the report, you need to link the `EMPLOYEES` and `DEPARTMENTS` tables and access data from both of them.

Cartesian Products

- **A Cartesian product is formed when:**
  - **A join condition is omitted**
  - **A join condition is invalid**
  - **All rows in the first table are joined to all rows in the second table**
- **To avoid a Cartesian product, always include a valid join condition in a `WHERE` clause.**

Cartesian Products

When a join condition is invalid or omitted completely, the result is a *Cartesian product,* in which all combinations of rows are displayed. All rows in the first table are joined to all rows in the second table.

A Cartesian product tends to generate a large number of rows, and the result is rarely useful. You should always include a valid join condition in a `WHERE` clause, unless you have a specific need to combine all rows from all tables.

Cartesian products are useful for some tests when you need to generate a large number of rows to simulate a reasonable amount of data.

Generating a Cartesian Product

EMPLOYEES (20 rows)

EMPLOYEE_ID	LAST_NAME	DEPARTMENT_ID
100	King	90
101	Kochhar	90
205	Higgins	110
206	Gietz	110

20 rows selected.

DEPARTMENTS (8 rows)

DEPARTMENT_ID	DEPARTMENT_NAME	LOCATION_ID
10	Administration	1700
20	Marketing	1800
50	Shipping	1500
190	Contracting	1700

8 rows selected.

Cartesian product: 20x8=160 rows

EMPLOYEE_ID	DEPARTMENT_ID	DEPARTMENT_NAME
200	10	Administration
201	20	Marketing
202	20	Marketing
124	50	Shipping
141	50	Shipping
206	110	Contracting

160 rows selected.

Cartesian Products (continued)

A Cartesian product is generated if a join condition is omitted. The example on the slide displays employee last name and department name from the `EMPLOYEES` and `DEPARTMENTS` tables. Because no `WHERE` clause has been specified, all rows (20 rows) from the `EMPLOYEES` table are joined with all rows (8 rows) in the `DEPARTMENTS` table, thereby generating 160 rows in the output.

```
SELECT last_name, department_name dept_name
FROM employees, departments;
```

LAST_NAME	DEPT_NAME
King	Administration
Kochhar	Administration
De Haan	Administration
Gietz	Contracting

160 rows selected.

Types of Joins

Oracle Proprietary Joins (8*i* and prior):

- Equijoin
- Non-equijoin
- Outer join
- Self join

SQL: 1999 Compliant Joins:

- Cross joins
- Natural joins
- Using clause
- Full or two sided outer joins
- Arbitrary join conditions for outer joins

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Types of Joins

The Oracle9*i* database offers join syntax that is SQL: 1999 compliant. Prior to the 9*i* release, the join syntax was different from the ANSI standards. The new SQL: 1999 compliant join syntax does not offer any performance benefits over the Oracle proprietary join syntax that existed in prior releases.

Joining Tables Using Oracle Syntax

Use a join to query data from more than one table.

```
SELECT   table1.column, table2.column
FROM     table1, table2
WHERE    table1.column1 = table2.column2;
```

- **Write the join condition in the `WHERE` clause.**
- **Prefix the column name with the table name when the same column name appears in more than one table.**

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Defining Joins

When data from more than one table in the database is required, a *join* condition is used. Rows in one table can be joined to rows in another table according to common values existing in corresponding columns, that is, usually primary and foreign key columns.

To display data from two or more related tables, write a simple join condition in the `WHERE` clause.

In the syntax:

table1.column	denotes the table and column from which data is retrieved
table1.column1 = table2.column2	is the condition that joins (or relates) the tables together

Guidelines

- When writing a `SELECT` statement that joins tables, precede the column name with the table name for clarity and to enhance database access.
- If the same column name appears in more than one table, the column name must be prefixed with the table name.
- To join *n* tables together, you need a minimum of `n-1` join conditions. For example, to join four tables, a minimum of three joins is required. This rule may not apply if your table has a concatenated primary key, in which case more than one column is required to uniquely identify each row.

For more information, see *Oracle9i SQL Reference,* "`SELECT`."

What is an Equijoin?

EMPLOYEES

EMPLOYEE_ID	DEPARTMENT_ID
200	10
201	20
202	20
124	50
141	50
142	50
143	50
144	50
103	60
104	60
[illegible]	[illegible]
[illegible]	110
206	110

19 rows selected.

DEPARTMENTS

DEPARTMENT_ID	DEPARTMENT_NAME
10	Administration
20	Marketing
20	Marketing
50	Shipping
50	Shipping
50	Shipping
50	Shipping
50	Shipping
60	IT
60	IT
[illegible]	[illegible]
[illegible]	Accounting
110	Accounting

Foreign key **Primary key**

Equijoins

To determine an employee's department name, you compare the value in the `DEPARTMENT_ID` column in the `EMPLOYEES` table with the `DEPARTMENT_ID` values in the `DEPARTMENTS` table. The relationship between the `EMPLOYEES` and `DEPARTMENTS` tables is an *equijoin*—that is, values in the `DEPARTMENT_ID` column on both tables must be equal. Frequently, this type of join involves primary and foreign key complements.

Note: Equijoins are also called *simple joins* or *inner joins*.

Retrieving Records with Equijoins

```
SELECT employees.employee_id, employees.last_name,
       employees.department_id, departments.department_id,
       departments.location_id
FROM   employees, departments
WHERE  employees.department_id = departments.department_id;
```

EMPLOYEE_ID	LAST_NAME	DEPARTMENT_ID	DEPARTMENT_ID	LOCATION_ID
200	Whalen	10	10	1700
201	Hartstein	20	20	1800
202	Fay	20	20	1800
124	Mourgos	50	50	1500
141	Rajs	50	50	1500
142	Davies	50	50	1500
143	Matos	50	50	1500
205	Higgins	110	110	1700
206	Gietz	110	110	1700

19 rows selected.

Retrieving Records with Equijoins

In the slide example:

- The `SELECT` clause specifies the column names to retrieve:
  - employee last name, employee number, and department number, which are columns in the `EMPLOYEES` table
  - department number, department name, and location ID, which are columns in the `DEPARTMENTS` table
- The `FROM` clause specifies the two tables that the database must access:
  - `EMPLOYEES` table
  - `DEPARTMENTS` table
- The `WHERE` clause specifies how the tables are to be joined:

  `EMPLOYEES.DEPARTMENT_ID = DEPARTMENTS.DEPARTMENT_ID`

Because the `DEPARTMENT_ID` column is common to both tables, it must be prefixed by the table name to avoid ambiguity.

Additional Search Conditions Using the AND Operator

EMPLOYEES

LAST_NAME	DEPARTMENT_ID
Whalen	10
Hartstein	20
Fay	20
Mourgos	50
Rajs	50
Davies	50
Matos	50
Vargas	50
Hunold	60
Ernst	60
Lorentz	60
Zlotkey	80
...	...
Gietz	110

19 rows selected.

DEPARTMENTS

DEPARTMENT_ID	DEPARTMENT_NAME
10	Administration
20	Marketing
20	Marketing
50	Shipping
50	Shipping
50	Shipping
50	Shipping
50	Shipping
60	IT
60	IT
60	IT
80	Sales
...	Accounting
110	Accounting

Additional Search Conditions

In addition to the join, you may have criteria for your WHERE clause to restrict the rows under consideration for one or more tables in the join. For example, to display employee Matos' department number and department name, you need an additional condition in the WHERE clause.

```
SELECT last_name, employees.department_id,
       department_name
FROM   employees, departments
WHERE  employees.department_id = departments.department_id
AND    last_name = 'Matos';
```

LAST_NAME	DEPARTMENT_ID	DEPARTMENT_NAME
Matos	50	Shipping

Qualifying Ambiguous Column Names

- **Use table prefixes to qualify column names that are in multiple tables.**
- **Improve performance by using table prefixes.**
- **Distinguish columns that have identical names but reside in different tables by using column aliases.**

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Qualifying Ambiguous Column Names

You need to qualify the names of the columns in the `WHERE` clause with the table name to avoid ambiguity. Without the table prefixes, the `DEPARTMENT_ID` column could be from either the `DEPARTMENTS` table or the `EMPLOYEES` table. It is necessary to add the table prefix to execute your query.

If there are no common column names between the two tables, there is no need to qualify the columns. However, using the table prefix improves performance, because you tell the Oracle Server exactly where to find the columns.

The requirement to qualify ambiguous column names is also applicable to columns that may be ambiguous in other clauses, such as the `SELECT` clause or the `ORDER BY` clause.

Using Table Aliases

- Simplify queries by using table aliases.
- Improve performance by using table prefixes.

```
SELECT e.employee_id, e.last_name, e.department_id,
       d.department_id, d.location_id
FROM   employees e, departments d
WHERE  e.department_id = d.department_id;
```

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Table Aliases

Qualifying column names with table names can be very time consuming, particularly if table names are lengthy. You can use *table aliases* instead of table names. Just as a column alias gives a column another name, a table alias gives a table another name. Table aliases help to keep SQL code smaller, therefore using less memory.

Notice how table aliases are identified in the `FROM` clause in the example. The table name is specified in full, followed by a space and then the table alias. The `EMPLOYEES` table has been given an alias of `e`, and the `DEPARTMENTS` table has an alias of `d`.

Guidelines

- Table aliases can be up to 30 characters in length, but shorter is better.
- If a table alias is used for a particular table name in the `FROM` clause, then that table alias must be substituted for the table name throughout the `SELECT` statement.
- Table aliases should be meaningful.
- The table alias is valid only for the current `SELECT` statement.

Joining More than Two Tables

EMPLOYEES

LAST_NAME	DEPARTMENT_ID
King	90
Kochhar	90
De Haan	90
Hunold	60
Ernst	60
Lorentz	60
Grant	
Whalen	10
Hartstein	20
Fay	20
Higgins	110
Gietz	110

20 rows selected.

DEPARTMENTS

DEPARTMENT_ID	LOCATION_ID
10	1700
20	1800
50	1500
60	1400
80	2500
90	1700
110	1700
190	1700

8 rows selected.

LOCATIONS

LOCATION_ID	CITY
1400	Southlake
1500	South San Francisco
1700	Seattle
1800	Toronto
2500	Oxford

- **To join *n* tables together, you need a minimum of n-1 join conditions. For example, to join three tables, a minimum of two joins is required.**

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Additional Search Conditions

Sometimes you may need to join more than two tables. For example, to display the last name, the department name, and the city for each employee, you have to join the `EMPLOYEES`, `DEPARTMENTS`, and `LOCATIONS` tables.

```
SELECT e.last_name, d.department_name, l.city
FROM   employees e, departments d, locations l
WHERE  e.department_id = d.department_id
AND    d.location_id = l.location_id;
```

LAST_NAME	DEPARTMENT_NAME	CITY
Hunold	IT	Southlake
Ernst	IT	Southlake
Lorentz	IT	Southlake
Mourgos	Shipping	South San Francisco
Rais	Shipping	South San Francisco
Taylor	Sales	Oxford

19 rows selected.

Non-Equijoins

EMPLOYEES

LAST_NAME	SALARY
King	24000
Kochhar	17000
De Haan	17000
Hunold	9000
Ernst	6000
Lorentz	4200
Mourgos	5800
Rajs	3500
Davies	3100
Matos	2600
Vargas	2500
ray	[illegible]
Higgins	12000
Gietz	8300

20 rows selected.

JOB_GRADES

GRA	LOWEST_SAL	HIGHEST_SAL
A	1000	2999
B	3000	5999
C	6000	9999
D	10000	14999
E	15000	24999
F	25000	40000

6 rows selected.

Salary in the `EMPLOYEES` table must be between lowest salary and highest salary in the `JOB_GRADES` table.

Non-Equijoins

A non-equijoin is a join condition containing something other than an equality operator.

The relationship between the `EMPLOYEES` table and the `JOB_GRADES` table has an example of a non-equijoin. A relationship between the two tables is that the `SALARY` column in the `EMPLOYEES` table must be between the values in the `LOWEST_SALARY` and `HIGHEST_SALARY` columns of the `JOB_GRADES` table. The relationship is obtained using an operator other than equals (=).

Retrieving Records with Non-Equijoins

```
SELECT e.last_name, e.salary, j.grade_level
FROM   employees e, job_grades j
WHERE  e.salary BETWEEN j.lowest_sal AND j.highest_sal;
```

LAST_NAME	SALARY	GRA
Matos	2600	A
Vargas	2500	A
Lorentz	4200	B
Mourgos	5800	B
Rajs	3500	B
Davies	3100	B
Kochhar	17000	E
De Haan	17000	E

20 rows selected.

Non-Equijoins (continued)

The slide example creates a non-equijoin to evaluate an employee's salary grade. The salary must be *between* any pair of the low and high salary ranges.

It is important to note that all employees appear exactly once when this query is executed. No employee is repeated in the list. There are two reasons for this:

- None of the rows in the job grade table contain grades that overlap. That is, the salary value for an employee can lie only between the low salary and high salary values of one of the rows in the salary grade table.
- All of the employees' salaries lie within the limits provided by the job grade table. That is, no employee earns less than the lowest value contained in the `LOWEST_SAL` column or more than the highest value contained in the `HIGHEST_SAL` column.

Note: Other conditions, such as `<=` and `>=` can be used, but `BETWEEN` is the simplest. Remember to specify the low value first and the high value last when using `BETWEEN`.

Table aliases have been specified in the slide example for performance reasons, not because of possible ambiguity.

Outer Joins

DEPARTMENTS

DEPARTMENT_NAME	DEPARTMENT_ID
Administration	10
Marketing	20
Shipping	50
IT	60
Sales	80
Executive	90
Accounting	110
Contracting	190

8 rows selected.

EMPLOYEES

DEPARTMENT_ID	LAST_NAME
90	King
90	Kochhar
90	De Haan
60	Hunold
60	Ernst
10	Wh..en
20	Hartstein
20	Fay
110	Higgins
110	Gietz

20 rows selected.

There are no employees in department 190.

Returning Records with No Direct Match with Outer Joins

If a row does not satisfy a join condition, the row will not appear in the query result. For example, in the equijoin condition of EMPLOYEES and DEPARTMENTS tables, employee Grant does not appear because there is no department ID recorded for her in the EMPLOYEES table. Instead of seeing 20 employees in the result set, you see 19 records.

```
SELECT e.last_name, e.department_id, d.department_name
FROM employees e, departments d
WHERE e.department_id = d.department_id;
```

LAST_NAME	DEPARTMENT_ID	DEPARTMENT_NAME
Whalen	10	Administration
Hartstein	20	Marketing
Fay	20	Marketing
Mourgos	50	Shipping
.iggins	110	Accounting
Gietz	110	Accounting

19 rows selected.

Outer Joins Syntax

- **You use an outer join to also see rows that do not meet the join condition.**
- **The Outer join operator is the plus sign (+).**

```
SELECT table1.column, table2.column
FROM   table1, table2
WHERE  table1.column(+) = table2.column;
```

```
SELECT table1.column, table2.column
FROM   table1, table2
WHERE  table1.column = table2.column(+);
```


Using Outer Joins to Return Records with No Direct Match

The missing rows can be returned if an *outer join* operator is used in the join condition. The operator is a plus sign enclosed in parentheses (+), and it is *placed on the* "*side*" *of the join that is deficient in information*. This operator has the effect of creating one or more null rows, to which one or more rows from the nondeficient table can be joined.

In the syntax:

table1.column =	is the condition that joins (or relates) the tables together.
table2.column (+)	is the outer join symbol, which can be placed on either side of the WHERE clause condition, but not on both sides. (Place the outer join symbol following the name of the column in the table without the matching rows.)

Using Outer Joins

```
SELECT e.last_name, e.department_id, d.department_name
FROM employees e, departments d
WHERE e.department_id(+) = d.department_id;
```

LAST_NAME	DEPARTMENT_ID	DEPARTMENT_NAME
Whalen	10	Administration
Hartstein	20	Marketing
Fay	20	Marketing
Mourgos	50	Shipping
Rajs	50	Shipping
Higgins	110	[illegible]
Gietz	110	Accounting
		Contracting

20 rows selected.

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Using Outer Joins to Return Records with No Direct Match (continued)

The slide example displays employee last names, department ID's and department names. The Contracting department does not have any employees. The empty value is shown in the output shown.

Outer Join Restrictions

- The outer join operator can appear on only *one* side of the expression—the side that has information missing. It returns those rows from one table that have no direct match in the other table.
- A condition involving an outer join cannot use the `IN` operator or be linked to another condition by the `OR` operator.

Self Joins

EMPLOYEES (WORKER)

EMPLOYEE_ID	LAST_NAME	MANAGER_ID
101	Kochhar	100
102	De Haan	100
124	Mourgos	100
149	Zlotkey	100
201	Hartstein	100
200	Whalen	101
…	…	…
206	Gietz	205

19 rows selected.

EMPLOYEES (MANAGER)

EMPLOYEE_ID	LAST_NAME
100	King
100	King
100	King
100	King
100	King
101	Kochhar
…	…
205	Higgins

`MANAGER_ID` in the `WORKER` table is equal to `EMPLOYEE_ID` in the `MANAGER` table.

Joining a Table to Itself

Sometimes you need to join a table to itself. To find the name of each employee's manager, you need to join the `EMPLOYEES` table to itself, or perform a self join. For example, to find the name of Whalen's manager, you need to:

- Find Whalen in the `EMPLOYEES` table by looking at the `LAST_NAME` column.
- Find the manager number for Whalen by looking at the `MANAGER_ID` column. Whalen's manager number is 101.
- Find the name of the manager with `EMPLOYEE_ID` 101 by looking at the `LAST_NAME` column. Kochhar's employee number is 101, so Kochhar is Whalen's manager.

In this process, you look in the table twice. The first time you look in the table to find Whalen in the `LAST_NAME` column and `MANAGER_ID` value of 101. The second time you look in the `EMPLOYEE_ID` column to find 101 and the `LAST_NAME` column to find Kochhar.

Joining a Table to Itself

```
SELECT worker.last_name || ' works for '
       || manager.last_name
FROM   employees worker, employees manager
WHERE  worker.manager_id = manager.employee_id;
```

W.LAST_NAME||'WORKSFOR'||M.LAST_NAME
Kochhar works for King
De Haan works for King
Mourgos works for King
Zlotkey works for King
Hartstein works for King
Whalen works for Kochhar
Higgins works for Kochhar
Hunold works for De Haan
Fay works for Hartstein
Gietz works for Higgins

19 rows selected.

Joining a Table to Itself (continued)

The slide example joins the `EMPLOYEES` table to itself. To simulate two tables in the `FROM` clause, there are two aliases, namely `w` and `m`, for the same table, `EMPLOYEES`.

In this example, the `WHERE` clause contains the join that means "where a worker's manager number matches the employee number for the manager."

Practice 4, Part One: Overview

This practice covers writing queries to join tables together using Oracle syntax.

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Practice 4, Part One

This practice is designed to give you a variety of exercises that join tables together using the Oracle syntax shown in the lesson so far.

Complete practice questions 1- 4 at the end of this lesson.

Joining Tables Using SQL: 1999 Syntax

Use a join to query data from more than one table.

```
SELECT   table1.column, table2.column
FROM     table1
[CROSS JOIN table2] |
[NATURAL JOIN table2] |
[JOIN table2 USING (column_name)] |
[JOIN table2
  ON(table1.column_name = table2.column_name)] |
[LEFT|RIGHT|FULL OUTER JOIN table2
  ON (table1.column_name = table2.column_name)];
```

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Defining Joins

Using the SQL: 1999 syntax, you can obtain the same results as were shown in the prior pages.

In the syntax:

table1.column	Denotes the table and column from which data is retrieved
CROSS JOIN	Returns a cartesian product from the two tables
NATURAL JOIN	Joins two tables based on the same column name
JOIN *table* USING *column_name*	Performs an equijoin based on the column name
JOIN *table ON table1.column_name = table2.column_name*	Performs an equijoin based on the condition in the ON clause
LEFT/RIGHT/FULL OUTER	

For more information, see *Oracle9i SQL Reference*, “SELECT.”

Creating Cross Joins

- The `CROSS JOIN` clause produces the cross-product of two tables.
- This is the same as a Cartesian product between the two tables.

```
SELECT last_name, department_name
FROM   employees
CROSS JOIN departments;
```

LAST_NAME	DEPARTMENT_NAME
artstein	acting
Fay	Contracting
Higgins	Contracting
Gietz	Contracting

160 rows selected.

Creating Cross Joins

The example on the slide gives the same results as the following:

```
SELECT last_name, department_name
 FROM employees, departments;
```

LAST_NAME	DEPARTMENT_NAME
King	Administration
Kochhar	Administration
De Haan	Administration
ggins	acting
Gietz	Contracting

160 rows selected.

Creating Natural Joins

- The `NATURAL JOIN` clause is based on all columns in the two tables that have the same name.
- It selects rows from the two tables that have equal values in all matched columns.
- If the columns having the same names have different data types, an error is returned.

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Creating Natural Joins

It was not possible to do a join without explicitly specifying the columns in the corresponding tables in prior releases of Oracle. In Oracle9*i* it is possible to let the join be completed automatically based on columns in the two tables which have matching data types and names, using the keywords `NATURAL JOIN` keywords.

Note: The join can happen only on columns having the same names and data types in both the tables. If the columns have the same name, but different data types, then the `NATURAL JOIN` syntax causes an error.

Retrieving Records with Natural Joins

```
SELECT department_id, department_name,
       location_id, city
FROM   departments
NATURAL JOIN locations;
```

DEPARTMENT_ID	DEPARTMENT_NAME	LOCATION_ID	CITY
60	IT	1400	Southlake
50	Shipping	1500	South San Francisco
10	Administration	1700	Seattle
90	Executive	1700	Seattle
110	Accounting	1700	Seattle
190	Contracting	1700	Seattle
20	Marketing	1800	Toronto
80	Sales	2500	Oxford

8 rows selected.

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Retrieving Records with Natural Joins

In the example on the slide, the LOCATIONS table is joined to the DEPARTMENT table by the LOCATION_ID column, which is the only column of the same name in both tables. If other common columns were present, the join would have used them all.

Equijoins

The natural join can also be written as an equijoin:

```
SELECT department_id, department_name,
       departments.location_id, city
FROM   departments, locations
WHERE  departments.location_id = locations.location_id;
```

Natural Joins with a WHERE Clause

Additional restrictions on a natural join are implemented by using a WHERE clause. The example below limits the rows of output to those with a department ID equal to 20 or 50.

```
SELECT  department_id, department_name,
        location_id, city
FROM    departments
NATURAL JOIN locations
WHERE   department_id IN (20, 50);
```

Creating Joins with the USING Clause

- If several columns have the same names but the data types do not match, the NATURAL JOIN clause can be modified with the USING clause to specify the columns that should be used for an equijoin.
- Use the USING clause to match only one column when more than one column matches.
- Do not use a table name or alias in the referenced columns.
- The NATURAL JOIN and USING clauses are mutually exclusive.

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The USING Clause

Natural joins use all columns with matching names and data types to join the tables. The USING clause can be used to specify only those columns that should be used for an equijoin. The columns referenced in the USING clause should not have a qualifier (table name or alias) anywhere in the SQL statement.

For example, this statement is valid:

```
SELECT l.city, d.department_name
FROM   locations l JOIN departments d USING (location_id)
WHERE  location_id = 1400;
```

This statement is invalid because the LOCATION_ID is qualified in the WHERE clause:

```
SELECT l.city, d.department_name
FROM locations l JOIN departments d USING (location_id)
WHERE d.location_id = 1400;
ORA-25154: column part of USING clause cannot have qualifier
```

The same restriction applies to NATURAL joins also. Therefore columns that have the same name in both tables have to be used without any qualifiers.

Retrieving Records with the USING Clause

```
SELECT e.employee_id, e.last_name, d.location_id
FROM  employees e JOIN departments d
USING (department_id);
```

EMPLOYEE_ID	LAST_NAME	LOCATION_ID
200	Whalen	1700
201	Hartstein	1800
202	Fay	1800
124	Mourgos	1500
141	Rajs	1500
142	Davies	1500
205	Higgins	1700
206	Gietz	1700

19 rows selected.

The USING Clause (continued)

The example shown joins the DEPARTMENT_ID column in the EMPLOYEES and DEPARTMENTS tables, and thus shows the location where an employee works.

This can also be written as an equijoin:

```
SELECT employee_id, last_name,
       employees.department_id, location_id
FROM   employees, departments
WHERE  employees.department_id = departments.department_id;
```

Creating Joins with the `ON` Clause

- **The join condition for the natural join is basically an equijoin of all columns with the same name.**
- **To specify arbitrary conditions or specify columns to join, the `ON` clause is used.**
- **The join condition is separated from other *search* conditions.**
- **The `ON` clause makes code easy to understand.**

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The `ON` Condition

Use the `ON` clause to specify a join condition. This lets you specify join conditions separate from any search or filter conditions in the `WHERE` clause.

Retrieving Records with the ON Clause

```
SELECT e.employee_id, e.last_name, e.department_id,
       d.department_id, d.location_id
FROM   employees e JOIN departments d
ON     (e.department_id = d.department_id);
```

EMPLOYEE_ID	LAST_NAME	DEPARTMENT_ID	DEPARTMENT_ID	LOCATION_ID
200	Whalen	10	10	1700
201	Hartstein	20	20	1800
202	Fay	20	20	1800
124	Mourgos	50	50	1500
141	Rajs	50	50	1500
142	Davies	50	50	1500
205	Higgins	110	110	1700
206	Gietz	110	110	1700

19 rows selected.

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Creating Joins with the ON Clause

The ON clause can also be used as follows to join columns that have different names:

```
SELECT e.last_name emp, m.last_name mgr
FROM   employees e JOIN employees m
ON     (e.manager_id = m.employee_id);
```

EMP	MGR
Kochhar	King
De Haan	King
Mourgos	King
Gietz	Higgins

19 rows selected.

The preceding example is a selfjoin of the EMPLOYEE table to itself, based on the EMPLOYEE_ID and MANAGER_ID columns.

Creating Three-Way Joins with the `ON` Clause

```
SELECT employee_id, city, department_name
FROM   employees e
JOIN   departments d
ON     d.department_id = e.department_id
JOIN   locations l
ON     d.location_id = l.location_id;
```

EMPLOYEE_ID	CITY	DEPARTMENT_NAME
100	Seattle	Executive
101	Seattle	Executive
102	Seattle	Executive
103	Southlake	IT
104	Southlake	IT
107	Southlake	IT
124	South San Francisco	Shipping
206	Seattle	[illegible]

19 rows selected.

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Three-Way Joins

A three-way join is a join of three tables. In SQL: 1999 compliant syntax, joins are performed from left to right so the first join to be performed is `EMPLOYEES JOIN DEPARTMENTS`. The first join condition can reference columns in `EMPLOYEES` and `DEPARTMENTS` but cannot reference columns in `LOCATIONS`. The second join condition can reference columns from all three tables.

This can also be written as a three-way equijoin:

```
SELECT employee_id, city, department_name
FROM   employees, departments, locations
WHERE  employees.department_id = departments.department_id
AND    departments.location_id = locations.location_id;
```

INNER Versus OUTER Joins

- In SQL: 1999, the join of two tables returning only matched rows is an inner join.
- A join between two tables that returns the results of the inner join as well as unmatched rows left (or right) tables is a left (or right) outer join.
- A join between two tables that returns the results of an inner join as well as the results of a left and right join is a full outer join.

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Joins - Comparing SQL: 1999 to Oracle Syntax

Oracle	**SQL: 1999**
Equi-Join	Natural/Inner Join
Outer-Join	Left Outer Join
Self-Join	Join `ON`
Non-Equi-Join	Join `USING`
Cartesian Product	Cross Join

LEFT OUTER JOIN

```
SELECT e.last_name, e.department_id, d.department_name
FROM employees e
LEFT OUTER JOIN departments d
ON (e.department_id = d.department_id);
```

LAST_NAME	DEPARTMENT_ID	DEPARTMENT_NAME
King	90	Executive
Kochhar	90	Executive
...		
Ernst	60	IT
Grant		
Whalen	10	Administration
Hartstein	20	Marketing
Fay	20	Marketing
Higgins	110	Accounting
Gietz	110	Accounting

20 rows selected.

Example of LEFT OUTER JOIN

This query retrieves all rows in the EMPLOYEES table, which is the left table even if there is no match in the DEPARTMENTS table.

This query was completed in earlier releases as follows:

```
SELECT e.last_name, e.department_id, d.department_name
FROM employees e, departments d
WHERE d.department_id (+) = e.department_id;
```

RIGHT OUTER JOIN

```
SELECT e.last_name, e.department_id, d.department_name
FROM employees e
RIGHT OUTER JOIN departments d
ON (e.department_id = d.department_id);
```

LAST_NAME	DEPARTMENT_ID	DEPARTMENT_NAME
Whalen	10	Administration
Hartstein	20	Marketing
Fay	20	Marketing
Mourgos	50	Shipping
Rajs	50	Shipping
Davies	50	Shipping
Matos	50	Shipping
Gietz	110	Acco[illegible]
		Contracting

20 rows selected.

Example of RIGHT OUTER JOIN

This query retrieves all rows in the DEPARTMENTS table, which is the right table even if there is no match in the EMPLOYEES table.

This query was completed in earlier releases as follows:

```
SELECT e.last_name, e.department_id, d.department_name
FROM employees e, departments d
WHERE d.department_id = e.department_id  (+);
```

FULL OUTER JOIN

```
SELECT e.last_name, e.department_id, d.department_name
FROM employees e
FULL OUTER JOIN departments d
ON (e.department_id = d.department_id);
```

LAST_NAME	DEPARTMENT_ID	DEPARTMENT_NAME
Abel	80	Sales
Davies	50	Shipping
De Haan	90	Executive
Ernst	60	IT
Fay	20	Marketing
Gietz	110	Accounting
Grant		
Hartstein	20	Marketing
Zlotkey	80	Sales
		Contracting

21 rows selected.

Example of FULL OUTER JOIN

This query retrieves all rows in the EMPLOYEES table, even if there is no match in the DEPARTMENTS table. It also retrieves all rows in the DEPARTMENTS table, even if there is no match in the EMPLOYEES table.

Additional Conditions

```
SELECT e.employee_id, e.last_name, e.department_id,
       d.department_id, d.location_id
FROM   employees e JOIN departments d
ON     (e.department_id = d.department_id)
AND    e.manager_id = 149;
```

EMPLOYEE_ID	LAST_NAME	DEPARTMENT_ID	DEPARTMENT_ID	LOCATION_ID
174	Abel	80	80	2500
176	Taylor	80	80	2500

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Applying Additional Conditions

You can apply additional conditions in the `WHERE` clause. The example shown performs a join on the `EMPLOYEES` and `DEPARTMENTS` tables, and, in addition, displays only employees with a manager ID equal to 149.

Summary

In this lesson, you should have learned how to use joins to display data from multiple tables in:

- **Oracle proprietary syntax for versions 8*i* and earlier**
- **SQL: 1999 compliant syntax for version 9*i***

Summary

There are multiple ways to join tables.

Types of Joins

- Equijoins
- Non-equijoins
- Outer joins
- Self joins
- Cross joins
- Natural joins
- Full or outer joins

Cartesian Products

A Cartesian product results in all combinations of rows displayed. This is done by either omitting the `WHERE` clause or specifying the `CROSS JOIN` clause.

Table Aliases

- Table aliases speed up database access.
- Table aliases can help to keep SQL code smaller, by conserving memory.

Practice 4, Part Two: Overview

This practice covers the following topics:

- Joining tables using an equijoin
- Performing outer and self joins
- Adding conditions

Practice 4, Part Two

This practice is intended to give you practical experience in extracting data from more than one table. Try using both the Oracle proprietary syntax and the SQL: 1999 compliant syntax.

In Part Two, questions 5-8, try writing the join statements using ANSI syntax.

In Part Two, questions 9-11, try writing the join statements using both the Oracle syntax and the ANSI syntax.

Practice 4 - Part One

1. Write a query to display the last name, department number, and department name for all employees.

LAST_NAME	DEPARTMENT_ID	DEPARTMENT_NAME
Whalen	10	Administration
Hartstein	20	Marketing
Fay	20	Marketing
Mourgos	50	Shipping
Rajs	50	Shipping
Davies	50	Shipping
Matos	50	Shipping
Vargas	50	Shipping
Hunold	60	IT
[illegible]ggins	110	Ac[illegible]
Gietz	110	Accounting

19 rows selected.

2. Create a unique listing of all jobs that are in department 80. Include the location of department in the output.

JOB_ID	LOCATION_ID
SA_MAN	2500
SA_REP	2500

3. Write a query to display the employee last name, department name, location ID, and city of all employees who earn a commission.

LAST_NAME	DEPARTMENT_NAME	LOCATION_ID	CITY
Zlotkey	Sales	2500	Oxford
Abel	Sales	2500	Oxford
Taylor	Sales	2500	Oxford

Practice 4 - Part One (continued)

4. Display the employee last name and department name for all employees who have an *a* (lowercase) in their last names. Place your SQL statement in a text file named `lab4_4.sql`.

LAST_NAME	DEPARTMENT_NAME
Whalen	Administration
Hartstein	Marketing
Fay	Marketing
Rajs	Shipping
Davies	Shipping
Matos	Shipping
Vargas	Shipping
Taylor	Sales
Kochhar	Executive
De Haan	Executive

10 rows selected.

Practice 4 - Part Two

5. Write a query to display the last name, job, department number, and department name for all employees who work in Toronto.

LAST_NAME	JOB_ID	DEPARTMENT_ID	DEPARTMENT_NAME
Hartstein	MK_MAN	20	Marketing
Fay	MK_REP	20	Marketing

6. Display the employee last name and employee number along with their manager's last name and manager number. Label the columns `Employee`, `Emp#`, `Manager`, and `Mgr#`, respectively. Place your SQL statement in a text file named `lab4_6.sql`.

Employee	EMP#	Manager	Mgr#
Kochhar	101	King	100
De Haan	102	King	100
Mourgos	124	King	100
Zlotkey	149	King	100
Abel	174	Zlotkey	149
Taylor	176	Zlotkey	149
Grant	178	Zlotkey	149
Fay	202	Hartstein	201
Gietz	206	Higgins	205

19 rows selected.

Practice 4 - Part Two (continued)

7. Modify `lab4_6.sql` to display all employees including King, who has no manager. Order the results by the employee number.
   Place your SQL statement in a text file named `lab4_7.sql`. Run the query in `lab4_7.sql`.

Employee	EMP#	Manager	Mgr#
King	100		
Kochhar	101	King	100
De Haan	102	King	100
Hunold	103	De Haan	102
Ernst	104	Hunold	103
Lorentz	107	Hunold	103
Mourgos	124	King	100
Higgins	205	Kochhar	101
Gietz	206	Higgins	205

20 rows selected.

If you have time, complete the following exercises:

8. Create a query that displays employee last names, department numbers, and all the employees who work in the same department as a given employee. Give each column an appropriate label.

DEPARTMENT	EMPLOYEE	COLLEAGUE
20	Fay	Hartstein
20	Hartstein	Fay
50	Davies	Matos
50	Davies	Mourgos
50	Davies	Rajs
50	Davies	Vargas
50	Matos	Davies
50	Matos	Mourgos
50	Matos	Rajs
50	Matos	Vargas
110	Gietz	Higgins
110	Higgins	Gietz

42 rows selected.

Practice 4 - Part Two (continued)

9. Show the structure of the `JOB_GRADES` table. Create a query that displays the name, job, department name, salary, and grade for all employees.

Name	Null?	Type
GRADE_LEVEL		VARCHAR2(3)
LOWEST_SAL		NUMBER
HIGHEST_SAL		NUMBER

LAST_NAME	JOB_ID	DEPARTMENT_NAME	SALARY	GRA
Matos	ST_CLERK	Shipping	2600	A
Vargas	ST_CLERK	Shipping	2500	A
Lorentz	IT_PROG	IT	4200	B
Mourgos	ST_MAN	Shipping	5800	B
Rajs	ST_CLERK	Shipping	3500	B
Davies	ST_CLERK	Shipping	3100	B
Whalen	AD_ASST	Administration	4400	B
De Haan	AD_VP	Executive	17000	E

19 rows selected.

If you want an extra challenge, complete the following exercises:

10. Create a query to display the name and hire date of any employee hired after employee Davies.

LAST_NAME	HIRE_DATE
Lorentz	07-FEB-99
Mourgos	16-NOV-99
Matos	15-MAR-98
Vargas	09-JUL-98
Zlotkey	29-JAN-00
Taylor	24-MAR-98
Grant	24-MAY-99
Fay	17-AUG-97

8 rows selected.

Practice 4 - Part Two (continued)

11. Display the names and hire dates for all employees who were hired before their managers, along with their manager's names and hire dates. Label the columns `Employee`, `Emp Hired`, `Manager`, and `Mgr Hired`, respectively.

Employee	Emp Hired	Manager	Mgr Hired
Whalen	17-SEP-87	Kochhar	21-SEP-89
Hunold	03-JAN-90	De Haan	13-JAN-93
Rajs	17-OCT-95	Mourgos	16-NOV-99
Davies	29-JAN-97	Mourgos	16-NOV-99
Matos	15-MAR-98	Mourgos	16-NOV-99
Vargas	09-JUL-98	Mourgos	16-NOV-99
Abel	11-MAY-96	Zlotkey	29-JAN-00
Taylor	24-MAR-98	Zlotkey	29-JAN-00
Grant	24-MAY-99	Zlotkey	29-JAN-00

9 rows selected.

5

Aggregating Data Using Group Functions

Objectives

After completing this lesson, you should be able to do the following:

- **Identify the available group functions**
- **Describe the use of group functions**
- **Group data using the `GROUP BY` clause**
- **Include or exclude grouped rows by using the `HAVING` clause**

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Lesson Aim

This lesson further addresses functions. It focuses on obtaining summary information, such as averages, for groups of rows. It discusses how to group rows in a table into smaller sets and how to specify search criteria for groups of rows.

What Are Group Functions?

Group functions operate on sets of rows to give one result per group.

`EMPLOYEES`

DEPARTMENT_ID	SALARY
90	24000
90	17000
90	17000
60	9000
60	6000
60	4200
50	5800
50	3500
50	3100
50	2600
50	2500
[illegible]	[illegible]
110	12000
110	8300

20 rows selected.

The maximum salary in the `EMPLOYEES` table.

MAX(SALARY)
24000

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Group Functions

Unlike single-row functions, group functions operate on sets of rows to give one result per group. These sets may be the whole table or the table split into groups.

Types of Group Functions

- **AVG**
- **COUNT**
- **MAX**
- **MIN**
- **STDDEV**
- **SUM**
- **VARIANCE**

5-4

Group Functions (continued)

Each of the functions accepts an argument. The following table identifies the options that you can use in the syntax:

Function	Description
`AVG([DISTINCT|ALL]n)`	Average value of *n*, ignoring null values
`COUNT({*|[DISTINCT|ALL]expr})`	Number of rows, where *expr* evaluates to something other than null (count all selected rows using *, including duplicates and rows with nulls)
`MAX([DISTINCT|ALL]expr)`	Maximum value of *expr*, ignoring null values
`MIN([DISTINCT|ALL]expr)`	Minimum value of *expr*, ignoring null values
`STDDEV([DISTINCT|ALL]x)`	Standard deviation of *n*, ignoring null values
`SUM([DISTINCT|ALL]n)`	Sum values of *n*, ignoring null values
`VARIANCE([DISTINCT|ALL]x)`	Variance of *n*, ignoring null values

Group Functions Syntax

```
SELECT      [column,] group_function(column), ...
FROM        table
[WHERE      condition]
[GROUP BY   column]
[ORDER BY   column];
```

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Guidelines for Using Group Functions

- DISTINCT makes the function consider only nonduplicate values; ALL makes it consider every value including duplicates. The default is ALL and therefore does not need to be specified.
- The data types for the functions with an expr argument may be CHAR, VARCHAR2, NUMBER, or DATE.
- All group functions ignore null values. To substitute a value for null values, use the NVL, NVL2, or COALESCE functions.
- The Oracle server implicitly sorts the result set in ascending order when using a GROUP BY clause. To override this default ordering, DESC can be used in an ORDER BY clause.

Using the AVG and SUM Functions

You can use AVG and SUM for numeric data.

```
SELECT AVG(salary), MAX(salary),
       MIN(salary), SUM(salary)
FROM   employees
WHERE  job_id LIKE '%REP%';
```

AVG(SALARY)	MAX(SALARY)	MIN(SALARY)	SUM(SALARY)
8150	11000	6000	32600

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Group Functions

You can use AVG, SUM, MIN, and MAX functions against columns that can store numeric data. The example on the slide displays the average, highest, lowest, and sum of monthly salaries for all sales representatives.

Using the MIN and MAX Functions

You can use MIN and MAX for any data type.

```
SELECT MIN(hire_date), MAX(hire_date)
FROM   employees;
```

MIN(HIRE_	MAX(HIRE_
17-JUN-87	29-JAN-00

Group Functions (continued)

You can use the MAX and MIN functions for any data type. The slide example displays the most junior and most senior employee.

The following example displays the employee last name that is first and the employee last name that is the last in an alphabetized list of all employees.

```
SELECT MIN(last_name), MAX(last_name)
FROM   employees;
```

MIN(LAST_NAME)	MAX(LAST_NAME)
Abel	Zlotkey

Note: AVG, SUM, VARIANCE, and STDDEV functions can be used only with numeric data types.

Using the COUNT Function

COUNT(*) returns the number of rows in a table.

```
SELECT COUNT(*)
FROM   employees
WHERE  department_id = 50;
```

COUNT(*)
5

The COUNT Function

The COUNT function has three formats:

- COUNT(*)
- COUNT(*expr*)
- COUNT(DISTINCT *expr*)

COUNT(*) returns the number of rows in a table that satisfy the criteria of the SELECT statement, including duplicate rows and rows containing null values in any of the columns. If a WHERE clause is included in the SELECT statement, COUNT(*) returns the number of rows that satisfies the condition in the WHERE clause.

In contrast, COUNT(*expr*) returns the number of non-null values in the column identified by *expr*.

COUNT(DISTINCT *expr*) returns the number of unique, non-null values in the column identified by *expr*.

The slide example displays the number of employees in department 50.

Using the COUNT Function

- **COUNT(*expr*) returns the number of rows with non-null values for the *expr*.**
- **Display the number of department values in the EMPLOYEES table, excluding the null values.**

```
SELECT COUNT(commission_pct)
FROM employees
WHERE department_id = 80;
```

COUNT(COMMISSION_PCT)
3

The COUNT Function (continued)

The slide example displays the number of employees in department 80 who can earn a commission.

Example

Display the number of department values in the EMPLOYEES table.

```
SELECT COUNT(department_id)
FROM   employees;
```

COUNT(DEPARTMENT_ID)
19

Using the DISTINCT Keyword

- **COUNT(DISTINCT expr) returns the number of distinct non-null values of the *expr*.**
- **Display the number of distinct department values in the EMPLOYEES table.**

```
SELECT COUNT(DISTINCT department_id)
FROM   employees;
```

COUNT(DISTINCTDEPARTMENT_ID)
7

The DISTINCT Keyword

Use the DISTINCT keyword to suppress the counting of any duplicate values within a column.

The example on the slide displays the number of distinct department values in the EMPLOYEES table.

Group Functions and Null Values

Group functions ignore null values in the column.

```
SELECT AVG(commission_pct)
FROM   employees;
```

AVG(COMMISSION_PCT)
.2125

Group Functions and Null Values

All group functions ignore null values in the column. In the slide example, the average is calculated based *only* on the rows in the table where a valid value is stored in the `COMMISSION_PCT` column. The average is calculated as the total commission paid to all employees divided by the number of employees receiving a commission (four).

Using the NVL Function with Group Functions

The NVL function forces group functions to include null values.

```
SELECT AVG(NVL(commission_pct, 0))
FROM   employees;
```

AVG(NVL(COMMISSION_PCT,0))
.0425

Group Functions and Null Values (continued)

The NVL function forces group functions to include null values. In the slide example, the average is calculated based on *all* rows in the table, regardless of whether null values are stored in the COMMISSION_PCT column. The average is calculated as the total commission paid to all employees divided by the total number of employees in the company (20).

Creating Groups of Data

EMPLOYEES

DEPARTMENT_ID	SALARY
10	4400
20	13000
20	6000
50	5800
50	3500
50	3100
50	2500
50	2600
60	9000
60	6000
60	4200
80	10500
110	8300
	7000

20 rows selected.

DEPARTMENT_ID	AVG(SALARY)
10	4400
20	9500
50	3500
60	6400

8 rows selected.

Groups of Data

Until now, all group functions have treated the table as one large group of information. At times, you need to divide the table of information into smaller groups. This can be done by using the `GROUP BY` clause.

Creating Groups of Data: The GROUP BY Clause Syntax

```
SELECT       column, group_function(column)
FROM         table
[WHERE       condition]
[GROUP BY    group_by_expression]
[ORDER BY    column];
```

Divide rows in a table into smaller groups by using the GROUP BY clause.

The GROUP BY Clause

You can use the GROUP BY clause to divide the rows in a table into groups. You can then use the group functions to return summary information for each group.

In the syntax:

group_by_expression	specifies columns whose values determine the basis for grouping rows

Guidelines

- If you include a group function in a SELECT clause, you cannot select individual results as well, *unless* the individual column appears in the GROUP BY clause. You receive an error message if you fail to include the column list in the GROUP BY clause.
- Using a WHERE clause, you can exclude rows before dividing them into groups.
- You must include the *columns* in the GROUP BY clause.
- You cannot use a column alias in the GROUP BY clause.
- By default, rows are sorted by ascending order of the columns included in the GROUP BY list. You can override this by using the ORDER BY clause.

Using the GROUP BY Clause

All columns in the SELECT list that are not in group functions must be in the GROUP BY clause.

```
SELECT department_id, AVG(salary)
FROM   employees
GROUP BY department_id;
```

DEPARTMENT_ID	AVG(SALARY)
10	4400
20	9500
50	3500
60	6400
80	10033.3333
90	19333.3333
110	10150
	7000

8 rows selected.

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The GROUP BY Clause (continued)

When using the GROUP BY clause, make sure that all columns in the SELECT list that are not group functions are included in the GROUP BY clause. The example on the slide displays the department number and the average salary for each department. Here is how this SELECT statement, containing a GROUP BY clause, is evaluated:

- The SELECT clause specifies the columns to be retrieved:
  - Department number column in the EMPLOYEES table
  - The average of all the salaries in the group you specified in the GROUP BY clause
- The FROM clause specifies the tables that the database must access: the EMPLOYEES table.
- The WHERE clause specifies the rows to be retrieved. Since there is no WHERE clause, all rows are retrieved by default.
- The GROUP BY clause specifies how the rows should be grouped. The rows are being grouped by department number, so the AVG function that is being applied to the salary column will calculate the *average salary for each department.*

Using the GROUP BY Clause

The GROUP BY column does not have to be in the SELECT list.

```
SELECT    AVG(salary)
FROM      employees
GROUP BY  department_id;
```

AVG(SALARY)
4400
9500
3500
6400
10033.3333
19333.3333
10150
7000

8 rows selected.

The GROUP BY Clause (continued)

The GROUP BY column does not have to be in the SELECT clause. For example, the SELECT statement on the slide displays the average salaries for each department without displaying the respective department numbers. Without the department numbers, however, the results do not look meaningful.

You can use the group function in the ORDER BY clause.

```
SELECT    department_id, AVG(salary)
FROM      employees
GROUP BY  department_id
ORDER BY  AVG(salary);
```

DEPARTMENT_ID	AVG(SALARY)
50	3500
10	4400
60	6400

8 rows selected.

Grouping by More Than One Column

EMPLOYEES

DEPARTMENT_ID	JOB_ID	SALARY
10	AD_ASST	4400
20	MK_MAN	13000
20	MK_REP	6000
50	ST_CLERK	3500
50	ST_CLERK	3100
50	ST_CLERK	2600
50	ST_CLERK	2500
50	ST_MAN	5800
60	IT_PROG	9000
60	IT_PROG	6000
60	IT_PROG	4200
80	SA_MAN	10500
80	SA_REP	11000
110	AC_MGR	12000
	SA_REP	7000

20 rows selected.

"Add up the salaries in the `EMPLOYEES` table for each job, grouped by department.

DEPARTMENT_ID	JOB_ID	SUM(SALARY)
10	AD_ASST	4400
20	MK_MAN	13000
20	MK_REP	6000
50	ST_CLERK	11700
50	ST_MAN	5800
60	IT_PROG	19200
80	SA_MAN	10500
80	SA_REP	19600
90	AD_PRES	24000
90	AD_VP	34000
110	AC_ACCOUNT	8300
110	AC_MGR	12000
	SA_REP	7000

13 rows selected.

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Groups within Groups

Sometimes you need to see results for groups within groups. The slide shows a report that displays the total salary being paid to each job title, within each department.

The `EMPLOYEES` table is grouped first by department number and, within that grouping, by job title. For example, the four stock clerks in department 50 are grouped together and a single result (total salary) is produced for all stock clerks within the group.

Using the GROUP BY Clause on Multiple Columns

```
SELECT   department_id dept_id, job_id, SUM(salary)
FROM     employees
GROUP BY department_id, job_id;
```

DEPT_ID	JOB_ID	SUM(SALARY)
10	AD_ASST	4400
20	MK_MAN	13000
20	MK_REP	6000
50	ST_CLERK	11700
50	ST_MAN	5800
60	IT_PROG	19200
80	SA_MAN	10500
80	SA_REP	19600
90	AD_PRES	24000
	SA_REP	

13 rows selected.

Groups within Groups (continued)

You can return summary results for groups and subgroups by listing more than one GROUP BY column. You can determine the default sort order of the results by the order of the columns in the GROUP BY clause. Here is how the SELECT statement on the slide, containing a GROUP BY clause, is evaluated:

- The SELECT clause specifies the column to be retrieved:
  - Department number in the EMPLOYEES table
  - Job ID in the EMPLOYEES table
  - The sum of all the salaries in the group that you specified in the GROUP BY clause
- The FROM clause specifies the tables that the database must access: the EMPLOYEES table.
- The GROUP BY clause specifies how you must group the rows:
  - First, the rows are grouped by department number.
  - Second, within the department number groups, the rows are grouped by job ID.

So the SUM function is being applied to the salary column for all job IDs within each department number group.

Illegal Queries Using Group Functions

Any column or expression in the SELECT list that is not an aggregate function must be in the GROUP BY clause.

```
SELECT department_id, COUNT(last_name)
FROM   employees;
```

Column missing in the GROUP BY clause

```
SELECT department_id, COUNT(last_name)
       *
ERROR at line 1:
ORA-00937: not a single-group group function
```

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Illegal Queries Using Group Functions

Whenever you use a mixture of individual items (DEPARTMENT_ID) and group functions (COUNT) in the same SELECT statement, you must include a GROUP BY clause that specifies the individual items (in this case, DEPARTMENT_ID). If the GROUP BY clause is missing, then the error message "not a single-group group function" appears and an asterisk (*) points to the offending column. You can correct the error on the slide by adding the GROUP BY clause.

```
SELECT department_id, count(last_name)
FROM   employees
GROUP BY department_id;
```

DEPARTMENT_ID	COUNT(LAST_NAME)
10	1
20	2

8 rows selected.

Any column or expression in the SELECT list that is not an aggregate function must be in the GROUP BY clause.

Illegal Queries Using Group Functions

- You cannot use the WHERE clause to restrict groups.
- You use the HAVING clause to restrict groups.
- You cannot use group functions in the WHERE clause.

```
SELECT department_id, AVG(salary)
FROM   employees
WHERE  AVG(salary) > 8000
GROUP BY department_id;
```

```
WHERE  AVG(salary) > 8000
       *
ERROR at line 3:
ORA-00934: group function is not allowed here
```

Cannot use the WHERE clause to restrict groups

Illegal Queries Using Group Functions (continued)

The `WHERE` clause cannot be used to restrict groups. The `SELECT` statement on the slide results in an error because it uses the `WHERE` clause to restrict the display of average salaries of those departments that have an average salary greater than $8,000.

You can correct the slide error by using the `HAVING` clause to restrict groups.

```
SELECT department_id, AVG(salary)
FROM   employees
HAVING  AVG(salary) > 8000
GROUP BY department_id;
```

DEPARTMENT_ID	AVG(SALARY)
20	9500
80	10033.3333
90	19333.3333
110	10150

Excluding Group Results

EMPLOYEES

DEPARTMENT_ID	SALARY
10	4400
20	13000
20	6000
50	5800
50	3500
50	3100
50	2500
50	2600
60	9000
60	6000
60	4200
80	10500
80	8600
1.	330[illegible]
	7000

20 rows selected.

The maximum salary per department when it is greater than $10,000

DEPARTMENT_ID	MAX(SALARY)
20	13000
80	11000
90	24000
110	12000

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Restricting Group Results

In the same way that you use the `WHERE` clause to restrict the rows that you select, you use the `HAVING` clause to restrict groups. To find the maximum salary of each department, but show only the departments that have a maximum salary of more than $10,000, you need to do the following:

1. Find the average salary for each department by grouping by department number.
2. Restrict the groups to those departments with a maximum salary greater than $10,000.

Excluding Group Results: The HAVING Clause

Use the HAVING clause to restrict groups:

1. **Rows are grouped.**
2. **The group function is applied.**
3. **Groups matching the HAVING clause are displayed.**

```
SELECT       column, group_function
FROM         table
[WHERE       condition]
[GROUP BY    group_by_expression]
[HAVING      group_condition]
[ORDER BY    column];
```

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The HAVING Clause

You use the HAVING clause to specify which groups are to be displayed, and thus, you further restrict the groups on the basis of aggregate information.

In the syntax:

group_condition	restricts the groups of rows returned to those groups for which the specified condition is true

The Oracle server performs the following steps when you use the HAVING clause:

1. Rows are grouped.
2. The group function is applied to the group.
3. The groups that match the criteria in the HAVING clause are displayed.

The HAVING clause can precede the GROUP BY clause, but it is recommended that you place the GROUP BY clause first because that is more logical. Groups are formed and group functions are calculated before the HAVING clause is applied to the groups in the SELECT list.

Using the HAVING Clause

```
SELECT   department_id, MAX(salary)
FROM     employees
GROUP BY department_id
HAVING   MAX(salary)>10000;
```

DEPARTMENT_ID	MAX(SALARY)
20	13000
80	11000
90	24000
110	12000

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The HAVING Clause (continued)

The slide example displays department numbers and maximum salaries for those departments whose maximum salary is greater than $10,000.

You can use the GROUP BY clause without using a group function in the SELECT list.

If you restrict rows based on the result of a group function, you must have a GROUP BY clause as well as the HAVING clause.

The following example displays the department numbers and average salaries for those departments whose maximum salary is greater than $10,000:

```
SELECT   department_id, AVG(salary)
FROM     employees
GROUP BY department_id
HAVING   max(salary)>10000;
```

DEPARTMENT_ID	AVG(SALARY)
20	9500
80	10033.3333
90	19333.3333
110	10150

Using the HAVING Clause

```
SELECT   job_id, SUM(salary) PAYROLL
FROM     employees
WHERE    job_id NOT LIKE '%REP%'
GROUP BY job_id
HAVING   SUM(salary) > 13000
ORDER BY SUM(salary);
```

JOB_ID	PAYROLL
IT_PROG	19200
AD_PRES	24000
AD_VP	34000

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The HAVING Clause (continued)

The slide example displays the job ID and total monthly salary for each job with a total payroll exceeding $13,000. The example excludes sales representatives and sorts the list by the total monthly salary.

Nesting Group Functions

Display the maximum average salary.

```
SELECT MAX(AVG(salary))
FROM   employees
GROUP BY department_id;
```

MAX(AVG(SALARY))
19333.3333

Nesting Group Functions

Group functions can be nested to a depth of two. The slide example displays the maximum average salary.

Summary

In this lesson, you should have learned how to:

- Use the group functions COUNT, MAX, MIN, AVG
- Write queries that use the GROUP BY clause
- Write queries that use the HAVING clause

```
SELECT       column, group_function(column)
FROM         table
[WHERE       condition]
[GROUP BY    group_by_expression]
[HAVING      group_condition]
[ORDER BY    column];
```


Summary

Seven group functions are available in SQL:

- AVG
- COUNT
- MAX
- MIN
- SUM
- STDDEV
- VARIANCE

You can create subgroups by using the GROUP BY clause. Groups can be excluded using the HAVING clause.

Place the HAVING and GROUP BY clauses after the WHERE clause in a statement. Place the ORDER BY clause last.

The Oracle server evaluates the clauses in the following order:

1. If the statement contains a WHERE clause, the server establishes the candidate rows.
2. The server identifies the groups specified in the GROUP BY clause.
3. The HAVING clause further restricts result groups that do not meet the group criteria in the HAVING clause.

Practice 5 Overview

This practice covers the following topics:

- Writing queries that use the group functions
- Grouping by rows to achieve more than one result
- Excluding groups by using the `HAVING` clause

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Practice 5 Overview

At the end of this practice, you should be familiar with using group functions and selecting groups of data.

Paper-Based Questions

For questions 1-3, circle either True or False.

Note: Column aliases are used for the queries.

Practice 5

Determine the validity of the following three statements. Circle either True or False.

1. Group functions work across many rows to produce one result per group.
   True/False
2. Group functions include nulls in calculations.
   True/False
3. The `WHERE` clause restricts rows prior to inclusion in a group calculation.
   True/False
4. Display the highest, lowest, sum, and average salary of all employees. Label the columns `Maximum`, `Minimum`, `Sum`, and `Average`, respectively. Round your results to the nearest whole number. Place your SQL statement in a text file named `lab5_6.sql`.

Maximum	Minimum	Sum	Average
24000	2500	175500	8775

5. Modify the query in `lab5_4.sql` to display the minimum, maximum, sum, and average salary for each job type. Resave `lab5_6.sql` to `lab5_4.sql`. Run the statement in `lab5_5.sql`.

JOB_ID	Maximum	Minimum	Sum	Average
AC_ACCOUNT	8300	8300	8300	8300
AC_MGR	12000	12000	12000	12000
AD_ASST	4400	4400	4400	4400
AD_PRES	24000	24000	24000	24000
AD_VP	17000	17000	34000	17000
IT_PROG	9000	4200	19200	6400
MK_MAN	13000	13000	13000	13000
MK_REP	6000	6000	6000	6000
SA_MAN	10500	10500	10500	10500
SA_REP	11000	7000	26600	8867
ST_CLERK	3500	2500	11700	2925
ST_MAN	5800	5800	5800	5800

12 rows selected.

Practice 5 (continued)

6. Write a query to display the number of people with the same job.

JOB_ID	COUNT(*)
AC_ACCOUNT	1
AC_MGR	1
AD_ASST	1
AD_PRES	1
AD_VP	2
IT_PROG	3
MK_MAN	1
MK_REP	1
SA_MAN	1
SA_REP	3
ST_CLERK	4
ST_MAN	1

12 rows selected.

7. Determine the number of managers without listing them. Label the column `Number of Managers`. *Hint: Use the `MANAGER_ID` column to determine the number of managers.*

Number of Managers
8

8. Write a query that displays the difference between the highest and lowest salaries. Label the column `DIFFERENCE`.

DIFFERENCE
21500

If you have time, complete the following exercises:

9. Display the manager number and the salary of the lowest paid employee for that manager. Exclude anyone whose manager is not known. Exclude any groups where the minimum salary is $6,000 or less. Sort the output in descending order of salary.

MANAGER_ID	MIN(SALARY)
102	9000
205	8300
149	7000

Practice 5 (continued)

10. Write a query to display each department's name, location, number of employees, and the average salary for all employees in that department. Label the columns `Name`, `Location`, `Number of People`, and `Salary`, respectively. Round the average salary to two decimal places.

Name	Location	Number of People	Salary
Accounting	1700	2	10150
Administration	1700	1	4400
Executive	1700	3	19333.33
IT	1400	3	6400
Marketing	1800	2	9500
Sales	2500	3	10033.33
Shipping	1500	5	3500

7 rows selected.

If you want an extra challenge, complete the following exercises:

11. Create a query that will display the total number of employees and, of that total, the number of employees hired in 1995, 1996, 1997, and 1998. Create appropriate column headings.

TOTAL	1995	1996	1997	1998
20	1	2	2	3

12. Create a matrix query to display the job, the salary for that job based on department number, and the total salary for that job, for departments 20, 50, 80, and 90, giving each column an appropriate heading.

Job	Dept 20	Dept 50	Dept 80	Dept 90	Total
AC_ACCOUNT					8300
AC_MGR					12000
AD_ASST					4400
AD_PRES				24000	24000
AD_VP				34000	34000
IT_PROG					19200
MK_MAN	13000				13000
MK_REP	6000				6000
SA_MAN			10500		10500
SA_REP			19600		26600
ST_CLERK		11700			11700
ST_MAN		5800			5800

12 rows selected.

6

Subqueries

Objectives

After completing this lesson, you should be able to do the following:

- Describe the types of problem that subqueries can solve
- Define subqueries
- List the types of subqueries
- Write single-row and multiple-row subqueries

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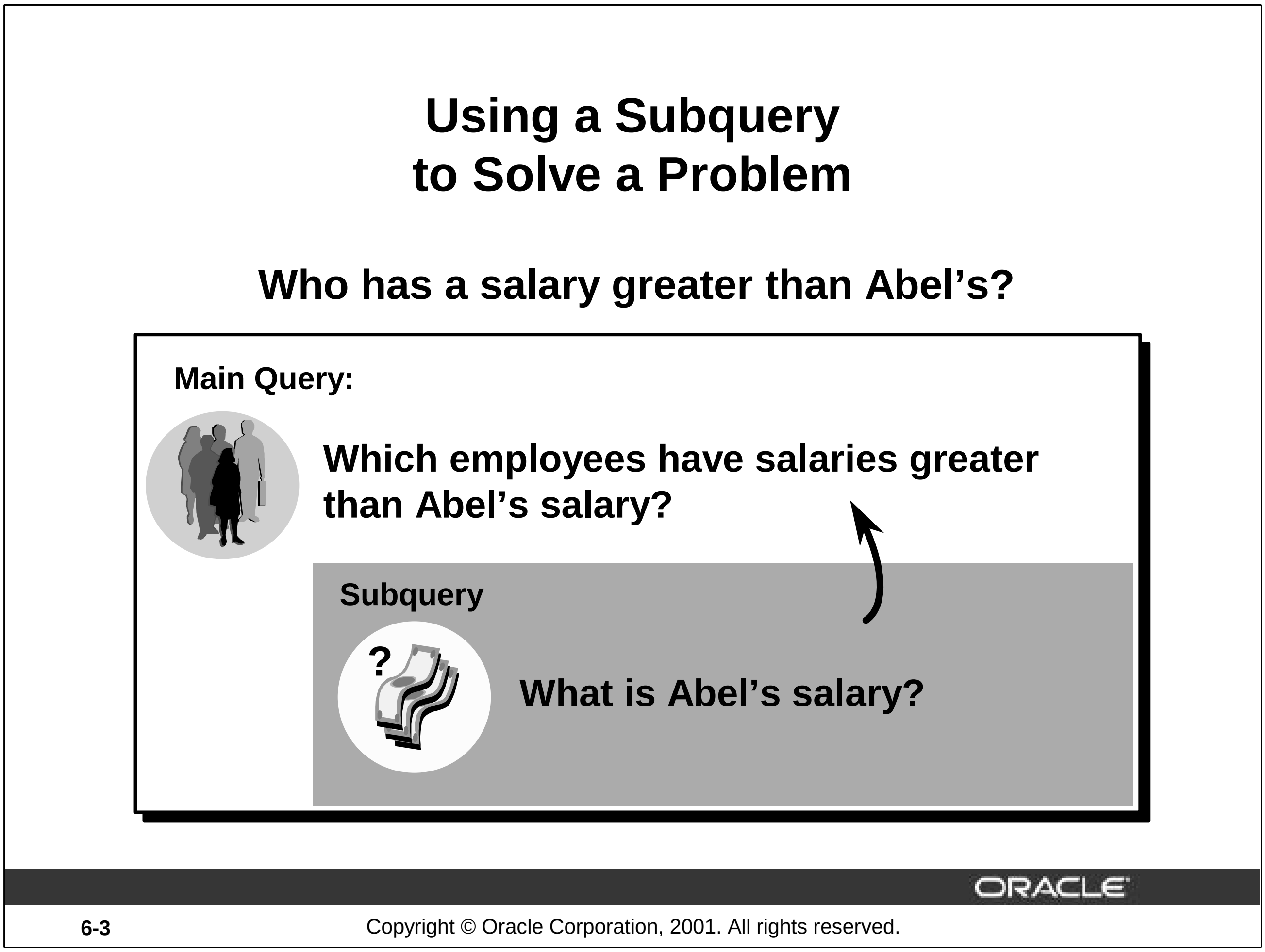
Lesson Aim

In this lesson, you learn about more advanced features of the `SELECT` statement. You can write subqueries in the `WHERE` clause of another SQL statement to obtain values based on an unknown conditional value. This lesson covers single-row subqueries and multiple-row subqueries.



Using a Subquery to Solve a Problem

Suppose you want to write a query to find out who earns a salary greater than Abel’s salary.

To solve this problem, you need *two* queries: one to find what Abel earns, and a second query to find who earns more than that amount.

You can solve this problem by combining the two queries, placing one query *inside* the other query.

The inner query or the *subquery* returns a value that is used by the outer query or the main query. Using a subquery is equivalent to performing two sequential queries and using the result of the first query as the search value in the second query.

Subquery Syntax

```
SELECT   select_list
FROM     table
WHERE    expr operator
                   (SELECT      select_list
                    FROM        table);
```

- **The subquery (inner query) executes once before the main query.**
- **The result of the subquery is used by the main query (outer query).**

Subqueries

A subquery is a `SELECT` statement that is embedded in a clause of another `SELECT` statement. You can build powerful statements out of simple ones by using subqueries. They can be very useful when you need to select rows from a table with a condition that depends on the data in the table itself.

You can place the subquery in a number of SQL clauses, including:

- The `WHERE` clause
- The `HAVING` clause
- The `FROM` clause

In the syntax:

operator includes a comparison condition such as >, =, or `IN`

Note: Comparison conditions fall into two classes: single-row operators (>, =, >=, <, <>, <=) and multiple-row operators (`IN`, `ANY`, `ALL`).

The subquery is often referred to as a nested `SELECT`, sub-`SELECT`, or inner `SELECT` statement. The subquery generally executes first, and its output is used to complete the query condition for the main or outer query.

Using a Subquery

```
SELECT last_name
FROM   employees   11000
WHERE  salary >
               (SELECT salary
                FROM employees
                WHERE  last_name = 'Abel');
```

LAST_NAME
King
Kochhar
De Haan
Hartstein
Higgins

Using a Subquery

In the slide, the inner query determines the salary of employee Abel. The outer query takes the result of the inner query and uses this result to display all the employees who earn more than this amount.

Guidelines for Using Subqueries

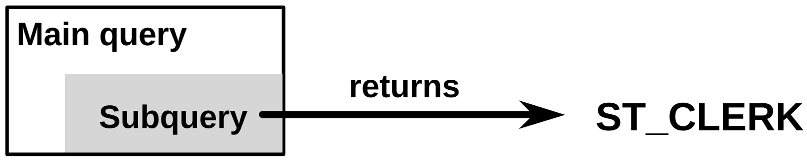
- **Enclose subqueries in parentheses.**
- **Place subqueries on the right side of the comparison condition.**
- **The `ORDER BY` clause in the subquery is not needed unless you are performing Top-N analysis.**
- **Use single-row operators with single-row subqueries and use multiple-row operators with multiple-row subqueries.**

Guidelines for Using Subqueries

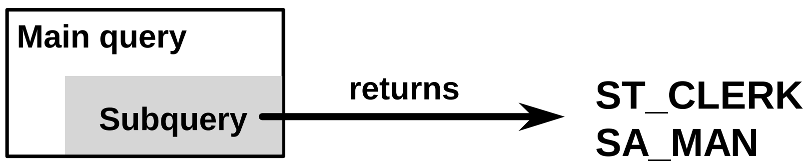
- A subquery must be enclosed in parentheses.
- Place the subquery on the right side of the comparison condition for readability.
- Prior to release Oracle8*i*, subqueries could not contain an `ORDER BY` clause. Only one `ORDER BY` clause can be used for a `SELECT` statement, and if specified it must be the last clause in the main `SELECT` statement. Starting with release Oracle8*i*, an `ORDER BY` clause can be used and is required in the subquery to perform Top-N analysis.
- Two classes of comparison conditions are used in subqueries: single-row operators and multiple-row operators.

Types of Subqueries

- **Single-row subquery**



- **Multiple-row subquery**



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Types of Subqueries

- Single-row subqueries: Queries that return only one row from the inner `SELECT` statement
- Multiple-row subqueries: Queries that return more than one row from the inner `SELECT` statement

Note: There are also multiple-column subqueries: Queries that return more than one column from the inner `SELECT` statement.

Single-Row Subqueries

- **Return only one row**
- **Use single-row comparison operators**

Operator	Meaning
=	Equal to
>	Greater than
>=	Greater than or equal to
<	Less than
<=	Less than or equal to
<>	Not equal to

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Single-Row Subqueries

A single-row subquery is one that returns one row from the inner `SELECT` statement. This type of subquery uses a single-row operator. The slide gives a list of single-row operators.

Example

Display the employees whose job ID is the same as that of employee 141.

```
SELECT  last_name, job_id
FROM    employees
WHERE   job_id =
                 (SELECT  job_id
                  FROM    employees
                  WHERE   employee_id = 141);
```

LAST_NAME	JOB_ID
Rajs	ST_CLERK
Davies	ST_CLERK
Matos	ST_CLERK
Vargas	ST_CLERK

Executing Single-Row Subqueries

```
SELECT last_name, job_id, salary
FROM   employees
WHERE  job_id =                   ST_CLERK
                (SELECT job_id
                 FROM   employees
                 WHERE  employee_id = 141)
AND    salary >                    2600
                (SELECT salary
                 FROM   employees
                 WHERE  employee_id = 143);
```

LAST_NAME	JOB_ID	SALARY
Rajs	ST_CLERK	3500
Davies	ST_CLERK	3100

Executing Single-Row Subqueries

A SELECT statement can be considered as a query block. The example on the slide displays employees whose job ID is the same as that of employee 141 and whose salary is greater than that of employee 143.

The example consists of three query blocks: the outer query and two inner queries. The inner query blocks are executed first, producing the query results ST_CLERK and 2600, respectively. The outer query block is then processed and uses the values returned by the inner queries to complete its search conditions.

Both inner queries return single values (ST_CLERK and 2600, respectively), so this SQL statement is called a single-row subquery.

Note: The outer and inner queries can get data from different tables.

Using Group Functions in a Subquery

```
SELECT last_name, job_id, salary
FROM   employees                  2500
WHERE  salary =
                (SELECT MIN(salary)
                 FROM   employees);
```

LAST_NAME	JOB_ID	SALARY
Vargas	ST_CLERK	2500

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Using Group Functions in a Subquery

You can display data from a main query by using a group function in a subquery to return a single row. The subquery is in parentheses and is placed after the comparison condition.

The example on the slide displays the employee last name, job ID, and salary of all employees whose salary is equal to the minimum salary. The `MIN` group function returns a single value (2500) to the outer query.

The HAVING Clause with Subqueries

- **The Oracle server executes subqueries first.**
- **The Oracle server returns results into the HAVING clause of the main query.**

```
SELECT   department_id, MIN(salary)
FROM     employees
GROUP BY department_id
HAVING   MIN(salary) >        2500
                        (SELECT MIN(salary)
                         FROM employees
                         WHERE department_id = 50);
```

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The HAVING Clause with Subqueries

You can use subqueries not only in the WHERE clause, but also in the HAVING clause. The Oracle server executes the subquery, and the results are returned into the HAVING clause of the main query.

The SQL statement on the slide displays all the departments that have a minimum salary greater than that of department 50.

DEPARTMENT_ID	MIN(SALARY)
10	4400
20	6000
[illegible]	[illegible]

7 rows selected.

Example

Find the job with the lowest average salary.

```
SELECT   job_id, AVG(salary)
FROM     employees
GROUP BY job_id
HAVING   AVG(salary) = (SELECT   MIN(AVG(salary))
                        FROM     employees
                        GROUP BY job_id);
```

What is Wrong with this Statement?

```
SELECT employee_id, last_name
FROM   employees
WHERE  salary =
                (SELECT MIN(salary)
                 FROM   employees
                 GROUP BY department_id);
```

Single-row operator with multiple-row subquery

```
ERROR at line 4:
ORA-01427: single-row subquery returns more than
one row
```

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Errors with Subqueries

One common error with subqueries is more than one row returned for a single-row subquery.

In the SQL statement on the slide, the subquery contains a `GROUP BY` clause, which implies that the subquery will return multiple rows, one for each group it finds. In this case, the result of the subquery will be 4400, 6000, 2500, 4200, 7000, 17000, and 8300.

The outer query takes the results of the subquery (4400, 6000, 2500, 4200, 7000, 17000, 8300) and uses these results in its `WHERE` clause. The `WHERE` clause contains an equal (=) operator, a single-row comparison operator expecting only one value. The = operator cannot accept more than one value from the subquery and therefore generates the error.

To correct this error, change the = operator to `IN`.

Will this Statement Return Rows?

```
SELECT last_name, job_id
FROM   employees
WHERE  job_id =
                (SELECT job_id
                 FROM   employees
                 WHERE  last_name = 'Haas');
```

```
no rows selected
```

Subquery returns no values

Problems with Subqueries

A common problem with subqueries is no rows being returned by the inner query.

In the SQL statement on the slide, the subquery contains a WHERE clause. Presumably, the intention is to find the employee whose name is Haas. The statement is correct but selects no rows when executed.

There is no employee named Haas. So the subquery returns no rows. The outer query takes the results of the subquery (null) and uses these results in its WHERE clause. The outer query finds no employee with a job ID equal to null, and so returns no rows. If a job existed with a value of null, the row is not returned because comparison of two null values yields a null, therefore the WHERE condition is not true.

Multiple-Row Subqueries

- **Return more than one row**
- **Use multiple-row comparison operators**

Operator	Meaning
`IN`	Equal to any member in the list
`ANY`	Compare value to each value returned by the subquery
`ALL`	Compare value to every value returned by the subquery

Multiple-Row Subqueries

Subqueries that return more than one row are called multiple-row subqueries. You use a multiple-row operator, instead of a single-row operator, with a multiple-row subquery. The multiple-row operator expects one or more values.

```
SELECT last_name, salary, department_id
FROM   employees
WHERE  salary IN (SELECT   MIN(salary)
                  FROM     employees
                  GROUP BY department_id);
```

Example

Find the employees who earn the same salary as the minimum salary for each department.

The inner query is executed first, producing a query result. The main query block is then processed and uses the values returned by the inner query to complete its search condition. In fact, the main query would appear to the Oracle server as follows:

```
SELECT last_name, salary, department_id
FROM   employees
WHERE  salary IN (2500, 4200, 4400, 6000, 7000, 8300, 8600, 17000);
```

Using the ANY Operator in Multiple-Row Subqueries

```
SELECT employee_id, last_name, job_id, salary
FROM   employees
WHERE  salary < ANY
                    (SELECT salary
                     FROM   employees
                     WHERE  job_id = 'IT_PROG')
AND    job_id <> 'IT_PROG';
```

9000, 6000, 4200

EMPLOYEE_ID	LAST_NAME	JOB_ID	SALARY
124	Mourgos	ST_MAN	5800
141	Rajs	ST_CLERK	3500
142	Davies	ST_CLERK	3100
143	Matos	ST_CLERK	2600
206	Gietz	AC_ACCOUNT	8300

10 rows selected.

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Multiple-Row Subqueries (continued)

The ANY operator (and its synonym, the SOME operator) compares a value to *each* value returned by a subquery. The slide example displays employees who are not IT programmers and whose salary is less than that of any IT programmer. The maximum salary that a programmer earns is $9,000.

<ANY means less than the maximum. >ANY means more than the minimum. =ANY is equivalent to IN.

<ALL means less than the maximum. >ALL means more than the minimum.

Using the ALL Operator in Multiple-Row Subqueries

```
SELECT employee_id, last_name, job_id, salary
FROM   employees
WHERE  salary < ALL
                    (SELECT salary
                     FROM   employees
                     WHERE  job_id = 'IT_PROG')
AND    job_id <> 'IT_PROG';
```

9000, 6000, 4200

EMPLOYEE_ID	LAST_NAME	JOB_ID	SALARY
141	Rajs	ST_CLERK	3500
142	Davies	ST_CLERK	3100
143	Matos	ST_CLERK	2600
144	Vargas	ST_CLERK	2500

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Multiple-Row Subqueries (continued)

The `ALL` operator compares a value to *every* value returned by a subquery. The slide example displays employees whose salary is less than the salary of all employees with a job ID of IT_PROG and whose job is not IT_PROG.

`>ALL` means more than the maximum, and `<ALL` means less than the minimum.

The `NOT` operator can be used with `IN`, `ANY`, and `ALL` operators.

Null Values in a Subquery

```
SELECT emp.last_name
FROM   employees emp
WHERE  emp.employee_id NOT IN
                             (SELECT mgr.manager_id
                              FROM   employees mgr);

no rows selected
```


Returning Nulls in the Resulting Set of a Subquery

The SQL statement on the slide attempts to display all the employees who do not have any subordinates. Logically, this SQL statement should have returned 12 rows. However, the SQL statement does not return any rows. One of the values returned by the inner query is a null value, and hence the entire query returns no rows. The reason is that all conditions that compare a null value result in a null. So whenever null values are likely to be part of the results set of a subquery, do not use the `NOT IN` operator. The `NOT IN` operator is equivalent to `<> ALL`.

Notice that the null value as part of the results set of a subquery is not a problem if you use the `IN` operator. The `IN` operator is equivalent to `=ANY`. For example, to display the employees who have subordinates, use the following SQL statement:

```
SELECT emp.last_name
FROM   employees emp
WHERE  emp.employee_id  IN
                             (SELECT mgr.manager_id
                              FROM   employees mgr);
```

Alternatively, a `WHERE` clause can be included in the subquery to display all employees who do not have any subordinates:

```
SELECT last_name FROM   employees
WHERE  employee_id NOT IN
                        (SELECT manager_id FROM   employees
                         WHERE manager_id IS NOT NULL);
```

Summary

In this lesson, you should have learned how to:

- **Identify when a subquery can help solve a question**
- **Write subqueries when a query is based on unknown values**

```
SELECT   select_list
FROM     table
WHERE    expr operator
                    (SELECT select_list
                     FROM   table);
```


Summary

In this lesson, you should have learned how to use subqueries. A subquery is a `SELECT` statement that is embedded in a clause of another SQL statement. Subqueries are useful when a query is based on a search criteria with unknown intermediate values.

Subqueries have the following characteristics:

- Can pass one row of data to a main statement that contains a single-row operator, such as =, <>, >, >=, <, or <=
- Can pass multiple rows of data to a main statement that contains a multiple-row operator, such as `IN`
- Are processed first by the Oracle server, and the `WHERE` or `HAVING` clause uses the results
- Can contain group functions

Practice 6 Overview

This practice covers the following topics:

- Creating subqueries to query values based on unknown criteria
- Using subqueries to find out which values exist in one set of data and not in another

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Practice 6

In this practice, you write complex queries using nested SELECT statements.

Paper-Based Questions

You may want to create the inner query first for these questions. Make sure that it runs and produces the data that you anticipate before coding the outer query.

Practice 6

1. Write a query to display the last name and hire date of any employee in the same department as Zlotkey. Exclude Zlotkey.

LAST_NAME	HIRE_DATE
Abel	11-MAY-96
Taylor	24-MAR-98

2. Create a query to display the employee numbers and last names of all employees who earn more than the average salary. Sort the results in ascending order of salary.

EMPLOYEE_ID	LAST_NAME	SALARY
103	Hunold	9000
149	Zlotkey	10500
174	Abel	11000
205	Higgins	12000
201	Hartstein	13000
101	Kochhar	17000
102	De Haan	17000
100	King	24000

8 rows selected.

3. Write a query that displays the employee numbers and last names of all employees who work in a department with any employee whose last name contains a *u*. Place your SQL statement in a text file named `lab6_3.sql`. Run your query.

EMPLOYEE_ID	LAST_NAME
124	Mourgos
141	Rajs
142	Davies
143	Matos
144	Vargas
103	Hunold
104	Ernst
107	Lorentz

8 rows selected.

Practice 6 (continued)

4. Display the last name, department number, and job ID of all employees whose department location ID is 1700.

LAST_NAME	DEPARTMENT_ID	JOB_ID
Whalen	10	AD_ASST
King	90	AD_PRES
Kochhar	90	AD_VP
De Haan	90	AD_VP
Higgins	110	AC_MGR
Gietz	110	AC_ACCOUNT

6 rows selected.

5. Display the last name and salary of every employee who reports to King.

LAST_NAME	SALARY
Kochhar	17000
De Haan	17000
Mourgos	5800
Zlotkey	10500
Hartstein	13000

6. Display the department number, last name, and job ID for every employee in the Executive department.

DEPARTMENT_ID	LAST_NAME	JOB_ID
90	King	AD_PRES
90	Kochhar	AD_VP
90	De Haan	AD_VP

If you have time, complete the following exercises:

7. Modify the query in `lab6_3.sql` to display the employee numbers, last names, and salaries of all employees who earn more than the average salary and who work in a department with any employee with a *u* in their name. Resave `lab6_3.sql` to `lab6_7.sql`. Run the statement in `lab6_7.sql`.

EMPLOYEE_ID	LAST_NAME	SALARY
103	Hunold	9000

Producing Readable Output with *i*SQL*Plus

Objectives

After completing this lesson, you should be able to do the following:

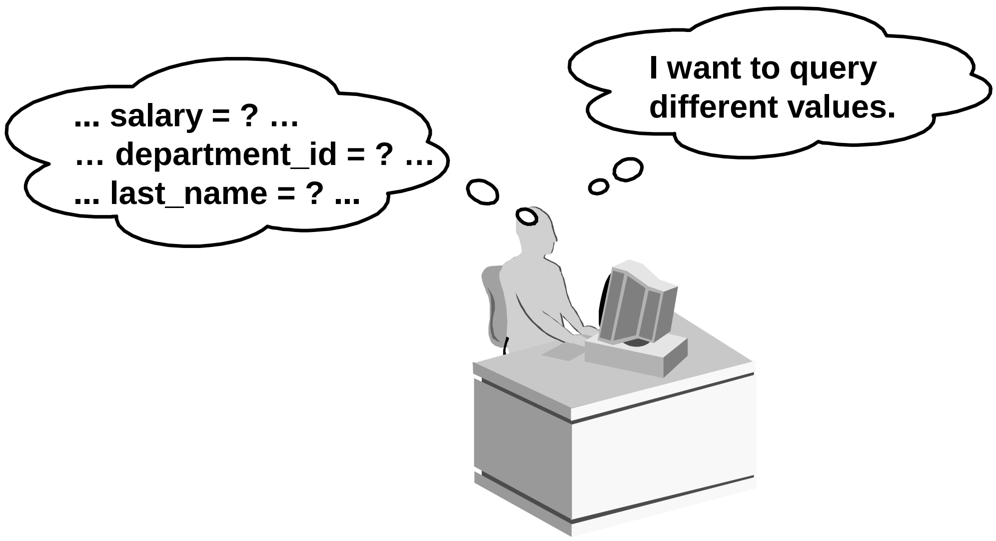
- **Produce queries that require a substitution variable**
- **Customize the *i*SQL*Plus environment**
- **Produce more readable output**
- **Create and execute script files**

Lesson Aim

In this lesson, you will learn how to include *i*SQL*Plus commands to produce more readable SQL output.

You can create a command file containing a `WHERE` clause to restrict the rows displayed. To change the condition each time the command file is run, you use substitution variables. Substitution variables can replace values in the `WHERE` clause, a text string, and even a column or a table name.

Substitution Variables



User

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7-3

Substitution Variables

The examples so far have been hard-coded. In a finished application, the user would trigger the report, and the report would run without further prompting. The range of data would be predetermined by the fixed `WHERE` clause in the *i*SQL*Plus script file.

Using *i*SQL*Plus, you can create reports that prompt the user to supply their own values to restrict the range of data returned by using substitution variables. You can embed *substitution variables* in a command file or in a single SQL statement. A variable can be thought of as a container in which the values are temporarily stored. When the statement is run, the value is substituted.

Substitution Variables

Use *i*SQL*Plus substitution variables to:

- **Temporarily store values**
  - **Single ampersand (&)**
  - **Double ampersand (&&)**
  - **`DEFINE` command**
- **Pass variable values between SQL statements**
- **Dynamically alter headers and footers**

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Substitution Variables

In *i*SQL*Plus, you can use single ampersand (&) substitution variables to temporarily store values.

You can predefine variables in *i*SQL*Plus by using the `DEFINE` command. `DEFINE` creates and assigns a value to a variable.

Examples of Restricted Ranges of Data

- Reporting figures only for the current quarter or specified date range
- Reporting on data relevant only to the user requesting the report
- Displaying personnel only within a given department

Other Interactive Effects

Interactive effects are not restricted to direct user interaction with the `WHERE` clause. The same principles can be used to achieve other goals. For example:

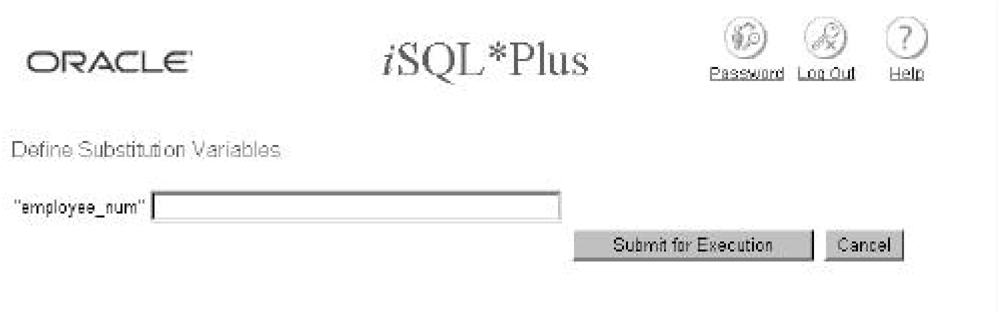
- Dynamically altering headers and footers
- Obtaining input values from a file rather than from a person
- Passing values from one SQL statement to another

*i*SQL*Plus does not support validation checks (except for data type) on user input.

Using the & Substitution Variable

Use a variable prefixed with an ampersand (&) to prompt the user for a value.

```
SELECT   employee_id, last_name, salary, department_id
FROM     employees
WHERE    employee_id = &employee_num;
```



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Single-Ampersand Substitution Variable

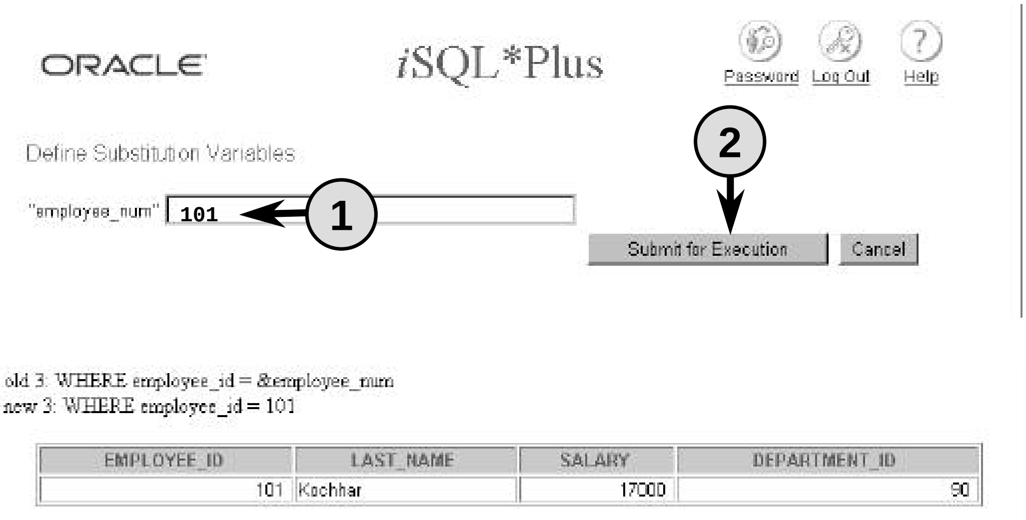
When running a report, users often want to restrict the data returned dynamically. *i*SQL*Plus provides this flexibility by means of user variables. Use an ampersand (&) to identify each variable in your SQL statement. You do not need to define the value of each variable.

Notation	Description
&user_variable	Indicates a variable in a SQL statement; if the variable does not exist, *i*SQL*Plus prompts the user for a value (*i*SQL*Plus discards a new variable once it is used.)

The example on the slide creates an *i*SQL*Plus substitution variable for an employee number. When the statement is executed, *i*SQL*Plus prompts the user for an employee number and then displays the employee number, last name, salary, and department number for that employee.

With the single ampersand, the user is prompted every time the command is executed, if the variable does not exist.

Using the & Substitution Variable



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Single-Ampersand Substitution Variable

When *i*SQL*Plus detects that the SQL statement contains an &, you are prompted to enter a value for the substitution variable named in the SQL statement. Once you enter a value and click the Submit for Execution button, the results are displayed in the output area of your *i*SQL*Plus session.

Character and Date Values with Substitution Variables

Use single quotation marks for date and character values.

```
SELECT last_name, department_id, salary*12
FROM   employees
WHERE  job_id = '&job_title';
```

LAST_NAME	DEPARTMENT_ID	SALARY*12
Hunold	60	108000
Ernst	60	72000
Lorentz	60	50400

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Specifying Character and Date Values with Substitution Variables

In a `WHERE` clause, date and character values must be enclosed within single quotation marks. The same rule applies to the substitution variables.

Enclose the variable in single quotation marks within the SQL statement itself.

The slide shows a query to retrieve the employee names, department numbers, and annual salaries of all employees based on the job title value of the *i*SQL*Plus substitution variable.

Note: You can also use functions such as `UPPER` and `LOWER` with the ampersand. Use `UPPER('&job_title')` so that the user does not have to enter the job title in uppercase.

Specifying Column Names, Expressions, and Text

Use substitution variables to supplement the following:

- **`WHERE` conditions**
- **`ORDER BY` clauses**
- **Column expressions**
- **Table names**
- **Entire `SELECT` statements**

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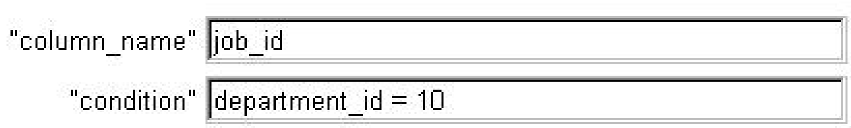
Specifying Column Names, Expressions, and Text

Not only can you use the substitution variables in the `WHERE` clause of a SQL statement, but these variables can also be used to substitute for column names, expressions, or text.

Example

Display the employee number and any other column and any condition of employees.

```
SELECT   employee_id, &column_name
FROM     employees
WHERE    &condition;
```



EMPLOYEE_ID	JOB_ID
200	AD_ASST

If you do not enter a value for the substitution variable, you will get an error when you execute the preceding statement.

Note: A substitution variable can be used anywhere in the `SELECT` statement, except as the first word entered at the command prompt.

Specifying Column Names, Expressions, and Text

```
SELECT      employee_id, last_name, job_id,
            &column_name
FROM        employees
WHERE       &condition
ORDER BY    &order_column;
```

"column_name" salary
"condition" salary > 15000
"order_column" last_name

EMPLOYEE_ID	LAST_NAME	JOB_ID	SALARY
102	De Haan	AD_VP	17000
100	King	AD_PRES	24000
101	Kochhar	AD_VP	17000

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Specifying Column Names, Expressions, and Text (continued)

The slide example displays the employee number, name, job title, and any other column specified by the user at run time, from the EMPLOYEES table. You can also specify the condition for retrieval of rows and the column name by which the resultant data has to be ordered.

Defining Substitution Variables

- **You can predefine variables using the *i*SQL*Plus `DEFINE` command.**

  `DEFINE` *`variable`* `=` *`value`* creates a user variable with the CHAR data type.
- **If you need to predefine a variable that includes spaces, you must enclose the value within single quotation marks when using the `DEFINE` command.**
- **A defined variable is available for the session**

7-10

Defining Substitution Variables

You can predefine user variables before executing a `SELECT` statement. *i*SQL*Plus provides the `DEFINE` command for defining and setting substitution variables:

Command	**Description**
`DEFINE` *`variable`* `=` *`value`*	Creates a user variable with the `CHAR` data and assigns a value to it
`DEFINE` *`variable`*	Displays the variable, its value, and its data type
`DEFINE`	Displays all user variables with their values and data types

DEFINE and UNDEFINE Commands

- **A variable remains defined until you either:**
  - **Use the UNDEFINE command to clear it**
  - **Exit *i*SQL*Plus**
- **You can verify your changes with the DEFINE command.**

```
DEFINE job_title = IT_PROG
DEFINE job_title
DEFINE JOB_TITLE       = "IT_PROG" (CHAR)
```

```
UNDEFINE job_title
DEFINE job_title
SP2-0135: symbol job_title is UNDEFINED
```

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The DEFINE and UNDEFINE Commands

Variables are defined until you either:

- Issue the UNDEFINE command on a variable
- Exit *i*SQL*Plus

When you undefine variables, you can verify your changes with the DEFINE command. When you exit *i*SQL*Plus, variables defined during that session are lost.

Using the DEFINE Command with & Substitution Variable

- **Create the substitution variable using the DEFINE command.**

```
DEFINE employee_num = 200
```

- **Use a variable prefixed with an ampersand (&) to substitute the value in the SQL statement.**

```
SELECT employee_id, last_name, salary, department_id
FROM   employees
WHERE  employee_id = &employee_num;
```

EMPLOYEE_ID	LAST_NAME	SALARY	DEPARTMENT_ID
200	Whalen	4400	10

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Using the DEFINE Command

The example on the slide creates an *i*SQL*Plus substitution variable for an employee number by using the DEFINE command, and at run time displays the employee number, name, salary, and department number for that employee.

Because the variable is created using the *i*SQL*Plus DEFINE command, the user is not prompted to enter a value for the employee number. Instead, the defined variable value is automatically substituted in the SELECT statement.

The EMPLOYEE_NUM substitution variable is present in the session until the user undefines it or exits the *i*SQL*Plus session.

Using the && Substitution Variable

Use the double-ampersand (&&) if you want to reuse the variable value without prompting the user each time.

```
SELECT   employee_id, last_name, job_id, &&column_name
FROM     employees
ORDER BY &column_name;
```

"column_name" department_id

EMPLOYEE_ID	LAST_NAME	JOB_ID	DEPARTMENT_ID
200	Whalen	AD_ASST	10
201	Hartstein	MK_MAN	20
202	Fay	MK_REP	20
114	Raphealy	AC_MGR	30
124	Mourgos	ST_MAN	50
141	Rajs	ST_CLERK	

Double-Ampersand Substitution Variable

You can use the double-ampersand (&&) substitution variable if you want to reuse the variable value without prompting the user each time. The user will see the prompt for the value only once. In the example on the slide, the user is asked to give the value for variable *column_name* only once. The value supplied by the user (department_id) is used both for display and ordering of data.

*i*SQL*Plus stores the value supplied by using the `DEFINE` command; it will use it again whenever you reference the variable name. Once a user variable is in place, you need to use the `UNDEFINE` command to delete it.

Using the VERIFY Command

Use the VERIFY command to toggle the display of the substitution variable, before and after *i*SQL*Plus replaces substitution variables with values.

```
SET VERIFY ON
SELECT employee_id, last_name, salary, department_id
FROM   employees
WHERE  employee_id = &employee_num;
```


```
old   3: WHERE  employee_id = &employee_num
new   3: WHERE  employee_id = 200
```

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The VERIFY Command

To confirm the changes in the SQL statement, use the *i*SQL*Plus VERIFY command. Setting SET VERIFY ON forces *i*SQL*Plus to display the text of a command before and after it replaces substitution variables with values.

The example on the slide displays the old as well as the new value of the EMPLOYEE_ID column.

Customizing the *i*SQL*Plus Environment

- **Use SET commands to control current session.**

```
SET system_variable value
```

- **Verify what you have set by using the SHOW command.**

```
SET ECHO ON
```

```
SHOW ECHO
echo ON
```


Customizing the *i*SQL*Plus Environment

You can control the environment in which *i*SQL*Plus is currently operating by using the `SET` commands.

Syntax

```
SET system_variable value
```

In the syntax:

system_variable	is a variable that controls one aspect of the session environment
value	is a value for the system variable

You can verify what you have set by using the `SHOW` command. The `SHOW` command on the slide checks whether `ECHO` had been set on or off.

To see all `SET` variable values, use the `SHOW ALL` command.

For more information, see *iSQL*Plus User's Guide and Reference*, "Command Reference."

SET Command Variables

- **ARRAYSIZE {20 | *n*}**
- **FEEDBACK {6 | *n* |OFF | ON}**
- **HEADING {OFF | ON}**
- **LONG {80 | *n*}| ON | *text*}**

```
SET HEADING OFF
```

```
SHOW HEADING
HEADING OFF
```


SET Command Variables

SET Variable and Values	Description
ARRAY[SIZE] {20| *n*}	Sets the database data fetch size
FEED[BACK] {6|*n*|OFF|ON}	Displays the number of records returned by a query when the query selects at least *n* records
HEA[DING] {OFF|ON}	Determines whether column headings are displayed in reports
LONG {80|*n*}	Sets the maximum width for displaying LONG values

Note: The value *n* represents a numeric value. The underlined values indicate default values. If you enter no value with the variable, *i*SQL*Plus assumes the default value.

*i*SQL*Plus Format Commands

- **COLUMN [*column option*]**
- **TTITLE [*text* | OFF | ON]**
- **BTITLE [*text* | OFF | ON]**
- **BREAK [ON *report_element*]**

Obtaining More Readable Reports

You can control the report features by using the following commands:

Command	Description
`COL[UMN][`*`column option`*`]`	Controls column formats
`TTI[TLE] [`*`text`*`|OFF|ON]`	Specifies a header to appear at the top of each page of the report
`BTI[TLE] [`*`text`*`|OFF|ON]`	Specifies a footer to appear at the bottom of each page of the report
`BRE[AK] [ON `*`report_element`*`]`	Suppresses duplicate values and divides rows of data into sections by using line breaks

Guidelines

- All format commands remain in effect until the end of the *i*SQL*Plus session or until the format setting is overwritten or cleared.
- Remember to reset your *i*SQL*Plus settings to the default values after every report.
- There is no command for setting an *i*SQL*Plus variable to its default value; you must know the specific value or log out and log in again.
- If you give an alias to your column, you must reference the alias name, not the column name.

The COLUMN Command

Controls display of a column:

```
COL[UMN] [{column|alias} [option]]
```

- **CLE[AR]: Clears any column formats**
- **HEA[DING] *text*: Sets the column heading**
- **FOR[MAT] *format*: Changes the display of the column using a format model**
- **NOPRINT | PRINT**
- **NULL**

COLUMN Command Options

Option	Description
CLE[AR]	Clears any column formats
HEA[DING] *text*	Sets the column heading (a vertical line (|) forces a line feed in the heading if you do not use justification.)
FOR[MAT] *format*	Changes the display of the column data
NOPRI[NT]	Hides the column
NUL[L] *text*	Specifies text to be displayed for null values
PRI[NT]	Shows the column

Using the COLUMN Command

- **Create column headings.**

```
COLUMN last_name HEADING 'Employee|Name'
COLUMN salary JUSTIFY LEFT FORMAT $99,990.00
COLUMN manager FORMAT 999999999 NULL 'No manager'
```

- **Display the current setting for the LAST_NAME column.**

```
COLUMN last_name
```

- **Clear settings for the LAST_NAME column.**

```
COLUMN last_name CLEAR
```

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Displaying or Clearing Settings

To show or clear the current `COLUMN` command settings, use the following commands:

Command	Description
`COL[UMN]` *`column`*	Displays the current settings for the specified column
`COL[UMN]`	Displays the current settings for all columns
`COL[UMN] column CLE[AR]`	Clears the settings for the specified column
`CLE[AR] COL[UMN]`	Clears the settings for all columns

COLUMN Format Models

Element	Description	Example	Result
9	Single zero-suppression digit	999999	1234
0	Enforces leading zero	099999	001234
$	Floating dollar sign	$9999	$1234
L	Local currency	L9999	L1234
.	Position of decimal point	9999.99	1234.00
,	Thousand separator	9,999	1,234

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COLUMN Format Models

The slide displays sample COLUMN format models.

The Oracle server displays a string of pound signs (#) in place of a whole number whose digits exceed the number of digits provided in the format model. It also displays pound signs in place of a value whose format model is alphanumeric but whose actual value is numeric.

Using the BREAK Command

Use the BREAK command to suppress duplicates.

```
BREAK ON job_id
```


The BREAK Command

Use the BREAK command to divide rows into sections and suppress duplicate values. To ensure that the BREAK command works effectively, use the ORDER BY clause to order the columns that you are breaking on.

Syntax

```
BREAK on column[|alias|row]
```

In the syntax:

column[|alias|row	suppresses the display of duplicate values for a given column

Clear all BREAK settings by using the CLEAR command:

```
CLEAR BREAK
```

Using the TTITLE and BTITLE Commands

- Display headers and footers.

```
TTI[TLE] [text|OFF|ON]
```

- Set the report header.

```
TTITLE 'Salary|Report'
```

- Set the report footer.

```
BTITLE 'Confidential'
```

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The TTITLE and BTITLE Commands

Use the TTITLE command to format page headers and the BTITLE command for footers. Footers appear at the bottom of the page.

The syntax for BTITLE and TTITLE is identical. Only the syntax for TTITLE is shown. You can use the vertical bar (|) to split the text of the title across several lines.

Syntax

```
TTI[TLE]|BTI[TLE] [text|OFF|ON]
```

In the syntax:

text	represents the title text (enter single quotes if the text is more than one word).
OFF|ON	toggles the title either off or on. It is not visible when turned off.

The TTITLE example on the slide sets the report header to display Salary centered on one line and Report centered below it. The BTITLE example sets the report footer to display Confidential. TTITLE automatically puts the date and a page number on the report.

Note: The slide gives an abridged syntax for TTITLE and BTITLE. Various options for TTITLE and BTITLE are covered in another SQL course.

Creating a Script File to Run a Report

1. **Create and test the SQL `SELECT` statement.**
2. **Save the `SELECT` statement into a script file.**
3. **Load the script file into an editor.**
4. **Add formatting commands before the `SELECT` statement.**
5. **Verify that the termination character follows the `SELECT` statement.**

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Creating a Script File to Run a Report

You can either enter each of the *i*SQL*Plus commands at the SQL prompt or put all the commands, including the `SELECT` statement, in a command (or script) file. A typical script consists of at least one `SELECT` statement and several *i*SQL*Plus commands.

How to Create a Script File

1. Create the SQL `SELECT` statement at the SQL prompt. Ensure that the data required for the report is accurate before you save the statement to a file and apply formatting commands. Ensure that the relevant `ORDER BY` clause is included if you intend to use breaks.
2. Save the `SELECT` statement to a script file.
3. Edit the script file to enter the *i*SQL*Plus commands.
4. Add the required formatting commands before the `SELECT` statement. Be certain not to place *i*SQL*Plus commands within the `SELECT` statement.
5. Verify that the `SELECT` statement is followed by a run character, either a semicolon (`;`) or a slash (`/`).

Creating a Script File to Run a Report

6. **Clear formatting commands after the `SELECT` statement.**
7. **Save the script file.**
8. **Load the script file into the *i*SQL*Plus text window, and click the Execute button.**

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How to Create a Script File (continued)

6. Add the format-clearing *i*SQL*Plus commands after the run character. Alternatively, you can store all the format-clearing commands in a reset file.
7. Save the script file with your changes.
8. Load the script file into the *i*SQL*Plus text window, and click the Execute button.

Guidelines

- You can include blank lines between *i*SQL*Plus commands in a script.
- If you have a lengthy *i*SQL*Plus or SQL*Plus command, you can continue it on the next line by ending the current line with a hyphen (`-`).
- You can abbreviate *i*SQL*Plus commands.
- Include reset commands at the end of the file to restore the original *i*SQL*Plus environment.

Note: `REM` represents a remark or comment in *i*SQL*Plus.

Sample Report

Sat Mar 10 Employee Report page 1

Job Category	Employee	Salary
AC_ACCOUNT	Gietz	$8,300.00
AC_MGR	Higgins	$12,000.00
AD_ASST	Whalen	$4,400.00
IT_PROG	Ernst	$6,000.00
	Hunold	$9,000.00
	Lorentz	$4,200.00
MK_MAN	Hartstein	$13,000.00
MK_REP	Fay	$6,000.00
SA_MAN	Zlotkey	$10,500.00
SA_REP	Abel	$11,000.00
	Grant	$7,000.00
	Taylor	$8,600.00

Confidential

Example

Create a script file to create a report that displays the job ID, last name, and salary for every employee whose salary is less than $15,000. Add a centered, two-line header that reads "`Employee Report`" and a centered footer that reads "`Confidential.`" Rename the job title column to read "`Job Category`" split over two lines. Rename the employee name column to read "`Employee.`" Rename the salary column to read "`Salary`" and format it as $2,500.00.

```
SET FEEDBACK OFF
TTITLE 'Employee|Report'
BTITLE 'Confidential'
BREAK ON job_id
COLUMN job_id   HEADING 'Job|Category'
COLUMN last_name HEADING 'Employee'
COLUMN salary   HEADING 'Salary' FORMAT $99,999.99
REM ** Insert SELECT statement
SELECT job_id, last_name, salary
FROM       employees
WHERE      salary < 15000
ORDER BY   job_id, last_name
/
REM clear all formatting commands ...
SET FEEDBACK ON
COLUMN job_id CLEAR
COLUMN last_name CLEAR
COLUMN salary CLEAR
CLEAR BREAK
```

Summary

In this lesson, you should have learned how to:

- Use *i*SQL*Plus substitution variables to store values temporarily
- Use SET commands to control the current *i*SQL*Plus environment
- Use the COLUMN command to control the display of a column
- Use the BREAK command to suppress duplicates and divide rows into sections
- Use the TTITLE and BTITLE commands to display headers and footers

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Summary

In this lesson, you should have learned about substitution variables and how useful they are for running reports. They give you the flexibility to replace values in a WHERE clause, column names, and expressions.

You can customize reports by writing script files with:

- Single ampersand substitution variables
- Double ampersand substitution variables
- The DEFINE command
- The UNDEFINE command
- Substitution variables in the command line

You can create a more readable report by using the following commands:

- COLUMN
- TTITLE
- BTITLE
- BREAK

Practice 7 Overview

This practice covers the following topics:

- Creating a query to display values using substitution variables
- Starting a command file containing variables

Practice 7 Overview

This practice gives you the opportunity to create files that can be run interactively by using substitution variables to create run-time selection criteria.

Practice 7

Determine whether the following two statements are true or false:

1. The following statement is valid:

```
DEFINE & p_val = 100
```

   True/False

2. The `DEFINE` command is a SQL command.
   True/False

3. Write a script file to display the last names, job IDs, and hire dates for all employees who started within a given range of dates. Concatenate the name and job together, separated by a space and comma, and label the column `Employees`. Use the `DEFINE` command to provide the two ranges. Use the format `MM/DD/YYYY`. Save the script file as `lab7_3.sql`.

```
DEFINE low_date = 01/01/1998
DEFINE high_date = 01/01/1999
```

EMPLOYEES	HIRE_DATE
Matos, ST_CLERK	15-MAR-98
Vargas, ST_CLERK	09-JUL-98
Taylor, SA_REP	24-MAR-98

4. Write a script to display the last names, job IDs, and department names for every employee in a given location. The search condition should allow for case-insensitive searches of the department location. Save the script file as `lab7_4.sql`.

EMPLOYEE NAME	JOB_ID	DEPARTMENT NAME
Whalen	AD_ASST	Administration
King	AD_PRES	Executive
Kochhar	AD_VP	Executive
De Haan	AD_VP	Executive
Higgins	AC_MGR	Accounting
Gietz	AC_ACCOUNT	Accounting

6 rows selected.

Practice 7 (continued)

5. Modify the code in `lab7_4.sql` to create a report containing the department name, employee last name, hire date, salary, and annual salary for each employee in a given location. Label the columns `DEPARTMENT NAME`, `EMPLOYEE NAME`, `START DATE`, `SALARY`, and `ANNUAL SALARY`, placing the labels on multiple lines. Resave the script as `lab7_5.sql`, and execute the commands in the script.

DEPARTMENT NAME	EMPLOYEE NAME	START DATE	SALARY	ANNUAL SALARY
Accounting	Higgins	07-JUN-94	$12,000.00	$144,000.00
	Gietz	07-JUN-94	$8,300.00	$99,600.00
Administration	Whalen	17-SEP-87	$4,400.00	$52,800.00
Executive	King	17-JUN-87	$24,000.00	$288,000.00
	Kochhar	21-SEP-89	$17,000.00	$204,000.00
	De Haan	13-JAN-93	$17,000.00	$204,000.00

8

Manipulating Data

Objectives

After completing this lesson, you should be able to do the following:

- **Describe each DML statement**
- **Insert rows into a table**
- **Update rows in a table**
- **Delete rows from a table**
- **Merge rows in a table**
- **Control transactions**

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8-2

Lesson Aim

In this lesson, you learn how to insert rows into a table, update existing rows in a table, and delete existing rows from a table. You also learn how to control transactions with the `COMMIT`, `SAVEPOINT`, and `ROLLBACK` statements.

Data Manipulation Language

- **A DML statement is executed when you:**
  - **Add new rows to a table**
  - **Modify existing rows in a table**
  - **Remove existing rows from a table**
- **A *transaction* consists of a collection of DML statements that form a logical unit of work.**

8-3

Data Manipulation Language

Data manipulation language (DML) is a core part of SQL. When you want to add, update, or delete data in the database, you execute a DML statement. A collection of DML statements that form a logical unit of work is called a transaction.

Consider a banking database. When a bank customer transfers money from a savings account to a checking account, the transaction might consist of three separate operations: decrease the savings account, increase the checking account, and record the transaction in the transaction journal. The Oracle server must guarantee that all three SQL statements are performed to maintain the accounts in proper balance. When something prevents one of the statements in the transaction from executing, the other statements of the transaction must be undone.

Adding a New Row to a Table

70	Public Relations	100	1700

New row

DEPARTMENTS

DEPARTMENT_ID	DEPARTMENT_NAME	MANAGER_ID	LOCATION_ID
10	Administration	200	1700
20	Marketing	201	1800
50	Shipping	124	1500
60	IT	103	1400
80	Sales	149	2500
90	Executive	100	1700
110	Accounting	205	1700
190	Contracting		1700

…insert a new row into the DEPARMENTS table…

DEPARTMENT_ID	DEPARTMENT_NAME	MANAGER_ID	LOCATION_ID
10	Administration	200	1700
20	Marketing	201	1800
50	Shipping	124	1500
60	IT	103	1400
80	Sales	149	2500
90	Executive	100	1700
110	Accounting	205	1700
190	Contracting		1700
70	Public Relations	100	1700

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Adding a New Row to a Table

The slide graphic illustrates adding a new department to the DEPARTMENTS table.

The INSERT Statement Syntax

- **Add new rows to a table by using the `INSERT` statement.**

```
INSERT INTO  table [(column [, column...])]
VALUES       (value [, value...]);
```

- **Only one row is inserted at a time with this syntax.**

Adding a New Row to a Table (continued)

You can add new rows to a table by issuing the `INSERT` statement.

In the syntax:

table	is the name of the table
column	is the name of the column in the table to populate
value	is the corresponding value for the column

Note: This statement with the `VALUES` clause adds only one row at a time to a table.

Inserting New Rows

- Insert a new row containing values for each column.
- List values in the default order of the columns in the table.
- Optionally, list the columns in the `INSERT` clause.

```
INSERT INTO departments(department_id, department_name,
                        manager_id, location_id)
VALUES      (70, 'Public Relations', 100, 1700);
1 row created.
```

- Enclose character and date values within single quotation marks.

Adding a New Row to a Table (continued)

Because you can insert a new row that contains values for each column, the column list is not required in the `INSERT` clause. However, if you do not use the column list, the values must be listed according to the default order of the columns in the table, and a value must be provided for each column.

```
DESCRIBE  departments
```

Name	Null?	Type
DEPARTMENT_ID	NOT NULL	NUMBER(4)
DEPARTMENT_NAME	NOT NULL	VARCHAR2(30)
MANAGER_ID		NUMBER(6)
LOCATION_ID		NUMBER(4)

For clarity, use the column list in the `INSERT` clause.

Enclose character and date values within single quotation marks; it is not recommended to enclose numeric values within single quotation marks.

Number values should not be enclosed in single quotes, because implicit conversion may take place for numeric values assigned to `NUMBER` data type columns if single quotes are included.

Inserting Rows with Null Values

- **Implicit method: Omit the column from the column list.**

```
INSERT INTO   departments (department_id,
                           department_name    )
VALUES        (30, 'Purchasing');
1 row created.
```

- **Explicit method: Specify the `NULL` keyword in the `VALUES` clause.**

```
INSERT INTO   departments
VALUES        (100, 'Finance', NULL, NULL);
1 row created.
```


Methods for Inserting Null Values

Method	Description
Implicit	Omit the column from the column list.
Explicit	Specify the `NULL` keyword in the `VALUES` list, specify the empty string (`''`) in the `VALUES` list for character strings and dates.

Be sure that you can use null values in the targeted column by verifying the `Null?` status with the *i*SQL*Plus `DESCRIBE` command.

The Oracle Server automatically enforces all data types, data ranges, and data integrity constraints. Any column that is not listed explicitly obtains a null value in the new row.

Common errors that can occur during user input:

- Mandatory value missing for a `NOT NULL` column
- Duplicate value violates uniqueness constraint
- Foreign key constraint violated
- `CHECK` constraint violated
- Data type mismatch
- Value too wide to fit in column

Inserting Special Values

The SYSDATE function records the current date and time.

```
INSERT INTO employees (employee_id,
                 first_name, last_name,
                 email, phone_number,
                 hire_date, job_id, salary,
                 commission_pct, manager_id,
                 department_id)
VALUES          (113,
                 'Louis', 'Popp',
                 'LPOPP', '515.124.4567',
                 SYSDATE, 'AC_ACCOUNT', 6900,
                 NULL, 205, 100);
1 row created.
```

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Inserting Special Values by Using SQL Functions

You can use functions to enter special values in your table.

The slide example records information for employee Popp in the EMPLOYEES table. It supplies the current date and time in the HIRE_DATE column. It uses the SYSDATE function for current date and time.

You can also use the USER function when inserting rows in a table. The USER function records the current username.

Confirming Additions to the Table

```
SELECT employee_id, last_name, job_id, hire_date, commission_pct
FROM   employees
WHERE  employee_id = 113;
```

EMPLOYEE_ID	LAST_NAME	JOB_ID	HIRE_DATE	COMMISSION_PCT
113	Popp	AC_ACCOUNT	12-MAR-01	

Inserting Specific Date Values

- **Add a new employee.**

```
INSERT INTO employees
VALUES      (114,
             'Den', 'Raphealy',
             'DRAPHEAL', '515.127.4561',
             TO_DATE('FEB 3, 1999', 'MON DD, YYYY'),
             'AC_ACCOUNT', 11000, NULL, 100, 30);
1 row created.
```

- **Verify your addition.**

EMPLOYEE_ID	FIRST_NAME	LAST_NAME	EMAIL	PHONE_NUMBER	HIRE_DATE	JOB_ID	SALARY	COMMISSION
114	Den	Raphealy	DRAPHEAL	515.127.4561	03-FEB-99	AC_ACCOUNT	11000	

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Inserting Specific Date and Time Values

The `DD-MON-YY` format is usually used to insert a date value. With this format, recall that the century defaults to the current century. Because the date also contains time information, the default time is midnight (00:00:00).

If a date must be entered in a format other than the default format, for example, with another century, or a specific time, you must use the `TO_DATE` function.

The example on the slide records information for employee Raphealy in the `EMPLOYEES` table. It sets the `HIRE_DATE` column to be February 3, 1999. If you use the following statement instead of the one shown on the slide, the year of the hire_date is interpreted as 2099.

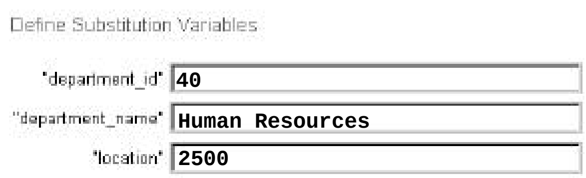
```
INSERT INTO employees
VALUES      (114,
             'Den', 'Raphealy',
             'DRAPHEAL', '515.127.4561',
             '03-FEB-99',
             'AC_ACCOUNT', 11000, NULL, 100, 30);
```

If the `RR` format is used, the system provides the correct century automatically, even if it is not the current one.

Creating a Script

- Use & substitution in a SQL statement to prompt for values.
- & is a placeholder for the variable value.

```
INSERT INTO departments
            (department_id, department_name, location_id)
VALUES      (&department_id, '&department_name',&location);
```




```
1 row created.
```


Creating a Script to Manipulate Data

You can save commands with substitution variables to a file and execute the commands in the file. The example above records information for a department in the `DEPARTMENTS` table.

Run the script file and you are prompted for input for the & substitution variables. The values you input are then substituted into the statement. This allows you to run the same script file over and over, but supply a different set of values each time you run it.

Copying Rows from Another Table

- **Write your `INSERT` statement with a subquery.**

```
INSERT INTO sales_reps(id, name, salary, commission_pct)
  SELECT employee_id, last_name, salary, commission_pct
  FROM   employees
  WHERE  job_id LIKE '%REP%';
4 rows created.
```

- **Do not use the `VALUES` clause.**
- **Match the number of columns in the `INSERT` clause to those in the subquery.**

Copying Rows from Another Table

You can use the `INSERT` statement to add rows to a table where the values are derived from existing tables. In place of the `VALUES` clause, you use a subquery.

Syntax

```
INSERT INTO table [ column (, column) ] subquery;
```

In the syntax:

table	is the table name
column	is the name of the column in the table to populate
subquery	is the subquery that returns rows into the table

The number of columns and their data types in the column list of the `INSERT` clause must match the number of values and their data types in the subquery. To create a copy of the rows of a table, use `SELECT *` in the subquery.

```
INSERT INTO copy_emp
  SELECT *
  FROM employees;
```

For more information, see *Oracle9i SQL Reference*, "`SELECT`," subqueries section.

Changing Data in a Table

EMPLOYEES

EMPLOYEE_ID	FIRST_NAME	LAST_NAME	EMAIL	HIRE_DATE	JOB_ID	SALARY	DEPARTMENT_ID	COMMI
100	Steven	King	SKING	17-JUN-87	AD_PRES	24000	90	
101	Neena	Kochhar	NKOCHHAR	21-SEP-89	AD_VP	17000	90	
102	Lex	De Haan	LDEHAAN	13-JAN-93	AD_VP	17000	90	
103	Alexander	Hunold	AHUNOLD	03-JAN-90	IT_PROG	9000	60	
104	Bruce	Ernst	BERNST	21-MAY-91	IT_PROG	6000	60	
107	Diana	Lorentz	DLORENTZ	07-FEB-99	IT_PROG	4200	60	
124	Kevin	Mourgos	KMOURGOS	16-NOV-99	ST_MAN	5800	50	

Update rows in the `EMPLOYEES` table.

EMPLOYEE_ID	FIRST_NAME	LAST_NAME	EMAIL	HIRE_DATE	JOB_ID	SALARY	DEPARTMENT_ID	COMM
100	Steven	King	SKING	17-JUN-87	AD_PRES	24000	90	
101	Neena	Kochhar	NKOCHHAR	21-SEP-89	AD_VP	17000	90	
102	Lex	De Haan	LDEHAAN	13-JAN-93	AD_VP	17000	90	
103	Alexander	Hunold	AHUNOLD	03-JAN-90	IT_PROG	9000	**30**	
104	Bruce	Ernst	BERNST	21-MAY-91	IT_PROG	6000	**30**	
107	Diana	Lorentz	DLORENTZ	07-FEB-99	IT_PROG	4200	**30**	
124	Kevin	Mourgos	KMOURGOS	16-NOV-99	ST_MAN	5800	50	

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Changing Data in a Table

The slide graphic illustrates changing the department number for employees in department 60 to department 30.

The UPDATE Statement Syntax

- **Modify existing rows with the UPDATE statement.**

```
UPDATE      table
SET         column = value [, column = value, ...]
[WHERE      condition];
```

- **Update more than one row at a time, if required.**

Updating Rows

You can modify existing rows by using the UPDATE statement.

In the syntax:

table	is the name of the table
column	is the name of the column in the table to populate
value	is the corresponding value or subquery for the column
condition	identifies the rows to be updated and is composed of column names expressions, constants, subqueries, and comparison operators

Confirm the update operation by querying the table to display the updated rows.

For more information, see *Oracle9i SQL Reference*, "UPDATE."

Note: In general, use the primary key to identify a single row. Using other columns can unexpectedly cause several rows to be updated. For example, identifying a single row in the EMPLOYEES table by name is dangerous, because more than one employee may have the same name.

Updating Rows in a Table

- Specific row or rows are modified if you specify the WHERE clause.

```
UPDATE employees
SET    department_id = 70
WHERE  employee_id = 113;
1 row updated.
```

- All rows in the table are modified if you omit the WHERE clause.

```
UPDATE   copy_emp
SET      department_id = 110;
22 rows updated.
```

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Updating Rows (continued)

The `UPDATE` statement modifies specific rows if the `WHERE` clause is specified. The slide example transfers employee 113 (Popp) to department 70.

If you omit the `WHERE` clause, all the rows in the table are modified.

```
SELECT last_name, department_id
FROM   copy_emp;
```

LAST_NAME	DEPARTMENT_ID
King	110
Kochhar	110
De Haan	110
Hunold	110
Ernst	110
Lorentz	110
Mourgos	110
Gietz	10

22 rows selected.

Note: The `COPY_EMP` table has the same data as the `EMPLOYEES` table.

Updating Two Columns with a Subquery

Update employee 114's job and salary to match that of employee 205.

```
UPDATE   employees
SET      job_id  = (SELECT  job_id
                    FROM    employees
                    WHERE   employee_id = 205),
         salary  = (SELECT  salary
                    FROM    employees
                    WHERE   employee_id = 205)
WHERE    employee_id    =  114;
1 row updated.
```

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Updating Two Columns with a Subquery

You can update multiple columns in the SET clause of an UPDATE statement by writing multiple subqueries.

Syntax

```
UPDATE table
SET     column  =
                (SELECT column
                 FROM table
                 WHERE condition)
       [ ,
        column  =
                (SELECT column
                 FROM table
                 WHERE condition)]
[WHERE  condition ]     ;
```

Note: If no rows are updated, a message "0 rows updated." is returned.

Updating Rows Based on Another Table

Use subqueries in `UPDATE` statements to update rows in a table based on values from another table.

```
UPDATE  copy_emp
SET     department_id  =  (SELECT department_id
                           FROM employees
                           WHERE employee_id = 100)
WHERE   job_id         =  (SELECT job_id
                           FROM employees
                           WHERE employee_id = 200);
1 row updated.
```


Updating Rows Based on Another Table

You can use subqueries in `UPDATE` statements to update rows in a table. The example on the slide updates the `COPY_EMP` table based on the values from the `EMPLOYEES` table. It changes the department number of all employees with employee 200's job ID to employee 100's current department number.

Updating Rows: Integrity Constraint Error

```
UPDATE employees
SET    department_id = 55
WHERE  department_id = 110;
```

Department number 55 does not exist

```
UPDATE employees
       *
ERROR at line 1:
ORA-02291: integrity constraint (HR.EMP_DEPT_FK)
violated - parent key not found
```

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Integrity Constraint Error

If you attempt to update a record with a value that is tied to an integrity constraint, an error is returned.

In the example on the slide, department number 55 does not exist in the parent table, `DEPARTMENTS`, and so you receive the *parent key* violation `ORA-02291`.

Note: Integrity constraints ensure that the data adheres to a predefined set of rules. A subsequent lesson covers integrity constraints in greater depth.

Removing a Row from a Table

DEPARTMENTS

DEPARTMENT_ID	DEPARTMENT_NAME	MANAGER_ID	LOCATION_ID
10	Administration	200	1700
20	Marketing	201	1800
70	Public Relations	100	1700
30	Purchasing		
50	Shipping	124	1500
60	IT	103	1400
100	Finance		
80	Sales	149	2500

Delete a row from the `DEPARTMENTS` table.

DEPARTMENT_ID	DEPARTMENT_NAME	MANAGER_ID	LOCATION_ID
10	Administration	200	1700
20	Marketing	201	1800
70	Public Relations	100	1700
30	Purchasing		
50	Shipping	124	1500
60	IT	103	1400
80	Sales	149	2500

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Removing a Row from a Table

The slide graphic removes the Finance department from the `DEPARTMENTS` table (assuming that there are no constraints defined on the `DEPARTMENTS` table).

The DELETE Statement

You can remove existing rows from a table by using the DELETE statement.

```
DELETE [FROM]   table
[WHERE          condition];
```


Deleting Rows

You can remove existing rows by using the `DELETE` statement.

In the syntax:

table	is the table name
condition	identifies the rows to be deleted and is composed of column names, expressions, constants, subqueries, and comparison operators

Note: If no rows are deleted, a message "`0 rows deleted`." is returned:

For more information, see *Oracle9i SQL Reference*, "`DELETE`."

Deleting Rows from a Table

- **Specific rows are deleted if you specify the `WHERE` clause.**

```
 DELETE FROM departments
 WHERE  department_name = 'Finance';
1 row deleted.
```

- **All rows in the table are deleted if you omit the `WHERE` clause.**

```
DELETE FROM  copy_emp;
22 rows deleted.
```

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Deleting Rows (continued)

You can delete specific rows by specifying the `WHERE` clause in the `DELETE` statement. The slide example deletes the Finance department from the `DEPARTMENTS` table. You can confirm the delete operation by displaying the deleted rows using the `SELECT` statement.

```
SELECT  *
FROM    departments
WHERE   department_name = 'Finance';

no rows selected.
```

If you omit the `WHERE` clause, all rows in the table are deleted. The second example on the slide deletes all the rows from the `COPY_EMP` table, because no `WHERE` clause has been specified.

Example

Remove rows identified in the `WHERE` clause.

```
DELETE FROM  employees
WHERE        employee_id = 114;

1 row deleted.

DELETE FROM  departments
WHERE        department_id IN (30, 40);

2 rows deleted.
```

Deleting Rows Based on Another Table

Use subqueries in `DELETE` statements to remove rows from a table based on values from another table.

```
DELETE FROM employees
WHERE  department_id =
                       (SELECT department_id
                        FROM   departments
                        WHERE  department_name LIKE '%Public%');
1 row deleted.
```


Deleting Rows Based on Another Table

You can use subqueries to delete rows from a table based on values from another table. The example on the slide deletes all the employees who are in a department where the department name contains the string "Public". The subquery searches the `DEPARTMENTS` table to find the department number based on the department name containing the string "Public". The subquery then feeds the department number to the main query, which deletes rows of data from the `EMPLOYEES` table based on this department number.

Deleting Rows: Integrity Constraint Error

```
DELETE FROM departments
WHERE       department_id = 60;
```

```
DELETE FROM departments
            *
ERROR at line 1:
ORA-02292: integrity constraint (HR.EMP_DEPT_FK)
violated - child record found
```

You cannot delete a row that contains a primary key that is used as a foreign key in another table.

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Integrity Constraint Error

If you attempt to delete a record with a value that is tied to an integrity constraint, an error is returned.

The example on the slide tries to delete department number 60 from the DEPARTMENTS table, but it results in an error because department number is used as a foreign key in the EMPLOYEES table. If the parent record that you attempt to delete has child records, then you receive the *child record found* violation ORA-02292.

The following statement works because there are no employees in department 70:

```
DELETE FROM  departments
WHERE        department_id = 70;

1 row deleted.
```

Using a Subquery in an INSERT Statement

```
INSERT INTO
        (SELECT employee_id, last_name,
                email, hire_date, job_id, salary,
                department_id
         FROM   employees
         WHERE  department_id = 50)
VALUES (99999, 'Taylor', 'DTAYLOR',
        TO_DATE('07-JUN-99', 'DD-MON-RR'),
        'ST_CLERK', 5000, 50);

1 row created.
```


Using a Subquery in an INSERT Statement

You can use a subquery in place of the table name in the INTO clause of the INSERT statement.

The select list of this subquery must have the same number of columns as the column list of the VALUES clause. Any rules on the columns of the base table must be followed in order for the INSERT statement to work successfully. For example, you could not put in a duplicate employee ID, nor leave out a value for a mandatory not null column.

Using a Subquery in an INSERT Statement

```
SELECT employee_id, last_name, email, hire_date,
       job_id, salary, department_id
FROM   employees
WHERE  department_id = 50;
```

EMPLOYEE_ID	LAST_NAME	EMAIL	HIRE_DATE	JOB_ID	SALARY	DEPARTMENT_ID
124	Mourgos	KMOURGOS	16-NOV-99	ST_MAN	5800	50
141	Rajs	TRAJS	17-OCT-95	ST_CLERK	3500	50
142	Davies	CDAVIES	29-JAN-97	ST_CLERK	3100	50
143	Matos	RMATOS	15-MAR-98	ST_CLERK	2600	50
144	Vargas	PVARGAS	09-JUL-98	ST_CLERK	2500	50
99999	Taylor	DTAYLOR	07-JUN-99	ST_CLERK	5000	50

6 rows selected.

Using a Subquery in an INSERT Statement

The example shows the results of the subquery that was used to identify the table for the INSERT statement.

Using the WITH CHECK OPTION Keyword on DML Statements

- A subquery is used to identify the table and columns of the DML statement.
- The WITH CHECK OPTION keyword prohibits you from changing rows that are not in the subquery.

```
INSERT INTO  (SELECT employee_id, last_name, email,
                     hire_date, job_id, salary
              FROM   employees
              WHERE  department_id = 50 WITH CHECK OPTION)
VALUES (99998, 'Smith', 'JSMITH',
        TO_DATE('07-JUN-99', 'DD-MON-RR'),
        'ST_CLERK', 5000);
INSERT INTO
         *
ERROR at line 1:
ORA-01402: view WITH CHECK OPTION where-clause violation
```


The WITH CHECK OPTION Keyword

Specify WITH CHECK OPTION to indicate that, if the subquery is used in place of a table in an INSERT, UPDATE, or DELETE statement, no changes that would produce rows that are not included in the subquery are permitted to that table.

In the example shown, the WITH CHECK OPTION keyword is used. The subquery identifies rows that are in department 50, but the department ID is not in the SELECT list, and a value is not provided for it in the VALUES list. Inserting this row would result in a department ID of null, which is not in the subquery.

Overview of the Explict Default Feature

- With the explicit default feature, you can use the `DEFAULT` keyword as a column value where the column default is desired.
- The addition of this feature is for compliance with the SQL: 1999 Standard.
- This allows the user to control where and when the default value should be applied to data.
- Explicit defaults can be used in `INSERT` and `UPDATE` statements.

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Explicit Defaults

The `DEFAULT` keyword can be used in `INSERT` and `UPDATE` statements to identify a default column value. If no default value exists, a null value is used.

Using Explicit Default Values

- **DEFAULT with INSERT:**

```
INSERT INTO departments
  (department_id, department_name, manager_id)
VALUES (300, 'Engineering', DEFAULT);
```

- **DEFAULT with UPDATE:**

```
UPDATE departments
SET manager_id = DEFAULT WHERE department_id = 10;
```

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Using Explicit Default Values

Specify DEFAULT to set the column to the value previously specified as the default value for the column. If no default value for the corresponding column has been specified, Oracle sets the column to null.

In the first example shown, the INSERT statement uses a default value for the MANAGER_ID column. If there is no default value defined for the column, a null value is inserted instead.

The second example uses the UPDATE statement to set the MANAGER_ID column to a default value for department 10. If no default value is defined for the column, it changes the value to null.

Note: When creating a table, you can specify a default value for a column. This is discussed in the "Creating and Managing Tables" lesson.

The MERGE Statement

- **Provides the ability to conditionally update or insert data into a database table**
- **Performs an `UPDATE` if the row exists, and an `INSERT` if it is a new row:**
  - **Avoids separate updates**
  - **Increases performance and ease of use**
  - **Is useful in data warehousing applications**

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MERGE Statements

SQL has been extended to include the MERGE statement. Using this statement, you can update or insert a row conditionally into a table, thus avoiding multiple UPDATE statements. The decision whether to update or insert into the target table is based on a condition in the ON clause.

Since the MERGE command combines the INSERT and UPDATE commands, you need both INSERT and UPDATE privileges on the target table and the SELECT privilege on the source table.

The MERGE statement is deterministic. You cannot update the same row of the target table multiple times in the same MERGE statement.

An alternative approach is to use PL/SQL loops and multiple DML statements. The MERGE statement, however, is easy to use and more simply expressed as a single SQL statement.

The MERGE statement is suitable in a number of data warehousing applications. For example, in a data warehousing application, you may need to work with data coming from multiple sources, some of which may be duplicates. With the MERGE statement, you can conditionally add or modify rows.

The MERGE Statement Syntax

You can conditionally insert or update rows in a table by using the MERGE statement.

```
MERGE INTO table_name AS table_alias
  USING (table|view|sub_query) alias
  ON (join condition)
  WHEN MATCHED THEN
    UPDATE SET
    col1 = col_val1,
    col2 = col2_val
  WHEN NOT MATCHED THEN
    INSERT (column_list)
    VALUES (column_values);
```

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Merging Rows

You can update existing rows and insert new rows conditionally by using the MERGE statement.

In the syntax:

INTO clause	specifies the target table you are updating or inserting into
USING clause	identifies the source of the data to be updated or inserted; can be a table, view, or subquery
ON clause	the condition upon which the MERGE operation either updates or inserts
WHEN MATCHED | WHEN NOT MATCHED	instructs the server how to respond to the results of the join condition

For more information, see *Oracle9i SQL Reference*, "MERGE."

Merging Rows

Insert or update rows in the COPY_EMP table to match the EMPLOYEES table.

```
MERGE INTO copy_emp  c
  USING employees e
  ON (c.employee_id = e.employee_id)
WHEN MATCHED THEN
  UPDATE SET
     c.first_name     = e.first_name,
     c.last_name      = e.last_name,
     ...
     c.department_id  = e.department_id
WHEN NOT MATCHED THEN
 INSERT VALUES(e.employee_id, e.first_name, e.last_name,
          e.email, e.phone_number, e.hire_date, e.job_id,
          e.salary, e.commission_pct, e.manager_id,
          e.department_id);
```

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Example of Merging Rows

```
MERGE INTO copy_emp c
  USING employees e
  ON (c.employee_id = e.employee_id)
WHEN MATCHED THEN
  UPDATE SET
    c.first_name     = e.first_name,
    c.last_name      = e.last_name,
    c.email          = e.email,
    c.phone_number   = e.phone_number,
    c.hire_date      = e.hire_date,
    c.job_id         = e.job_id,
    c.salary         = e.salary,
    c.commission_pct = e.commission_pct,
    c.manager_id     = e.manager_id,
    c.department_id  = e.department_id
WHEN NOT MATCHED THEN
  INSERT VALUES(e.employee_id, e.first_name, e.last_name,
       e.email, e.phone_number, e.hire_date, e.job_id,
       e.salary, e.commission_pct, e.manager_id,
       e.department_id);
```

The example shown matches the EMPLOYEE_ID in the COPY_EMP table to the EMPLOYEE_ID in the EMPLOYEES table. If a match is found, the row in the COPY_EMP table is updated to match the row in the EMPLOYEES table. If the row is not found, it is inserted into the COPY_EMP table.

Merging Rows

```
SELECT *
FROM COPY_EMP;

no rows selected
```

```
MERGE INTO copy_emp c
  USING employees e
  ON (c.employee_id = e.employee_id)
WHEN MATCHED THEN
  UPDATE SET
     ...
WHEN NOT MATCHED THEN
 INSERT VALUES...;
```

```
SELECT *
FROM COPY_EMP;

20 rows selected.
```

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Example of Merging Rows

The condition `c.employee_id = e.employee_id` is evaluated. Because the `COPY_EMP` table is empty, the condition returns false: there are no matches. The logic falls into the `WHEN NOT MATCHED` clause, and the `MERGE` command inserts the rows of the `EMPLOYEES` table into the `COPY_EMP` table.

If rows existed in the `COPY_EMP` table and employee IDs matched in both tables (the `COPY_EMP` and `EMPLOYEES` tables), the existing rows in the `COPY_EMP` table would be updated to match the `EMPLOYEES` table.

Database Transactions

A database transaction consists of one of the following:

- **DML statements which constitute one consistent change to the data**
- **One DDL statement**
- **One DCL statement**

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Database Transactions

The Oracle server ensures data consistency based on transactions. Transactions give you more flexibility and control when changing data, and they ensure data consistency in the event of user process failure or system failure.

Transactions consist of DML statements that make up one consistent change to the data. For example, a transfer of funds between two accounts should include the debit to one account and the credit to another account in the same amount. Both actions should either fail or succeed together; the credit should not be committed without the debit.

Transaction Types

Type	Description
Data manipulation language (DML)	Consists of any number of DML statements that the Oracle server treats as a single entity or a logical unit of work
Data definition language (DDL)	Consists of only one DDL statement
Data control language (DCL)	Consists of only one DCL statement

Database Transactions

- **Begin when the first DML SQL statement is executed**
- **End with one of the following events:**
  - **A `COMMIT` or `ROLLBACK` statement is issued**
  - **A DDL or DCL statement executes (automatic commit)**
  - **The user exits *i*SQL*Plus**
  - **The system crashes**

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When Does a Transaction Start and End?

A transaction begins when the first DML statement is encountered and ends when one of the following occurs:

- A `COMMIT` or `ROLLBACK` statement is issued
- A DDL statement, such as `CREATE`, is issued
- A DCL statement is issued
- The user exits *i*SQL*Plus
- A machine fails or the system crashes

After one transaction ends, the next executable SQL statement automatically starts the next transaction.

A DDL statement or a DCL statement is automatically committed and therefore implicitly ends a transaction.

Advantages of COMMIT and ROLLBACK Statements

With COMMIT and ROLLBACK statements, you can:

- Ensure data consistency
- Preview data changes before making changes permanent
- Group logically related operations

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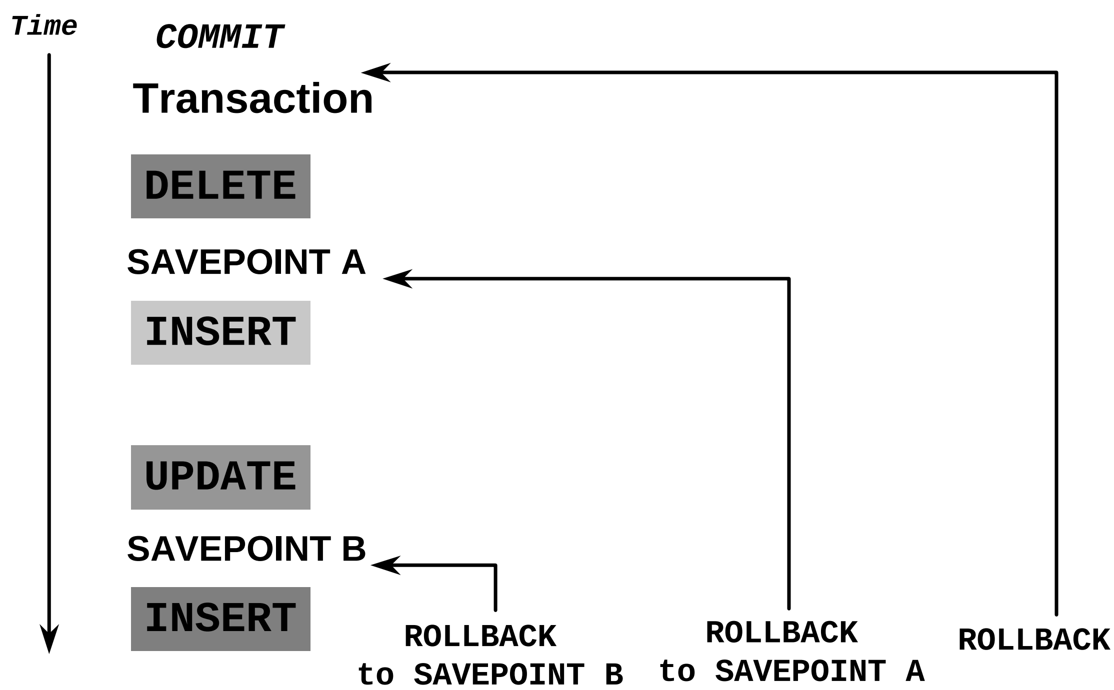
Controlling Transactions



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Explicit Transaction Control Statements

You can control the logic of transactions by using the `COMMIT`, `SAVEPOINT`, and `ROLLBACK` statements.

Statement	Description
`COMMIT`	Ends the current transaction by making all pending data changes permanent
`SAVEPOINT` *`name`*	Marks a savepoint within the current transaction
`ROLLBACK`	`ROLLBACK` ends the current transaction by discarding all pending data changes
`ROLLBACK TO` *`SAVEPOINT name`*	`ROLLBACK TO SAVEPOINT` rolls back the current transaction to the specified savepoint, thereby discarding any changes and or savepoints created after the savepoint to which you are rolling back. If you omit the `TO SAVEPOINT` clause, the `ROLLBACK` statement rolls back the entire transaction. As savepoints are logical, there is no way to list the savepoints you have created.

Note: `SAVEPOINT` is not ANSI standard SQL.

Rolling Back Changes to a Marker

- Create a marker in a current transaction by using the SAVEPOINT statement.
- Roll back to that marker by using the ROLLBACK TO SAVEPOINT statement.

```
UPDATE...
SAVEPOINT update_done;
Savepoint created.
INSERT...
ROLLBACK TO update_done;
Rollback complete.
```


Rolling Back Changes to a Savepoint

You can create a marker in the current transaction by using the SAVEPOINT statement which divides the transaction into smaller sections. You can then discard pending changes up to that marker by using the ROLLBACK TO SAVEPOINT statement.

If you create a second savepoint with the same name as an earlier savepoint, the earlier savepoint is deleted.

Implicit Transaction Processing

- **An automatic commit occurs under the following circumstances:**
  - **DDL statement is issued**
  - **DCL statement is issued**
  - **Normal exit from *i*SQL*Plus, without explicitly issuing `COMMIT` or `ROLLBACK` statements**
- **An automatic rollback occurs under an abnormal termination of *i*SQL*Plus or a system failure.**

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Implicit Transaction Processing

Status	Circumstances
Automatic commit	DDL statement or DCL statement is issued. *i*SQL*Plus exited normally, without explicitly issuing `COMMIT` or `ROLLBACK` commands.
Automatic rollback	Abnormal termination of *i*SQL*Plus or system failure.

Note: A third command is available in *i*SQL*Plus. The `AUTOCOMMIT` command can be toggled on or off. If set to *on*, each individual DML statement is committed as soon as it is executed. You cannot roll back the changes. If set to *off*, the `COMMIT` statement can still be issued explicitly. Also, the `COMMIT` statement is issued when a DDL statement is issued or when you exit from *i*SQL*Plus.

System Failures

When a transaction is interrupted by a system failure, the entire transaction is automatically rolled back. This prevents the error from causing unwanted changes to the data and returns the tables to their state at the time of the last commit. In this way, the Oracle server protects the integrity of the tables.

From *i*SQL*Plus, a normal exit from the session is accomplished by clicking the Exit button. With SQL*Plus, a normal exit is accomplished by typing the command `EXIT` at the prompt. Closing the window is interpreted as an abnormal exit.

State of the Data Before COMMIT or ROLLBACK

- **The previous state of the data can be recovered.**
- **The current user can review the results of the DML operations by using the SELECT statement.**
- **Other users *cannot* view the results of the DML statements by the current user.**
- **The affected rows are *locked*; other users cannot change the data within the affected rows.**

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Committing Changes

Every data change made during the transaction is temporary until the transaction is committed.

State of the data before COMMIT or ROLLBACK statements are issued:

- Data manipulation operations primarily affect the database buffer; therefore, the previous state of the data can be recovered.
- The current user can review the results of the data manipulation operations by querying the tables.
- Other users cannot view the results of the data manipulation operations made by the current user. The Oracle server institutes read consistency to ensure that each user sees data as it existed at the last commit.
- The affected rows are locked; other users cannot change the data in the affected rows.

State of the Data after COMMIT

- Data changes are made permanent in the database.
- The previous state of the data is permanently lost.
- All users can view the results.
- Locks on the affected rows are released; those rows are available for other users to manipulate.
- All savepoints are erased.

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Committing Changes (continued)

Make all pending changes permanent by using the `COMMIT` statement. Following a `COMMIT` statement:

- Data changes are written to the database.
- The previous state of the data is permanently lost.
- All users can view the results of the transaction.
- The locks on the affected rows are released; the rows are now available for other users to perform new data changes.
- All savepoints are erased.

Committing Data

- **Make the changes.**

```
DELETE FROM employees
WHERE  employee_id = 99999;
1 row deleted.

INSERT INTO departments
VALUES (290, 'Corporate Tax', NULL, 1700);
1 row inserted.
```

- **Commit the changes.**

```
COMMIT;
Commit complete.
```


Committing Changes (continued)

The slide example deletes a row from the EMPLOYEES table and inserts a new row into the DEPARTMENTS table. It then makes the change permanent by issuing the COMMIT statement.

Example

Remove departments 290 and 300 in the DEPARTMENTS table, and update a row in the COPY_EMP table. Make the data change permanent.

```
DELETE FROM departments
WHERE  department_id IN (290, 300);

2 rows deleted.

 UPDATE copy_emp
   SET department_id = 80
   WHERE employee_id = 206;

 1 row updated.

COMMIT;

Commit Complete.
```

State of the Data After ROLLBACK

Discard all pending changes by using the ROLLBACK statement:

- **Data changes are undone.**
- **Previous state of the data is restored.**
- **Locks on the affected rows are released.**

```
DELETE FROM  copy_emp;
22 rows deleted.
ROLLBACK;
Rollback complete.
```


Rolling Back Changes

Discard all pending changes by using the ROLLBACK statement. Following a ROLLBACK statement:

- Data changes are undone.
- The previous state of the data is restored.
- The locks on the affected rows are released.

Example

While attempting to remove a record from the TEST table, you can accidentally empty the table. You can correct the mistake, reissue the proper statement, and make the data change permanent.

```
DELETE FROM  test;
25,000 rows deleted.

ROLLBACK;
Rollback complete.

DELETE FROM  test
WHERE        id = 100;
1 row deleted.

SELECT   *
FROM     test
WHERE    id = 100;
No rows selected.

COMMIT;
Commit complete.
```

Statement-Level Rollback

- If a single DML statement fails during execution, only that statement is rolled back.
- The Oracle server implements an implicit savepoint.
- All other changes are retained.
- The user should terminate transactions explicitly by executing a `COMMIT` or `ROLLBACK` statement.

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Statement-Level Rollbacks

Part of a transaction can be discarded by an implicit rollback if a statement execution error is detected. If a single DML statement fails during execution of a transaction, its effect is undone by a statement-level rollback, but the changes made by the previous DML statements in the transaction are not discarded. They can be committed or rolled back explicitly by the user.

Oracle issues an implicit commit before and after any data definition language (DDL) statement. So, even if your DDL statement does not execute successfully, you cannot roll back the previous statement because the server issued a commit.

Terminate your transactions explicitly by executing a `COMMIT` or `ROLLBACK` statement.

Read Consistency

- **Read consistency guarantees a consistent view of the data at all times.**
- **Changes made by one user do not conflict with changes made by another user.**
- **Read consistency ensures that on the same data:**
  - **Readers do not wait for writers.**
  - **Writers do not wait for readers.**

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Read Consistency

Database users access the database in two ways:

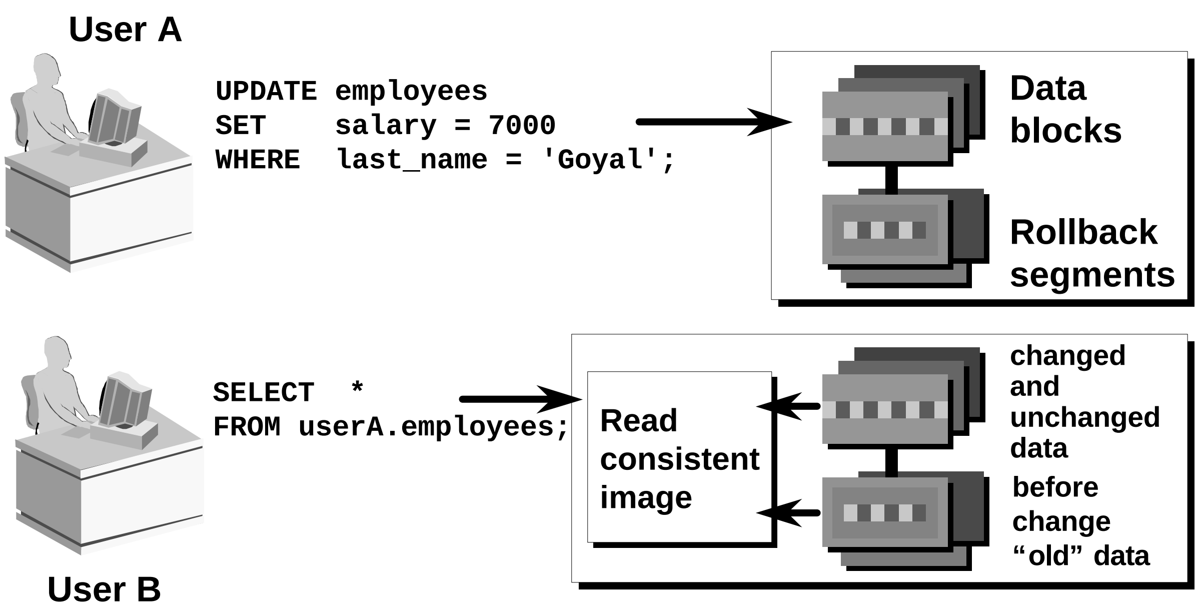
- Read operations (`SELECT` statement)
- Write operations (`INSERT`, `UPDATE`, `DELETE` statements)

You need read consistency so that the following occur:

- The database reader and writer are ensured a consistent view of the data.
- Readers do not view data that is in the process of being changed.
- Writers are ensured that the changes to the database are done in a consistent way.
- Changes made by one writer do not disrupt or conflict with changes another writer is making.

The purpose of read consistency is to ensure that each user sees data as it existed at the last commit, before a DML operation started.

Implementation of Read Consistency



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Implementation of Read Consistency

Read consistency is an automatic implementation. It keeps a partial copy of the database in rollback segments.

When an insert, update, or delete operation is made to the database, the Oracle server takes a copy of the data before it is changed and writes it to a *rollback segment*.

All readers, except the one who issued the change, still see the database as it existed before the changes started; they view the rollback segment's "snapshot" of the data.

Before changes are committed to the database, only the user who is modifying the data sees the database with the alterations; everyone else sees the snapshot in the rollback segment. This guarantees that readers of the data read consistent data that is not currently undergoing change.

When a DML statement is committed, the change made to the database becomes visible to anyone executing a `SELECT` statement. The space occupied by the *old* data in the rollback segment file is freed for reuse.

If the transaction is rolled back, the changes are undone:

- The original, older version, of the data in the rollback segment is written back to the table.
- All users see the database as it existed before the transaction began.

Locking

In an Oracle database, locks:

- Prevent destructive interaction between concurrent transactions
- Require no user action
- Automatically use the lowest level of restrictiveness
- Are held for the duration of the transaction
- Are of two types: explicit locking and implicit locking

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What Are Locks?

Locks are mechanisms that prevent destructive interaction between transactions accessing the same resource, either a user object (such as tables or rows) or a system object not visible to users (such as shared data structures and data dictionary rows).

How the Oracle Database Locks Data

Oracle locking is performed automatically and requires no user action. Implicit locking occurs for SQL statements as necessary, depending on the action requested. Implicit locking occurs for all SQL statements except `SELECT`.

The users can also lock data manually, which is called explicit locking.

Implicit Locking

- **Two lock modes:**
  - **Exclusive: Locks out other users**
  - **Share: Allows other users to access**
- **High level of data concurrency:**
  - **DML: Table share, row exclusive**
  - **Queries: No locks required**
  - **DDL: Protects object definitions**
- **Locks held until commit or rollback**

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DML Locking

When performing data manipulation language (DML) operations, the Oracle server provides data concurrency through DML locking. DML locks occur at two levels:

- A share lock is automatically obtained at the table level during DML operations. With share lock mode, several transactions can acquire share locks on the same resource.
- An exclusive lock is acquired automatically for each row modified by a DML statement. Exclusive locks prevent the row from being changed by other transactions until the transaction is committed or rolled back. This lock ensures that no other user can modify the same row at the same time and overwrite changes not yet committed by another user.
- DDL locks occur when you modify a database object such as a table.

Summary

In this lesson, you should have learned how to use DML statements and control transactions.

Statement	Description
`INSERT`	Adds a new row to the table
`UPDATE`	Modifies existing rows in the table
`DELETE`	Removes existing rows from the table
`MERGE`	Conditionally inserts or updates data in a table
`COMMIT`	Makes all pending changes permanent
`SAVEPOINT`	Is used to rollback to the savepoint marker
`ROLLBACK`	Discards all pending data changes

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Summary

In this lesson, you should have learned how to manipulate data in the Oracle database by using the `INSERT`, `UPDATE`, and `DELETE` statements. Control data changes by using the `COMMIT`, `SAVEPOINT`, and `ROLLBACK` statements.

The Oracle server guarantees a consistent view of data at all times.

Locking can be implicit or explicit.

Practice 8 Overview

This practice covers the following topics:

- Inserting rows into the tables
- Updating and deleting rows in the table
- Controlling transactions

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Practice 8 Overview

In this practice, you add rows to the `MY_EMPLOYEE` table, update and delete data from the table, and control your transactions.

Practice 8

Insert data into the MY_EMPLOYEE table.

1. Run the statement in the lab8_1.sql script to build the MY_EMPLOYEE table to be used for the lab.
2. Describe the structure of the MY_EMPLOYEE table to identify the column names.

Name	Null?	Type
ID	NOT NULL	NUMBER(4)
LAST_NAME		VARCHAR2(25)
FIRST_NAME		VARCHAR2(25)
USERID		VARCHAR2(8)
SALARY		NUMBER(9,2)

3. Add the first row of data to the MY_EMPLOYEE table from the following sample data. Do not list the columns in the INSERT clause.

ID	LAST_NAME	FIRST_NAME	USERID	SALARY
1	Patel	Ralph	rpatel	895
2	Dancs	Betty	bdancs	860
3	Biri	Ben	bbiri	1100
4	Newman	Chad	cnewman	750
5	Ropeburn	Audrey	aropebur	1550

4. Populate the MY_EMPLOYEE table with the second row of sample data from the preceding list. This time, list the columns explicitly in the INSERT clause.
5. Confirm your addition to the table.

ID	LAST_NAME	FIRST_NAME	USERID	SALARY
1	Patel	Ralph	rpatel	895
2	Dancs	Betty	bdancs	860

Practice 8 (continued)

6. Write an insert statement in a text file named `loademp.sql` to load rows into the `MY_EMPLOYEE` table. Concatenate the first letter of the first name and the first seven characters of the last name to produce the user ID.
7. Populate the table with the next two rows of sample data by running the insert statement in the script that you created.
8. Confirm your additions to the table.

ID	LAST_NAME	FIRST_NAME	USERID	SALARY
1	Patel	Ralph	rpatel	895
2	Dancs	Betty	bdancs	860
3	Biri	Ben	bbiri	1100
4	Newman	Chad	cnewman	750

9. Make the data additions permanent.

Update and delete data in the `MY_EMPLOYEE` table.

10. Change the last name of employee 3 to Drexler.
11. Change the salary to 1000 for all employees with a salary less than 900.
12. Verify your changes to the table.

ID	LAST_NAME	FIRST_NAME	USERID	SALARY
1	Patel	Ralph	rpatel	1000
2	Dancs	Betty	bdancs	1000
3	Drexler	Ben	bbiri	1100
4	Newman	Chad	cnewman	1000

13. Delete Betty Dancs from the `MY_EMPLOYEE` table.
14. Confirm your changes to the table.

ID	LAST_NAME	FIRST_NAME	USERID	SALARY
1	Patel	Ralph	rpatel	1000
3	Drexler	Ben	bbiri	1100
4	Newman	Chad	cnewman	1000

Practice 8 (continued)

15. Commit all pending changes.

Control data transaction to the MY_EMPLOYEE table.

16. Populate the table with the last row of sample data by modifying the statements in the script that you created in step 6. Run the statements in the script.
17. Confirm your addition to the table.

ID	LAST_NAME	FIRST_NAME	USERID	SALARY
1	Patel	Ralph	rpatel	1000
3	Drexler	Ben	bbiri	1100
4	Newman	Chad	cnewman	1000
5	Ropeburn	Audrey	aropebur	1550

18. Mark an intermediate point in the processing of the transaction.
19. Empty the entire table.
20. Confirm that the table is empty.
21. Discard the most recent DELETE operation without discarding the earlier INSERT operation.
22. Confirm that the new row is still intact.

ID	LAST_NAME	FIRST_NAME	USERID	SALARY
1	Patel	Ralph	rpatel	1000
3	Drexler	Ben	bbiri	1100
4	Newman	Chad	cnewman	1000
5	Ropeburn	Audrey	aropebur	1550

23. Make the data addition permanent.

Read Consistency Example

Output	Time	Session 1	Session 2
24000	t1	`SELECT salary FROM employees` `WHERE  last_name='King';`	

	t2		`UPDATE employees`
			`SET    salary=salary+10000`
			`WHERE  last_name='King';`

24000	t3	`SELECT salary FROM employees` `WHERE  last_name='King';`	
	t4		`COMMIT;`
34000	t5	`SELECT salary FROM employees` `WHERE  last_name='King';`	

9

Creating and Managing Tables

Objectives

After completing this lesson, you should be able to do the following:

- **Describe the main database objects**
- **Create tables**
- **Describe the data types that can be used when specifying column definition**
- **Alter table definitions**
- **Drop, rename, and truncate tables**

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Lesson Aim

In this lesson, you learn about tables, the main database objects, and their relationships to each other. You also learn how to create, alter, and drop tables.

Database Objects

Object	Description
Table	Basic unit of storage; composed of rows and columns
View	Logically represents subsets of data from one or more tables
Sequence	Numeric value generator
Index	Improves the performance of some queries
Synonym	Gives alternative names to objects

9-3

Database Objects

An Oracle database can contain multiple data structures. Each structure should be outlined in the database design so that it can be created during the build stage of database development.

- Table: Stores data
- View: Subset of data from one or more tables
- Sequence: Numeric value generator
- Index: Improves the performance of some queries
- Synonym: Gives alternative names to objects

Oracle9*i* Table Structures

- Tables can be created at any time, even while users are using the database.
- You do not need to specify the size of any table. The size is ultimately defined by the amount of space allocated to the database as a whole. It is important, however, to estimate how much space a table will use over time.
- Table structure can be modified online.

Note: More database objects are available but are not covered in this course.

Naming Rules

Table names and column names:

- Must begin with a letter
- Must be 1–30 characters long
- Must contain only A–Z, a–z, 0–9, _, $, and #
- Must not duplicate the name of another object owned by the same user
- Must not be an Oracle server reserved word

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Naming Rules

Name database tables and columns according to the standard rules for naming any Oracle database object:

- Table names and column names must begin with a letter and be 1–30 characters long.
- Names must contain only the characters A–Z, a–z, 0–9, _ (underscore), $, and # (legal characters, but their use is discouraged).
- Names must not duplicate the name of another object owned by the same Oracle server user.
- Names must not be an Oracle server reserved word.

Naming Guidelines

Use descriptive names for tables and other database objects.

Note: Names are case insensitive. For example, `EMPLOYEES` is treated as the same name as `eMPloyees` or `eMpLOYEES`.

For more information, see *Oracle9i SQL Reference*,“Object Names and Qualifiers.”

The CREATE TABLE Statement

- **You must have:**
  - **CREATE TABLE privilege**
  - **A storage area**

```
CREATE TABLE [schema.]table
             (column datatype [DEFAULT expr][, ...]);
```

- **You specify:**
  - **Table name**
  - **Column name, column data type, and column size**

9-5

The CREATE TABLE Statement

Create tables to store data by executing the SQL CREATE TABLE statement. This statement is one of the data definition language (DDL) statements, that are covered in subsequent lessons. DDL statements are a subset of SQL statements used to create, modify, or remove Oracle9*i* database structures. These statements have an immediate effect on the database, and they also record information in the data dictionary.

To create a table, a user must have the CREATE TABLE privilege and a storage area in which to create objects. The database administrator uses data control language (DCL) statements, which are covered in a later lesson, to grant privileges to users.

In the syntax:

schema	is the same as the owner's name
table	is the name of the table
DEFAULT *expr*	specifies a default value if a value is omitted in the INSERT statement
column	is the name of the column
datatype	is the column's data type and length

Referencing Another User's Tables

- **Tables belonging to other users are not in the user's schema.**
- **You should use the owner's name as a prefix to those tables.**

Referencing Another User's Tables

A *schema* is a collection of objects. Schema objects are the logical structures that directly refer to the data in a database. Schema objects include tables, views, synonyms, sequences, stored procedures, indexes, clusters, and database links.

If a table does not belong to the user, the owner's name must be prefixed to the table. For example, if there is a schema named `USER_B`, and `USER_B` has an `EMPLOYEES` table, then specify the following to retrieve data from that table:

```
SELECT *
FROM user_b.employees;
```

The DEFAULT Option

- Specify a default value for a column during an insert.

```
... hire_date DATE DEFAULT SYSDATE, ...
```

- Literal values, expressions, or SQL functions are legal values.
- Another column's name or a pseudocolumn are illegal values.
- The default data type must match the column data type.

9-7

The DEFAULT Option

A column can be given a default value by using the DEFAULT option. This option prevents null values from entering the columns if a row is inserted without a value for the column. The default value can be a literal, an expression, or a SQL function, such as SYSDATE and USER, but the value cannot be the name of another column or a pseudocolumn, such as NEXTVAL or CURRVAL. The default expression must match the data type of the column.

Note: CURRVAL and NEXTVAL are explained later.

Creating Tables

- **Create the table.**

```
CREATE TABLE dept
            (deptno  NUMBER(2),
             dname   VARCHAR2(14),
             loc     VARCHAR2(13));
Table created.
```

- **Confirm table creation.**

```
DESCRIBE dept
```

Name	Null?	Type
DEPTNO		NUMBER(2)
DNAME		VARCHAR2(14)
LOC		VARCHAR2(13)

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Creating Tables

The example on the slide creates the DEPT table, with three columns: DEPTNO, DNAME, and LOC. It further confirms the creation of the table by issuing the DESCRIBE command.

Since creating a table is a DDL statement, an automatic commit takes place when this statement is executed.

Tables in the Oracle Database

- **User Tables:**
  - **Are a collection of tables created and maintained by the user**
  - **Contain user information**
- **Data Dictionary:**
  - **Is a collection of tables created and maintained by the Oracle Server**
  - **Contain database information**

Tables in the Oracle Database

User tables are tables created by the user, such as `EMPLOYEES`. There is another collection of tables and views in the Oracle database known as the *data dictionary*. This collection is created and maintained by the Oracle server and contains information about the database.

All data dictionary tables are owned by the `SYS` user. The base tables are rarely accessed by the user because the information in them is not easy to understand. Therefore, users typically access data dictionary views because the information is presented in a format that is easier to understand. Information stored in the data dictionary includes names of the Oracle server users, privileges granted to users, database object names, table constraints, and auditing information.

There are four categories of data dictionary views; each category has a distinct prefix that reflects its intended use.

Prefix	Description
`USER_`	These views contain information about objects owned by the user
`ALL_`	These views contain information about all of the tables (object tables and relational tables) accessible to the user.
`DBA_`	These views are restricted views, which can be accessed only by people who have been assigned the DBA role.
`V$`	These views are dynamic performance views, database server performance, memory, and locking.

Querying the Data Dictionary

- See the names of tables owned by the user.

```
SELECT   table_name
FROM user_tables;
```

- View distinct object types owned by the user.

```
SELECT DISTINCT object_type
FROM user_objects;
```

- View tables, views, synonyms, and sequences owned by the user.

```
SELECT *
FROM user_catalog;
```


Querying the Data Dictionary

You can query the data dictionary tables to view various database objects owned by you. The data dictionary tables frequently used are these:

- USER_TABLES
- USER_OBJECTS
- USER_CATALOG

Note: USER_CATALOG has a synonym called CAT. You can use this synonym instead of USER_CATALOG in SQL statements.

```
SELECT  *
FROM    CAT;
```

Data Types

Data Type	Description
`VARCHAR2(`*`size`*`)`	**Variable-length character data**
`CHAR(`*`size`*`)`	**Fixed-length character data**
`NUMBER(`*`p,s`*`)`	**Variable-length numeric data**
`DATE`	**Date and time values**
`LONG`	**Variable-length character data up to 2 gigabytes**
`CLOB`	**Character data up to 4 gigabytes**
`RAW and LONG RAW`	**Raw binary data**
`BLOB`	**Binary data up to 4 gigabytes**
`BFILE`	**Binary data stored in an external file; up to 4 gigabytes**
`ROWID`	**A 64 base number system representing the unique address of a row in its table.**

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Data Types

Data type	Description
`VARCHAR2(`*`size`*`)`	Variable-length character data (a maximum *size* must be specified: Minimum *size* is 1; maximum *size* is 4000)
`CHAR [(`*`size`*`)]`	Fixed-length character data of length *size* bytes (default and minimum *size* is 1; maximum *size* is 2000)
`NUMBER [(`*`p,s`*`)]`	Number having precision *p* and scale *s* (The precision is the total number of decimal digits, and the scale is the number of digits to the right of the decimal point; the precision can range from 1 to 38 and the scale can range from -84 to 127)
`DATE`	Date and time values to the nearest second between January 1, 4712 B.C., and December 31, 9999 A.D.
`LONG`	Variable-length character data up to 2 gigabytes
`CLOB`	Character data up to 4 gigabytes

Data Types (continued)

Data type	Description
`RAW(`*`size`*`)`	Raw binary data of length *size* (a maximum *size* must be specified. maximum *size* is 2000)
`LONG RAW`	Raw binary data of variable length up to 2 gigabytes
`BLOB`	Binary data up to 4 gigabytes
`BFILE`	Binary data stored in an external file; up to 4 gigabytes
`ROWID`	A 64 base number system representing the unique address of a row in its table.

- A `LONG` column is not copied when a table is created using a subquery.
- A `LONG` column cannot be included in a `GROUP BY` or an `ORDER BY` clause.
- Only one `LONG` column can be used per table.
- No constraints can be defined on a `LONG` column.
- You may want to use a `CLOB` column rather than a `LONG` column.

DateTime Data Types

Datetime enhancements with Oracle9*i*:

- **New Datetime data types have been introduced.**
- **New data type storage is available.**
- **Enhancements have been made to time zones and local time zone.**

Data Type	Description
`TIMESTAMP`	Date with fractional seconds
`INTERVAL YEAR TO MONTH`	Stored as an interval of years and months
`INTERVAL DAY TO SECOND`	Stored as an interval of days to hours minutes and seconds

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Other DateTime Data Types

Data Type	Description
`TIMESTAMP`	Allows the time to be stored as a date with fractional seconds. There are several variations of the data type.
`INTERVAL YEAR TO MONTH`	Allows time to be stored as an interval of years and months.
`INTERVAL DAY TO SECOND`	Allows time to be stored as an interval of days to hours, minutes, and seconds.

DateTime Data Types

- The `TIMESTAMP` data type is an extension of the `DATE` data type.
- It stores the year, month, and day of the `DATE` data type, plus hour, minute, and second values as well as the fractional second value.
- The `TIMESTAMP` data type is specified as follows:

```
TIMESTAMP[(fractional_seconds_precision)]
```


DateTime Data Types

The `fractional_seconds_precision` optionally specifies the number of digits in the fractional part of the `SECOND` datetime field and can be a number in the range 0 to 9. The default is 6.

Example

```
CREATE TABLE new_employees
(employee_id NUMBER,
 first_name VARCHAR2(15),
 last_name VARCHAR2(15),
 ...
 start_date TIMESTAMP(7),
 ...);
```

In the preceding example, we are creating a table `NEW_EMPLOYEES` with a column `start_date` with a data type of `TIMESTAMP`. The precision of '`7`' indicates the fractional seconds precision which if not specified defaults to '`6`'.

Assume that two rows are inserted into the `NEW_EMPLOYEES` table. The output shows the differences in the display. (A `DATE` data type defaults to display the format of `DD-MON-RR`):

```
SELECT start_date FROM new_employees;

17-JUN-87 12.00.00.000000 AM
21-SEP-89 12.00.00.000000 AM
```

TIMESTAMP WITH TIME ZONE Data Type

- **TIMESTAMP WITH TIME ZONE is a variant of TIMESTAMP that includes a time zone displacement in its value.**
- **The time zone displacement is the difference, in hours and minutes, between local time and UTC.**

```
TIMESTAMP[(fractional_seconds_precision)]
WITH TIME ZONE
```


Datetime Data Types

UTC stands for Coordinated Universal Time—formerly Greenwich Mean Time. Two TIMESTAMP WITH TIME ZONE values are considered identical if they represent the same instant in UTC, regardless of the TIME ZONE offsets stored in the data.

For example,

```
TIMESTAMP '1999-04-15 8:00:00 -8:00'
```

is the same as

```
TIMESTAMP '1999-04-15 11:00:00 -5:00'
```

That is, 8:00 a.m. Pacific Standard Time is the same as 11:00 a.m. Eastern Standard Time.

This can also be specified as

```
TIMESTAMP '1999-04-15 8:00:00 US/Pacific'
```

Note: fractional_seconds_precision optionally specifies the number of digits in the fractional part of the SECOND datetime field and can be a number in the range 0 to 9. The default is 6.

TIMESTAMP WITH LOCAL TIME Data Type

- **TIMESTAMP WITH LOCAL TIME ZONE is another variant of TIMESTAMP that includes a time zone displacement in its value.**
- **Data stored in the database is normalized to the database time zone.**
- **The time zone displacement is not stored as part of the column data; Oracle returns the data in the users' local session time zone.**
- **TIMESTAMP WITH LOCAL TIME ZONE data type is specified as follows:**

```
TIMESTAMP[(fractional_seconds_precision)]
WITH LOCAL TIME ZONE
```

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DateTime Data Types

Unlike TIMESTAMP WITH TIME ZONE, you can specify columns of type TIMESTAMP WITH LOCAL TIME ZONE as part of a primary or unique key. The time zone displacement is the difference (in hours and minutes) between local time and UTC. There is no literal for TIMESTAMP WITH LOCAL TIME ZONE.

Note: fractional_seconds_precision optionally specifies the number of digits in the fractional part of the SECOND datetime field and can be a number in the range 0 to 9. The default is 6.

Example

```
CREATE TABLE time_example as (order_date TIMESTAMP
WITH LOCAL TIME ZONE);

INSERT INTO time_example VALUES('15-NOV-00 09:34:28 AM');

SELECT * FROM time_example;
order_date
---------------------
15-NOV-00 09.34.28 AM
```

INTERVAL YEAR TO MONTH Data Type

- **INTERVAL YEAR TO MONTH stores a period of time using the YEAR and MONTH datetime fields.**

```
INTERVAL YEAR [(year_precision)] TO MONTH
```

- **Example:**

```
INTERVAL '312-2' YEAR(3) TO MONTH
Indicates an interval of 312 years and 2 months

INTERVAL '312' YEAR(3)
Indicates 312 years and 0 months

INTERVAL '300' MONTH(3)
Indicates an interval of 300 months
```


INTERVAL YEAR TO MONTH Data Type

INTERVAL YEAR TO MONTH stores a period of time using the YEAR and MONTH datetime fields. Specify INTERVAL YEAR TO MONTH as follows:

```
INTERVAL YEAR [(year_precision)] TO MONTH
```

In the syntax:

year_precision	is the number of digits in the YEAR datetime field. The default value of year_precision is 2.

Restriction: The leading field must be more significant than the trailing field. For example, INTERVAL '0-1' MONTH TO YEAR is not valid.

Creating a Table by Using a Subquery Syntax

- **Create a table and insert rows by combining the `CREATE TABLE` statement and the `AS` *`subquery`* option.**

```
CREATE TABLE table
       [(column, column...)]
AS subquery;
```

- **Match the number of specified columns to the number of subquery columns.**
- **Define columns with column names and default values.**

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Creating a Table from Rows in Another Table

A second method for creating a table is to apply the `AS` *`subquery`* clause, which both creates the table and inserts rows returned from the subquery.

In the syntax:

table	is the name of the table
column	is the name of the column, default value, and integrity constraint
subquery	is the `SELECT` statement that defines the set of rows to be inserted into the new table

Guidelines

- The table is created with the specified column names, and the rows retrieved by the `SELECT` statement are inserted into the table.
- The column definition can contain only the column name and default value.
- If column specifications are given, the number of columns must equal the number of columns in the subquery `SELECT` list.
- If no column specifications are given, the column names of the table are the same as the column names in the subquery.
- The integrity rules are not passed onto the new table, only the column data type definitions.

Creating a Table by Using a Subquery

```
CREATE TABLE dept80
  AS
    SELECT  employee_id, last_name,
            salary*12 ANNSAL,
            hire_date
    FROM    employees
    WHERE   department_id = 80;
Table created.
```

```
DESCRIBE dept80
```

Name	Null?	Type
EMPLOYEE_ID		NUMBER(6)
LAST_NAME	NOT NULL	VARCHAR2(25)
ANNSAL		NUMBER
HIRE_DATE	NOT NULL	DATE

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Creating a Table from Rows in Another Table (continued)

The slide example creates a table named DEPT80, which contains details of all the employees working in department 80. Notice that the data for the DEPT80 table comes from the EMPLOYEES table.

You can verify the existence of a database table and check column definitions by using the *i*SQL*Plus DESCRIBE command.

Be sure to give a column alias when selecting an expression. The expression SALARY*12 is given the alias ANNSAL. Without the alias, this error is generated:

```
ERROR at line 3:
ORA-00998: must name this expression with a column alias
```

The ALTER TABLE Statement

Use the ALTER TABLE statement to:

- **Add a new column**
- **Modify an existing column**
- **Define a default value for the new column**
- **Drop a column**

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The ALTER TABLE Statement

After you create a table, you may need to change the table structure because: you omitted a column, your column definition needs to be changed, or you need to remove columns. You can do this by using the ALTER TABLE statement.

The ALTER TABLE Statement

Use the ALTER TABLE statement to add, modify, or drop columns.

```
ALTER TABLE table
ADD         (column datatype [DEFAULT expr]
            [, column datatype]...);
```

```
ALTER TABLE table
MODIFY      (column datatype [DEFAULT expr]
            [, column datatype]...);
```

```
ALTER TABLE table
DROP        (column);
```


The ALTER TABLE Statement (continued)

You can add, modify, and drop columns to a table by using the ALTER TABLE statement.

In the syntax:

table	is the name of the table
ADD|MODIFY|DROP	is the type of modification
column	is the name of the new column
datatype	is the data type and length of the new column
DEFAULT *expr*	specifies the default value for a new column

Note: The slide gives the abridged syntax for ALTER TABLE. More about ALTER TABLE is covered in a subsequent lesson.

Adding a Column

New column

JOB_ID

DEPT80

EMPLOYEE_ID	LAST_NAME	ANNSAL	HIRE_DATE
149	Zlotkey	126000	29-JAN-00
174	Abel	132000	11-MAY-96
176	Taylor	103200	24-MAR-98

"Add a new column to the DEPT80 table."

DEPT80

EMPLOYEE_ID	LAST_NAME	ANNSAL	HIRE_DATE	JOB_ID
149	Zlotkey	126000	29-JAN-00	
174	Abel	132000	11-MAY-96	
176	Taylor	103200	24-MAR-98	

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Adding a Column

The graphic adds the `JOB_ID` column to the `DEPT80` table. Notice that the new column becomes the last column in the table.

Adding a Column

- You use the ADD clause to add columns.

```
ALTER TABLE dept80
ADD         (job_id VARCHAR2(9));
Table altered.
```

- The new column becomes the last column.

EMPLOYEE_ID	LAST_NAME	ANNSAL	HIRE_DATE	JOB_ID
149	Zlotkey	126000	29-JAN-00	
174	Abel	132000	11-MAY-96	
176	Taylor	103200	24-MAR-98	

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Guidelines for Adding a Column

- You can add or modify columns.
- You cannot specify where the column is to appear. The new column becomes the last column.

The example on the slide adds a column named `JOB_ID` to the `DEPT80` table. The `JOB_ID` column becomes the last column in the table.

Note: If a table already contains rows when a column is added, then the new column is initially null for all the rows.

Modifying a Column

- **You can change a column's data type, size, and default value.**

```
ALTER TABLE   dept80
MODIFY        (last_name VARCHAR2(30));
Table altered.
```

- **A change to the default value affects only subsequent insertions to the table.**

Modifying a Column

You can modify a column definition by using the `ALTER TABLE` statement with the `MODIFY` clause. Column modification can include changes to a column's data type, size, and default value.

Guidelines

- You can increase the width or precision of a numeric column.
- You can increase the width of numeric or character columns.
- You can decrease the width of a column only if the column contains only null values or if the table has no rows.
- You can change the data type only if the column contains null values.
- You can convert a `CHAR` column to the `VARCHAR2` data type or convert a `VARCHAR2` column to the `CHAR` data type only if the column contains null values or if you do not change the size.
- A change to the default value of a column affects only subsequent insertions to the table.

Dropping a Column

Use the `DROP COLUMN` clause to drop columns you no longer need from the table.

```
ALTER TABLE  dept80
DROP  COLUMN   job_id;
Table altered.
```

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Dropping a Column

You can drop a column from a table by using the `ALTER TABLE` statement with the `DROP COLUMN` clause. This is a feature available in Oracle8*i* and later.

Guidelines

- The column may or may not contain data.
- Using the `ALTER TABLE` statement, only one column can be dropped at a time.
- The table must have at least one column remaining in it after it is altered.
- Once a column is dropped, it cannot be recovered.

The SET UNUSED Option

- You use the `SET UNUSED` option to mark one or more columns as unused.
- You use the `DROP UNUSED COLUMNS` option to remove the columns that are marked as unused.

```
ALTER TABLE   table
SET   UNUSED (column);
          OR
ALTER     TABLE  table
SET UNUSED COLUMN column;
```

```
ALTER TABLE table
DROP  UNUSED COLUMNS;
```

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The SET UNUSED Option

The SET UNUSED option marks one or more columns as unused so that they can be dropped when the demand on system resources is lower. This is a feature available in Oracle8*i* and later. Specifying this clause does not actually remove the target columns from each row in the table (that is, it does not restore the disk space used by these columns). Therefore, the response time is faster than if you executed the DROP clause. Unused columns are treated as if they were dropped, even though their column data remains in the table's rows. After a column has been marked as unused, you have no access to that column. A SELECT * query will not retrieve data from unused columns. In addition, the names and types of columns marked unused will not be displayed during a DESCRIBE, and you can add to the table a new column with the same name as an unused column. SET UNUSED information is stored in the USER_UNUSED_COL_TABS dictionary view.

The DROP UNUSED COLUMNS Option

DROP UNUSED COLUMNS removes from the table all columns currently marked as unused. You can use this statement when you want to reclaim the extra disk space from unused columns in the table. If the table contains no unused columns, the statement returns with no errors.

```
ALTER TABLE  dept80
SET UNUSED (last_name);
Table altered.

ALTER TABLE  dept80
DROP  UNUSED COLUMNS;
Table altered.
```

Dropping a Table

- All data and structure in the table is deleted.
- Any pending transactions are committed.
- All indexes are dropped.
- You *cannot* roll back the `DROP TABLE` statement.

```
DROP TABLE dept80;
Table dropped.
```

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Dropping a Table

The `DROP TABLE` statement removes the definition of an Oracle table. When you drop a table, the database loses all the data in the table and all the indexes associated with it.

Syntax

DROP TABLE *table*

In the syntax:

table is the name of the table

Guidelines

- All data is deleted from the table.
- Any views and synonyms remain but are invalid.
- Any pending transactions are committed.
- Only the creator of the table or a user with the `DROP ANY TABLE` privilege can remove a table.

Note: The `DROP TABLE` statement, once executed, is irreversible. The Oracle server does not question the action when you issue the `DROP TABLE` statement. If you own that table or have a high-level privilege, then the table is immediately removed. As with all DDL statements, `DROP TABLE` is committed automatically.

Changing the Name of an Object

- **To change the name of a table, view, sequence, or synonym, you execute the `RENAME` statement.**

```
RENAME dept TO detail_dept;
Table renamed.
```

- **You must be the owner of the object.**

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Renaming a Table

Additional DDL statements include the `RENAME` statement, which is used to rename a table, view, sequence, or a synonym.

Syntax

```
RENAME     old_name  TO  new_name;
```

In the syntax:

old_name	is the old name of the table, view, sequence, or synonym.
new_name	is the new name of the table, view, sequence, or synonym.

You must be the owner of the object that you rename.

Truncating a Table

- The `TRUNCATE TABLE` statement:
  - Removes all rows from a table
  - Releases the storage space used by that table

```
TRUNCATE TABLE detail_dept;
Table truncated.
```

- You cannot roll back row removal when using `TRUNCATE`.
- Alternatively, you can remove rows by using the `DELETE` statement.

Truncating a Table

Another DDL statement is the `TRUNCATE TABLE` statement, which is used to remove all rows from a table and to release the storage space used by that table. When using the `TRUNCATE TABLE` statement, you cannot roll back row removal.

Syntax

```
TRUNCATE TABLE table;
```

In the syntax:

table	is the name of the table

You must be the owner of the table or have `DELETE TABLE` system privileges to truncate a table.

The `DELETE` statement can also remove all rows from a table, but it does not release storage space. The `TRUNCATE` command is faster. Removing rows with the `TRUNCATE` statement is faster than removing them with the `DELETE` statement for the following reasons:

- The `TRUNCATE` statement is a data definition language (DDL) statement and generates no rollback information.
- Truncating a table does not fire the delete triggers of the table.
- If the table is the parent of a referential integrity constraint, you cannot truncate the table. Disable the constraint before issuing the `TRUNCATE` statement.

Adding Comments to a Table

- You can add comments to a table or column by using the `COMMENT` statement.

```
COMMENT ON TABLE employees
IS 'Employee Information';
Comment created.
```

- Comments can be viewed through the data dictionary views:
  - ALL_COL_COMMENTS
  - USER_COL_COMMENTS
  - ALL_TAB_COMMENTS
  - USER_TAB_COMMENTS

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Adding a Comment to a Table

You can add a comment of up to 2,000 bytes about a column, table, view, or snapshot by using the `COMMENT` statement. The comment is stored in the data dictionary and can be viewed in one of the following data dictionary views in the `COMMENTS` column:

- ALL_COL_COMMENTS
- USER_COL_COMMENTS
- ALL_TAB_COMMENTS
- USER_TAB_COMMENTS

Syntax

```
COMMENT ON TABLE table | COLUMN table.column
  IS 'text';
```

In the syntax:

table	is the name of the table
column	is the name of the column in a table
text	is the text of the comment

You can drop a comment from the database by setting it to empty string (`''`):

```
COMMENT ON TABLE  employees IS ' ';
```

Summary

In this lesson, you should have learned how to use DDL statements to create, alter, drop, and rename tables.

Statement	Description
`CREATE TABLE`	Creates a table
`ALTER TABLE`	Modifies table structures
`DROP TABLE`	Removes the rows and table structure
`RENAME`	Changes the name of a table, view, sequence, or synonym
`TRUNCATE`	Removes all rows from a table and releases the storage space
`COMMENT`	Adds comments to a table or view

Summary

In this lesson, you should have learned how to use DDL commands to create, alter, drop, and rename tables. You also learned how to truncate a table and add comments to a table.

`CREATE TABLE`

- Create a table.
- Create a table based on another table by using a subquery.

`ALTER TABLE`

- Modify table structures.
- Change column widths, change column data types, and add columns.

`DROP TABLE`

- Remove rows and a table structure.
- Once executed, this statement cannot be rolled back.

`RENAME`

- Rename a table, view, sequence, or synonym.

`TRUNCATE`

- Remove all rows from a table and release the storage space used by the table.
- The `DELETE` statement removes only rows.

`COMMENT`

- Add a comment to a table or a column.
- Query the data dictionary to view the comment.

Practice 9 Overview

This practice covers the following topics:

- Creating new tables
- Creating a new table by using the `CREATE TABLE AS` syntax
- Modifying column definitions
- Verifying that the tables exist
- Adding comments to tables
- Dropping tables
- Altering tables

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Practice 9 Overview

Create new tables by using the `CREATE TABLE` statement. Confirm that the new table was added to the database. Create the syntax in the command file, and then execute the command file to create the table.

Practice 9

1. Create the `DEPT` table based on the following table instance chart. Place the syntax in a script called `lab9_1.sql`, then execute the statement in the script to create the table. Confirm that the table is created.

Column Name	`ID`	`NAME`
Key Type		
Nulls/Unique		
FK Table		
FK Column		
Data type	`NUMBER`	`VARCHAR2`
Length	7	25

Name	Null?	Type
ID		NUMBER(7)
NAME		VARCHAR2(25)

2. Populate the `DEPT` table with data from the `DEPARTMENTS` table. Include only columns that you need.
3. Create the `EMP` table based on the following table instance chart. Place the syntax in a script called `lab9_3.sql`, and then execute the statement in the script to create the table. Confirm that the table is created.

Column Name	`ID`	`LAST_NAME`	`FIRST_NAME`	`DEPT_ID`
Key Type				
Nulls/Unique				
FK Table				
FK Column				
Data type	`NUMBER`	`VARCHAR2`	`VARCHAR2`	`NUMBER`
Length	7	25	25	7

Name	Null?	Type
ID		NUMBER(7)
LAST_NAME		VARCHAR2(25)
FIRST_NAME		VARCHAR2(25)
DEPT_ID		NUMBER(7)

Practice 9 (continued)

4. Modify the `EMP` table to allow for longer employee last names. Confirm your modification.

Name	Null?	Type
ID		NUMBER(7)
LAST_NAME		VARCHAR2(50)
FIRST_NAME		VARCHAR2(25)
DEPT_ID		NUMBER(7)

5. Confirm that both the `DEPT` and `EMP` tables are stored in the data dictionary. (*Hint:* `USER_TABLES`)

TABLE_NAME
DEPT
EMP

6. Create the `EMPLOYEES2` table based on the structure of the `EMPLOYEES` table. Include only the `EMPLOYEE_ID`, `FIRST_NAME`, `LAST_NAME`, `SALARY`, and `DEPARTMENT_ID` columns. Name the columns in your new table `ID`, `FIRST_NAME`, `LAST_NAME`, `SALARY` , and `DEPT_ID`, respectively.
7. Drop the `EMP` table.
8. Rename the `EMPLOYEES2` table as `EMP`.
9. Add a comment to the `DEPT` and `EMP` table definitions describing the tables. Confirm your additions in the data dictionary.
10. Drop the `FIRST_NAME` column from the `EMP` table. Confirm your modification by checking the description of the table.
11. In the `EMP` table, mark the `DEPT_ID` column in the `EMP` table as `UNUSED`. Confirm your modification by checking the description of the table.
12. Drop all the `UNUSED` columns from the `EMP` table. Confirm your modification by checking the description of the table.

10

Including Constraints

Objectives

After completing this lesson, you should be able to do the following:

- **Describe constraints**
- **Create and maintain constraints**

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Lesson Aim

In this lesson, you learn how to implement business rules by including integrity constraints.

What are Constraints?

- Constraints enforce rules at the table level.
- Constraints prevent the deletion of a table if there are dependencies.
- The following constraint types are valid:
  - NOT NULL
  - UNIQUE
  - PRIMARY KEY
  - FOREIGN KEY
  - CHECK

10-3

Constraints

The Oracle Server uses *constraints* to prevent invalid data entry into tables.

You can use constraints to do the following:

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

Data Integrity Constraints

Constraint	Description
`NOT NULL`	Specifies that the column cannot contain a null value
`UNIQUE`	Specifies a column or combination of columns whose values must be unique for all rows in the table
`PRIMARY KEY`	Uniquely identifies each row of the table
`FOREIGN KEY`	Establishes and enforces a foreign key relationship between the column and a column of the referenced table
`CHECK`	Specifies a condition that must be true

For more information, see *Oracle9i SQL Reference*, “`CONSTRAINT`.”

Constraint Guidelines

- **Name a constraint or the Oracle server generates a name by using the `SYS_Cn` format.**
- **Create a constraint either:**
  - **At the same time as the table is created, or**
  - **After the table has been created**
- **Define a constraint at the column or table level.**
- **View a constraint in the data dictionary.**

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Constraint Guidelines

All constraints are stored in the data dictionary. Constraints are easy to reference if you give them a meaningful name. Constraint names must follow the standard object-naming rules. If you do not name your constraint, the Oracle server generates a name with the format `SYS_Cn`, where *n* is an integer so that the constraint name is unique.

Constraints can be defined at the time of table creation or after the table has been created.

You can view the constraints defined for a specific table by looking at the `USER_CONSTRAINTS` data dictionary table.

Defining Constraints

```
CREATE TABLE [schema.]table
            (column datatype [DEFAULT expr]
             [column_constraint],
             ...
             [table_constraint][,...]);
```

```
CREATE TABLE employees(
             employee_id  NUMBER(6),
             first_name   VARCHAR2(20),
             ...
             job_id       VARCHAR2(10) NOT NULL,
             CONSTRAINT emp_emp_id_pk
                          PRIMARY KEY (EMPLOYEE_ID));
```

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Defining Constraints

The slide gives the syntax for defining constraints while creating a table.

In the syntax:

schema	is the same as the owner's name
table	is the name of the table
DEFAULT *expr*	specifies a default value to use if a value is omitted in the INSERT statement
column	is the name of the column
datatype	is the column's data type and length
column_constraint	is an integrity constraint as part of the column definition
table_constraint	is an integrity constraint as part of the table definition

For more information, see *Oracle9i SQL Reference*, "CREATE TABLE."

Defining Constraints

- **Column constraint level**

```
column [CONSTRAINT constraint_name] constraint_type,
```

- **Table constraint level**

```
column,...
  [CONSTRAINT constraint_name] constraint_type
  (column, ...),
```


Defining Constraints (continued)

Constraints are usually created at the same time as the table. Constraints can be added to a table after its creation and also temporarily disabled.

Constraints can be defined at one of two levels.

Constraint Level	Description
Column	References a single column and is defined within a specification for the owning column; can define any type of integrity constraint
Table	References one or more columns and is defined separately from the definitions of the columns in the table; can define any constraints except `NOT NULL`

In the syntax:

`constraint_name` is the name of the constraint
`constraint_type` is the type of the constraint

The NOT NULL Constraint

Ensures that null values are not permitted for the column:

100	King	SKING	515.123.4567	17-JUN-87	AD_PRES	24000		
101	Kochhar	NKOCHHAR	515.123.4568	21-SEP-89	AD_VP	17000		100
102	De Haan	LDEHAAN	515.123.4569	13-JAN-93	AD_VP	17000		100
103	Hunold	AHUNOLD	590.423.4567	03-JAN-90	IT_PROG	9000		102
104	Ernst	BERNST	590.423.4568	21-MAY-91	IT_PROG	6000		103
205	Hi[illegible]	SH[illegible]GINS	515.123.8080	[illegible]JUN-94	AC_[illegible]GR	[illegible]		[illegible]01
206	Gietz	WGIETZ	515.123.8181	07-JUN-94	AC_ACCOUNT	8300		205

20 rows selected.

NOT NULL constraint
(No row can contain a null value for this column.)

NOT NULL constraint

Absence of NOT NULL constraint
(Any row can contain null for this column.)

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The NOT NULL Constraint

The `NOT NULL` constraint ensures that the column contains no null values. Columns without the `NOT NULL` constraint can contain null values by default.

The NOT NULL Constraint

Is defined at the column level:

```
CREATE TABLE employees(
    employee_id    NUMBER(6),
    last_name      VARCHAR2(25) NOT NULL,
    salary         NUMBER(8,2),
    commission_pct NUMBER(2,2),
    hire_date      DATE
                   CONSTRAINT emp_hire_date_nn
                   NOT NULL,
...
```

System named

User named

The NOT NULL Constraint (continued)

The NOT NULL constraint can be specified only at the column level, not at the table level.

The slide example applies the NOT NULL constraint to the LAST_NAME and HIRE_DATE columns of the EMPLOYEES table. Because these constraints are unnamed, the Oracle server creates names for them.

You can specify the name of the constraint when you specify the constraint:

```
... last_name VARCHAR2(25)
      CONSTRAINT emp_last_name_nn NOT NULL...
```

Note: The constraint examples described in this lesson may not be present in the sample tables provided with the course. If desired, these constraints can be added to the tables.

The UNIQUE Constraint

UNIQUE constraint

EMPLOYEES

EMPLOYEE_ID	LAST_NAME	EMAIL
100	King	SKING
101	Kochhar	NKOCHHAR
102	De Haan	LDEHAAN
103	Hunold	AHUNOLD
104	Ernst	BERNST
107	Lorentz	DLORENTZ

INSERT INTO

208	Smith	JSMITH	**Allowed**
209	Smith	JSMITH	**Not allowed: already exists**

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The UNIQUE Constraint

A UNIQUE key integrity constraint requires that every value in a column or set of columns (key) be unique—that is, no two rows of a table can have duplicate values in a specified column or set of columns. The column (or set of columns) included in the definition of the UNIQUE key constraint is called the *unique key*. If the UNIQUE constraint comprises more than one column, that group of columns is called a *composite unique key*.

UNIQUE constraints allow the input of nulls unless you also define NOT NULL constraints for the same columns. In fact, any number of rows can include nulls for columns without NOT NULL constraints because nulls are not considered equal to anything. A null in a column (or in all columns of a composite UNIQUE key) always satisfies a UNIQUE constraint.

Note: Because of the search mechanism for UNIQUE constraints on more than one column, you cannot have identical values in the non-null columns of a partially null composite UNIQUE key constraint.

The UNIQUE Constraint

Defined at either the table level or the column level:

```
CREATE TABLE employees(
    employee_id      NUMBER(6),
    last_name        VARCHAR2(25) NOT NULL,
    email            VARCHAR2(25),
    salary           NUMBER(8,2),
    commission_pct   NUMBER(2,2),
    hire_date        DATE NOT NULL,
...
    CONSTRAINT emp_email_uk UNIQUE(email));
```


The UNIQUE Constraint (continued)

UNIQUE constraints can be defined at the column or table level. A composite unique key is created by using the table level definition.

The example on the slide applies the UNIQUE constraint to the EMAIL column of the EMPLOYEES table. The name of the constraint is EMP_EMAIL_UK..

Note: The Oracle server enforces the UNIQUE constraint by implicitly creating a unique index on the unique key column or columns.

The PRIMARY KEY Constraint

DEPARTMENTS

PRIMARY KEY

DEPARTMENT_ID	DEPARTMENT_NAME	MANAGER_ID	LOCATION_ID
10	Administration	200	1700
20	Marketing	201	1800
50	Shipping	124	1500
60	IT	103	1400
80	Sales	149	2500

Not allowed (Null value)

INSERT INTO

	Public Accounting		1400
50	Finance	124	1500

Not allowed (50 already exists)

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The PRIMARY KEY Constraint

A PRIMARY KEY constraint creates a primary key for the table. Only one primary key can be created for each table. The PRIMARY KEY constraint is a column or set of columns that uniquely identifies each row in a table. This constraint enforces uniqueness of the column or column combination and ensures that no column that is part of the primary key can contain a null value.

The PRIMARY KEY Constraint

Defined at either the table level or the column level:

```
CREATE TABLE   departments(
    department_id        NUMBER(4),
    department_name      VARCHAR2(30)
      CONSTRAINT dept_name_nn NOT NULL,
    manager_id           NUMBER(6),
    location_id          NUMBER(4),
      CONSTRAINT dept_id_pk PRIMARY KEY(department_id));
```

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The PRIMARY KEY Constraint (continued)

PRIMARY KEY constraints can be defined at the column level or table level. A composite PRIMARY KEY is created by using the table-level definition.

A table can have only one PRIMARY KEY constraint but can have several UNIQUE constraints.

The example on the slide defines a PRIMARY KEY constraint on the DEPARTMENT_ID column of the DEPARTMENTS table. The name of the constraint is DEPT_ID_PK.

Note: A UNIQUE index is automatically created for a PRIMARY KEY column.

The FOREIGN KEY Constraint

DEPARTMENTS

DEPARTMENT_ID	DEPARTMENT_NAME	MANAGER_ID	LOCATION_ID
10	Administration	200	1700
20	Marketing	201	1800
50	Shipping	124	1500
60	IT	103	1400
80	Sales	149	2500

PRIMARY KEY

EMPLOYEES

EMPLOYEE_ID	LAST_NAME	DEPARTMENT_ID
100	King	90
101	Kochhar	90
102	De Haan	90
103	Hunold	60
104	Ernst	60

FOREIGN KEY

INSERT INTO

210	Ford	9	Not allowed (9 does not exist)
211	Ford	60	Allowed

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The FOREIGN KEY Constraint

The FOREIGN KEY, or referential integrity constraint, designates a column or combination of columns as a foreign key and establishes a relationship between a primary key or a unique key in the same table or a different table. In the example on the slide, DEPARTMENT_ID has been defined as the foreign key in the EMPLOYEES table (dependent or child table); it references the DEPARTMENT_ID column of the DEPARTMENTS table (the referenced or parent table).

A foreign key value must match an existing value in the parent table or be NULL.

Foreign keys are based on data values and are purely logical, not physical, pointers.

The FOREIGN KEY Constraint

Defined at either the table level or the column level:

```
CREATE TABLE employees(
    employee_id      NUMBER(6),
    last_name        VARCHAR2(25) NOT NULL,
    email            VARCHAR2(25),
    salary           NUMBER(8,2),
    commission_pct   NUMBER(2,2),
    hire_date        DATE NOT NULL,
...
    department_id    NUMBER(4),
    CONSTRAINT emp_dept_fk FOREIGN KEY (department_id)
      REFERENCES departments(department_id),
    CONSTRAINT emp_email_uk UNIQUE(email));
```

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The FOREIGN KEY Constraint (continued)

FOREIGN KEY constraints can be defined at the column or table constraint level. A composite foreign key must be created by using the table-level definition.

The example on the slide defines a FOREIGN KEY constraint on the DEPARTMENT_ID column of the EMPLOYEES table, using table-level syntax. The name of the constraint is EMP_DEPTID_FK.

The foreign key can also be defined at the column level, provided the constraint is based on a single column. The syntax differs in that the keywords FOREIGN KEY do not appear. For example:

```
CREATE TABLE employees
(...
department_id NUMBER(4) CONSTRAINT emp_deptid_fk
    REFERENCES departments(department_id),
...
)
```

`FOREIGN KEY` Constraint Keywords

- **`FOREIGN KEY`: Defines the column in the child table at the table constraint level**
- **`REFERENCES`: Identifies the table and column in the parent table**
- **`ON DELETE CASCADE`: Deletes the dependent rows in the child table when a row in the parent table is deleted.**
- **`ON DELETE SET NULL`: Converts dependent foreign key values to null**

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The `FOREIGN KEY` Constraint (continued)

The foreign key is defined in the child table, and the table containing the referenced column is the parent table. The foreign key is defined using a combination of the following keywords:

- `FOREIGN KEY` is used to define the column in the child table at the table constraint level.
- `REFERENCES` identifies the table and column in the parent table.
- `ON DELETE CASCADE` indicates that when the row in the parent table is deleted, the dependent rows in the child table will also be deleted.
- `ON DELETE SET NULL` converts foreign key values to null when the parent value is removed.

The default behavior is called the restrict rule, which disallows the update or deletion of referenced data.

Without the `ON DELETE CASCADE` or the `ON DELETE SET NULL` options, the row in the parent table cannot be deleted if it is referenced in the child table.

The CHECK Constraint

- Defines a condition that each row must satisfy
- The following expressions are not allowed:
  - References to CURRVAL, NEXTVAL, LEVEL, and ROWNUM pseudocolumns
  - Calls to SYSDATE, UID, USER, and USERENV functions
  - Queries that refer to other values in other rows

```
..., salary   NUMBER(2)
     CONSTRAINT emp_salary_min
            CHECK (salary > 0),...
```


The CHECK Constraint

The CHECK constraint defines a condition that each row must satisfy. The condition can use the same constructs as query conditions, with the following exceptions:

- References to the CURRVAL, NEXTVAL, LEVEL, and ROWNUM pseudocolumns
- Calls to SYSDATE, UID, USER, and USERENV functions
- Queries that refer to other values in other rows

A single column can have multiple CHECK constraints which refer to the column in its definition. There is no limit to the number of CHECK constraints which you can define on a column.

CHECK constraints can be defined at the column level or table level.

```
CREATE TABLE employees
     (...
      salary NUMBER(8,2) CONSTRAINT emp_salary_min
                         CHECK (salary > 0),
     ...
```

Adding a Constraint Syntax

Use the `ALTER TABLE` statement to:

- **Add or drop a constraint, but not modify its structure**
- **Enable or disable constraints**
- **Add a `NOT NULL` constraint by using the `MODIFY` clause**

```
ALTER TABLE table
ADD [CONSTRAINT constraint] type (column);
```


Adding a Constraint

You can add a constraint for existing tables by using the `ALTER TABLE` statement with the `ADD` clause.

In the syntax:

table	is the name of the table
constraint	is the name of the constraint
type	is the constraint type
column	is the name of the column affected by the constraint

The constraint name syntax is optional, although recommended. If you do not name your constraints, the system will generate constraint names.

Guidelines

- 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.

Note: You can define a `NOT NULL` column only if the table is empty or if the column has a value for every row.

Adding a Constraint

Add a FOREIGN KEY constraint to the EMPLOYEES table indicating that a manager must already exist as a valid employee in the EMPLOYEES table.

```
ALTER TABLE     employees
ADD CONSTRAINT  emp_manager_fk
  FOREIGN KEY(manager_id)
  REFERENCES employees(employee_id);
Table altered.
```

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Adding a Constraint (continued)

The example on the slide creates a `FOREIGN KEY` constraint on the `EMPLOYEES` table. The constraint ensures that a manager exists as a valid employee in the `EMPLOYEES` table.

Dropping a Constraint

- Remove the manager constraint from the EMPLOYEES table.

```
ALTER TABLE      employees
DROP CONSTRAINT  emp_manager_fk;
Table altered.
```

- Remove the PRIMARY KEY constraint on the DEPARTMENTS table and drop the associated FOREIGN KEY constraint on the EMPLOYEES.DEPARTMENT_ID column.

```
ALTER TABLE  departments
DROP PRIMARY KEY CASCADE;
Table altered.
```


Dropping a Constraint

To drop a constraint, you can identify the constraint name from the USER_CONSTRAINTS and USER_CONS_COLUMNS data dictionary views. Then use the ALTER TABLE statement with the DROP clause. The CASCADE option of the DROP clause causes any dependent constraints also to be dropped.

Syntax

```
ALTER TABLE  table
DROP  PRIMARY KEY | UNIQUE (column) |
      CONSTRAINT   constraint  [CASCADE];
```

In the syntax:

table	is the name of the table
column	is the name of the column affected by the constraint
constraint	is the name of the constraint

When you drop an integrity constraint, that constraint is no longer enforced by the Oracle server and is no longer available in the data dictionary.

Disabling Constraints

- **Execute the `DISABLE` clause of the `ALTER TABLE` statement to deactivate an integrity constraint.**
- **Apply the `CASCADE` option to disable dependent integrity constraints.**

```
ALTER TABLE         employees
DISABLE CONSTRAINT  emp_emp_id_pk CASCADE;
Table altered.
```


Disabling a Constraint

You can disable a constraint without dropping it or re-creating it by using the `ALTER TABLE` statement with the `DISABLE` clause.

Syntax

```
ALTER TABLE   table
DISABLE  CONSTRAINT constraint [CASCADE];
```

In the syntax:

table	is the name of the table
constraint	is the name of the constraint

Guidelines

- You can use the `DISABLE` clause in both the `CREATE TABLE` statement and the `ALTER TABLE` statement.
- The `CASCADE` clause disables dependent integrity constraints.
- Disabling a unique or primary key constraint removes the unique index.

Enabling Constraints

- **Activate an integrity constraint currently disabled in the table definition by using the ENABLE clause.**

```
ALTER TABLE          employees
ENABLE CONSTRAINT    emp_emp_id_pk;
Table altered.
```

- **A UNIQUE or PRIMARY KEY index is automatically created if you enable a UNIQUE key or PRIMARY KEY constraint.**

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Enabling a Constraint

You can enable a constraint without dropping it or re-creating it by using the ALTER TABLE statement with the ENABLE clause.

Syntax

```
ALTER   TABLE      table
ENABLE  CONSTRAINT constraint;
```

In the syntax:

table	is the name of the table
constraint	is the name of the constraint

Guidelines

- If you enable a constraint, that constraint applies to all the data in the table. All the data in the table must fit the constraint.
- If you enable a UNIQUE key or PRIMARY KEY constraint, a UNIQUE or PRIMARY KEY index is created automatically.
- You can use the ENABLE clause in both the CREATE TABLE statement and the ALTER TABLE statement.
- Enabling a primary key constraint that was disabled with the CASCADE option does not enable any foreign keys that are dependent upon the primary key.

Cascading Constraints

- The `CASCADE CONSTRAINTS` clause is used along with the `DROP COLUMN` clause.
- The `CASCADE CONSTRAINTS` clause drops all referential integrity constraints that refer to the primary and unique keys defined on the dropped columns.
- The `CASCADE CONSTRAINTS` clause also drops all multicolumn constraints defined on the dropped columns.

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Cascading Constraints

This statement illustrates the usage of the `CASCADE CONSTRAINTS` clause. Assume table `TEST1` is created as follows:

```
CREATE TABLE test1 (
  pk NUMBER PRIMARY KEY,
  fk NUMBER,
  col1 NUMBER,
  col2 NUMBER,
  CONSTRAINT fk_constraint FOREIGN KEY (fk) REFERENCES test1,
  CONSTRAINT ck1 CHECK (pk > 0 and col1 > 0),
  CONSTRAINT ck2 CHECK (col2 > 0));
```

An error is returned for the following statements:

```
ALTER TABLE test1 DROP (pk);   -- pk is a parent key
ALTER TABLE test1 DROP (col1); -- col1 is referenced by multicolumn constraint ck1
```

Cascading Constraints

Example:

```
ALTER TABLE test1
DROP (pk) CASCADE CONSTRAINTS;
Table altered.
```

```
ALTER TABLE test1
DROP (pk, fk, col1) CASCADE CONSTRAINTS;
Table altered.
```

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Cascading Constraints (continued)

Submitting the following statement drops column PK, the primary key constraint, the fk_constraint foreign key constraint, and the check constraint, CK1:

```
ALTER TABLE test1 DROP (pk) CASCADE CONSTRAINTS;
```

If all columns referenced by the constraints defined on the dropped columns are also dropped, then CASCADE CONSTRAINTS is not required. For example, assuming that no other referential constraints from other tables refer to column PK, it is valid to submit the following statement without the CASCADE CONSTRAINTS clause:

```
ALTER TABLE test1 DROP (pk, fk, col1);
```

Viewing Constraints

Query the `USER_CONSTRAINTS` table to view all constraint definitions and names.

```
SELECT   constraint_name, constraint_type,
         search_condition
FROM     user_constraints
WHERE    table_name = 'EMPLOYEES';
```

CONSTRAINT_NAME	C	SEARCH_CONDITION
EMP_LAST_NAME_NN	C	"LAST_NAME" IS NOT NULL
EMP_EMAIL_NN	C	"EMAIL" IS NOT NULL
EMP_HIRE_DATE_NN	C	"HIRE_DATE" IS NOT NULL
EMP_JOB_NN	C	"JOB_ID" IS NOT NULL
EMP_SALARY_MIN	C	salary > 0
EMP_EMAIL_UK	U	
EMP_EMP_ID_PK	P	
EMP_DEPT_FK	R	

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Viewing Constraints

After creating a table, you can confirm its existence by issuing a `DESCRIBE` command. The only constraint that you can verify is the `NOT NULL` constraint. To view all constraints on your table, query the `USER_CONSTRAINTS` table.

The example on the slide displays the constraints on the `EMPLOYEES` table.

Note: Constraints that are not named by the table owner receive the system-assigned constraint name. In constraint type, `C` stands for `CHECK`, `P` for `PRIMARY KEY`, `R` for referential integrity, and `U` for `UNIQUE` key. Notice that the `NOT NULL` constraint is really a `CHECK` constraint.

Viewing the Columns Associated with Constraints

View the columns associated with the constraint names in the `USER_CONS_COLUMNS` view.

```
SELECT   constraint_name, column_name
FROM     user_cons_columns
WHERE    table_name = 'EMPLOYEES';
```

CONSTRAINT_NAME	COLUMN_NAME
EMP_DEPT_FK	DEPARTMENT_ID
EMP_EMAIL_NN	EMAIL
EMP_EMAIL_UK	EMAIL
EMP_EMP_ID_PK	EMPLOYEE_ID
EMP_HIRE_DATE_NN	HIRE_DATE
EMP_JOB_FK	JOB_ID
EMP_JOB_NN	JOB_ID
EMP_LAST_NAME_NN	LAST_NAME
EMP_MANAGER_FK	MANAGER_ID
EMP_SALARY_MIN	SALARY

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Viewing Constraints (continued)

You can view the names of the columns involved in constraints by querying the `USER_CONS_COLUMNS` data dictionary view. This view is especially useful for constraints that use system-assigned names.

Summary

In this lesson, you should have learned how to create constraints.

- **Types of constraints:**
  - **`NOT NULL`**
  - **`UNIQUE`**
  - **`PRIMARY KEY`**
  - **`FOREIGN KEY`**
  - **`CHECK`**
- **You can query the `USER_CONSTRAINTS` table to view all constraint definitions and names.**

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Summary

In this lesson, you should have learned how the Oracle server uses constraints to prevent invalid data entry into tables. You also learned how to implement the constraints in DDL statements.

The following constraint types are valid:

- `NOT NULL`
- `UNIQUE`
- `PRIMARY KEY`
- `FOREIGN KEY`
- `CHECK`

You can query the `USER_CONSTRAINTS` table to view all constraint definitions and names.

Practice 10 Overview

This practice covers the following topics:

- Adding constraints to existing tables
- Adding more columns to a table
- Displaying information in data dictionary views

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Practice 10 Overview

In this practice, you will add constraints and more columns to a table using the statements covered in this lesson.

Note: It is recommended that you name the constraints that you define during the practices.

Practice 10

1. Add a table-level PRIMARY KEY constraint to the EMP table on the ID column. The constraint should be named at creation. Name the constraint my_emp_id_pk.

   Hint: The constraint is enabled as soon as the ALTER TABLE command executes successfully.

2. Create a PRIMARY KEY constraint to the DEPT table using the ID column. The constraint should be named at creation. Name the constraint my_dept_id_pk.

   Hint: The constraint is enabled as soon as the ALTER TABLE command executes successfully.

3. Add a column DEPT_ID to the EMP table. Add a foreign key reference on the EMP table that ensures that the employee is not assigned to a nonexistent department. Name the constraint my_emp_dept_id_fk.

4. Confirm that the constraints were added by querying the USER_CONSTRAINTS view. Note the types and names of the constraints. Save your statement text in a file called lab10_4.sql.

CONSTRAINT_NAME	C
MY_DEPT_ID_PK	P
SYS_C002541	C
MY_EMP_ID_PK	P
MY_EMP_DEPT_ID_FK	R

5. Display the object names and types from the USER_OBJECTS data dictionary view for the EMP and DEPT tables. Notice that the new tables and a new index were created.

If you have time, complete the following exercise:

6. Modify the EMP table. Add a COMMISSION column of NUMBER data type, precision 2, scale 2. Add a constraint to the commission column that ensures that a commission value is greater than zero.

11

Creating Views

Objectives

After completing this lesson, you should be able to do the following:

- **Describe a view**
- **Create, alter the definition of, and drop a view**
- **Retrieve data through a view**
- **Insert, update, and delete data through a view**
- **Create and use an inline view**
- **Perform “Top-N” analysis**

Lesson Aim

In this lesson, you learn how to create and use views. You also learn to query the relevant data dictionary object to retrieve information about views. Finally, you learn to create and use inline views, and perform Top-N analysis using inline views.

Database Objects

Object	Description
Table	Basic unit of storage; composed of rows and columns
View	Logically represents subsets of data from one or more tables
Sequence	Generates primary key values
Index	Improves the performance of some queries
Synonym	Alternative name for an object

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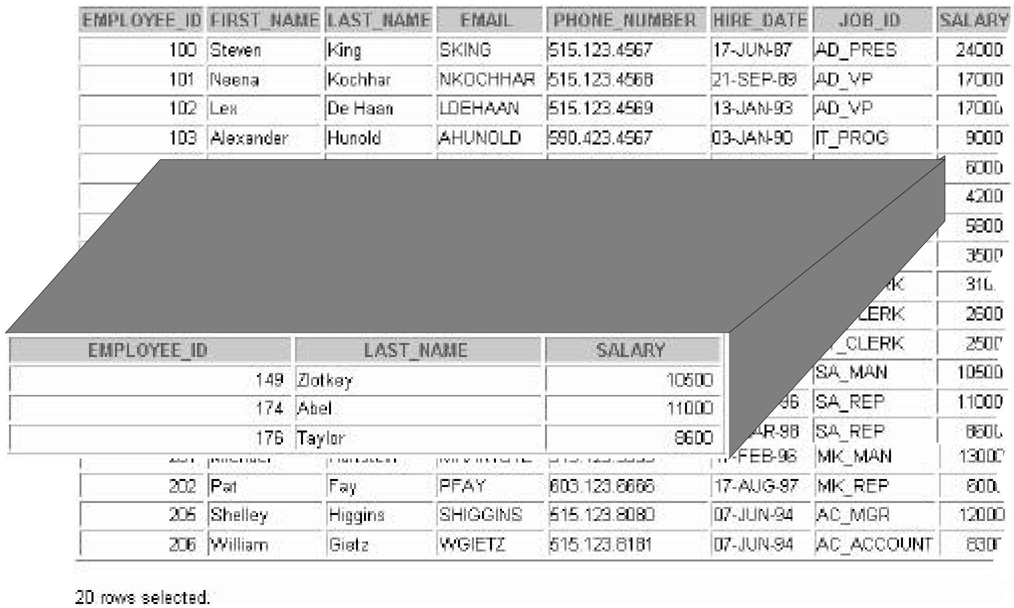
What is a View?

EMPLOYEES Table:



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What Is a View?

You can present logical subsets or combinations of data by creating views of tables. A view is a logical table based on a table or another view. A view contains no data of its own but is like a window through which data from tables can be viewed or changed. The tables on which a view is based are called base tables. The view is stored as a `SELECT` statement in the data dictionary.

Why use Views?

- **To restrict data access**
- **To make complex queries easy**
- **To provide data independence**
- **To present different views of the same data**

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Advantages of Views

- Views restrict access to the data because the view can display selective columns from the table.
- Views can be used to make simple queries to retrieve the results of complicated queries. For example, views can be used to query information from multiple tables without the user knowing how to write a join statement.
- Views provide data independence for ad hoc users and application programs. One view can be used to retrieve data from several tables.
- Views provide groups of users access to data according to their particular criteria.

For more information, see *Oracle9i SQL Reference*, "`CREATE VIEW`."

Simple Views and Complex Views

Feature	Simple Views	Complex Views
Number of tables	One	One or more
Contain functions	No	Yes
Contain groups of data	No	Yes
DML operations through a view	Yes	Not always

Simple Views versus Complex Views

There are two classifications for views: simple and complex. The basic difference is related to the DML (`INSERT`, `UPDATE`, and `DELETE`) operations.

- A simple view is one that:
  - Derives data from only one table
  - Contains no functions or groups of data
  - Can perform DML operations through the view
- A complex view is one that:
  - Derives data from many tables
  - Contains functions or groups of data
  - Does not always allow DML operations through the view

Creating a View

- **You embed a subquery within the `CREATE VIEW` statement.**

```
CREATE [OR REPLACE] [FORCE|NOFORCE] VIEW view
  [(alias[, alias]...)]
AS subquery
[WITH CHECK OPTION [CONSTRAINT constraint]]
[WITH READ ONLY [CONSTRAINT constraint]];
```

- **The subquery can contain complex `SELECT` syntax.**

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Creating a View

You can create a view by embedding a subquery within the `CREATE VIEW` statement.

In the syntax:

`OR REPLACE`	re-creates the view if it already exists
`FORCE`	creates the view regardless of whether or not the base tables exist
`NOFORCE`	creates the view only if the base tables exist (This is the default.)
`view`	is the name of the view
`alias`	specifies names for the expressions selected by the view's query (The number of aliases must match the number of expressions selected by the view.)
`subquery`	is a complete `SELECT` statement (You can use aliases for the columns in the `SELECT` list.)
`WITH CHECK OPTION`	specifies that only rows accessible to the view can be inserted or updated
`constraint`	is the name assigned to the `CHECK OPTION` constraint
`WITH READ ONLY`	ensures that no DML operations can be performed on this view

Creating a View

- **Create a view, `EMPVU80`, that contains details of employees in department 80.**

```
CREATE VIEW  empvu80
AS SELECT  employee_id, last_name, salary
   FROM    employees
   WHERE   department_id = 80;
View created.
```

- **Describe the structure of the view by using the *i*SQL*Plus `DESCRIBE` command.**

```
DESCRIBE empvu80
```

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Creating a View (continued)

The example on the slide creates a view that contains the employee number, last name, and salary for each employee in department 80.

You can display the structure of the view by using the *i*SQL*Plus `DESCRIBE` command.

Name	Null?	Type
EMPLOYEE_ID	NOT NULL	NUMBER(6)
LAST_NAME	NOT NULL	VARCHAR2(25)
SALARY		NUMBER(8,2)

Guidelines for creating a view:

- The subquery that defines a view can contain complex `SELECT` syntax, including joins, groups, and subqueries.
- The subquery that defines the view cannot contain an `ORDER BY` clause. The `ORDER BY` clause is specified when you retrieve data from the view.
- If you do not specify a constraint name for a view created with the `WITH CHECK OPTION`, the system assigns a default name in the format `SYS_C`*n*.
- You can use the `OR REPLACE` option to change the definition of the view without dropping and re-creating it or regranting object privileges previously granted on it.

Creating a View

- **Create a view by using column aliases in the subquery.**

```
CREATE VIEW  salvu50
AS SELECT  employee_id ID_NUMBER, last_name NAME,
           salary*12 ANN_SALARY
   FROM    employees
   WHERE   department_id = 50;
View created.
```

- **Select the columns from this view by the given alias names.**

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Creating a View (continued)

You can control the column names by including column aliases within the subquery.

The example on the slide creates a view containing the employee number (`EMPLOYEE_ID`) with the alias `ID_NUMBER`, name (`LAST_NAME`) with the alias `NAME`, and annual salary (`SALARY`) with the alias `ANN_SALARY` for every employee in department 50.

As an alternative, you can use an alias after the `CREATE` statement and prior to the SELECT subquery. The number of aliases listed must match the number of expressions selected in the subquery.

```
CREATE VIEW   salvu50 (ID_NUMBER, NAME, ANN_SALARY)
  AS SELECT  employee_id, last_name, salary*12
  FROM    employees
  WHERE   department_id = 50;
View created.
```

Retrieving Data from a View

```
SELECT *
FROM  salvu50;
```

ID_NUMBER	NAME	ANN_SALARY
124	Mourgos	69600
141	Rajs	42000
142	Davies	37200
143	Matos	31200
144	Vargas	30000

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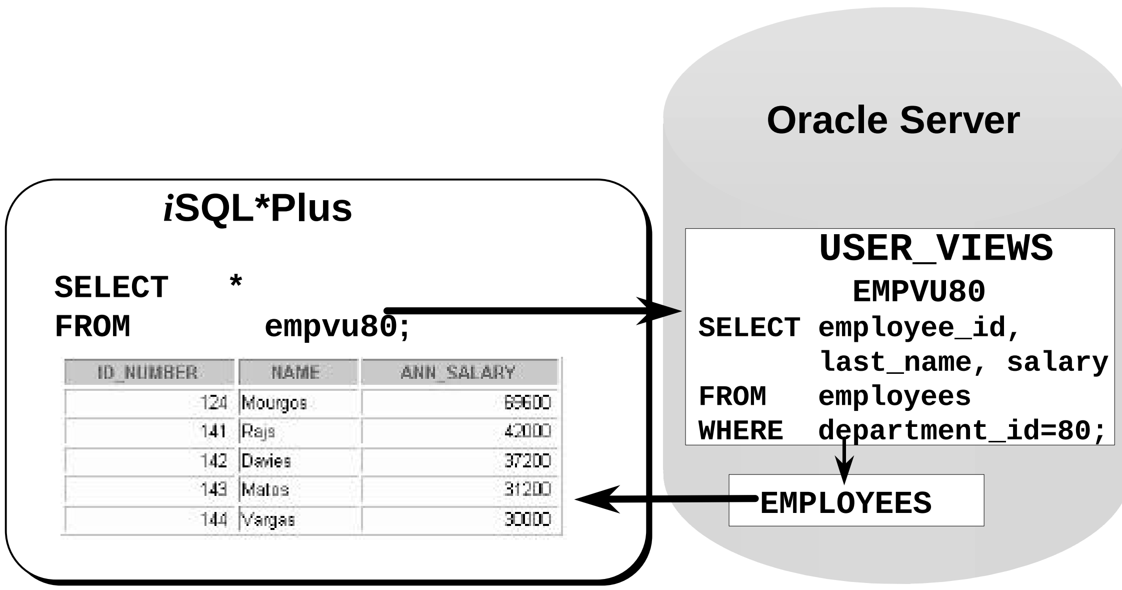
Retrieving Data from a View

You can retrieve data from a view as you would from any table. You can display either the contents of the entire view or just specific rows and columns.

Querying a View



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Views in the Data Dictionary

Once your view has been created, you can query the data dictionary view called USER_VIEWS to see the name of the view and the view definition. The text of the SELECT statement that constitutes your view is stored in a LONG column.

Data Access Using Views

When you access data using a view, the Oracle server performs the following operations:

1. It retrieves the view definition from the data dictionary table USER_VIEWS.
2. It checks access privileges for the view base table.
3. It converts the view query into an equivalent operation on the underlying base table or tables. In other words, data is retrieved from, or an update is made to, the base tables.

Modifying a View

- Modify the EMPVU80 view by using CREATE OR REPLACE VIEW clause. Add an alias for each column name.

```
CREATE OR REPLACE VIEW empvu80
  (id_number, name, sal, department_id)
AS SELECT  employee_id, first_name || ' ' || last_name,
           salary, department_id
   FROM    employees
   WHERE   department_id = 80;
View created.
```

- Column aliases in the CREATE VIEW clause are listed in the same order as the columns in the subquery.

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Modifying a View

With the OR REPLACE option, a view can be created even if one exists with this name already, thus replacing the old version of the view for its owner. This means that the view can be altered without dropping, re-creating, and regranting object privileges.

Note: When assigning column aliases in the CREATE VIEW clause, remember that the aliases are listed in the same order as the columns in the subquery.

Creating a Complex View

Create a complex view that contains group functions to display values from two tables.

```
CREATE VIEW dept_sum_vu
  (name, minsal, maxsal, avgsal)
AS SELECT    d.department_name, MIN(e.salary),
             MAX(e.salary),AVG(e.salary)
   FROM      employees e, departments d
   WHERE     e.department_id = d.department_id
   GROUP BY  d.department_name;
View created.
```

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Creating a Complex View

The example on the slide creates a complex view of department names, minimum salaries, maximum salaries, and average salaries by department. Note that alternative names have been specified for the view. This is a requirement if any column of the view is derived from a function or an expression.

You can view the structure of the view by using the *i*SQL*Plus `DESCRIBE` command. Display the contents of the view by issuing a `SELECT` statement.

```
SELECT   *
FROM     dept_sum_vu;
```

NAME	MINSAL	MAXSAL	AVGSAL
Accounting	8300	12000	10150
Administration	4400	4400	4400
Executive	17000	24000	19333.3333
IT	4200	9000	6400
Marketing	6000	13000	9500
Sales	8600	11000	10033.3333
Shipping	2500	5800	3500

7 rows selected.

Rules for Performing DML Operations on a View

- You can perform DML operations on simple views.
- You cannot remove a row if the view contains the following:
  – Group functions
  – A `GROUP BY` clause
  – The `DISTINCT` keyword
  – The pseudocolumn `ROWNUM` keyword

Performing DML Operations on a View

You can perform DML operations on data through a view if those operations follow certain rules.

You can remove a row from a view unless it contains any of the following:

- Group functions
- A `GROUP BY` clause
- The `DISTINCT` keyword
- The pseudocolumn `ROWNUM` keyword

Rules for Performing DML Operations on a View

You cannot modify data in a view if it contains:

- Group functions
- A `GROUP BY` clause
- The `DISTINCT` keyword
- The pseudocolumn `ROWNUM` keyword
- Columns defined by expressions

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Performing DML Operations on a View (continued)

You can modify data through a view unless it contains any of the conditions mentioned in the previous slide or columns defined by expressions—for example, `SALARY * 12`.

Rules for Performing DML Operations on a View

You cannot add data through a view if the view includes:

- **Group functions**
- **A `GROUP BY` clause**
- **The `DISTINCT` keyword**
- **The pseudocolumn `ROWNUM` keyword**
- **Columns defined by expressions**
- **`NOT NULL` columns in the base tables that are not selected by the view**

Performing DML Operations on a View (continued)

You can add data through a view unless it contains any of the items listed in the slide or there are `NOT NULL` columns without default values in the base table that are not selected by the view. All required values must be present in the view. Remember that you are adding values directly into the underlying table *through* the view.

For more information, see *0racle9i SQL Reference,* "`CREATE VIEW`."

Using the WITH CHECK OPTION Clause

- You can ensure that DML operations performed on the view stay within the domain of the view by using the WITH CHECK OPTION clause.

```
CREATE OR REPLACE VIEW empvu20
AS SELECT   *
   FROM     employees
   WHERE    department_id = 20
   WITH CHECK OPTION CONSTRAINT empvu20_ck;
View created.
```

- Any attempt to change the department number for any row in the view fails because it violates the WITH CHECK OPTION constraint.

Using the WITH CHECK OPTION Clause

It is possible to perform referential integrity checks through views. You can also enforce constraints at the database level. The view can be used to protect data integrity, but the use is very limited.

The WITH CHECK OPTION clause specifies that INSERTs and UPDATEs performed through the view cannot create rows which the view cannot select, and therefore it allows integrity constraints and data validation checks to be enforced on data being inserted or updated.

If there is an attempt to perform DML operations on rows that the view has not selected, an error is displayed, with the constraint name if that has been specified.

```
UPDATE empvu20
  SET    department_id = 10
  WHERE employee_id = 201;
UPDATE empvu20
       *
ERROR at line 1:
ORA-01402: view WITH CHECK OPTION where-clause violation
```

Note: No rows are updated because if the department number were to change to 10, the view would no longer be able to see that employee. Therefore, with the WITH CHECK OPTION clause, the view can see only employees in department 20 and does not allow the department number for those employees to be changed through the view.

Denying DML Operations

- You can ensure that no DML operations occur by adding the `WITH READ ONLY` option to your view definition.
- Any attempt to perform a DML on any row in the view results in an Oracle server error.

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Denying DML Operations

You can ensure that no DML operations occur on your view by creating it with the `WITH READ ONLY` option. The example on the slide modifies the `EMPVU10` view to prevent any DML operations on the view.

Denying DML Operations

```
CREATE OR REPLACE VIEW empvu10
    (employee_number, employee_name, job_title)
AS SELECT   employee_id, last_name, job_id
   FROM     employees
   WHERE    department_id = 10
   WITH READ ONLY;
View created.
```


Denying DML Operations

Any attempts to remove a row from a view with a read-only constraint results in an error.

```
DELETE FROM empvu10
  WHERE employee_number = 200;
DELETE FROM empvu10
         *
ERROR at line 1:
ORA-01752: cannot delete from view without exactly one key-
preserved table
```

Any attempt to insert a row or modify a row using the view with a read-only constraint results in Oracle server error:

```
01733: virtual column not allowed here.
```

Removing a View

You can remove a view without losing data because a view is based on underlying tables in the database.

```
DROP VIEW view;
```

```
DROP VIEW empvu80;
View dropped.
```


Removing a View

You use the `DROP VIEW` statement to remove a view. The statement removes the view definition from the database. Dropping views has no effect on the tables on which the view was based. Views or other applications based on deleted views become invalid. Only the creator or a user with the `DROP ANY VIEW` privilege can remove a view.

In the syntax:

view is the name of the view

Inline Views

- **An inline view is a subquery with an alias (or correlation name) that you can use within a SQL statement.**
- **A named subquery in the `FROM` clause of the main query is an example of an inline view.**
- **An inline view is not a schema object.**

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Inline Views

An inline view is created by placing a subquery in the `FROM` clause and giving that subquery an alias. The subquery defines a data source that can be referenced in the main query. In the following example, the inline view `b` returns the details of all department numbers and the maximum salary for each department from the `EMPLOYEES` table. The `WHERE a.department_id = b.department_id AND a.salary < b.maxsal` clause of the main query displays employee names, salaries, department numbers, and maximum salaries for all the employees who earn less than the maximum salary in their department.

```
SELECT  a.last_name, a.salary, a.department_id, b.maxsal
FROM    employees a, (SELECT   department_id, max(salary) maxsal
                      FROM     employees
                      GROUP BY department_id) b
WHERE   a.department_id = b.department_id
AND     a.salary < b.maxsal;
```

LAST_NAME	SALARY	DEPARTMENT_ID	MAXSAL
Fay	6000	20	13000
Rajs	3500	50	5800
Davies	3100	50	5800
[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]
Gietz	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]

12 rows selected.

Top-N Analysis

- **Top-N queries ask for the *n* largest or smallest values of a column. For example:**
  - **What are the ten best selling products?**
  - **What are the ten worst selling products?**
- **Both largest values and smallest values sets are considered Top-N queries.**

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"Top-N" Analysis

Top-N queries are useful in scenarios where the need is to display only the *n* top-most or the *n* bottom-most records from a table based on a condition. This result set can be used for further analysis. For example, using Top-N analysis you can perform the following types of queries:

- The top three earners in the company
- The four most recent recruits in the company
- The top two sales representatives who have sold the maximum number of products
- The top three products that have had the maximum sales in the last six months

Performing Top-N Analysis

The high-level structure of a Top-N analysis query is:

```
SELECT [column_list], ROWNUM
FROM   (SELECT [column_list]
        FROM table
        ORDER  BY Top-N_column)
WHERE  ROWNUM <=  N;
```


Performing "Top-N" Analysis

Top-N queries use a consistent nested query structure with the elements described below:

- A subquery or an inline view to generate the sorted list of data. The subquery or the inline view includes the `ORDER BY` clause to ensure that the ranking is in the desired order. For results retrieving the largest values, a `DESC` parameter is needed.
- An outer query to limit the number of rows in the final result set. The outer query includes the following components:
  - The `ROWNUM` pseudocolumn, which assigns a sequential value starting with 1 to each of the rows returned from the subquery.
  - A `WHERE` clause, which specifies the *n* rows to be returned. The outer `WHERE` clause must use a < or <= operator.

Example of Top-N Analysis

To display the top three earner names and salaries from the EMPLOYEES table:

```
SELECT ROWNUM as RANK, last_name, salary
FROM  (SELECT last_name,salary FROM employees
       ORDER BY salary DESC)
WHERE ROWNUM <= 3;
```

RANK	LAST_NAME	SALARY
1	King	24000
2	Kochhar	17000
3	De Haan	17000

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Example of "Top-N" Analysis

The example on the slide illustrates how to display the names and salaries of the top three earners from the `EMPLOYEES` table. The subquery returns the details of all employee names and salaries from the `EMPLOYEES` table, sorted in the descending order of the salaries. The `WHERE ROWNUM < 3` clause of the main query ensures that only the first three records from this result set are displayed.

Here is another example of Top-N analysis that uses an inline view. The example below uses the inline view `E` to display the four most senior employees in the company.

```
SELECT ROWNUM as SENIOR,E.last_name, E.hire_date
FROM  (SELECT last_name,hire_date FROM employees
       ORDER BY hire_date)E
WHERE rownum <= 4;
```

SENIOR	LAST_NAME	HIRE_DATE
1	King	17-JUN-87
2	Whalen	17-SEP-87
3	Kochhar	21-SEP-89
4	Hunold	03-JAN-90

Summary

In this lesson, you should have learned that a view is derived from data in other tables or views and provides the following advantages:

- **Restricts database access**
- **Simplifies queries**
- **Provides data independence**
- **Provides multiple views of the same data**
- **Can be dropped without removing the underlying data**
- **An inline view is a subquery with an alias name.**
- **Top-N analysis can be done using subqueries and outer queries.**

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What Is a View?

A view is based on a table or another view and acts as a window through which data on tables can be viewed or changed. A view does not contain data. The definition of the view is stored in the data dictionary. You can see the definition of the view in the `USER_VIEWS` data dictionary table.

Advantages of Views

- Restrict database access
- Simplify queries
- Provide data independence
- Provide multiple views of the same data
- Can be removed without affecting the underlying data

View Options

- Can be a simple view, based on one table
- Can be a complex view based on more than one table or can contain groups of functions
- Can replace other views with the same name
- Can contain a check constraint
- Can be read-only

Practice 11 Overview

This practice covers the following topics:

- Creating a simple view
- Creating a complex view
- Creating a view with a check constraint
- Attempting to modify data in the view
- Displaying view definitions
- Removing views

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Practice 11 Overview

In this practice, you create simple and complex views and attempt to perform DML statements on the views.

Practice 11

1. Create a view called `EMPLOYEES_VU` based on the employee numbers, employee names, and department numbers from the `EMPLOYEES` table. Change the heading for the employee name to `EMPLOYEE`.
2. Display the contents of the `EMPLOYEES_VU` view.

EMPLOYEE_ID	EMPLOYEE	DEPARTMENT_ID
100	King	90
101	Kochhar	90
102	De Haan	90
103	Hunold	60
104	Ernst	60
107	Lorentz	60
206	Gietz	110

20 rows selected.

3. Select the view name and text from the `USER_VIEWS` data dictionary view.

   Note: Another view already exists. The `EMP_DETAILS_VIEW` was created as part of your schema.

   Note: To see more contents of a `LONG` column, use the iSQL*Plus command `SET LONG` *n*, where *n* is the value of the number of characters of the `LONG` column that you want to see.

VIEW_NAME	TEXT
EMPLOYEES_VU	SELECT employee_id, last_name employee, department_id FROM employees
EMP_DETAILS_VIEW	SELECT e.employee_id, e.job_id, e.manager_id, e.department_id, d.location_id, l.country_id, e.first_name, e.last_name, e.salary, e.commission_pct, d.department_name, j.job_title, l.city, l.state_province, c.country_name, r.region_name FROM employees e, departments d, jobs j, loca tions l, countries c, regions r WHERE e.department_id = d.department_id AN D d.location_id = l.location_id AND l.country_id = c.country_id AND c.region _id = r.region_id AND j.job_id = e.job_id WITH READ ONLY

4. Using your `EMPLOYEES_VU` view, enter a query to display all employee names and department numbers.

EMPLOYEE	DEPARTMENT_ID
King	90
Kochhar	90
De Haan	90
Gietz	110

20 rows selected.

Practice 11 (continued)

5. Create a view named DEPT50 that contains the employee numbers, employee last names, and department numbers for all employees in department 50. Label the view columns EMPNO, EMPLOYEE, and DEPTNO. Do not allow an employee to be reassigned to another department through the view.
6. Display the structure and contents of the DEPT50 view.

Name	Null?	Type
EMPNO	NOT NULL	NUMBER(6)
EMPLOYEE	NOT NULL	VARCHAR2(25)
DEPTNO		NUMBER(4)

EMPNO	EMPLOYEE	DEPTNO
124	Mourgos	50
141	Rajs	50
142	Davies	50
143	Matos	50
144	Vargas	50

7. Attempt to reassign Matos to department 80.

If you have time, complete the following exercise:

8. Create a view called SALARY_VU based on the employee last names, department names, salaries, and salary grades for all employees. Use the EMPLOYEES, DEPARTMENTS, and JOB_GRADES tables. Label the columns Employee, Department, Salary, and Grade, respectively.

12

Other Database Objects

Objectives

After completing this lesson, you should be able to do the following:

- Create, maintain, and use sequences
- Create and maintain indexes
- Create private and public synonyms

Lesson Aim

In this lesson, you learn how to create and maintain some of the other commonly used database objects. These objects include sequences, indexes, and synonyms.

Database Objects

Object	Description
Table	Basic unit of storage; composed of rows and columns
View	Logically represents subsets of data from one or more tables
Sequence	Generates primary key values
Index	Improves the performance of some queries
Synonym	Alternative name for an object

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Database Objects

Many applications require the use of unique numbers as primary key values. You can either build code into the application to handle this requirement or use a sequence to generate unique numbers.

If you want to improve the performance of some queries, you should consider creating an index. You can also use indexes to enforce uniqueness on a column or a collection of columns.

You can provide alternative names for objects by using synonyms.

What is a Sequence?

A sequence:

- Automatically generates unique numbers
- Is a sharable object
- Is typically used to create a primary key value
- Replaces application code
- Speeds up the efficiency of accessing sequence values when cached in memory

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What Is a Sequence?

A sequence is a user created database object that can be shared by multiple users to generate unique integers.

A typical usage for sequences is to create a primary key value, which must be unique for each row. The sequence is generated and incremented (or decremented) by an internal Oracle routine. This can be a time-saving object because it can reduce the amount of application code needed to write a sequence-generating routine.

Sequence numbers are stored and generated independently of tables. Therefore, the same sequence can be used for multiple tables.

The CREATE SEQUENCE Statement Syntax

Define a sequence to generate sequential numbers automatically:

```
CREATE SEQUENCE sequence
       [INCREMENT BY n]
       [START WITH n]
       [{MAXVALUE n | NOMAXVALUE}]
       [{MINVALUE n | NOMINVALUE}]
       [{CYCLE | NOCYCLE}]
       [{CACHE n | NOCACHE}];
```


Creating a Sequence

Automatically generate sequential numbers by using the `CREATE SEQUENCE` statement.

In the syntax:

sequence	is the name of the sequence generator
INCREMENT BY *n*	specifies the interval between sequence numbers where *n* is an integer (If this clause is omitted, the sequence increments by 1.)
START WITH *n*	specifies the first sequence number to be generated (If this clause is omitted, the sequence starts with 1.)
MAXVALUE *n*	specifies the maximum value the sequence can generate
NOMAXVALUE	specifies a maximum value of 10^27 for an ascending sequence and –1 for a descending sequence (This is the default option.)
MINVALUE *n*	specifies the minimum sequence value
NOMINVALUE	specifies a minimum value of 1 for an ascending sequence and –(10^26) for a descending sequence (This is the default option.)
CYCLE | NOCYCLE	specifies whether the sequence continues to generate values after reaching its maximum or minimum value (NOCYCLE is the default option.)
CACHE *n* | NOCACHE	specifies how many values the Oracle server preallocates and keep in memory (By default, the Oracle server caches 20 values.)

Creating a Sequence

- Create a sequence named **`DEPT_DEPTID_SEQ`** to be used for the primary key of the **`DEPARTMENTS`** table.
- Do not use the **`CYCLE`** option.

```
CREATE SEQUENCE dept_deptid_seq
                INCREMENT BY 10
                START WITH 120
                MAXVALUE 9999
                NOCACHE
                NOCYCLE;
Sequence created.
```


Creating a Sequence (continued)

The example on the slide creates a sequence named `DEPT_DEPTID_SEQ` to be used for the `DEPARTMENT_ID` column of the `DEPARTMENTS` table. The sequence starts at 120, does not allow caching, and does not cycle.

Do not use the `CYCLE` option if the sequence is used to generate primary key values, unless you have a reliable mechanism that purges old rows faster than the sequence cycles.

For more information, see *Oracle9i SQL Reference*, "`CREATE SEQUENCE`."

Note: The sequence is not tied to a table. Generally, you should name the sequence after its intended use; however the sequence can be used anywhere, regardless of its name.

Confirming Sequences

- Verify your sequence values in the `USER_SEQUENCES` data dictionary table.

```
SELECT   sequence_name, min_value, max_value,
         increment_by, last_number
FROM     user_sequences;
```

- The `LAST_NUMBER` column displays the next available sequence number if `NOCACHE` is specified.

Confirming Sequences

Once you have created your sequence, it is documented in the data dictionary. Since a sequence is a database object, you can identify it in the `USER_OBJECTS` data dictionary table.

You can also confirm the settings of the sequence by selecting from the `USER_SEQUENCES` data dictionary view.

SEQUENCE_NAME	MIN_VALUE	MAX_VALUE	INCREMENT_BY	LAST_NUMBER
DEPARTMENTS_SEQ	1	9990	10	280
DEPT_DEPTID_SEQ	1	9999	10	120
EMPLOYEES_SEQ	1	1.0000E+27	1	207
LOCATIONS_SEQ	1	9900	100	3300

NEXTVAL and CURRVAL Pseudocolumns

- **NEXTVAL returns the next available sequence value. It returns a unique value every time it is referenced, even for different users.**
- **CURRVAL obtains the current sequence value.**
- **NEXTVAL must be issued for that sequence before CURRVAL contains a value.**

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Using a Sequence

After you create your sequence, it generates sequential numbers for use in your tables. Reference the sequence values by using the NEXTVAL and CURRVAL pseudocolumns.

NEXTVAL and CURRVAL Pseudocolumns

The NEXTVAL pseudocolumn is used to extract successive sequence numbers from a specified sequence. You must qualify NEXTVAL with the sequence name. When you reference *sequence*.NEXTVAL, a new sequence number is generated and the current sequence number is placed in CURRVAL.

The CURRVAL pseudocolumn is used to refer to a sequence number that the current user has just generated. NEXTVAL must be used to generate a sequence number in the current user's session before CURRVAL can be referenced. You must qualify CURRVAL with the sequence name. When *sequence*.CURRVAL is referenced, the last value returned to that user's process is displayed.

Rules for Using NEXTVAL and CURRVAL

You can use NEXTVAL and CURRVAL in the following contexts:

- The SELECT list of a SELECT statement that is not part of a subquery
- The SELECT list of a subquery in an INSERT statement
- The VALUES clause of an INSERT statement
- The SET clause of an UPDATE statement

You cannot use NEXTVAL and CURRVAL in the following contexts:

- The SELECT list of a view
- A SELECT statement with the DISTINCT keyword
- A SELECT statement with GROUP BY, HAVING, or ORDER BY clauses
- A subquery in a SELECT, DELETE, or UPDATE statement
- The DEFAULT expression in a CREATE TABLE or ALTER TABLE statement

For more information, see *Oracle9i SQL Reference*, “Pseudocolumns” section and “CREATE SEQUENCE.”

Using a Sequence

- **Insert a new department named "Support" in location ID 2500.**

```
INSERT INTO departments(department_id,
            department_name, location_id)
VALUES      (dept_deptid_seq.NEXTVAL,
            'Support', 2500);
1 row created.
```

- **View the current value for the `DEPT_DEPTID_SEQ` sequence.**

```
SELECT   dept_deptid_seq.CURRVAL
FROM     dual;
```

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Using a Sequence

The example on the slide inserts a new department in the `DEPARTMENTS` table. It uses the `DEPT_DEPTID_SEQ` sequence for generating a new department number as follows:

You can view the current value of the sequence:

```
SELECT dept_deptid_seq.CURRVAL
FROM   dual;

CURRVAL
---------
120
```

Suppose now you want to hire employees to staff the new department. The `INSERT` statement to be executed for all new employees can include the following code:

```
INSERT INTO employees (employee_id, department_id, ...)
VALUES (employees_seq.NEXTVAL, dept_deptid_seq .CURRVAL, ...);
```

Note: The preceding example assumes that a sequence called `EMPLOYEE_SEQ` has already been created for generating new employee numbers.

Using a Sequence

- **Caching sequence values in memory gives faster access to those values.**
- **Gaps in sequence values can occur when:**
  - **A rollback occurs**
  - **The system crashes**
  - **A sequence is used in another table**
- **If the sequence was created with `NOCACHE`, view the next available value, by querying the `USER_SEQUENCES` table.**

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Caching Sequence Values

Cache sequences in memory to provide faster access to those sequence values. The cache is populated the first time you refer to the sequence. Each request for the next sequence value is retrieved from the cached sequence. After the last sequence value is used, the next request for the sequence pulls another cache of sequences into memory.

Gaps in the Sequence

Although sequence generators issue sequential numbers without gaps, this action occurs independent of a commit or rollback. Therefore, if you roll back a statement containing a sequence, the number is lost.

Another event that can cause gaps in the sequence is a system crash. If the sequence caches values in the memory, then those values are lost if the system crashes.

Because sequences are not tied directly to tables, the same sequence can be used for multiple tables. If you do so, each table can contain gaps in the sequential numbers.

Viewing the Next Available Sequence Value without Incrementing It

If the sequence was created with `NOCACHE`, it is possible to view the next available sequence value without incrementing it by querying the `USER_SEQUENCES` table.

Modifying a Sequence

Change the increment value, maximum value, minimum value, cycle option, or cache option.

```
ALTER SEQUENCE dept_deptid_seq
               INCREMENT BY 20
               MAXVALUE 999999
               NOCACHE
               NOCYCLE;
Sequence altered.
```


Altering a Sequence

If you reach the MAXVALUE limit for your sequence, no additional values from the sequence are allocated and you will receive an error indicating that the sequence exceeds the MAXVALUE. To continue to use the sequence, you can modify it by using the ALTER SEQUENCE statement.

Syntax

```
ALTER  SEQUENCE   sequence
       [INCREMENT BY n]
       [{MAXVALUE n | NOMAXVALUE}]
       [{MINVALUE n | NOMINVALUE}]
       [{CYCLE | NOCYCLE}]
       [{CACHE n | NOCACHE}];
```

In the syntax:

sequence is the name of the sequence generator

For more information, see *Oracle9i SQL Reference*, "ALTER SEQUENCE."

Guidelines for Modifying a Sequence

- **You must be the owner or have the `ALTER` privilege for the sequence.**
- **Only future sequence numbers are affected.**
- **The sequence must be dropped and re-created to restart the sequence at a different number.**
- **Some validation is performed.**

Guidelines for Modifying Sequences

- You must be the owner or have the `ALTER` privilege for the sequence in order to modify it.
- Only future sequence numbers are affected by the `ALTER SEQUENCE` statement.
- The `START WITH` option cannot be changed using `ALTER SEQUENCE`. The sequence must be dropped and re-created in order to restart the sequence at a different number.
- Some validation is performed. For example, a new `MAXVALUE` that is less than the current sequence number cannot be imposed.

```
ALTER SEQUENCE dept_deptid_seq
       INCREMENT BY 20
       MAXVALUE 90
       NOCACHE
       NOCYCLE;
ALTER SEQUENCE dept_deptid_seq
*
ERROR at line 1:
ORA-04009: MAXVALUE cannot be made to be less than the current
           value
```

Removing a Sequence

- **Remove a sequence from the data dictionary by using the `DROP SEQUENCE` statement.**
- **Once removed, the sequence can no longer be referenced.**

```
DROP SEQUENCE dept_deptid_seq;
Sequence dropped.
```


Removing a Sequence

To remove a sequence from the data dictionary, use the `DROP SEQUENCE` statement. You must be the owner of the sequence or have the `DROP ANY SEQUENCE` privilege to remove it.

Syntax

```
DROP    SEQUENCE     sequence;
```

In the syntax:

sequence is the name of the sequence generator

For more information, see *Oracle9i SQL Reference,* "`DROP SEQUENCE`."

What is an Index?

An index:

- Is a schema object
- Is used by the Oracle server to speed up the retrieval of rows by using a pointer
- Can reduce disk I/O by using a rapid path access method to locate data quickly
- Is independent of the table it indexes
- Is used and maintained automatically by the Oracle server

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Indexes

An Oracle server index is a schema object that can speed up the retrieval of rows by using a pointer. Indexes can be created explicitly or automatically. If you do not have an index on the column, then a full table scan occurs.

An index provides direct and fast access to rows in a table. Its purpose is to reduce the necessity of disk I/O by using an indexed path to locate data quickly. The index is used and maintained automatically by the Oracle server. Once an index is created, no direct activity is required by the user.

Indexes are logically and physically independent of the table they index. This means that they can be created or dropped at any time and have no effect on the base tables or other indexes.

Note: When you drop a table, corresponding indexes are also dropped.

For more information, see *Oracle9i Concepts*, “Schema Objects” section, “Indexes” topic.

How Are Indexes Created?

- **Automatically: A unique index is created automatically when you define a `PRIMARY KEY` or `UNIQUE` constraint in a table definition.**
- **Manually: Users can create nonunique indexes on columns to speed up access to the rows.**

Types of Indexes

Two types of indexes can be created. One type is a unique index: the Oracle server automatically creates this index when you define a column in a table to have a `PRIMARY KEY` or a `UNIQUE` key constraint. The name of the index is the name given to the constraint.

The other type of index is a nonunique index, which a user can create. For example, you can create a `FOREIGN KEY` column index for a join in a query to improve retrieval speed.

Note: You can manually create a unique index, but it is recommended that you create a unique constraint, which implicitly creates a unique index.

Creating an Index

- **Create an index on one or more columns.**

```
CREATE INDEX index
ON table (column[, column]...);
```

- **Improve the speed of query access to the LAST_NAME column in the EMPLOYEES table.**

```
CREATE INDEX  emp_last_name_idx
ON            employees(last_name);
Index created.
```


Creating an Index

Create an index on one or more columns by issuing the `CREATE INDEX` statement.

In the syntax:

index	is the name of the index
table	is the name of the table
column	is the name of the column in the table to be indexed

For more information, see *Oracle9i SQL Reference*, "`CREATE INDEX`."

When to Create an Index

You should create an index if:

- A column contains a wide range of values
- A column contains a large number of null values
- One or more columns are frequently used together in a `WHERE` clause or a join condition
- The table is large and most queries are expected to retrieve less than 2 to 4 percent of the rows

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More Is Not Always Better

More indexes on a table does not mean faster queries. Each DML operation that is committed on a table with indexes means that the indexes must be updated. The more indexes you have associated with a table, the more effort the Oracle server must make to update all the indexes after a DML operation.

When to Create an Index

Therefore, you should create indexes only if:

- The column contains a wide range of values
- The column contains a large number of null values
- One or more columns are frequently used together in a `WHERE` clause or join condition
- The table is large and most queries are expected to retrieve less than 2–4% of the rows

Remember that if you want to enforce uniqueness, you should define a unique constraint in the table definition. Then a unique index is created automatically.

When Not to Create an Index

It is usually not worth creating an index if:

- **The table is small**
- **The columns are not often used as a condition in the query**
- **Most queries are expected to retrieve more than 2 to 4 percent of the rows in the table**
- **The table is updated frequently**
- **The indexed columns are referenced as part of an expression**

Confirming Indexes

- **The `USER_INDEXES` data dictionary view contains the name of the index and its uniqueness.**
- **The `USER_IND_COLUMNS` view contains the index name, the table name, and the column name.**

```
SELECT   ic.index_name, ic.column_name,
         ic.column_position col_pos,ix.uniqueness
FROM     user_indexes ix, user_ind_columns ic
WHERE    ic.index_name = ix.index_name
AND      ic.table_name = 'EMPLOYEES';
```

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Confirming Indexes

Confirm the existence of indexes from the `USER_INDEXES` data dictionary view. You can also check the columns involved in an index by querying the `USER_IND_COLUMNS` view.

The example on the slide displays all the previously created indexes, with the names of the affected column, and the index's uniqueness, on the `EMPLOYEES` table.

INDEX_NAME	COLUMN_NAME	COL_POS	UNIQUENES
EMP_EMAIL_UK	EMAIL	1	UNIQUE
EMP_EMP_ID_PK	EMPLOYEE_ID	1	UNIQUE
EMP_DEPARTMENT_IX	DEPARTMENT_ID	1	NONUNIQUE
EMP_JOB_IX	JOB_ID	1	NONUNIQUE
EMP_MANAGER_IX	MANAGER_ID	1	NONUNIQUE
EMP_NAME_IX	LAST_NAME	1	NONUNIQUE
EMP_NAME_IX	FIRST_NAME	2	NONUNIQUE
EMP_LAST_NAME_IDX	LAST_NAME	1	NONUNIQUE

8 rows selected.

Function-Based Indexes

- **A function-based index is an index based on expressions.**
- **The index expression is built from table columns, constants, SQL functions, and user-defined functions.**

```
CREATE INDEX upper_dept_name_idx
ON departments(UPPER(department_name));

Index created.

SELECT *
FROM   departments
WHERE  UPPER(department_name) = 'SALES';
```

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Function-Based Index

Function-based indexes defined with the `UPPER(`*`column_name`*`)` or `LOWER(`*`column_name`*`)` keywords allow case-insensitive searches. For example, the following index:

```
CREATE INDEX upper_last_name_idx ON employees (UPPER(last_name));
```

Facilitates processing queries such as:

```
SELECT * FROM employees WHERE UPPER(last_name) = 'KING';
```

To ensure that the Oracle server uses the index rather than performing a full table scan, be sure that the value of the function is not null in subsequent queries. For example, the following statement is guaranteed to use the index, but without the `WHERE` clause the Oracle server may perform a full table scan:

```
SELECT * FROM employees
WHERE UPPER (last_name) IS NOT NULL
ORDER BY UPPER (last_name);
```

The Oracle server treats indexes with columns marked `DESC` as function-based indexes. The columns marked `DESC` are sorted in descending order.

Removing an Index

- Remove an index from the data dictionary by using the `DROP INDEX` command.

```
DROP INDEX index;
```

- Remove the `UPPER_LAST_NAME_IDX` index from the data dictionary.

```
DROP INDEX upper_last_name_idx;
Index dropped.
```

- To drop an index, you must be the owner of the index or have the `DROP ANY INDEX` privilege.

Removing an Index

You cannot modify indexes. To change an index, you must drop it and then re-create it. Remove an index definition from the data dictionary by issuing the `DROP INDEX` statement. To drop an index, you must be the owner of the index or have the `DROP ANY INDEX` privilege.

In the syntax:

`index` is the name of the index

Note: If you drop a table, indexes and constraints are automatically dropped, but views and sequences remain.

Synonyms

Simplify access to objects by creating a synonym (another name for an object). With synonyms, you can:

- **Ease referring to a table owned by another user**
- **Shorten lengthy object names**

```
CREATE [PUBLIC] SYNONYM synonym
FOR    object;
```


Creating a Synonym for an Object

To refer to a table owned by another user, you need to prefix the table name with the name of the user who created it followed by a period. Creating a synonym eliminates the need to qualify the object name with the schema and provides you with an alternative name for a table, view, sequence, procedure, or other objects. This method can be especially useful with lengthy object names, such as views.

In the syntax:

`PUBLIC`	creates a synonym accessible to all users
`synonym`	is the name of the synonym to be created
`object`	identifies the object for which the synonym is created

Guidelines

- The object cannot be contained in a package.
- A private synonym name must be distinct from all other objects owned by the same user.

For more information, see *Oracle9i SQL Reference*, “`CREATE SYNONYM`.”

Creating and Removing Synonyms

- **Create a shortened name for the `DEPT_SUM_VU` view.**

```
CREATE SYNONYM  d_sum
FOR  dept_sum_vu;
Synonym Created.
```

- **Drop a synonym.**

```
DROP SYNONYM d_sum;
Synonym dropped.
```

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Creating a Synonym for an Object (continued)

The slide example creates a synonym for the `DEPT_SUM_VU` view for quicker reference.

The database administrator can create a public synonym accessible to all users. The following example creates a public synonym named `DEPT` for Alice's `DEPARTMENTS` table:

```
CREATE PUBLIC SYNONYM  dept
FOR    alice.departments;
Synonym created.
```

Removing a Synonym

To drop a synonym, use the `DROP SYNONYM` statement. Only the database administrator can drop a public synonym.

```
DROP PUBLIC SYNONYM  dept;
Synonym dropped.
```

For more information, see *Oracle9i SQL Reference*, "`DROP SYNONYM`."

Summary

In this lesson, you should have learned how to:

- Automatically generate sequence numbers by using a sequence generator
- View sequence information in the `USER_SEQUENCES` data dictionary table
- Create indexes to improve query retrieval speed
- View index information in the `USER_INDEXES` dictionary table
- Use synonyms to provide alternative names for objects

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Summary

In this lesson you should have learned about some of the other database objects including sequences, indexes, and views.

Sequences

The sequence generator can be used to automatically generate sequence numbers for rows in tables. This can save time and can reduce the amount of application code needed.

A sequence is a database object that can be shared with other users. Information about the sequence can be found in the `USER_SEQUENCES` table of the data dictionary.

To use a sequence, reference it with either the `NEXTVAL` or the `CURRVAL` pseudocolumns.

- Retrieve the next number in the sequence by referencing *`sequence`*`.NEXTVAL`.
- Return the current available number by referencing *`sequence`*`.CURRVAL`.

Indexes

Indexes are used to improve query retrieval speed. Users can view the definitions of the indexes in the `USER_INDEXES` data dictionary view. An index can be dropped by the creator, or a user with the `DROP ANY INDEX` privilege, by using the `DROP INDEX` statement.

Synonyms

Database administrators can create public synonyms and users can create private synonyms for convenience, by using the `CREATE SYNONYM` statement. Synonyms permit short names or alternative names for objects. Remove synonyms by using the `DROP SYNONYM` statement.

Practice 12 Overview

This practice covers the following topics:

- **Creating sequences**
- **Using sequences**
- **Creating nonunique indexes**
- **Displaying data dictionary information about sequences and indexes**
- **Dropping indexes**

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Practice 12 Overview

In this practice, you create a sequence to be used when populating your table. You also create implicit and explicit indexes.

Practice 12

1. Create a sequence to be used with the primary key column of the DEPT table. The sequence should start at 200 and have a maximum value of 1000. Have your sequence increment by ten numbers. Name the sequence DEPT_ID_SEQ.
2. Write a query in a script to display the following information about your sequences: sequence name, maximum value, increment size, and last number. Name the script lab12_2.sql. Run the statement in your script.

SEQUENCE_NAME	MAX_VALUE	INCREMENT_BY	LAST_NUMBER
DEPARTMENTS_SEQ	9990	10	280
DEPT_ID_SEQ	1000	10	200
EMPLOYEES_SEQ	1.0000E+27	1	207
LOCATIONS_SEQ	9900	100	3300

3. Write a script to insert two rows into the DEPT table. Name your script lab12_3.sql. Be sure to use the sequence that you created for the ID column. Add two departments named Education and Administration. Confirm your additions. Run the commands in your script.
4. Create a nonunique index on the foreign key column (DEPT_ID) in the EMP table.
5. Display the indexes and uniqueness that exist in the data dictionary for the EMP table. Save the statement into a script named lab12_5.sql.

INDEX_NAME	TABLE_NAME	UNIQUENES
EMP_DEPT_ID_IDX	EMP	NONUNIQUE
EMP_ID_PK	EMP	UNIQUE