BOSTON
TRAINING ACADEMY

SQL – STRUCTURE QUERY LANGUAGE

© Confidentiality & Proprietary Information

This document contains information that is Proprietary and confidential ("Confidential Information") to Boston Training Academy and shall not be used or disclosed outside. Further, the Confidential Information should not be transmitted, duplicated, or used in whole or in part for any purpose other than what it is intended for herein. Any use or disclosure in whole or in part of this Confidential Information without the express written permission of Boston Training Academy is strictly prohibited.

This is a confidential document prepared by Boston Training Academy.

The illustrative formats and examples have been created solely to simulate Learning and do not purport to represent/reflect on work practices of any particular party/parties. Unauthorized possession of the material or disclosure of the Proprietary information may result in legal action.

©Boston Training Academy 2021

OMERS table would not have any record.

19. SQL – LIKE Clause

The SQL **LIKE** clause is used to compare a value to similar values using wildcard operators. There are two wildcards used in conjunction with the LIKE operator.

- The percent sign (%)
- The underscore (_)

The percent sign represents zero, one or multiple characters. The underscore represents a single number or character. These symbols can be used in combinations.

Syntax

The basic syntax of % and _ is as follows:

```
SELECT FROM table_name
WHERE column LIKE 'XXXX%'

or

SELECT FROM table_name
WHERE column LIKE '%XXXX%'

or

SELECT FROM table_name
WHERE column LIKE 'XXXX_'

or

SELECT FROM table_name
WHERE column LIKE '_XXXX'

or

SELECT FROM table_name
WHERE column LIKE '_XXXX_'
```

You can combine N number of conditions using AND or OR operators. Here, XXXX could be any numeric or string value.

Example

The following table has a few examples showing the WHERE part having different LIKE clause with **'%'** and **'_'** operators:

Statement	Description
WHERE SALARY LIKE '200%'	Finds any values that start with 200.
WHERE SALARY LIKE '%200%'	Finds any values that have 200 in any position.
WHERE SALARY LIKE '_00%'	Finds any values that have 00 in the second and third positions.
WHERE SALARY LIKE '2_%_%'	Finds any values that start with 2 and are at least 3 characters in length.
WHERE SALARY LIKE '%2'	Finds any values that end with 2.
WHERE SALARY LIKE '_2%3'	Finds any values that have a 2 in the second position and end with a 3.
WHERE SALARY LIKE '2___3'	Finds any values in a five-digit number that start with 2 and end with 3.

Let us take a real example, consider the CUSTOMERS table having the records as shown below.

ID	NAME	AGE	ADDRESS	SALARY
1	Ramesh	32	Ahmedabad	2000.00
2	Khilan	25	Delhi	1500.00
3	kaushik	23	Kota	2000.00
4	Chaitali	25	Mumbai	6500.00
5	Hardik	27	Bhopal	8500.00
6	Komal	22	MP	4500.00
7	Muffy	24	Indore	10000.00

Following is an example, which would display all the records from the CUSTOMERS table, where the SALARY starts with 200.

```
SQL> SELECT * FROM CUSTOMERS
WHERE SALARY LIKE '200%';
```

This would produce the following result:

```
+----+----------+-----+-----------+----------+
| ID | NAME     | AGE | ADDRESS   | SALARY   |
+----+----------+-----+-----------+----------+
|  1 | Ramesh   |  32 | Ahmedabad | 2000.00  |
|  3 | kaushik  |  23 | Kota      | 2000.00  |
+----+----------+-----+-----------+----------+
```

20. SQL – TOP, LIMIT or ROWNUM Clause SQL

The SQL **TOP** clause is used to fetch a TOP N number or X percent records from a table.

Note: All the databases do not support the TOP clause. For example, MySQL supports the **LIMIT** clause to fetch a limited number of records, while Oracle uses the **ROWNUM** command to fetch a limited number of records.

Syntax

The basic syntax of the TOP clause with a SELECT statement would be as follows.

```
SELECT TOP number|percent column_name(s)
FROM  table_name
WHERE  [condition]
```

Example

Consider the CUSTOMERS table having the following records:

```
+----+----------+-----+-----------+----------+
| ID | NAME     | AGE | ADDRESS   | SALARY   |
+----+----------+-----+-----------+----------+
|  1 | Ramesh   |  32 | Ahmedabad |  2000.00 |
|  2 | Khilan   |  25 | Delhi     |  1500.00 |
|  3 | kaushik  |  23 | Kota      |  2000.00 |
|  4 | Chaitali |  25 | Mumbai    |  6500.00 |
|  5 | Hardik   |  27 | Bhopal    |  8500.00 |
|  6 | Komal    |  22 | MP        |  4500.00 |
|  7 | Muffy    |  24 | Indore    | 10000.00 |
+----+----------+-----+-----------+----------+
```

The following query is an example on the SQL server, which would fetch the top 3 records from the CUSTOMERS table.

```
SQL> SELECT TOP 3 * FROM CUSTOMERS;
```

This would produce the following result:

```
+----+----------+-----+-----------+---------+
| ID | NAME     | AGE | ADDRESS   | SALARY  |
+----+----------+-----+-----------+---------+
|  1 | Ramesh   |  32 | Ahmedabad | 2000.00 |
|  2 | Khilan   |  25 | Delhi     | 1500.00 |
|  3 | kaushik  |  23 | Kota      | 2000.00 |
+----+----------+-----+-----------+---------+
```

If you are using MySQL server, then here is an equivalent example:

```
SQL> SELECT * FROM CUSTOMERS
LIMIT 3;
```

This would produce the following result:

```
+----+----------+-----+-----------+---------+
| ID | NAME     | AGE | ADDRESS   | SALARY  |
+----+----------+-----+-----------+---------+
|  1 | Ramesh   |  32 | Ahmedabad | 2000.00 |
|  2 | Khilan   |  25 | Delhi     | 1500.00 |
|  3 | kaushik  |  23 | Kota      | 2000.00 |
+----+----------+-----+-----------+---------+
```

If you are using an Oracle server, then the following code block has an equivalent example.

```
SQL> SELECT * FROM CUSTOMERS
WHERE ROWNUM <= 3;
```

This would produce the following result:

```
+----+----------+-----+-----------+---------+
| ID | NAME     | AGE | ADDRESS   | SALARY  |
+----+----------+-----+-----------+---------+
|  1 | Ramesh   |  32 | Ahmedabad | 2000.00 |
|  2 | Khilan   |  25 | Delhi     | 1500.00 |
|  3 | kaushik  |  23 | Kota      | 2000.00 |
+----+----------+-----+-----------+---------+
```

21. SQL – ORDER BY Clause

The SQL **ORDER BY** clause is used to sort the data in ascending or descending order, based on one or more columns. Some databases sort the query results in an ascending order by default.

Syntax

The basic syntax of the ORDER BY clause is as follows:

```
SELECT column-list
FROM table_name
[WHERE condition]
[ORDER BY column1, column2, .. columnN] [ASC | DESC];
```

You can use more than one column in the ORDER BY clause. Make sure whatever column you are using to sort that column should be in the column-list.

Example

Consider the CUSTOMERS table having the following records:

```
+----+----------+-----+-----------+----------+
| ID | NAME     | AGE | ADDRESS   | SALARY   |
+----+----------+-----+-----------+----------+
|  1 | Ramesh   |  32 | Ahmedabad |  2000.00 |
|  2 | Khilan   |  25 | Delhi     |  1500.00 |
|  3 | kaushik  |  23 | Kota      |  2000.00 |
|  4 | Chaitali |  25 | Mumbai    |  6500.00 |
|  5 | Hardik   |  27 | Bhopal    |  8500.00 |
|  6 | Komal    |  22 | MP        |  4500.00 |
|  7 | Muffy    |  24 | Indore    | 10000.00 |
+----+----------+-----+-----------+----------+
```

The following code block has an example, which would sort the result in an ascending order by the NAME and the SALARY.

```
SQL> SELECT * FROM CUSTOMERS
     ORDER BY NAME, SALARY;
```

This would produce the following result:

```
+----+----------+-----+-----------+----------+
| ID | NAME     | AGE | ADDRESS   | SALARY   |
+----+----------+-----+-----------+----------+
|  4 | Chaitali |  25 | Mumbai    |  6500.00 |
|  5 | Hardik   |  27 | Bhopal    |  8500.00 |
|  3 | kaushik  |  23 | Kota      |  2000.00 |
|  2 | Khilan   |  25 | Delhi     |  1500.00 |
|  6 | Komal    |  22 | MP        |  4500.00 |
|  7 | Muffy    |  24 | Indore    | 10000.00 |
|  1 | Ramesh   |  32 | Ahmedabad |  2000.00 |
+----+----------+-----+-----------+----------+
```

The following code block has an example, which would sort the result in the descending order by NAME.

```
SQL> SELECT * FROM CUSTOMERS
     ORDER BY NAME DESC;
```

This would produce the following result:

```
+----+----------+-----+-----------+----------+
| ID | NAME     | AGE | ADDRESS   | SALARY   |
+----+----------+-----+-----------+----------+
|  1 | Ramesh   |  32 | Ahmedabad |  2000.00 |
|  7 | Muffy    |  24 | Indore    | 10000.00 |
|  6 | Komal    |  22 | MP        |  4500.00 |
|  2 | Khilan   |  25 | Delhi     |  1500.00 |
|  3 | kaushik  |  23 | Kota      |  2000.00 |
|  5 | Hardik   |  27 | Bhopal    |  8500.00 |
|  4 | Chaitali |  25 | Mumbai    |  6500.00 |
+----+----------+-----+-----------+----------+
```

22. SQL – Group By

The SQL **GROUP BY** clause is used in collaboration with the SELECT statement to arrange identical data into groups. This GROUP BY clause follows the WHERE clause in a SELECT statement and precedes the ORDER BY clause.

Syntax

The basic syntax of a GROUP BY clause is shown in the following code block. The GROUP BY clause must follow the conditions in the WHERE clause and must precede the ORDER BY clause if one is used.

```
SELECT column1, column2
FROM table_name
WHERE [ conditions ]
GROUP BY column1, column2
ORDER BY column1, column2
```

Example

Consider the CUSTOMERS table is having the following records:

```
+----+----------+-----+-----------+----------+
| ID | NAME     | AGE | ADDRESS   | SALARY   |
+----+----------+-----+-----------+----------+
|  1 | Ramesh   |  32 | Ahmedabad |  2000.00 |
|  2 | Khilan   |  25 | Delhi     |  1500.00 |
|  3 | kaushik  |  23 | Kota      |  2000.00 |
|  4 | Chaitali |  25 | Mumbai    |  6500.00 |
|  5 | Hardik   |  27 | Bhopal    |  8500.00 |
|  6 | Komal    |  22 | MP        |  4500.00 |
|  7 | Muffy    |  24 | Indore    | 10000.00 |
+----+----------+-----+-----------+----------+
```

If you want to know the total amount of the salary on each customer, then the GROUP BY query would be as follows.

```
SQL> SELECT NAME, SUM(SALARY) FROM CUSTOMERS
     GROUP BY NAME;
```

This would produce the following result:

```
+----------+--------------+
| NAME     | SUM(SALARY)  |
+----------+--------------+
| Chaitali |      6500.00 |
| Hardik   |      8500.00 |
| kaushik  |      2000.00 |
| Khilan   |      1500.00 |
| Komal    |      4500.00 |
| Muffy    |     10000.00 |
| Ramesh   |      2000.00 |
+----------+--------------+
```

Now, let us look at a table where the CUSTOMERS table has the following records with duplicate names:

```
+----+----------+-----+-----------+----------+
| ID | NAME     | AGE | ADDRESS   | SALARY   |
+----+----------+-----+-----------+----------+
|  1 | Ramesh   |  32 | Ahmedabad |  2000.00 |
|  2 | Ramesh   |  25 | Delhi     |  1500.00 |
|  3 | kaushik  |  23 | Kota      |  2000.00 |
|  4 | kaushik  |  25 | Mumbai    |  6500.00 |
|  5 | Hardik   |  27 | Bhopal    |  8500.00 |
|  6 | Komal    |  22 | MP        |  4500.00 |
|  7 | Muffy    |  24 | Indore    | 10000.00 |
+----+----------+-----+-----------+----------+
```

Now again, if you want to know the total amount of salary on each customer, then the GROUP BY query would be as follows:

```
SQL> SELECT NAME, SUM(SALARY) FROM CUSTOMERS
     GROUP BY NAME;
```

This would produce the following result:

```
+---------+--------------------+
| NAME    | SUM(SALARY)        |
+---------+--------------------+
| Hardik  |          8500.00   |
| kaushik |          8500.00   |
| Komal   |          4500.00   |
| Muffy   |         10000.00   |
| Ramesh  |          3500.00   |
+---------+--------------------+
```

23. SQL – Distinct Keyword

The SQL **DISTINCT** keyword is used in conjunction with the SELECT statement to eliminate all the duplicate records and fetching only unique records.

There may be a situation when you have multiple duplicate records in a table. While fetching such records, it makes more sense to fetch only those unique records instead of fetching duplicate records.

Syntax

The basic syntax of DISTINCT keyword to eliminate the duplicate records is as follows:

```
SELECT DISTINCT column1, column2, .....columnN
FROM table_name
WHERE [condition]
```

Example

Consider the CUSTOMERS table having the following records:

```
+----+----------+-----+-----------+----------+
| ID | NAME     | AGE | ADDRESS   | SALARY   |
+----+----------+-----+-----------+----------+
|  1 | Ramesh   |  32 | Ahmedabad |  2000.00 |
|  2 | Khilan   |  25 | Delhi     |  1500.00 |
|  3 | kaushik  |  23 | Kota      |  2000.00 |
|  4 | Chaitali |  25 | Mumbai    |  6500.00 |
|  5 | Hardik   |  27 | Bhopal    |  8500.00 |
|  6 | Komal    |  22 | MP        |  4500.00 |
|  7 | Muffy    |  24 | Indore    | 10000.00 |
+----+----------+-----+-----------+----------+
```

First, let us see how the following SELECT query returns the duplicate salary records.

```
SQL> SELECT SALARY FROM CUSTOMERS
     ORDER BY SALARY;
```

This would produce the following result, where the salary (2000) is coming twice which is a duplicate record from the original table.

```
+----------+
| SALARY   |
+----------+
|  1500.00 |
|  2000.00 |
|  2000.00 |
|  4500.00 |
|  6500.00 |
|  8500.00 |
| 10000.00 |
+----------+
```

Now, let us use the DISTINCT keyword with the above SELECT query and then see the result.

```
SQL> SELECT DISTINCT SALARY FROM CUSTOMERS
        ORDER BY SALARY;
```

This would produce the following result where we do not have any duplicate entry.

```
+----------+
| SALARY   |
+----------+
|  1500.00 |
|  2000.00 |
|  4500.00 |
|  6500.00 |
|  8500.00 |
| 10000.00 |
+----------+
```

24. SQL – SORTING Results

The SQL **ORDER BY** clause is used to sort the data in ascending or descending order, based on one or more columns. Some databases sort the query results in an ascending order by default.

Syntax

The basic syntax of the ORDER BY clause which would be used to sort the result in an ascending or descending order is as follows:

```
SELECT column-list
FROM table_name
[WHERE condition]
[ORDER BY column1, column2, .. columnN] [ASC | DESC];
```

You can use more than one column in the ORDER BY clause. Make sure that whatever column you are using to sort, that column should be in the column-list.

Example

Consider the CUSTOMERS table having the following records:

```
+----+----------+-----+-----------+----------+
| ID | NAME     | AGE | ADDRESS   | SALARY   |
+----+----------+-----+-----------+----------+
|  1 | Ramesh   |  32 | Ahmedabad |  2000.00 |
|  2 | Khilan   |  25 | Delhi     |  1500.00 |
|  3 | kaushik  |  23 | Kota      |  2000.00 |
|  4 | Chaitali |  25 | Mumbai    |  6500.00 |
|  5 | Hardik   |  27 | Bhopal    |  8500.00 |
|  6 | Komal    |  22 | MP        |  4500.00 |
|  7 | Muffy    |  24 | Indore    | 10000.00 |
+----+----------+-----+-----------+----------+
```

Following is an example, which would sort the result in an ascending order by NAME and SALARY.

```
SQL> SELECT * FROM CUSTOMERS
     ORDER BY NAME, SALARY;
```

This would produce the following result:

```
+----+----------+-----+-----------+----------+
| ID | NAME     | AGE | ADDRESS   | SALARY   |
+----+----------+-----+-----------+----------+
|  4 | Chaitali |  25 | Mumbai    |  6500.00 |
|  5 | Hardik   |  27 | Bhopal    |  8500.00 |
|  3 | kaushik  |  23 | Kota      |  2000.00 |
|  2 | Khilan   |  25 | Delhi     |  1500.00 |
|  6 | Komal    |  22 | MP        |  4500.00 |
|  7 | Muffy    |  24 | Indore    | 10000.00 |
|  1 | Ramesh   |  32 | Ahmedabad |  2000.00 |
+----+----------+-----+-----------+----------+
```

The following code block has an example, which would sort the result in a descending order by NAME.

```
SQL> SELECT * FROM CUSTOMERS
     ORDER BY NAME DESC;
```

This would produce the following result:

```
+----+----------+-----+-----------+----------+
| ID | NAME     | AGE | ADDRESS   | SALARY   |
+----+----------+-----+-----------+----------+
|  1 | Ramesh   |  32 | Ahmedabad |  2000.00 |
|  7 | Muffy    |  24 | Indore    | 10000.00 |
|  6 | Komal    |  22 | MP        |  4500.00 |
|  2 | Khilan   |  25 | Delhi     |  1500.00 |
|  3 | kaushik  |  23 | Kota      |  2000.00 |
|  5 | Hardik   |  27 | Bhopal    |  8500.00 |
|  4 | Chaitali |  25 | Mumbai    |  6500.00 |
+----+----------+-----+-----------+----------+
```

To fetch the rows with their own preferred order, the SELECT query used would be as follows:

```
SQL> SELECT * FROM CUSTOMERS
     ORDER BY (CASE ADDRESS
     WHEN 'DELHI'     THEN 1
     WHEN "BHOPAL"    THEN 2
     WHEN "KOTA"      THEN 3
     WHEN 'AHMADABAD' THEN 4
     WHEN 'MP"        THEN 5
     ELSE 100 END) ASC, ADDRESS DESC;
```

This would produce the following result:

```
+----+----------+-----+-----------+----------+
| ID | NAME     | AGE | ADDRESS   | SALARY   |
+----+----------+-----+-----------+----------+
|  2 | Khilan   |  25 | Delhi     |  1500.00 |
|  5 | Hardik   |  27 | Bhopal    |  8500.00 |
|  3 | kaushik  |  23 | Kota      |  2000.00 |
|  6 | Komal    |  22 | MP        |  4500.00 |
|  4 | Chaitali |  25 | Mumbai    |  6500.00 |
|  7 | Muffy    |  24 | Indore    | 10000.00 |
|  1 | Ramesh   |  32 | Ahmedabad |  2000.00 |
+----+----------+-----+-----------+----------+
```

This will sort the customers by ADDRESS in your **ownoOrder** of preference first and in a natural order for the remaining addresses. Also, the remaining Addresses will be sorted in the reverse alphabetical order.

25. SQL – Constraints

Constraints are the rules enforced on the data columns of a table. These are used to limit the type of data that can go into a table. This ensures the accuracy and reliability of the data in the database.

Constraints could be either on a column level or a table level. The column level constraints are applied only to one column, whereas the table level constraints are applied to the whole table.

Following are some of the most commonly used constraints available in SQL. These constraints have already been discussed in SQL - RDBMS Concepts chapter, but it's worth to revise them at this point.

- NOT NULL Constraint: Ensures that a column cannot have a NULL value.
- DEFAULT Constraint: Provides a default value for a column when none is specified.
- UNIQUE Constraint: Ensures that all values in a column are different.
- PRIMARY Key: Uniquely identifies each row/record in a database table.
- FOREIGN Key: Uniquely identifies row/record in any of the given database tables.
- CHECK Constraint: The CHECK constraint ensures that all the values in a column satisfies certain conditions.
- INDEX: Used to create and retrieve data from the database very quickly.

Constraints can be specified when a table is created with the CREATE TABLE statement or you can use the ALTER TABLE statement to create constraints even after the table is created.

SQL - NOT NULL Constraint

By default, a column can hold NULL values. If you do not want a column to have a NULL value, then you need to define such a constraint on this column specifying that NULL is now not allowed for that column.

A NULL is not the same as no data, rather, it represents unknown data.

Example

For example, the following SQL query creates a new table called CUSTOMERS and adds five columns, three of which are – ID, NAME and AGE. In this we specify not to accept NULLs:

```
CREATE TABLE CUSTOMERS(
        ID   INT              NOT NULL,
        NAME VARCHAR (20)     NOT NULL,
        AGE INT               NOT NULL,
```

```
        ADDRESS CHAR (25) ,
        SALARY   DECIMAL (18, 2),
        PRIMARY KEY (ID)
);
```

If CUSTOMERS table has already been created, then to add a NOT NULL constraint to the SALARY column in Oracle and MySQL, you would write a query like the one that is shown in the following code block.

```
ALTER TABLE  CUSTOMERS
    MODIFY SALARY DECIMAL (18, 2) NOT NULL;
```

SQL - DEFAULT Constraint

The DEFAULT constraint provides a default value to a column when the INSERT INTO statement does not provide a specific value.

Example

For example, the following SQL creates a new table called CUSTOMERS and adds five columns. Here, the SALARY column is set to 5000.00 by default, so in case the INSERT INTO statement does not provide a value for this column, then by default this column would be set to 5000.00.

```
CREATE TABLE CUSTOMERS(
        ID     INT                 NOT NULL,
        NAME VARCHAR (20)          NOT NULL,
        AGE  INT                   NOT NULL,
        ADDRESS CHAR (25),
        SALARY    DECIMAL (18, 2) DEFAULT 5000.00,
        PRIMARY KEY (ID)
);
```

If the CUSTOMERS table has already been created, then to add a DEFAULT constraint to the SALARY column, you would write a query like the one which is shown in the code block below.

ALTER TABLE CUSTOMERS

```
    MODIFY SALARY  DECIMAL (18, 2) DEFAULT 5000.00;
```

Drop Default Constraint

To drop a DEFAULT constraint, use the following SQL query.

```
ALTER TABLE CUSTOMERS
    ALTER COLUMN SALARY DROP DEFAULT;
```

SQL - UNIQUE Constraint

The UNIQUE Constraint prevents two records from having identical values in a column. In the CUSTOMERS table, for example, you might want to prevent two or more people from having an identical age.

Example

For example, the following SQL query creates a new table called CUSTOMERS and adds five columns. Here, the AGE column is set to UNIQUE, so that you cannot have two records with the same age.

```
CREATE TABLE CUSTOMERS(
        ID     INT                 NOT NULL,
        NAME VARCHAR (20)          NOT NULL,
        AGE  INT                   NOT NULL UNIQUE,
        ADDRESS CHAR (25),
        SALARY     DECIMAL (18, 2),
        PRIMARY KEY (ID)
);
```

If the CUSTOMERS table has already been created, then to add a UNIQUE constraint to the AGE column. You would write a statement like the query that is given in the code block below.

```
ALTER TABLE CUSTOMERS
    MODIFY AGE INT NOT NULL UNIQUE;
```

You can also use the following syntax, which supports naming the constraint in multiple columns as well.

```
ALTER TABLE CUSTOMERS
    ADD CONSTRAINT myUniqueConstraint UNIQUE(AGE, SALARY);
```

DROP a UNIQUE Constraint

To drop a UNIQUE constraint, use the following SQL query.

```
ALTER TABLE  CUSTOMERS
    DROP CONSTRAINT myUniqueConstraint;
```

If you are using MySQL, then you can use the following syntax:

```
ALTER TABLE  CUSTOMERS
    DROP INDEX myUniqueConstraint;
```

SQL – Primary Key

A primary key is a field in a table which uniquely identifies each row/record in a database table. Primary keys must contain unique values. A primary key column cannot have NULL values.

A table can have only one primary key, which may consist of single or multiple fields. When multiple fields are used as a primary key, they are called a **composite key**.

If a table has a primary key defined on any field(s), then you cannot have two records having the same value of that field(s).

Note: You would use these concepts while creating database tables.

Create Primary Key

Here is the syntax to define the ID attribute as a primary key in a CUSTOMERS table.

```
CREATE  TABLE  CUSTOMERS(
        ID     INT                  NOT NULL,
        NAME VARCHAR (20)     NOT NULL,
        AGE   INT                  NOT NULL,
        ADDRESS CHAR (25) ,
        SALARY    DECIMAL (18, 2),
        PRIMARY KEY (ID)
);
```

To create a PRIMARY KEY constraint on the "ID" column when the CUSTOMERS table already exists, use the following SQL syntax:

```
ALTER TABLE CUSTOMER ADD PRIMARY KEY (ID);
```

NOTE: If you use the ALTER TABLE statement to add a primary key, the primary key column(s) should have already been declared to not contain NULL values (when the table was first created).

For defining a PRIMARY KEY constraint on multiple columns, use the SQL syntax given below.

```
CREATE TABLE CUSTOMERS(
        ID    INT                 NOT NULL,
        NAME VARCHAR (20)         NOT NULL,
        AGE   INT                 NOT NULL,
        ADDRESS CHAR (25),
        SALARY    DECIMAL (18, 2),
        PRIMARY KEY (ID, NAME)
);
```

To create a PRIMARY KEY constraint on the "ID" and "NAMES" columns when CUSTOMERS table already exists, use the following SQL syntax.

```
ALTER TABLE CUSTOMERS
    ADD CONSTRAINT PK_CUSTID PRIMARY KEY (ID, NAME);
```

Delete Primary Key

You can clear the primary key constraints from the table with the syntax given below.

```
ALTER TABLE CUSTOMERS DROP PRIMARY KEY ;
```

SQL – Foreign Key

A foreign key is a key used to link two tables together. This is sometimes also called as a referencing key.

A Foreign Key is a column or a combination of columns whose values match a Primary Key in a different table.

The relationship between 2 tables matches the Primary Key in one of the tables with a Foreign Key in the second table.

If a table has a primary key defined on any field(s), then you cannot have two records having the same value of that field(s).

Example

Consider the structure of the following two tables.

CUSTOMERS Table:

```
CREATE TABLE CUSTOMERS(
        ID     INT                 NOT NULL,
        NAME VARCHAR (20)          NOT NULL,
        AGE  INT                   NOT NULL,
        ADDRESS  CHAR (25) ,
        SALARY   DECIMAL (18, 2),
        PRIMARY KEY (ID)
);
```

ORDERS Table

```
CREATE TABLE ORDERS (
        ID             INT          NOT NULL,
        DATE           DATETIME,
        CUSTOMER_ID  INT references CUSTOMERS(ID),
        AMOUNT       double,
        PRIMARY KEY (ID)
);
```

If the ORDERS table has already been created and the foreign key has not yet been set, the use the syntax for specifying a foreign key by altering a table.

```
ALTER TABLE ORDERS
    ADD FOREIGN KEY (Customer_ID) REFERENCES CUSTOMERS (ID);
```

DROP a FOREIGN KEY Constraint

To drop a FOREIGN KEY constraint, use the following SQL syntax.

```
ALTER TABLE ORDERS
    DROP FOREIGN KEY;
```

SQL – CHECK Constraint

The CHECK Constraint enables a condition to check the value being entered into a record. If the condition evaluates to false, the record violates the constraint and isn't entered the table.

Example

For example, the following program creates a new table called CUSTOMERS and adds five columns. Here, we add a CHECK with AGE column, so that you cannot have any CUSTOMER who is below 18 years.

```
CREATE TABLE CUSTOMERS(
        ID   INT              NOT NULL,
        NAME VARCHAR (20)     NOT NULL,
        AGE INT               NOT NULL CHECK (AGE >= 18),
        ADDRESS CHAR (25) ,
        SALARY   DECIMAL (18, 2),
        PRIMARY KEY (ID)
);
```

If the CUSTOMERS table has already been created, then to add a CHECK constraint to AGE column, you would write a statement like the one given below.

```
ALTER TABLE CUSTOMERS
   MODIFY AGE INT NOT NULL CHECK (AGE >= 18 );
```

You can also use the following syntax, which supports naming the constraint in multiple columns as well:

```
ALTER TABLE CUSTOMERS
   ADD CONSTRAINT myCheckConstraint CHECK(AGE >= 18);
```

DROP a CHECK Constraint

To drop a CHECK constraint, use the following SQL syntax. This syntax does not work with MySQL.

```
ALTER TABLE CUSTOMERS
   DROP CONSTRAINT myCheckConstraint;
```

SQL – INDEX Constraint

The INDEX is used to create and retrieve data from the database very quickly. An Index can be created by using a single or a group of columns in a table. When the index is created, it is assigned a **ROWID** for each row before it sorts out the data.

Proper indexes are good for performance in large databases, but you need to be careful while creating an index. A selection of fields depends on what you are using in your SQL queries.

Example

For example, the following SQL syntax creates a new table called CUSTOMERS and adds five columns:

```
CREATE TABLE CUSTOMERS(
        ID      INT                 NOT NULL,
        NAME VARCHAR (20)           NOT NULL,
        AGE   INT                   NOT NULL,
        ADDRESS CHAR (25) ,
        SALARY    DECIMAL (18, 2),
        PRIMARY KEY (ID)
);
```

Now, you can create an index on a single or multiple columns using the syntax given below.

```
CREATE INDEX index_name
    ON table_name ( column1, column2. ..... );
```

To create an INDEX on the AGE column, to optimize the search on customers for a specific age, follow the SQL syntax which is given below.

```
CREATE INDEX idx_age
    ON CUSTOMERS ( AGE );
```

DROP an INDEX Constraint

To drop an INDEX constraint, use the following SQL syntax.

```
ALTER TABLE CUSTOMERS
   DROP INDEX idx_age;
```

Dropping Constraints

Any constraint that you have defined can be dropped using the ALTER TABLE command with the DROP CONSTRAINT option.

For example, to drop the primary key constraint in the EMPLOYEES table, you can use the following command.

```
ALTER TABLE EMPLOYEES DROP CONSTRAINT EMPLOYEES_PK;
```

Some implementations may provide shortcuts for dropping certain constraints. For example, to drop the primary key constraint for a table in Oracle, you can use the following command.

```
ALTER TABLE EMPLOYEES DROP PRIMARY KEY;
```

Some implementations allow you to disable constraints. Instead of permanently dropping a constraint from the database, you may want to temporarily disable the constraint and then enable it later.

Integrity Constraints

Integrity constraints are used to ensure accuracy and consistency of the data in a relational database. Data integrity is handled in a relational database through the concept of referential integrity.

There are many types of integrity constraints that play a role in **Referential Integrity (RI)**. These constraints include Primary Key, Foreign Key, Unique Constraints and other constraints which are mentioned above.

26. SQL – Using Joins

The SQL **Joins** clause is used to combine records from two or more tables in a database. A JOIN is a means for combining fields from two tables by using values common to each.

Consider the following two tables:

Table 1: CUSTOMERS Table

```
+----+----------+-----+-----------+----------+
| ID | NAME     | AGE | ADDRESS   | SALARY   |
+----+----------+-----+-----------+----------+
|  1 | Ramesh   |  32 | Ahmedabad |  2000.00 |
|  2 | Khilan   |  25 | Delhi     |  1500.00 |
|  3 | kaushik  |  23 | Kota      |  2000.00 |
|  4 | Chaitali |  25 | Mumbai    |  6500.00 |
|  5 | Hardik   |  27 | Bhopal    |  8500.00 |
|  6 | Komal    |  22 | MP        |  4500.00 |
|  7 | Muffy    |  24 | Indore    | 10000.00 |
+----+----------+-----+-----------+----------+
```

Table 2: ORDERS Table

```
+-----+---------------------+-------------+--------+
|OID  | DATE                | CUSTOMER_ID | AMOUNT |
+-----+---------------------+-------------+--------+
| 102 | 2009-10-08 00:00:00 |           3 |   3000 |
| 100 | 2009-10-08 00:00:00 |           3 |   1500 |
| 101 | 2009-11-20 00:00:00 |           2 |   1560 |
| 103 | 2008-05-20 00:00:00 |           4 |   2060 |
+-----+---------------------+-------------+--------+
```

Now, let us join these two tables in our SELECT statement as shown below.

```
SQL> SELECT ID, NAME, AGE, AMOUNT
        FROM CUSTOMERS, ORDERS
        WHERE  CUSTOMERS.ID = ORDERS.CUSTOMER_ID;
```

This would produce the following result.

```
+-----+----------+-----+---------+
| ID  | NAME     | AGE | AMOUNT  |
+-----+----------+-----+---------+
|   3 | kaushik  |  23 |    3000 |
|   3 | kaushik  |  23 |    1500 |
|   2 | Khilan   |  25 |    1560 |
|   4 | Chaitali |  25 |    2060 |
+-----+----------+-----+---------+
```

Here, it is noticeable that the join is performed in the WHERE clause. Several operators can be used to join tables, such as =, <, >, <>, <=, >=, !=, BETWEEN, LIKE, and NOT; they can all be used to join tables. However, the most common operator is the equal to symbol.

There are different types of joins available in SQL:

- INNER JOIN: returns rows when there is a match in both tables.
- LEFT JOIN: returns all rows from the left table, even if there are no matches in the right table.
- RIGHT JOIN: returns all rows from the right table, even if there are no matches in the left table.
- FULL JOIN: returns rows when there is a match in one of the tables.
- SELF JOIN: is used to join a table to itself as if the table were two tables, temporarily renaming at least one table in the SQL statement.
- CARTESIAN JOIN: returns the Cartesian product of the sets of records from the two or more joined tables.

Let us now discuss each of these joins in detail.

SQL-INNER JOIN

The most important and frequently used of the joins is the **INNER JOIN**. They are also referred to as an **EQUIJOIN**.

The INNER JOIN creates a new result table by combining column values of two tables (table1 and table2) based upon the join-predicate. The query compares each row of table1 with each row of table2 to find all pairs of rows which satisfy the join-predicate. When the join-predicate is satisfied, column values for each matched pair of rows of A and B are combined into a result row.

Syntax

The basic syntax of the **INNER JOIN** is as follows.

```
SELECT table1.column1, table2.column2...
FROM  table1
INNER JOIN table2
ON table1.common_field = table2.common_field;
```

Example

Consider the following two tables.

Table 1: CUSTOMERS Table is as follows.

```
+----+----------+-----+-----------+----------+
| ID | NAME     | AGE | ADDRESS   | SALARY   |
+----+----------+-----+-----------+----------+
|  1 | Ramesh   |  32 | Ahmedabad |  2000.00 |
|  2 | Khilan   |  25 | Delhi     |  1500.00 |
|  3 | kaushik  |  23 | Kota      |  2000.00 |
|  4 | Chaitali |  25 | Mumbai    |  6500.00 |
|  5 | Hardik   |  27 | Bhopal    |  8500.00 |
|  6 | Komal    |  22 | MP        |  4500.00 |
|  7 | Muffy    |  24 | Indore    | 10000.00 |
+----+----------+-----+-----------+----------+
```

Table 2: ORDERS Table is as follows.

```
+-----+---------------------+-------------+--------+
| OID | DATE                | CUSTOMER_ID | AMOUNT |
+-----+---------------------+-------------+--------+
| 102 | 2009-10-08 00:00:00 |           3 |   3000 |
| 100 | 2009-10-08 00:00:00 |           3 |   1500 |
| 101 | 2009-11-20 00:00:00 |           2 |   1560 |
| 103 | 2008-05-20 00:00:00 |           4 |   2060 |
+-----+---------------------+-------------+--------+
```

Now, let us join these two tables using the INNER JOIN as follows:

```
SQL> SELECT  ID, NAME, AMOUNT, DATE
     FROM CUSTOMERS
     INNER JOIN ORDERS
     ON CUSTOMERS.ID = ORDERS.CUSTOMER_ID;
```

This would produce the following result.

```
+----+----------+--------+---------------------+
| ID | NAME     | AMOUNT | DATE                |
+----+----------+--------+---------------------+
|  3 | kaushik  |   3000 | 2009-10-08 00:00:00 |
|  3 | kaushik  |   1500 | 2009-10-08 00:00:00 |
|  2 | Khilan   |   1560 | 2009-11-20 00:00:00 |
|  4 | Chaitali |   2060 | 2008-05-20 00:00:00 |
+----+----------+--------+---------------------+
```

SQL– LEFT JOIN

The SQL **LEFT JOIN** returns all rows from the left table, even if there are no matches in the right table. This means that if the ON clause matches 0 (zero) records in the right table; the join will still return a row in the result, but with NULL in each column from the right table.

This means that a left join returns all the values from the left table, plus matched values from the right table or NULL in case of no matching join predicate.

Syntax

The basic syntax of a **LEFT JOIN** is as follows.

```
SELECT table1.column1, table2.column2...
FROM  table1
LEFT JOIN table2
ON table1.common_field = table2.common_field;
```

Here, the given condition could be any given expression based on your requirement.

Example

Consider the following two tables,

Table 1: CUSTOMERS Table is as follows.

```
+----+----------+-----+-----------+----------+
| ID | NAME     | AGE | ADDRESS   | SALARY   |
+----+----------+-----+-----------+----------+
|  1 | Ramesh   |  32 | Ahmedabad |  2000.00 |
|  2 | Khilan   |  25 | Delhi     |  1500.00 |
|  3 | kaushik  |  23 | Kota      |  2000.00 |
|  4 | Chaitali |  25 | Mumbai    |  6500.00 |
|  5 | Hardik   |  27 | Bhopal    |  8500.00 |
|  6 | Komal    |  22 | MP        |  4500.00 |
|  7 | Muffy    |  24 | Indore    | 10000.00 |
+----+----------+-----+-----------+----------+
```

Table 2: Orders Table is as follows.

```
+-----+---------------------+-------------+--------+
| OID | DATE                | CUSTOMER_ID | AMOUNT |
+-----+---------------------+-------------+--------+
| 102 | 2009-10-08 00:00:00 |           3 |   3000 |
| 100 | 2009-10-08 00:00:00 |           3 |   1500 |
| 101 | 2009-11-20 00:00:00 |           2 |   1560 |
| 103 | 2008-05-20 00:00:00 |           4 |   2060 |
+-----+---------------------+-------------+--------+
```

Now, let us join these two tables using the LEFT JOIN as follows.

```
SQL> SELECT  ID, NAME, AMOUNT, DATE
       FROM CUSTOMERS
       LEFT JOIN ORDERS
       ON CUSTOMERS.ID = ORDERS.CUSTOMER_ID;
```

This would produce the following result:

```
+----+----------+--------+---------------------+
| ID | NAME     | AMOUNT | DATE                |
+----+----------+--------+---------------------+
```

```
|   1 | Ramesh   |    NULL | NULL                    |
|   2 | Khilan   |    1560 | 2009-11-20 00:00:00     |
|   3 | kaushik  |    3000 | 2009-10-08 00:00:00     |
|   3 | kaushik  |    1500 | 2009-10-08 00:00:00     |
|   4 | Chaitali |    2060 | 2008-05-20 00:00:00     |
|   5 | Hardik   |    NULL | NULL                    |
|   6 | Komal    |    NULL | NULL                    |
|   7 | Muffy    |    NULL | NULL                    |
+-----+----------+---------+-------------------------+
```

SQL- RIGHT JOIN

The SQL **RIGHT JOIN** returns all rows from the right table, even if there are no matches in the left table. This means that if the ON clause matches 0 (zero) records in the left table; the join will still return a row in the result, but with NULL in each column from the left table.

This means that a right join returns all the values from the right table, plus matched values from the left table or NULL in case of no matching join predicate.

Syntax

The basic syntax of a **RIGHT JOIN** is as follow.

```
SELECT table1.column1, table2.column2...
FROM table1
RIGHT JOIN table2
ON table1.common_field = table2.common_field;
```

Example

Consider the following two tables,

Table 1: CUSTOMERS Table is as follows.

```
+----+----------+-----+-----------+----------+
| ID | NAME     | AGE | ADDRESS   | SALARY   |
+----+----------+-----+-----------+----------+
|  1 | Ramesh   |  32 | Ahmedabad |  2000.00 |
|  2 | Khilan   |  25 | Delhi     |  1500.00 |
|  3 | kaushik  |  23 | Kota      |  2000.00 |
|  4 | Chaitali |  25 | Mumbai    |  6500.00 |
|  5 | Hardik   |  27 | Bhopal    |  8500.00 |
```

```
|     6| Komal      |    22| MP          |    4500.00 |
|     7|   Muffy    |    24| Indore      | 10000.00  |
+--------+----------+-----+-----------------+----------  +
```

Table 2: ORDERS Table is as follows.

```
+-----+---------------------+-------------+--------+
|OID  | DATE                | CUSTOMER_ID | AMOUNT |
+-----+---------------------+-------------+--------+
| 102 | 2009-10-08 00:00:00 |           3 |   3000 |
| 100 | 2009-10-08 00:00:00 |           3 |   1500 |
| 101 | 2009-11-20 00:00:00 |           2 |   1560 |
| 103 | 2008-05-20 00:00:00 |           4 |   2060 |
+-----+---------------------+-------------+--------+
```

Now, let us join these two tables using the RIGHT JOIN as follows.

```
SQL> SELECT  ID, NAME, AMOUNT, DATE
     FROM CUSTOMERS
     RIGHT JOIN ORDERS
     ON CUSTOMERS.ID = ORDERS.CUSTOMER_ID;
```

This would produce the following result:

```
+------+----------+--------+---------------------+
| ID   | NAME     | AMOUNT | DATE                |
+------+----------+--------+---------------------+
|    3 | kaushik  |   3000 | 2009-10-08 00:00:00 |
|    3 | kaushik  |   1500 | 2009-10-08 00:00:00 |
|    2 | Khilan   |   1560 | 2009-11-20 00:00:00 |
|    4 | Chaitali |   2060 | 2008-05-20 00:00:00 |
+------+----------+--------+---------------------+
```

SQL— FULLJOIN

The SQL **FULL JOIN** combines the results of both left and right outer joins.

The joined table will contain all records from both the tables and fill in NULLs for missing matches on either side.

Syntax

The basic syntax of a **FULL JOIN** is as follows:

```
SELECT table1.column1, table2.column2...
FROM  table1
FULL JOIN table2
ON table1.common_field = table2.common_field;
```

Here, the given condition could be any given expression based on your requirement.

Example

Consider the following two tables.

Table 1: CUSTOMERS Table is as follows.

ID	NAME	AGE	ADDRESS	SALARY
1	Ramesh	32	Ahmedabad	2000.00
2	Khilan	25	Delhi	1500.00
3	kaushik	23	Kota	2000.00
4	Chaitali	25	Mumbai	6500.00
5	Hardik	27	Bhopal	8500.00
6	Komal	22	MP	4500.00
7	Muffy	24	Indore	10000.00

Table 2: ORDERS Table is as follows.

OID	DATE	CUSTOMER_ID	AMOUNT
102	2009-10-08 00:00:00	3	3000
100	2009-10-08 00:00:00	3	1500
101	2009-11-20 00:00:00	2	1560
103	2008-05-20 00:00:00	4	2060

Now, let us join these two tables using FULL JOIN as follows.

```
SQL> SELECT  ID, NAME, AMOUNT, DATE
     FROM CUSTOMERS
     FULL JOIN ORDERS
     ON CUSTOMERS.ID = ORDERS.CUSTOMER_ID;
```

This would produce the following result.

```
+------+----------+--------+---------------------+
| ID   | NAME     | AMOUNT | DATE                |
+------+----------+--------+---------------------+
|    1 | Ramesh   |   NULL | NULL                |
|    2 | Khilan   |   1560 | 2009-11-20 00:00:00 |
|    3 | kaushik  |   3000 | 2009-10-08 00:00:00 |
|    3 | kaushik  |   1500 | 2009-10-08 00:00:00 |
|    4 | Chaitali |   2060 | 2008-05-20 00:00:00 |
|    5 | Hardik   |   NULL | NULL                |
|    6 | Komal    |   NULL | NULL                |
|    7 | Muffy    |   NULL | NULL                |
|    3 | kaushik  |   3000 | 2009-10-08 00:00:00 |
|    3 | kaushik  |   1500 | 2009-10-08 00:00:00 |
|    2 | Khilan   |   1560 | 2009-11-20 00:00:00 |
|    4 | Chaitali |   2060 | 2008-05-20 00:00:00 |
+------+----------+--------+---------------------+
```

If your Database does not support FULL JOIN (MySQL does not support FULL JOIN), then you can use **UNION ALL** clause to combine these two JOINS as shown below.

```
SQL> SELECT  ID, NAME, AMOUNT, DATE
     FROM CUSTOMERS
     LEFT JOIN ORDERS
     ON CUSTOMERS.ID = ORDERS.CUSTOMER_ID
UNION ALL
     SELECT  ID, NAME, AMOUNT, DATE
     FROM CUSTOMERS
     RIGHT JOIN ORDERS
     ON CUSTOMERS.ID = ORDERS.CUSTOMER_ID
```

SQL—SELFJOIN

The SQL **SELF JOIN** is used to join a table to itself as if the table were two tables; temporarily renaming at least one table in the SQL statement.

Syntax

The basic syntax of **SELF JOIN** is as follows:

```
SELECT a.column_name, b.column_name...
FROM table1 a, table1 b
WHERE a.common_field = b.common_field;
```

Here, the WHERE clause could be any given expression based on your requirement.

Example

Consider the following table.

CUSTOMERS Table is as follows.

```
+----+----------+-----+-----------+----------+
| ID | NAME     | AGE | ADDRESS   | SALARY   |
+----+----------+-----+-----------+----------+
|  1 | Ramesh   |  32 | Ahmedabad |  2000.00 |
|  2 | Khilan   |  25 | Delhi     |  1500.00 |
|  3 | kaushik  |  23 | Kota      |  2000.00 |
|  4 | Chaitali |  25 | Mumbai    |  6500.00 |
|  5 | Hardik   |  27 | Bhopal    |  8500.00 |
|  6 | Komal    |  22 | MP        |  4500.00 |
|  7 | Muffy    |  24 | Indore    | 10000.00 |
+----+----------+-----+-----------+----------+
```

Now, let us join this table using SELF JOIN as follows:

```
SQL> SELECT  a.ID, b.NAME, a.SALARY
     FROM CUSTOMERS a, CUSTOMERS b
     WHERE a.SALARY < b.SALARY;
```

This would produce the following result:

```
+-------+---------------+---------- +
| ID | NAME       | SALARY    |
+-------+---------------+---------- +
|   2 | Ramesh     | 1500.00 |
|   2 | kaushik    | 1500.00 |
|   1 | Chaitali   | 2000.00 |
|   2 | Chaitali   | 1500.00 |
|   3 | Chaitali   | 2000.00 |
|   6 | Chaitali   | 4500.00 |
|   1 | Hardik     | 2000.00 |
|   2 | Hardik     | 1500.00 |
|   3 | Hardik     | 2000.00 |
|   4 | Hardik     | 6500.00 |
|   6 | Hardik     | 4500.00 |
|   1 | Komal      | 2000.00 |
|   2 | Komal      | 1500.00 |
|   3 | Komal      | 2000.00 |
|   1 | Muffy      | 2000.00 |
|   2 | Muffy      | 1500.00 |
|   3 | Muffy      | 2000.00 |
|   4 | Muffy      | 6500.00 |
|   5 | Muffy      | 8500.00 |
|   6 | Muffy      | 4500.00 |
+-------+---------------+---------- +
```

SQL — CARTESIAN or CROSS JOIN

The CARTESIAN JOIN or CROSS JOIN returns the Cartesian product of the sets of records from two or more joined tables. Thus, it equates to an inner join where the join-condition always evaluates to either True or where the join-condition is absent from the statement.

Syntax

The basic syntax of the **CARTESIAN JOIN** or the **CROSS JOIN** is as follows:

```
SELECT table1.column1, table2.column2...
FROM  table1, table2 [, table3 ]
```

Example

Consider the following two tables.

Table 1: CUSTOMERS table is as follows.

```
+----+----------+-----+-----------+----------+
| ID | NAME     | AGE | ADDRESS   | SALARY   |
+----+----------+-----+-----------+----------+
|  1 | Ramesh   |  32 | Ahmedabad |  2000.00 |
|  2 | Khilan   |  25 | Delhi     |  1500.00 |
|  3 | kaushik  |  23 | Kota      |  2000.00 |
|  4 | Chaitali |  25 | Mumbai    |  6500.00 |
|  5 | Hardik   |  27 | Bhopal    |  8500.00 |
|  6 | Komal    |  22 | MP        |  4500.00 |
|  7 | Muffy    |  24 | Indore    | 10000.00 |
+----+----------+-----+-----------+----------+
```

Table 2: ORDERS Table is as follows:

```
+-----+---------------------+-------------+--------+
| OID | DATE                | CUSTOMER_ID | AMOUNT |
+-----+---------------------+-------------+--------+
| 102 | 2009-10-08 00:00:00 |           3 |   3000 |
| 100 | 2009-10-08 00:00:00 |           3 |   1500 |
| 101 | 2009-11-20 00:00:00 |           2 |   1560 |
| 103 | 2008-05-20 00:00:00 |           4 |   2060 |
+-----+---------------------+-------------+--------+
```

Now, let us join these two tables using INNER JOIN as follows:

```
SQL> SELECT  ID, NAME, AMOUNT, DATE
     FROM CUSTOMERS, ORDERS;
```

This would produce the following result:

ID	NAME	AMOUNT	DATE
1	Ramesh	3000	2009-10-08 00:00:00
1	Ramesh	1500	2009-10-08 00:00:00
1	Ramesh	1560	2009-11-20 00:00:00
1	Ramesh	2060	2008-05-20 00:00:00
2	Khilan	3000	2009-10-08 00:00:00
2	Khilan	1500	2009-10-08 00:00:00
2	Khilan	1560	2009-11-20 00:00:00
2	Khilan	2060	2008-05-20 00:00:00
3	kaushik	3000	2009-10-08 00:00:00
3	kaushik	1500	2009-10-08 00:00:00
3	kaushik	1560	2009-11-20 00:00:00
3	kaushik	2060	2008-05-20 00:00:00
4	Chaitali	3000	2009-10-08 00:00:00
4	Chaitali	1500	2009-10-08 00:00:00
4	Chaitali	1560	2009-11-20 00:00:00
4	Chaitali	2060	2008-05-20 00:00:00
5	Hardik	3000	2009-10-08 00:00:00
5	Hardik	1500	2009-10-08 00:00:00
5	Hardik	1560	2009-11-20 00:00:00
5	Hardik	2060	2008-05-20 00:00:00
6	Komal	3000	2009-10-08 00:00:00
6	Komal	1500	2009-10-08 00:00:00
6	Komal	1560	2009-11-20 00:00:00
6	Komal	2060	2008-05-20 00:00:00
7	Muffy	3000	2009-10-08 00:00:00
7	Muffy	1500	2009-10-08 00:00:00
7	Muffy	1560	2009-11-20 00:00:00
7	Muffy	2060	2008-05-20 00:00:00