CIS 315 - Reading Packet: "More options for the SQL Select WHERE clause, column aliases, table aliases, computed columns, aggregate functions, and more"

SOURCES:
* Oracle9i Programming: A Primer, Rajshekhar Sunderraman, Addison Wesley.
* Classic Oracle example tables `empl` and `dept`, adapted somewhat over the years

The basic SQL SELECT statement, continued

Combining relational operations within a single SQL SELECT statement
Recall the SQL SELECT statement semantics (for simple SQL selects) presented in the previous lab:

1) perform a Cartesian product of the tables listed in the FROM clause;
2) perform a relational selection of the rows from 1) that meet the condition in the WHERE clause;
3) perform a "partial" projection from 2) (which is only guaranteed to be a "pure" projection if DISTINCT is included!) of the expressions/columns in the SELECT clause

Now that we (last lab) have discussed how the SQL SELECT statement can be used to specify "pure" relational operations, we should be ready, keeping these SQL SELECT semantics in mind, to combine relational operations within a single SQL SELECT statement.

For example, we often don't do a "pure" natural join or equi-join -- more often, we simply project the desired columns from an equi-join. For example, if we only want to know each employee's last name, department name, and department location, we would only project those three columns from the equi-join of the `empl` and `dept` tables:

```sql
select  empl_last_name, dept_name, dept_loc
from    empl, dept
where   empl.dept_num = dept.dept_num;
```

As another example, it is very common to combine projection and selection -- that is, one might select specific rows from some table, and then only project particular columns from that selection of rows. For example, if I am just interested in the last names and salaries of employees who are managers, then I could combine projection and selection within a single SQL SELECT statement as so:

```sql
select  empl_last_name, salary
from    empl
where   job_title = 'Manager';
```

(Keep in mind: according to our SQL SELECT semantics, we are grabbing all of the rows from the `empl` table (since there is only one, there isn't really a Cartesian product), then selecting just those empl rows for which `job_title` is equal to 'Manager', and then projecting the `empl_last_name` and `salary` from JUST those rows.)
And, as another example, if you only want job_titles and hire_dates for employees with commissions greater than 0, you could do that with a combination of selection and projection as well:

```sql
select  job_title, hiredate
from    empl
where   commission > 0;
```

**SQL "gotcha" - selecting rows in which a given column is NULL**

Here is a SQL "gotcha" that you need to know: if you just want to select rows in which a particular column is null (or not null), then you have to ask that in a very particular way (and not in the way any sensible person would think would work!): you need to use `is null` or `is not null`.

So, if you would like the last names of employees who have NO commission (a commission column value of NULL, empty), then you would write:

```sql
select empl_last_name
from   empl
where  commission is null;
```

Here's the sad part: assume you, quite sensibly, used `=` instead of `is` in this query:

```sql
select empl_last_name
from   empl
where  commission = null;
```

This would not be an error -- however, it would not give the same results, either! (Try it!) You'll find that this query simply gives the result:

```
no rows selected
```

Likewise, if you want to project just the salaries of employees who have non-null commissions, this would give you the results you want:

```sql
select salary
from   empl
where  commission is not NULL;
```

...while this would result in no rows:

```sql
select salary
from   empl
where  commission != NULL;
```

The moral of this particular story is to try to remember to use `is` instead of `=` whenever you want to select rows based on a column being or not being NULL.

**More examples of combining relational operations within a single SQL SELECT statement**

If you want to have further selection of rows from an equi-join, you will typically indicate this within a SQL SELECT statement by using logical `AND's` within the `WHERE` clause. (That is, you will only select rows for which the join-condition is true AND additional criteria are met.)
So, if you would like employee last names, the name of their departments, and their department locations only for employees hired since 12-1-1991, then you can do this with a combination selection, equi-join, and projection as follows:

```sql
select  empl_last_name, dept_name, dept_loc
from    empl, dept
where   empl.dept_num = dept.dept_num
        and hiredate > '01-dec-1991';
```

Here, we are selecting those rows from the Cartesian product of empl and dept for which `empl.dept_num = dept.dept_num` and `hiredate > '01-dec-1991'`.

Such combinations of relational operations are very common -- they are extremely useful and versatile.

**When table names are REQUIRED before a column name**

Consider the preceding example -- what if I decided that I'd like to project the department number, also, right before the department name, for each employee hired after December 1, 1991? You might try this:

```sql
-- this WON'T WORK:
select  empl_last_name, dept_num, dept_name, dept_loc
from    empl, dept
where   empl.dept_num = dept.dept_num
        and hiredate > '01-dec-1991';
```

...but you would find that the above does not work, and indeed gives an error that includes the phrase "column ambiguously defined":

```
ERROR at line 1:
ORA-00918: column ambiguously defined
```

What could be ambiguous here? Consider again what a Cartesian product does: it includes all pairings of all columns from both tables. So, the Cartesian product of empl and dept has two columns with the name `dept_num`. To indicate which table's `dept_num` is intended, you precede it by the specific table name, followed by a dot -- and, indeed, this is what we have been doing in our join conditions:

```sql
empl.dept_num = dept.dept_num
```

It just happens that you need to use this `table_name.col_name` notation anywhere within the SQL SELECT that you use a column name that appears in more than one table in the FROM clause (even in the SELECT clause!).

So, since `dept_num` appears in both empl and dept, we can project `dept_num` by using either:

```sql
-- ... this DOES work:
```
select  empl_last_name, dept.dept_num, dept_name, dept_loc
from    empl, dept
where   empl.dept_num = dept.dept_num
and     hiredate > '01-dec-1991';

-- as does:

select  empl_last_name, empl.dept_num, dept_name, dept_loc
from    empl, dept
where   empl.dept_num = dept.dept_num
and     hiredate > '01-dec-1991';

(Do you see that, since you are only selecting rows for which empl.dept_num =
department_num, both of these must give the same results?)

More possibilities for the WHERE clause - AND, OR, NOT, !=, <>

Before we go on, let's expand the possibilities for specifying which rows we would like to select, since
Oracle SQL provides a nicely-rich set of options for this.

We've already mentioned that SQL provides the boolean AND operation, that is true only if both
operands are true. So, note that SQL also provides the boolean OR operation, that is true is EITHER
operand is true, as well as the boolean NOT operation, true if its operand is false.

For example, what if you would like to see the last names of employees who are EITHER sales people
OR have a salary of $1500 or more? Then you could use OR for this:

select  empl_last_name
from    empl
where   job_title = 'Salesman'
or salary >= 1500;

Be careful when you combine AND and OR within the same SQL SELECT statement -- to make it
perfectly clear what is being AND'ed and what is being OR'ed, you should use parentheses to make that
explicitly clear. For example, if I want the names and hiredates of only employees hired after March 1,
1991, who are also either sales people or make $1500 or more, then this would accomplish this (and be
clear to the reader):

select empl_last_name, hiredate
from    empl
where   hiredate > '01-Mar-1991'
    and (job_title = 'Salesman'
or salary >= 1500);

As an example of the logical NOT operator, consider one of the several ways you can select those
employee rows for employees who are not sales people:

select  *
from empl
where not job_title = 'Salesman';

Interestingly, though, SQL has two different "not equal" operators, both <> and != :

select *
from empl
where job_title <> 'Salesman';

select *
from empl
where job_title != 'Salesman';

The BETWEEN operator

Oracle SQL also includes a BETWEEN operator. The expression:

attrib BETWEEN val1 AND val2

...is true if the value of attrib is greater than or equal to val1 and less than or equal to val2 -- that is, it is true if the value of attrib is, well, between val1 and val2, inclusive. Or, it has the same value as the expression:

(attrib >= val1) AND (attrib <= val2)

So, one could write a SQL SELECT to select the rows of empl for employees whose salary is between $1100 and $1600, inclusive, using:

select *
from empl
where salary between 1100 and 1600;

When you try out this query in sqlplus, take note of how the result includes a row with salary 1100 and a row with salary 1600 (emphasis below added by the instructor):

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>EMPL</th>
<th>EMPL_LAST_NAME</th>
<th>JOB_TITLE</th>
<th>MGR</th>
<th>HIREDATE</th>
<th>SALARY</th>
<th>COMMISSION</th>
<th>DEP</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>7499</td>
<td>Michaels</td>
<td>Salesman</td>
<td>7698</td>
<td>20-FEB-91</td>
<td>1600</td>
<td>300 300</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7521</td>
<td>Ward</td>
<td>Salesman</td>
<td>7698</td>
<td>22-FEB-91</td>
<td>1250</td>
<td>500 300</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7654</td>
<td>Martin</td>
<td>Salesman</td>
<td>7698</td>
<td>28-SEP-91</td>
<td>1250</td>
<td>1400 300</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7844</td>
<td>Turner</td>
<td>Salesman</td>
<td>7698</td>
<td>08-SEP-91</td>
<td>1500</td>
<td>0 300</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7876</td>
<td>Adams</td>
<td>Clerk</td>
<td>7788</td>
<td>23-SEP-91</td>
<td>1100</td>
<td>400</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7934</td>
<td>Miller</td>
<td>Clerk</td>
<td>7782</td>
<td>23-JAN-92</td>
<td>1300</td>
<td>100</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

6 rows selected.

The LIKE operator

Oracle SQL also includes an operator that can be used for selecting rows whose attributes match some pattern: the like operator. You use the like operator with the attribute of interest and a string pattern, which contains what you are trying to match, which may also include the wildcard characters % or _,
where % matches any 0 or more characters, and _ matches any single character.

Examples will likely make this clearer: what if you would like to select the empl rows for employees whose employee number ends with a 9? Then this query would select these rows:

```sql
select   *
from     empl
where    empl_num like '%9';
```

Used with like and written as a string, the % here matches any number of characters that an empl_num begins with, but the 9 at the end means that the empl_num must end with a 9 to be selected. So, the following rows are selected:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>EMPL</th>
<th>EMPL_LAST_NAME</th>
<th>JOB_TITLE</th>
<th>MGR</th>
<th>HIREDATE</th>
<th>SALARY</th>
<th>COMMISSION</th>
<th>DEP</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>7839</td>
<td>King</td>
<td>President</td>
<td>17-NOV-91</td>
<td>5000</td>
<td>500</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7369</td>
<td>Smith</td>
<td>Clerk</td>
<td>17-DEC-90</td>
<td>800</td>
<td>200</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7499</td>
<td>Michaels</td>
<td>Salesman</td>
<td>20-FEB-91</td>
<td>1600</td>
<td>300</td>
<td>300</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

It takes some practice to get the hang of writing patterns for what you want to match -- for example, what pattern would match an employee number with a 7 anywhere in it (beginning, middle, or end)? Can you see that the pattern '%7%' would work for that?

* an employee number that starts with a 7 matches: 0 characters before the 7 match the first %, then the 7 matches, then the 3 characters after the 7 match the second %;

* an employee number that ends with a 7 matches: 3 characters before the 7 match the first %, then the 7 matches, then 0 characters after the 7 match the second %;

* an employee number with a 7 (or even two 7's) in the middle matches: 1 or 2 characters before a 7 match the first %, then the 7 matches, then 1 or 2 characters after a 7 match the second % (even if that includes another 7).

```sql
select   *
from     empl
where    empl_num like '%7%';
```

As another example, what if you would like to select empl rows for employees who are managers, but you cannot remember if the job_title column begins with an 'm' or an 'M'? Then a query such as this would select any row with a job title of 'Manager' or 'manager' (OK, and also 'banager' or '7anager' and any other character followed by 'anager' -- but not 'Omanager', 'Super-Duper-Manager', etc.)

```sql
select   *
from     empl
where    job_title like '_anager';
```

If you would like to see more examples using like, see the posted 315lab05.sql script that accompanies this handout.
Computed columns and Column aliases

It turns out that you can project some things besides just column names in a SQL SELECT statement's SELECT clause. For example, SQL supports such operations as + (addition), - (subtraction), * (multiplication), and / (division) -- and when you use such operators with column names in expressions in the SELECT clause, then that computation is projected.

As a rather silly first example, you could decide to project employee last names and two times their current salary:

```sql
select   empl_last_name, salary * 2
from     empl;
```

This will result in the following:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>EMPL_LAST_NAME</th>
<th>SALARY*2</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>King</td>
<td>10000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Jones</td>
<td>5950</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Blake</td>
<td>5700</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Raimi</td>
<td>4900</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ford</td>
<td>6000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Smith</td>
<td>1600</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Michaels</td>
<td>3200</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ward</td>
<td>2500</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Martin</td>
<td>2500</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Scott</td>
<td>6000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Turner</td>
<td>3000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>EMPL_LAST_NAME</th>
<th>SALARY*2</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Adams</td>
<td>2200</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>James</td>
<td>1900</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Miller</td>
<td>2600</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

14 rows selected.

It is very important that you realize that using a SQL SELECT statement -- that querying a table -- does NOT change the tables in your database in ANY way -- and so, choosing to project a computation like this doesn't change the salaries of employees in the empl table!

If you look at the query result above, you might notice that the computed column's default column heading is, well, the computation! We'll have more sophisticated ways to change the default column headings from queries later in the semester, but in the meantime you can change the column heading in a single query's projected result by renaming that column using a column alias in that SQL SELECT statement.
The syntax for this is simple -- in the SELECT clause, you put a blank after the expression to be projected, and then put the desired column alias (before the comma, if any, "ending" this projection). If you don't surround the column alias with double quotes, then it will appear in all-uppercase no matter how you type it, and it mustn't contain blanks; if you do surround the column alias with double quotes, then it will appear in exactly the case you type it with, and it can contain blanks.

For example,

```sql
select   empl_last_name last_name, salary * 2 "double salary"
from     empl;
```

gives the result:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>LAST_NAME</th>
<th>double salary</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>King</td>
<td>10000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Jones</td>
<td>5950</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Blake</td>
<td>5700</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Raimi</td>
<td>4900</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ford</td>
<td>6000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Smith</td>
<td>1600</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Michaels</td>
<td>3200</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ward</td>
<td>2500</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Martin</td>
<td>2500</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Scott</td>
<td>6000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Turner</td>
<td>3000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

14 rows selected.

Do you see how using the column alias `last_name`, without double quotes, appeared as LAST_NAME in the result, but using double quotes around the column alias "double salary" allowed it to contain a blank and appear in all-lowercase as given in the query?

Also be sure to note: a column alias ONLY applies to the results from the single query it appears in; it, too, cannot change the actual database or the tables in it. It only affects the displayed results of that one query.

One more caveat, in dealing with computed columns: it turns out that computations are ONLY done when all of the columns involved in the computation have NON-NULL values. This can sometimes look very strange in query results -- consider the result you get if you project the employee last names
and the sum of the salary and commission columns as so:

```
select   empl_last_name, salary + commission "combined gross"
from     empl;
```

You might be quite surprised at the result:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>EMPL_LAST_NAME</th>
<th>combined gross</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>King</td>
<td>1900</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Jones</td>
<td>1750</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Blake</td>
<td>2650</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Raimi</td>
<td>1500</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ford</td>
<td>14 rows selected.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Smith</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Michaels</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ward</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Martin</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Scott</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Turner</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Because only sales people have non-null commissions, they are the only employees for whom the computation salary + commission will project with a non-null result!

**Table Aliases**

We have mentioned **column aliases** -- there is another alias that turns out to be handy within a SQL SELECT statement: **table aliases**. A table alias is when, in the **FROM** clause, you give a nickname (usually shorter...) to one or more of the tables in that **FROM** clause.

You do this by following the table name in the **FROM** clause with a blank, and then the desired table alias (before the comma, if any, preceding a next table name). Once you do this, you are expected to use this alias **INSTEAD** of the table name **THROUGHOUT** that query -- in the **SELECT** clause, in the **WHERE** clause, and in all other **SELECT** statement clauses that we will be adding as the semester progresses.

Why would you do this? Usually, to save typing in join-conditions, although sometimes also to permit certain advanced queries (such as joining a table with itself!).
Here's an example, projecting the department number and employee last name for all employees:

```sql
select d.dept_num, empl_last_name
from dept d, empl e
where d.dept_num = e.dept_num;
```

Here, in the \textit{FROM} clause, \textit{d} is being set up as a table alias for table \textit{dept}, and \textit{e} is being set up as a table alias for table \textit{empl}. And so, in the \textit{SELECT} clause and the join-condition, one can now say \textit{d.dept_num} instead of \textit{dept.dept_num}, and \textit{e.dept_num} instead of \textit{empl.dept_num}. Indeed, once you set up a table alias in the \textit{FROM} clause, you don't get a choice about whether to use it or not elsewhere in that one query -- you'll get an error if you don't!!) For example, the query below will result in an Oracle error message (emphasis was added by instructor for emphasis):

```sql
-- SQL*Plus WON'T like this:
select dept.dept_num, empl_last_name
from dept d, empl e
where d.dept_num = e.dept_num;
-- but this is fine:
select d.dept_num, empl_last_name
from dept d, empl e
where d.dept_num = e.dept_num;
```

Again, like for column aliases, table aliases ONLY apply for the ONE query they appear in -- they don't affect any other \textit{SELECT} statement.

And, a style note: as you can see, table aliases are often quite short. However, you are expected to choose them based on the names of the tables they are aliases for -- for example, it is clear, in a query involving tables named \textit{dept} and \textit{empl}, that \textit{d} should stand for \textit{dept} and that \textit{e} should stand for \textit{empl}. It would not be nearly so clear if you used aliases such as \textit{x} and \textit{y} for \textit{dept} and \textit{empl}...! So, you are expected to avoid choosing confusing table aliases.

There are a few more examples of queries involving table aliases in \texttt{lab05.sql}, including an example where the table alias is required for the query to work, if you are interested.

\textbf{Joins involving more than two tables}

Note that, although we have been doing equi-joins and natural joins involving pairs of tables so far, you can have equi-joins and natural joins involving as many tables as you would like (as long as they are related to each other appropriately...!) You just have to include all of the involved tables in the SQL \textit{SELECT} statement's \textit{FROM} clause, and include enough join-conditions to keep your result from being a partial Cartesian product!

How many join-conditions do you need? The general rule-of-thumb to remember is that, in an equi-join or natural join of \textit{X} tables, you had better have at least (\textit{X}-1) join-conditions (sometimes more,
depending on how the tables are related to each other, but ALWAYS at least (X-1)). If you have fewer, then you will not have a join, but a partial Cartesian product (and usually MORE rows than you want, some of which don't really make much sense...)

So, for example, to join 3 tables, you will need at least (and usually just) 2 join conditions.

As an example, what if I would like to project, for each customer, the customer's last name, the name of that customer's employee rep, and the department location of that employee? Then I need to have the customer and the empl and the dept tables involved, and so I need at least two join conditions. How can I determine what those should be? Look at how the tables are related (usually, look at the foreign keys):

* since empl_rep in customer is a foreign key referencing empl's empl_num, then one join condition, relating the customer and empl tables, can be:

    customer.empl_rep = empl.empl_num

* and since empl's dept_num is a foreign key referencing dept, then another join-condition, relating the empl and dept tables, can be:

    empl.dept_num = dept.dept_num

Since we've related customer to empl, and empl to dept, that should be sufficient for equi-joining these three tables:

    select * from customer, empl, dept
    where customer.empl_rep = empl.empl_num
    and empl.dept_num = dept.dept_num;

Of course, if you are only interested in the customer's last name, the name of that customer's employee rep, and the department location of that employee, as we originally mentioned, then we could choose to just project those columns from the equi-join of those three tables:

    select cust_lname, empl_last_name, dept_loc from customer, empl, dept
    where customer.empl_rep = empl.empl_num
    and empl.dept_num = dept.dept_num;

And, of course, one might choose to further restrict the rows selected -- what if, for example, I want to project the above only for customers represented by employee Michaels?

    select cust_lname, empl_last_name, dept_loc from customer, empl, dept
    where customer.empl_rep = empl.empl_num
    and empl.dept_num = dept.dept_num
and empl_last_name = 'Michaels';

The IN predicate

This is yet-another-Oracle SQL possibility for the SELECT statement WHERE clause. A predicate is an operator whose result is true or false -- so, the IN predicate is an operator that is true if the given attribute has a value that is one of those in the list of values on the right-hand-side of the IN predicate, and false otherwise. The IN predicate is very useful, for example, if you would like to select rows in which some attribute is one of a small set of values. (It is also very useful in some other situations that we'll be discussing later in the semester!) You put an attribute, then the predicate IN, then a comma-separated list of values within a set of parentheses.

Say that you want to project the last names and job_titles and salaries of those employees who are either managers or analysts -- you know that you can use OR for that:

```sql
select empl_last_name, job_title, salary 
from empl 
where job_title = 'Analyst' 
  or job_title = 'Manager';
```

...but you could also use the IN predicate for that:

```sql
select empl_last_name, job_title, salary 
from empl 
where job_title IN ('Analyst', 'Manager');
```

Isn't it easy to tell, in the above query, that you want to select those rows in which job_title is either 'Analyst' or 'Manager'? that you want to select those rows for which the row's job_title is IN that set ('Analyst', 'Manager')?

**NOT IN** is also permitted, and it means what you probably expect: it selects those rows for which the attribute's value is NOT IN the given list. So, to project the last name and job_title for anyone who ISN'T an analyst or a manager, you could use:

```sql
select empl_last_name, job_title 
from empl 
where job_title NOT IN ('Analyst', 'Manager');
```

Aggregate functions

The last topic we'll discuss in this lab are **aggregate functions**. These are odd, but useful!

Computed columns perform a computation for EACH selected row; **aggregate functions** are functions that perform a SINGLE computation on ALL of the selected rows, returning the single result. (Aggregate functions always return a single result in *simple* select statements; we'll talk later about more-advanced select statements in which an aggregate function can result in multiple results.)

Oracle SQL supports at least the following aggregate functions:
avg(expr) - computes the average of expr in all selected rows
min(expr) - computes the minimum value of expr in all selected rows
max(expr) - computes the maximum value of expr in all selected rows
sum(expr) - computes the sum of expr for all selected rows
count(expr) - computes the number of rows for which expr is non-null over all selected rows

For example, if you would like to project the average employee salary, the average commission, the minimum salary, the maximum salary, the sum of all salaries, a count of how many managers there are, the minimum hiredate, and a count of how many employees have non-null commissions, you can get all of that with the query:

```
select avg(salary), avg(commission), min(salary), max(salary),
sum(salary), count(salary), count(mgr), min(hiredate),
count(commission)
from   empl;
```

...resulting in the (admittedly badly-wrapped) result:

```
AVG(SALARY) AVG(COMMISSION) MIN(SALARY) MAX(SALARY) SUM(SALARY) COUNT(SALARY)
----------- --------------- ----------- ----------- ----------- --------------
         2073.21429          550         800        5000     29025         14

COUNT(MGR) MIN(HIRED COUNT(COMMISSION)
---------- --------- -----------------
        2073.21429          550         800        5000     29025         14

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```

You could certainly do fewer of these at a time...! Here's a query focusing on commissions, to emphasize the point that the aggregate functions only operate on NON-NULL values:

```
select  avg(commission) "Avg Comm", min(commission) "Min Comm",
        max(commission) "Max Comm",
        sum(commission) "Comm Sum", count(commission) "How many have comm"
from    empl;
```

...which results in:

```
Avg Comm    Min Comm  Max Comm  Comm Sum  How many have comm
----------- ---------- ---------- ---------- ------------------
   550        0     1400      2200             4
```

You can use * with the count aggregate function to simply count how many rows are selected by this query -- consider the following query's results:

```
select  count(salary), count(commission), count(mgr), count(*)
from    empl;
```

...which results in:
count with a column name gives how many of the selected rows have non-null values for that column; count with * gives how many selected rows there are, period.

To make sure that it is clear that these aggregate functions return these computations just for the selected rows, here is an example that projects just the number of clerks and those clerks' average salary:

```sql
select count(*), avg(salary)
from   empl
where  job_title = 'Clerk';
```

...which results in:

```
COUNT(*) AVG(SALARY)
----------  -----------
   4    1037.5
```

These additional simple SQL SELECT statement features give you a great number of possibilities for querying the data in a database -- and these are only the beginning of the power available in this statement, as we shall see in coming weeks.