SQL Basics Cheat Sheet

LearnSQL.com

SQL

SQL, or *Structured Query Language*, is a language to talk to databases. It allows you to select specific data and to build complex reports. Today, SQL is a universal language of data. It is used in practically all technologies that process data.

SAMPLE DATA

COUNTRY

id	name	population	area
1	France	66600000	640680
2	Germany	80700000	357000
...	...	...	...

CITY

id	name	country_id	population	rating
1	Paris	1	2243000	5
2	Berlin	2	3460000	3
...	...	...	...	...

QUERYING SINGLE TABLE

Fetch all columns from the `country` table:

```
SELECT *
FROM country;
```

Fetch `id` and `name` columns from the `city` table:

```
SELECT id, name
FROM city;
```

Fetch city names sorted by the `rating` column in the default ASCending order:

```
SELECT name
FROM city
ORDER BY rating [ASC];
```

Fetch city names sorted by the `rating` column in the DESCending order:

```
SELECT name
FROM city
ORDER BY rating DESC;
```

ALIASES

COLUMNS

```
SELECT name AS city_name
FROM city;
```

TABLES

```
SELECT co.name, ci.name
FROM city AS ci
JOIN country AS co
  ON ci.country_id = co.id;
```

FILTERING THE OUTPUT

COMPARISON OPERATORS

Fetch names of cities that have a rating above 3:

```
SELECT name
FROM city
WHERE rating > 3;
```

Fetch names of cities that are neither Berlin nor Madrid:

```
SELECT name
FROM city
WHERE name != 'Berlin'
  AND name != 'Madrid';
```

TEXT OPERATORS

Fetch names of cities that start with a 'P' or end with an 's':

```
SELECT name
FROM city
WHERE name LIKE 'P%'
   OR name LIKE '%s';
```

Fetch names of cities that start with any letter followed by 'ublin' (like Dublin in Ireland or Lublin in Poland):

```
SELECT name
FROM city
WHERE name LIKE '_ublin';
```

OTHER OPERATORS

Fetch names of cities that have a population between 500K and 5M:

```
SELECT name
FROM city
WHERE population BETWEEN 500000 AND 5000000;
```

Fetch names of cities that don't miss a rating value:

```
SELECT name
FROM city
WHERE rating IS NOT NULL;
```

Fetch names of cities that are in countries with IDs 1, 4, 7, or 8:

```
SELECT name
FROM city
WHERE country_id IN (1, 4, 7, 8);
```

QUERYING MULTIPLE TABLES

INNER JOIN

`JOIN` (or explicitly **`INNER JOIN`**) returns rows that have matching values in both tables.

```
SELECT city.name, country.name
FROM city
[INNER] JOIN country
  ON city.country_id = country.id;
```

CITY			COUNTRY	
id	name	country_id	id	name
1	Paris	1	1	France
2	Berlin	2	2	Germany
3	Warsaw	4	3	Iceland

LEFT JOIN

`LEFT JOIN` returns all rows from the left table with corresponding rows from the right table. If there's no matching row, **`NULL`**s are returned as values from the second table.

```
SELECT city.name, country.name
FROM city
LEFT JOIN country
  ON city.country_id = country.id;
```

CITY			COUNTRY	
id	name	country_id	id	name
1	Paris	1	1	France
2	Berlin	2	2	Germany
3	Warsaw	4	NULL	NULL

RIGHT JOIN

`RIGHT JOIN` returns all rows from the right table with corresponding rows from the left table. If there's no matching row, **`NULL`**s are returned as values from the left table.

```
SELECT city.name, country.name
FROM city
RIGHT JOIN country
  ON city.country_id = country.id;
```

CITY			COUNTRY	
id	name	country_id	id	name
1	Paris	1	1	France
2	Berlin	2	2	Germany
NULL	NULL	NULL	3	Iceland

FULL JOIN

`FULL JOIN` (or explicitly **`FULL OUTER JOIN`**) returns all rows from both tables – if there's no matching row in the second table, **`NULL`**s are returned.

```
SELECT city.name, country.name
FROM city
FULL [OUTER] JOIN country
  ON city.country_id = country.id;
```

CITY			COUNTRY	
id	name	country_id	id	name
1	Paris	1	1	France
2	Berlin	2	2	Germany
3	Warsaw	4	NULL	NULL
NULL	NULL	NULL	3	Iceland

CROSS JOIN

`CROSS JOIN` returns all possible combinations of rows from both tables. There are two syntaxes available.

```
SELECT city.name, country.name
FROM city
CROSS JOIN country;

SELECT city.name, country.name
FROM city, country;
```

CITY			COUNTRY	
id	name	country_id	id	name
1	Paris	1	1	France
1	Paris	1	2	Germany
2	Berlin	2	1	France
2	Berlin	2	2	Germany

NATURAL JOIN

`NATURAL JOIN` will join tables by all columns with the same name.

```
SELECT city.name, country.name
FROM city
NATURAL JOIN country;
```

CITY			COUNTRY	
country_id	id	name	name	id
6	6	San Marino	San Marino	6
7	7	Vatican City	Vatican City	7
5	9	Greece	Greece	9
10	11	Monaco	Monaco	10

`NATURAL JOIN` used these columns to match rows: **`city.id, city.name, country.id, country.name`**
`NATURAL JOIN` is very rarely used in practice.

SQL Basics Cheat Sheet

LearnSQL.com

AGGREGATION AND GROUPING

GROUP BY **groups** together rows that have the same values in specified columns. It computes summaries (aggregates) for each unique combination of values.

CITY

id	name	country_id
1	Paris	1
101	Marseille	1
102	Lyon	1
2	Berlin	2
103	Hamburg	2
104	Munich	2
3	Warsaw	4
105	Cracow	4

→

CITY

country_id	count
1	3
2	3
4	2

AGGREGATE FUNCTIONS

- **avg(**expr**)** – average value for rows within the group
- **count(**expr**)** – count of values for rows within the group
- **max(**expr**)** – maximum value within the group
- **min(**expr**)** – minimum value within the group
- **sum(**expr**)** – sum of values within the group

EXAMPLE QUERIES

Find out the number of cities:

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

Find out the number of cities with non-null ratings:

```
SELECT COUNT(rating)
FROM city;
```

Find out the number of distinctive country values:

```
SELECT COUNT(DISTINCT country_id)
FROM city;
```

Find out the smallest and the greatest country populations:

```
SELECT MIN(population), MAX(population)
FROM country;
```

Find out the total population of cities in respective countries:

```
SELECT country_id, SUM(population)
FROM city
GROUP BY country_id;
```

Find out the average rating for cities in respective countries if the average is above 3.0:

```
SELECT country_id, AVG(rating)
FROM city
GROUP BY country_id
HAVING AVG(rating) > 3.0;
```

SUBQUERIES

A subquery is a query that is nested inside another query, or inside another subquery. There are different types of subqueries.

SINGLE VALUE

The simplest subquery returns exactly one column and exactly one row. It can be used with comparison operators =, <, <=, >, or >=.

This query finds cities with the same rating as Paris:

```
SELECT name FROM city
WHERE rating = (
    SELECT rating
    FROM city
    WHERE name = 'Paris'
);
```

MULTIPLE VALUES

A subquery can also return multiple columns or multiple rows. Such subqueries can be used with operators IN, EXISTS, ALL, or ANY.

This query finds cities in countries that have a population above 20M:

```
SELECT name
FROM city
WHERE country_id IN (
    SELECT country_id
    FROM country
    WHERE population > 20000000
);
```

CORRELATED

A correlated subquery refers to the tables introduced in the outer query. A correlated subquery depends on the outer query. It cannot be run independently from the outer query.

This query finds cities with a population greater than the average population in the country:

```
SELECT *
FROM city main_city
WHERE population > (
    SELECT AVG(population)
    FROM city average_city
    WHERE average_city.country_id = main_city.country_id
);
```

This query finds countries that have at least one city:

```
SELECT name
FROM country
WHERE EXISTS (
    SELECT *
    FROM city
    WHERE country_id = country.id
);
```

SET OPERATIONS

Set operations are used to combine the results of two or more queries into a single result. The combined queries must return the same number of columns and compatible data types. The names of the corresponding columns can be different.

CYCLING

id	name	country
1	YK	DE
2	ZG	DE
3	WT	PL
...	...	...

SKATING

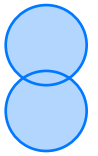
id	name	country
1	YK	DE
2	DF	DE
3	AK	PL
...	...	...

UNION

UNION combines the results of two result sets and removes duplicates. UNION ALL doesn't remove duplicate rows.

This query displays German cyclists together with German skaters:

```
SELECT name
FROM cycling
WHERE country = 'DE'
UNION / UNION ALL
SELECT name
FROM skating
WHERE country = 'DE';
```

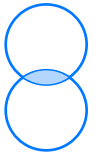


INTERSECT

INTERSECT returns only rows that appear in both result sets.

This query displays German cyclists who are also German skaters at the same time:

```
SELECT name
FROM cycling
WHERE country = 'DE'
INTERSECT
SELECT name
FROM skating
WHERE country = 'DE';
```

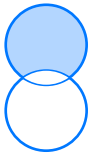


EXCEPT

EXCEPT returns only the rows that appear in the first result set but do not appear in the second result set.

This query displays German cyclists unless they are also German skaters at the same time:

```
SELECT name
FROM cycling
WHERE country = 'DE'
EXCEPT / MINUS
SELECT name
FROM skating
WHERE country = 'DE';
```

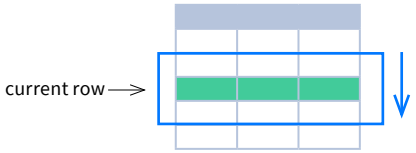


SQL Window Functions Cheat Sheet

LearnSQL.com

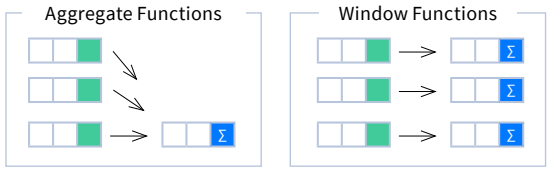
WINDOW FUNCTIONS

compute their result based on a sliding window frame, a set of rows that are somehow related to the current row.



AGGREGATE FUNCTIONS VS. WINDOW FUNCTIONS

unlike aggregate functions, window functions do not collapse rows.



SYNTAX

```
SELECT city, month,
    sum(sold) OVER (
        PARTITION BY city
        ORDER BY month
        RANGE UNBOUNDED PRECEDING) total
FROM sales;
```

```
SELECT <column_1>, <column_2>,
    <window_function>() OVER (
        PARTITION BY <...>
        ORDER BY <...>
        <window_frame>) <window_column_alias>
FROM <table_name>;
```

Named Window Definition

```
SELECT country, city,
    rank() OVER country_sold_avg
FROM sales
WHERE month BETWEEN 1 AND 6
GROUP BY country, city
HAVING sum(sold) > 10000
WINDOW country_sold_avg AS (
    PARTITION BY country
    ORDER BY avg(sold) DESC)
ORDER BY country, city;
```

```
SELECT <column_1>, <column_2>,
    <window_function>() OVER <window_name>
FROM <table_name>
WHERE <...>
GROUP BY <...>
HAVING <...>
WINDOW <window_name> AS (
    PARTITION BY <...>
    ORDER BY <...>
    <window_frame>)
ORDER BY <...>;
```

PARTITION BY, ORDER BY, and window frame definition are all optional.

LOGICAL ORDER OF OPERATIONS IN SQL

1. FROM, JOIN
2. WHERE
3. GROUP BY
4. aggregate functions
5. HAVING
6. **window functions**
7. SELECT
8. DISTINCT
9. UNION/INTERSECT/EXCEPT
10. ORDER BY
11. OFFSET
12. LIMIT/FETCH/TOP

You can use window functions in SELECT and ORDER BY. However, you can't put window functions anywhere in the FROM, WHERE, GROUP BY, or HAVING clauses.

PARTITION BY

divides rows into multiple groups, called **partitions**, to which the window function is applied.

month	city	sold
1	Rome	200
2	Paris	500
1	London	100
1	Paris	300
2	Rome	300
2	London	400
3	Rome	400

PARTITION BY city

month	city	sold	sum
1	Paris	300	800
2	Paris	500	800
1	Rome	200	900
2	Rome	300	900
3	Rome	400	900
1	London	100	500
2	London	400	500

Default Partition: with no PARTITION BY clause, the entire result set is the partition.

ORDER BY

specifies the order of rows in each partition to which the window function is applied.

sold	city	month
200	Rome	1
500	Paris	2
100	London	1
300	Paris	1
300	Rome	2
400	London	2
400	Rome	3

PARTITION BY city ORDER BY month

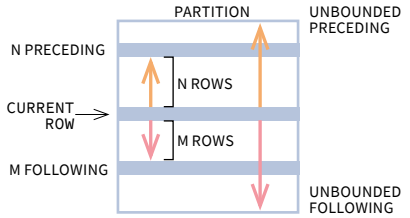
sold	city	month
300	Paris	1
500	Paris	2
200	Rome	1
300	Rome	2
400	Rome	3
100	London	1
400	London	2

Default ORDER BY: with no ORDER BY clause, the order of rows within each partition is arbitrary.

WINDOW FRAME

is a set of rows that are somehow related to the current row. The window frame is evaluated separately within each partition.

ROWS | RANGE | GROUPS BETWEEN lower_bound AND upper_bound



The bounds can be any of the five options:

- UNBOUNDED PRECEDING
- n PRECEDING
- CURRENT ROW
- n FOLLOWING
- UNBOUNDED FOLLOWING

The lower_bound must be BEFORE the upper_bound

ROWS BETWEEN 1 PRECEDING AND 1 FOLLOWING

	city	sold	month
	Paris	300	1
	Rome	200	1
	Paris	500	2
	Rome	100	4
current row →	Paris	200	4
	Paris	300	5
	Rome	200	5
	London	200	5
	London	100	6
	Rome	300	6

1 row before the current row and 1 row after the current row

RANGE BETWEEN 1 PRECEDING AND 1 FOLLOWING

	city	sold	month
	Paris	300	1
	Rome	200	1
	Paris	500	2
	Rome	100	4
current row →	Paris	200	4
	Paris	300	5
	Rome	200	5
	London	200	5
	London	100	6
	Rome	300	6

values in the range between 3 and 5
ORDER BY must contain a single expression

GROUPS BETWEEN 1 PRECEDING AND 1 FOLLOWING

	city	sold	month
	Paris	300	1
	Rome	200	1
	Paris	500	2
	Rome	100	4
current row →	Paris	200	4
	Paris	300	5
	Rome	200	5
	London	200	5
	London	100	6
	Rome	300	6

1 group before the current row and 1 group after the current row regardless of the value

As of 2020, GROUPS is only supported in PostgreSQL 11 and up.

ABBREVIATIONS

Abbreviation	Meaning
UNBOUNDED PRECEDING	BETWEEN UNBOUNDED PRECEDING AND CURRENT ROW
n PRECEDING	BETWEEN n PRECEDING AND CURRENT ROW
CURRENT ROW	BETWEEN CURRENT ROW AND CURRENT ROW
n FOLLOWING	BETWEEN AND CURRENT ROW AND n FOLLOWING
UNBOUNDED FOLLOWING	BETWEEN CURRENT ROW AND UNBOUNDED FOLLOWING

DEFAULT WINDOW FRAME

If ORDER BY is specified, then the frame is RANGE BETWEEN UNBOUNDED PRECEDING AND CURRENT ROW.

Without ORDER BY, the frame specification is ROWS BETWEEN UNBOUNDED PRECEDING AND UNBOUNDED FOLLOWING.

SQL Window Functions Cheat Sheet

LearnSQL.com

LIST OF WINDOW FUNCTIONS

Aggregate Functions
- `avg()`
- `count()`
- `max()`
- `min()`
- `sum()`

Ranking Functions
- `row_number()`
- `rank()`
- `dense_rank()`

Distribution Functions
- `percent_rank()`
- `cume_dist()`

Analytic Functions
- `lead()`
- `lag()`
- `ntile()`
- `first_value()`
- `last_value()`
- `nth_value()`

AGGREGATE FUNCTIONS

- **`avg`***(expr)* – average value for rows within the window frame
- **`count`***(expr)* – count of values for rows within the window frame
- **`max`***(expr)* – maximum value within the window frame
- **`min`***(expr)* – minimum value within the window frame
- **`sum`***(expr)* – sum of values within the window frame

ORDER BY and `Window Frame`: Aggregate functions do not require an ORDER BY. They accept window frame definition (`ROWS`, `RANGE`, `GROUPS`).

RANKING FUNCTIONS

- **`row_number()`** – unique number for each row within partition, with different numbers for tied values
- **`rank()`** – ranking within partition, with gaps and same ranking for tied values
- **`dense_rank()`** – ranking within partition, with no gaps and same ranking for tied values

city	price	row_number	rank	dense_rank
		over(order by price)		
Paris	7	1	1	1
Rome	7	2	1	1
London	8.5	3	3	2
Berlin	8.5	4	3	2
Moscow	9	5	5	3
Madrid	10	6	6	4
Oslo	10	7	6	4

ORDER BY and Window Frame: `rank()` and `dense_rank()` require ORDER BY, but `row_number()` does not require ORDER BY. Ranking functions do not accept window frame definition (`ROWS`, `RANGE`, `GROUPS`).

DISTRIBUTION FUNCTIONS

- **`percent_rank()`** – the percentile ranking number of a row—a value in [0, 1] interval: (rank - 1) / (total number of rows - 1)
- **`cume_dist()`** – the cumulative distribution of a value within a group of values, i.e., the number of rows with values less than or equal to the current row's value divided by the total number of rows; a value in (0, 1] interval

`percent_rank() OVER(ORDER BY sold)`

city	sold	percent_rank
Paris	100	0
Berlin	150	0.25
Rome	200	0.5
Moscow	200	0.5
London	300	1

← without this row 50% of values are less than this row's value

`cume_dist() OVER(ORDER BY sold)`

city	sold	cume_dist
Paris	100	0.2
Berlin	150	0.4
Rome	200	0.8
Moscow	200	0.8
London	300	1

← 80% of values are less than or equal to this one

ORDER BY and Window Frame: Distribution functions require ORDER BY. They do not accept window frame definition (`ROWS`, `RANGE`, `GROUPS`).

ANALYTIC FUNCTIONS

- **`lead`***(expr, offset, default)* – the value for the row *offset* rows after the current; *offset* and *default* are optional; default values: *offset* = 1, *default* = NULL
- **`lag`***(expr, offset, default)* – the value for the row *offset* rows before the current; *offset* and *default* are optional; default values: *offset* = 1, *default* = NULL

`lead(sold) OVER(ORDER BY month)`

month	sold	
1	500	300
2	300	400
3	400	100
4	100	500
5	500	NULL

`lag(sold) OVER(ORDER BY month)`

month	sold	
1	500	NULL
2	300	500
3	400	300
4	100	400
5	500	100

`lead(sold, 2, 0) OVER(ORDER BY month)`

month	sold	
1	500	400
2	300	100
3	400	500
4	100	0
5	500	0

offset=2

`lag(sold, 2, 0) OVER(ORDER BY month)`

month	sold	
1	500	0
2	300	0
3	400	500
4	100	300
5	500	400

offset=2

- **`ntile`***(n)* – divide rows within a partition as equally as possible into *n* groups, and assign each row its group number.

`ntile(3)`

city	sold	
Rome	100	1
Paris	100	1
London	200	1
Moscow	200	2
Berlin	200	2
Madrid	300	2
Oslo	300	3
Dublin	300	3

ORDER BY and Window Frame: `ntile()`, `lead()`, and `lag()` require an ORDER BY. They do not accept window frame definition (`ROWS`, `RANGE`, `GROUPS`).

- **`first_value`***(expr)* – the value for the first row within the window frame
- **`last_value`***(expr)* – the value for the last row within the window frame

`first_value(sold) OVER (PARTITION BY city ORDER BY month)`

city	month	sold	first_value
Paris	1	500	500
Paris	2	300	500
Paris	3	400	500
Rome	2	200	200
Rome	3	300	200
Rome	4	500	200

`last_value(sold) OVER (PARTITION BY city ORDER BY month RANGE BETWEEN UNBOUNDED PRECEDING AND UNBOUNDED FOLLOWING)`

city	month	sold	last_value
Paris	1	500	400
Paris	2	300	400
Paris	3	400	400
Rome	2	200	500
Rome	3	300	500
Rome	4	500	500

Note: You usually want to use RANGE BETWEEN UNBOUNDED PRECEDING AND UNBOUNDED FOLLOWING with `last_value()`. With the default window frame for ORDER BY, RANGE UNBOUNDED PRECEDING, `last_value()` returns the value for the current row.

- **`nth_value`***(expr, n)* – the value for the *n*-th row within the window frame; *n* must be an integer

```
nth_value(sold, 2) OVER (PARTITION BY city
  ORDER BY month RANGE BETWEEN UNBOUNDED
    PRECEDING AND UNBOUNDED FOLLOWING)
```

city	month	sold	nth_value
Paris	1	500	300
Paris	2	300	300
Paris	3	400	300
Rome	2	200	300
Rome	3	300	300
Rome	4	500	300
Rome	5	300	300
London	1	100	NULL

ORDER BY and Window Frame: `first_value()`, `last_value()`, and `nth_value()` do not require an ORDER BY. They accept window frame definition (`ROWS`, `RANGE`, `GROUPS`).

SQL JOINs Cheat Sheet

LearnSQL.com

JOINING TABLES

JOIN combines data from two tables.

TOY

toy_id	toy_name	cat_id
1	ball	3
2	spring	NULL
3	mouse	1
4	mouse	4
5	ball	1

CAT

cat_id	cat_name
1	Kitty
2	Hugo
3	Sam
4	Misty

JOIN typically combines rows with equal values for the specified columns. **Usually**, one table contains a **primary key**, which is a column or columns that uniquely identify rows in the table (the `cat_id` column in the `cat` table).
The other table has a column or columns that **refer to the primary key columns** in the first table (the `cat_id` column in the `toy` table). Such columns are **foreign keys**. The JOIN condition is the equality between the primary key columns in one table and columns referring to them in the other table.

JOIN

JOIN returns all rows that match the ON condition. JOIN is also called INNER JOIN.

```
SELECT *
FROM toy
JOIN cat
  ON toy.cat_id = cat.cat_id;
```

toy_id	toy_name	cat_id	cat_id	cat_name
5	ball	1	1	Kitty
3	mouse	1	1	Kitty
1	ball	3	3	Sam
4	mouse	4	4	Misty

There is also another, older syntax, but it **isn't recommended**.
List joined tables in the FROM clause, and place the conditions in the WHERE clause.

```
SELECT *
FROM toy, cat
WHERE toy.cat_id = cat.cat_id;
```

JOIN CONDITIONS

The JOIN condition doesn't have to be an equality – it can be any condition you want. JOIN doesn't interpret the JOIN condition, it only checks if the rows satisfy the given condition.

To refer to a column in the JOIN query, you have to use the full column name: first the table name, then a dot (.) and the column name:

```
  ON cat.cat_id = toy.cat_id
```

You can omit the table name and use just the column name if the name of the column is unique within all columns in the joined tables.

NATURAL JOIN

If the tables have columns with **the same name**, you can use NATURAL JOIN instead of JOIN.

```
SELECT *
FROM toy
NATURAL JOIN cat;
```

cat_id	toy_id	toy_name	cat_name
1	5	ball	Kitty
1	3	mouse	Kitty
3	1	ball	Sam
4	4	mouse	Misty

The common column appears only once in the result table.
Note: NATURAL JOIN is rarely used in real life.

LEFT JOIN

LEFT JOIN returns all rows from the **left table** with matching rows from the right table. Rows without a match are filled with NULLs. LEFT JOIN is also called LEFT OUTER JOIN.

```
SELECT *
FROM toy
LEFT JOIN cat
  ON toy.cat_id = cat.cat_id;
```

toy_id	toy_name	cat_id	cat_id	cat_name
5	ball	1	1	Kitty
3	mouse	1	1	Kitty
1	ball	3	3	Sam
4	mouse	4	4	Misty
2	spring	NULL	NULL	NULL

whole left table

RIGHT JOIN

RIGHT JOIN returns all rows from the **right table** with matching rows from the left table. Rows without a match are filled with NULLs. RIGHT JOIN is also called RIGHT OUTER JOIN.

```
SELECT *
FROM toy
RIGHT JOIN cat
  ON toy.cat_id = cat.cat_id;
```

toy_id	toy_name	cat_id	cat_id	cat_name
5	ball	1	1	Kitty
3	mouse	1	1	Kitty
NULL	NULL	NULL	2	Hugo
1	ball	3	3	Sam
4	mouse	4	4	Misty

whole right table

FULL JOIN

FULL JOIN returns all rows from the **left table** and all rows from the **right table**. It fills the non-matching rows with NULLs. FULL JOIN is also called FULL OUTER JOIN.

```
SELECT *
FROM toy
FULL JOIN cat
  ON toy.cat_id = cat.cat_id;
```

toy_id	toy_name	cat_id	cat_id	cat_name
5	ball	1	1	Kitty
3	mouse	1	1	Kitty
NULL	NULL	NULL	2	Hugo
1	ball	3	3	Sam
4	mouse	4	4	Misty
2	spring	NULL	NULL	NULL

whole left table | whole right table

CROSS JOIN

CROSS JOIN returns **all possible combinations** of rows from the left and right tables.

```
SELECT *
FROM toy
CROSS JOIN cat;
```

Other syntax:

```
SELECT *
FROM toy, cat;
```

toy_id	toy_name	cat_id	cat_id	cat_name
1	ball	3	1	Kitty
2	spring	NULL	1	Kitty
3	mouse	1	1	Kitty
4	mouse	4	1	Kitty
5	ball	1	1	Kitty
1	ball	3	2	Hugo
2	spring	NULL	2	Hugo
3	mouse	1	2	Hugo
4	mouse	4	2	Hugo
5	ball	1	2	Hugo
1	ball	3	3	Sam
...	...	...	...	...

SQL JOINs Cheat Sheet

LearnSQL.com

COLUMN AND TABLE ALIASES

Aliases give a temporary name to a **table** or a **column** in a table.

CAT AS c

cat_id	cat_name	mom_id	owner_id
1	Kitty	5	1
2	Hugo	1	2
3	Sam	2	2
4	Misty	1	NULL

OWNER AS o

id	name
1	John Smith
2	Danielle Davis

A **column alias** renames a column in the result. A **table alias** renames a table within the query. If you define a table alias, you must use it instead of the table name everywhere in the query. The AS keyword is optional in defining aliases.

```
SELECT
  o.name AS owner_name,
  c.cat_name
FROM cat   AS c
JOIN owner AS o
  ON c.owner_id = o.id;
```

cat_name	owner_name
Kitty	John Smith
Sam	Danielle Davis
Hugo	Danielle Davis

SELF JOIN

You can join a table to itself, for example, to show a parent-child relationship.

CAT AS child

cat_id	cat_name	owner_id	mom_id
1	Kitty	1	5
2	Hugo	2	1
3	Sam	2	2
4	Misty	NULL	1

CAT AS mom

cat_id	cat_name	owner_id	mom_id
1	Kitty	1	5
2	Hugo	2	1
3	Sam	2	2
4	Misty	NULL	1

Each occurrence of the table must be given a **different alias**. Each column reference must be preceded with an **appropriate table alias**.

```
SELECT
  child.cat_name AS child_name,
  mom.cat_name   AS mom_name
FROM cat AS child
JOIN cat AS mom
  ON child.mom_id = mom.cat_id;
```

child_name	mom_name
Hugo	Kitty
Sam	Hugo
Misty	Kitty

NON-EQUI SELF JOIN

You can use a **non-equality** in the ON condition, for example, to show **all different pairs** of rows.

TOY AS a

toy_id	toy_name	cat_id
3	mouse	1
5	ball	1
1	ball	3
4	mouse	4
2	spring	NULL

TOY AS b

cat_id	toy_id	toy_name
1	3	mouse
1	5	ball
3	1	ball
4	4	mouse
NULL	2	spring

```
SELECT
  a.toy_name AS toy_a,
  b.toy_name AS toy_b
FROM toy a
JOIN toy b
  ON a.cat_id < b.cat_id;
```

cat_a_id	toy_a	cat_b_id	toy_b
1	mouse	3	ball
1	ball	3	ball
1	mouse	4	mouse
1	ball	4	mouse
3	ball	4	mouse

MULTIPLE JOINS

You can join more than two tables together. First, two tables are joined, then the third table is joined to the result of the previous joining.

TOY AS t

toy_id	toy_name	cat_id
1	ball	3
2	spring	NULL
3	mouse	1
4	mouse	4
5	ball	1

CAT AS c

cat_id	cat_name	mom_id	owner_id
1	Kitty	5	1
2	Hugo	1	2
3	Sam	2	2
4	Misty	1	NULL

OWNER AS o

id	name
1	John Smith
2	Danielle Davis

JOIN & JOIN

```
SELECT
  t.toy_name,
  c.cat_name,
  o.name AS owner_name
FROM toy t
JOIN cat c
  ON t.cat_id = c.cat_id
JOIN owner o
  ON c.owner_id = o.id;
```

toy_name	cat_name	owner_name
ball	Kitty	John Smith
mouse	Kitty	John Smith
ball	Sam	Danielle Davis

JOIN & LEFT JOIN

```
SELECT
  t.toy_name,
  c.cat_name,
  o.name AS owner_name
FROM toy t
JOIN cat c
  ON t.cat_id = c.cat_id
LEFT JOIN owner o
  ON c.owner_id = o.id;
```

toy_name	cat_name	owner_name
ball	Kitty	John Smith
mouse	Kitty	John Smith
ball	Sam	Danielle Davis
mouse	Misty	NULL

LEFT JOIN & LEFT JOIN

```
SELECT
  t.toy_name,
  c.cat_name,
  o.name AS owner_name
FROM toy t
LEFT JOIN cat c
  ON t.cat_id = c.cat_id
LEFT JOIN owner o
  ON c.owner_id = o.id;
```

toy_name	cat_name	owner_name
ball	Kitty	John Smith
mouse	Kitty	John Smith
ball	Sam	Danielle Davis
mouse	Misty	NULL
spring	NULL	NULL

JOIN WITH MULTIPLE CONDITIONS

You can use multiple JOIN conditions using the **ON** keyword once and the **AND** keywords as many times as you need.

CAT AS c

cat_id	cat_name	mom_id	owner_id	age
1	Kitty	5	1	17
2	Hugo	1	2	10
3	Sam	2	2	5
4	Misty	1	NULL	11

OWNER AS o

id	name	age
1	John Smith	18
2	Danielle Davis	10

```
SELECT
  cat_name,
  o.name AS owner_name,
  c.age  AS cat_age,
  o.age  AS owner_age
FROM cat c
JOIN owner o
  ON c.owner_id = o.id
 AND c.age < o.age;
```

cat_name	owner_name	age	age
Kitty	John Smith	17	18
Sam	Danielle Davis	5	10

Standard SQL Functions Cheat Sheet

LearnSQL.com

TEXT FUNCTIONS

CONCATENATION

Use the `||` operator to concatenate two strings:

```
SELECT 'Hi ' || 'there!';
-- result: Hi there!
```

Remember that you can concatenate only character strings using `||`. Use this trick for numbers:

```
SELECT '' || 4 || 2;
-- result: 42
```

Some databases implement non-standard solutions for concatenating strings like `CONCAT()` or `CONCAT_WS()`. Check the documentation for your specific database.

LIKE OPERATOR – PATTERN MATCHING

Use the `_` character to replace any single character. Use the `%` character to replace any number of characters (including 0 characters).

Fetch all names that start with any letter followed by `'atherine'`:

```
SELECT name
FROM names
WHERE name LIKE '_atherine';
```

Fetch all names that end with `'a'`:

```
SELECT name
FROM names
WHERE name LIKE '%a';
```

USEFUL FUNCTIONS

Get the count of characters in a string:

```
SELECT LENGTH('LearnSQL.com');
-- result: 12
```

Convert all letters to lowercase:

```
SELECT LOWER('LEARNSQL.COM');
-- result: learnsql.com
```

Convert all letters to uppercase:

```
SELECT UPPER('LearnSQL.com');
-- result: LEARNSQL.COM
```

Convert all letters to lowercase and all first letters to uppercase (not implemented in MySQL and SQL Server):

```
SELECT INITCAP('edgar frank ted cODD');
-- result: Edgar Frank Ted Codd
```

Get just a part of a string:

```
SELECT SUBSTRING('LearnSQL.com', 9);
-- result: .com
SELECT SUBSTRING('LearnSQL.com', 0, 6);
-- result: Learn
```

Replace part of a string:

```
SELECT REPLACE('LearnSQL.com', 'SQL',
'Python');
-- result: LearnPython.com
```

NUMERIC FUNCTIONS

BASIC OPERATIONS

Use `+`, `-`, `*`, `/` to do some basic math. To get the number of seconds in a week:

```
SELECT 60 * 60 * 24 * 7; -- result: 604800
```

CASTING

From time to time, you need to change the type of a number. The `CAST()` function is there to help you out. It lets you change the type of value to almost anything (`integer`, `numeric`, `double precision`, `varchar`, and many more).
Get the number as an integer (without rounding):

```
SELECT CAST(1234.567 AS integer);
-- result: 1234
```

Change a column type to `double precision`

```
SELECT CAST(column AS double precision);
```

USEFUL FUNCTIONS

Get the remainder of a division:

```
SELECT MOD(13, 2);
-- result: 1
```

Round a number to its nearest integer:

```
SELECT ROUND(1234.56789);
-- result: 1235
```

Round a number to three decimal places:

```
SELECT ROUND(1234.56789, 3);
-- result: 1234.568
```

PostgreSQL requires the first argument to be of the type `numeric` – cast the number when needed.

To round the number **up**:

```
SELECT CEIL(13.1); -- result: 14
SELECT CEIL(-13.9); -- result: -13
```

The `CEIL(x)` function returns the **smallest** integer **not less** than x. In SQL Server, the function is called `CEILING()`.

To round the number **down**:

```
SELECT FLOOR(13.8); -- result: 13
SELECT FLOOR(-13.2); -- result: -14
```

The `FLOOR(x)` function returns the **greatest** integer **not greater** than x.

To round towards 0 irrespective of the sign of a number:

```
SELECT TRUNC(13.5); -- result: 13
SELECT TRUNC(-13.5); -- result: -13
```

`TRUNC(x)` works the same way as `CAST(x AS integer)`. In MySQL, the function is called `TRUNCATE()`.

To get the absolute value of a number:

```
SELECT ABS(-12); -- result: 12
```

To get the square root of a number:

```
SELECT SQRT(9); -- result: 3
```

NULLs

To retrieve all rows with a missing value in the `price` column:

```
WHERE price IS NULL
```

To retrieve all rows with the `weight` column populated:

```
WHERE weight IS NOT NULL
```

Why shouldn't you use `price = NULL` or `weight != NULL`? Because databases don't know if those expressions are true or false – they are evaluated as NULLs.
Moreover, if you use a function or concatenation on a column that is NULL in some rows, then it will get propagated. Take a look:

domain	LENGTH(domain)
LearnSQL.com	12
LearnPython.com	15
NULL	*NULL*
vertabelo.com	13

USEFUL FUNCTIONS

COALESCE(x, y, ...)

To replace NULL in a query with something meaningful:

```
SELECT
  domain,
  COALESCE(domain, 'domain missing')
FROM contacts;
```

domain	coalesce
LearnSQL.com	LearnSQL.com
NULL	domain missing

The `COALESCE()` function takes any number of arguments and returns the value of the first argument that isn't NULL.

NULLIF(x, y)

To save yourself from *division by 0* errors:

```
SELECT
  last_month,
  this_month,
  this_month * 100.0
    / NULLIF(last_month, 0)
    AS better_by_percent
FROM video_views;
```

last_month	this_month	better_by_percent
723786	1085679	150.0
0	178123	*NULL*

The `NULLIF(x, y)` function will return NULL if x is the same as y, else it will return the x value.

CASE WHEN

The basic version of `CASE WHEN` checks if the values are equal (e.g., if `fee` is equal to 50, then `'normal'` is returned). If there isn't a matching value in the `CASE WHEN`, then the `ELSE` value will be returned (e.g., if `fee` is equal to 49, then `'not available'` will show up.

```
SELECT
  CASE fee
    WHEN 50 THEN 'normal'
    WHEN 10 THEN 'reduced'
    WHEN  0 THEN 'free'
    ELSE 'not available'
  END AS tariff
FROM ticket_types;
```

The most popular type is the **searched CASE WHEN** – it lets you pass conditions (as you'd write them in the `WHERE` clause), evaluates them in order, then returns the value for the first condition met.

```
SELECT
  CASE
    WHEN score >= 90 THEN 'A'
    WHEN score >  60 THEN 'B'
    ELSE 'F'
  END AS grade
FROM test_results;
```

Here, all students who scored at least 90 will get an A, those with the score above 60 (and below 90) will get a B, and the rest will receive an F.

TROUBLESHOOTING

Integer division

When you don't see the decimal places you expect, it means that you are dividing between two integers. Cast one to `decimal`:

```
CAST(123 AS decimal) / 2
```

Division by 0

To avoid this error, make sure that the denominator is not equal to 0. You can use the `NULLIF()` function to replace 0 with a NULL, which will result in a NULL for the whole expression:

```
count / NULLIF(count_all, 0)
```

Inexact calculations

If you do calculations using `real` (floating point) numbers, you'll end up with some inaccuracies. This is because this type is meant for scientific calculations such as calculating the velocity.
Whenever you need accuracy (such as dealing with monetary values), use the `decimal` / `numeric` type (or `money` if available).

Errors when rounding with a specified precision

Most databases won't complain, but do check the documentation if they do. For example, if you want to specify the rounding precision in PostgreSQL, the value must be of the `numeric` type.

Standard SQL Functions Cheat Sheet

LearnSQL.com

AGGREGATION AND GROUPING

- **COUNT(**expr**)** – the count of values for the rows within the group
- **SUM(**expr**)** – the sum of values within the group
- **AVG(**expr**)** – the average value for the rows within the group
- **MIN(**expr**)** – the minimum value within the group
- **MAX(**expr**)** – the maximum value within the group

To get the number of rows in the table:

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

To get the number of non-NULL values in a column:

```
SELECT COUNT(rating)
FROM city;
```

To get the count of unique values in a column:

```
SELECT COUNT(DISTINCT country_id)
FROM city;
```

GROUP BY

CITY	
name	**country_id**
Paris	1
Marseille	1
Lyon	1
Berlin	2
Hamburg	2
Munich	2
Warsaw	4
Cracow	4

→

CITY	
country_id	**count**
1	3
2	3
4	2

The example above – the count of cities in each country:

```
SELECT name, COUNT(country_id)
FROM city
GROUP BY name;
```

The average rating for the city:

```
SELECT city_id, AVG(rating)
FROM ratings
GROUP BY city_id;
```

Common mistake: COUNT(*) and LEFT JOIN

When you join the tables like this: `client LEFT JOIN project`, and you want to get the number of projects for every client you know, `COUNT(*)` will return **1** for each client even if you've never worked for them. This is because, they're still present in the list but with the `NULL` in the fields related to the project after the `JOIN`. To get the correct count (**0** for the clients you've never worked for), count the values in a column of the other table, e.g., `COUNT(project_name)`. Check out this exercise to see an example.

DATE AND TIME

There are 3 main time-related types: `date`, `time`, and `timestamp`. Time is expressed using a 24-hour clock, and it can be as vague as just hour and minutes (e.g., `15:30` – 3:30 p.m.) or as precise as microseconds and time zone (as shown below):

```
2021-12-31 14:39:53.662522-05
└ date ┘└      time      ┘
└          timestamp          ┘
YYYY-mm-dd HH:MM:SS.ssssss±TZ
```

`14:39:53.662522-05` is almost 2:40 p.m. CDT (e.g., in Chicago; in UTC it'd be 7:40 p.m.). The letters in the above example represent:

In the date part:

- YYYY – the 4-digit year.
- mm – the zero-padded month (01—January through 12—December).
- dd – the zero-padded day.

In the time part:

- HH – the zero-padded hour in a 24-hour clock.
- MM – the minutes.
- SS – the seconds. *Omissible.*
- ssssss – the smaller parts of a second – they can be expressed using 1 to 6 digits. *Omissible.*
- ±TZ – the timezone. It must start with either + or −, and use two digits relative to UTC. *Omissible.*

What time is it?

To answer that question in SQL, you can use:

- CURRENT_TIME – to find what time it is.
- CURRENT_DATE – to get today's date. (`GETDATE()` in SQL Server.)
- CURRENT_TIMESTAMP – to get the timestamp with the two above.

Creating values

To create a `date`, `time`, or `timestamp`, simply write the value as a string and cast it to the proper type.

```
SELECT CAST('2021-12-31' AS date);
SELECT CAST('15:31' AS time);
SELECT CAST('2021-12-31 23:59:29+02' AS
timestamp);
SELECT CAST('15:31.124769' AS time);
```

Be careful with the last example – it will be interpreted as 15 minutes 31 seconds and 124769 microseconds! It is always a good idea to write `00` explicitly for hours: `'00:15:31.124769'`.

You might skip casting in simple conditions – the database will know what you mean.

```
SELECT airline, flight_number, departure_time
FROM airport_schedule
WHERE departure_time < '12:00';
```

INTERVALs

Note: In SQL Server, intervals aren't implemented – use the `DATEADD()` and `DATEDIFF()` functions.

To get the simplest interval, subtract one time value from another:

```
SELECT CAST('2021-12-31 23:59:59' AS
timestamp) - CAST('2021-06-01 12:00:00' AS
timestamp);
-- result: 213 days 11:59:59
```

To define an interval: `INTERVAL '1' DAY`
This syntax consists of three elements: the `INTERVAL` keyword, a quoted value, and a time part keyword (in singular form.) You can use the following time parts: `YEAR`, `MONTH`, `WEEK`, `DAY`, `HOUR`, `MINUTE`, and `SECOND`. In MySQL, omit the quotes. You can join many different `INTERVAL`s using the + or − operator:

```
INTERVAL '1' YEAR + INTERVAL '3' MONTH
```

In some databases, there's an easier way to get the above value. And it accepts plural forms! `INTERVAL '1 year 3 months'`
There are two more syntaxes in the Standard SQL:

Syntax	What it does
`INTERVAL 'x-y' YEAR TO MONTH`	`INTERVAL 'x year y month'`
`INTERVAL 'x-y' DAY TO SECOND`	`INTERVAL 'x day y second'`

In MySQL, write `year_month` instead of `YEAR TO MONTH` and `day_second` instead of `DAY TO SECOND`.

To get the last day of a month, add one month and subtract one day:

```
SELECT CAST('2021-02-01' AS date)
       + INTERVAL '1' MONTH
       - INTERVAL '1' DAY;
```

To get all events for next three months from today:

```
SELECT event_date, event_name
FROM calendar
WHERE event_date BETWEEN CURRENT_DATE AND
CURRENT_DATE + INTERVAL '3' MONTH;
```

To get part of the date:

```
SELECT EXTRACT(YEAR FROM birthday)
FROM artists;
```

One of possible returned values: 1946. In SQL Server, use the `DATEPART(part, date)` function.

TIME ZONES

In the SQL Standard, the `date` type can't have an associated time zone, but the `time` and `timestamp` types can. In the real world, time zones have little meaning without the date, as the offset can vary through the year because of **daylight saving time**. So, it's best to work with the `timestamp` values.

When working with the type `timestamp with time zone` (abbr. `timestamptz`), you can type in the value in your local time zone, and it'll get converted to the UTC time zone as it is inserted into the table. Later when you select from the table it gets converted back to your local time zone. This is immune to time zone changes.

AT TIME ZONE

To operate between different time zones, use the `AT TIME ZONE` keyword.

If you use this format: `{timestamp without time zone} AT TIME ZONE {time zone}`, then the database will read the time stamp in the specified time zone and convert it to the time zone local to the display. It returns the time in the format `timestamp with time zone`.

If you use this format: `{timestamp with time zone} AT TIME ZONE {time zone}`, then the database will convert the time in one time zone to the target time zone specified by `AT TIME ZONE`. It returns the time in the format `timestamp without time zone`, in the target time zone.

You can define the time zone with popular shortcuts like `UTC`, `MST`, or `GMT`, or by `continent/city` such as: `America/New_York`, `Europe/London`, and `Asia/Tokyo`.

Examples

We set the local time zone to `'America/New_York'`.

```
SELECT TIMESTAMP '2021-07-16 21:00:00' AT
TIME ZONE 'America/Los_Angeles';
-- result: 2021-07-17 00:00:00-04
```

Here, the database takes a timestamp without a time zone and it's told it's in Los Angeles time, which is then converted to the local time – New York for displaying. This answers the question **"At what time should I turn on the TV if the show starts at 9 PM in Los Angeles?"**

```
SELECT TIMESTAMP WITH TIME ZONE '2021-06-20
19:30:00' AT TIME ZONE 'Australia/Sydney';
-- result: 2021-06-21 09:30:00
```

Here, the database gets a timestamp specified in the local time zone and converts it to the time in Sydney (note that it didn't return a time zone.) This answers the question **"What time is it in Sydney if it's 7:30 PM here?"**