**INTRODUCTION TO DBMS, RDBMS**

**DATABASE**

A database is a structured collection of data that is organized in a way that makes it easy to manage, access, and update. It serves as a centralized repository for storing various types of information, ranging from simple text records to complex multimedia files.

Characteristics of a database include:

* Structured Format
* Data Independence
* Data Integrity
* Concurrency control

**DATABASE MANAGEMENT SYSTEM(DBMS)**

* Software system for managing databases.
* Facilitates creation, manipulation, and retrieval of data.
* Acts as an interface between users/applications and the database.
* Ensures data integrity, security, and concurrency control.
* Provides tools for data definition, manipulation, and control.
* Manages transactions, backups, and recovery processes.
* Optimizes query performance and database operations.

Key components and features of a DBMS include:

1. **Data Definition Language(DDL):** Allows users to define the database structure, including creating, modifying, and deleting database objects such as tables, indexes, and constraints.
2. **Data Manipulation Language(DML):** Enables users to retrieve, insert, update, and delete data from the database. Common DML commands include SELECT, INSERT, UPDATE, and DELETE.
3. **Data Control Language(DCL):** Controls access to the database by granting or revoking permissions to users and specifying access rights for different database objects.
4. **Transaction Management:** Ensures the integrity and consistency of data by grouping operations into transactions, which are atomic units of work that are either fully completed or fully rolled back in case of failure.
5. **Concurrency Control:** Manages simultaneous access to the database by multiple users or applications, preventing conflicts and ensuring data consistency.

**RELATIONAL** **DATABASE MANAGEMENT SYSTEM(RDBMS)**

* Type of DBMS that organizes data into tables (relations).
* Structures data in rows (tuples) and columns (attributes).
* Establishes relationships between tables using keys (primary, foreign).
* Enforces integrity constraints to maintain data accuracy and consistency.
* Supports SQL (Structured Query Language) for querying and manipulating data.
* Provides ACID properties (Atomicity, Consistency, Isolation, Durability) for transactions.

**ACID PROPERTIES**

The ACID properties are a set of four characteristics that ensure the reliability and consistency of transactions in a database system.

1. ATOMICITY: All operations within a transaction are treated as a single unit of work, ensuring that either all operations are completed successfully or none of them are.
2. CONSISTENCY: Ensures that the database remains in a valid state before and after the execution of a transaction, preserving integrity constraints and rules.
3. ISOLATION: Transactions operate independently of each other, ensuring that the execution of one transaction is isolated from other concurrent transactions.
4. DURABILITY: Once a transaction is committed, its changes are permanent and persist even in the event of system failures, crashes, or restarts.

**ADVANTAGE OF DBMS**

* Data Integration: DBMS allows for the integration of data from multiple sources into a single database, providing a unified view of the data.
* Data Security: DBMS provides mechanisms for access control, authentication, and encryption to protect sensitive data from unauthorized access.
* Data Consistency: DBMS enforces integrity constraints to ensure that data remains consistent and accurate throughout its lifecycle.
* Data Independence: DBMS separates the database structure from the application programs, allowing for changes to the database schema without affecting the applications.

**DISADVANTAGE OF DBMS**

* Complexity: Implementing and managing a DBMS can be complex and require specialized knowledge and skills.
* Cost: Licensing fees, hardware requirements, and maintenance costs associated with DBMS can be significant.
* Performance Overhead: DBMS adds overhead to data access and manipulation operations, impacting system performance.
* Single Point of Failure: Reliance on a single DBMS instance can pose a risk of system failure if it becomes unavailable.

**ADVANTAGE OF RDBMS**

* Structured Data Storage: RDBMS organizes data into tables with rows and columns, providing a structured format for data storage and retrieval.
* Data Integrity: RDBMS enforces integrity constraints such as primary keys, foreign keys, and unique constraints to maintain data integrity.
* Query Optimization: RDBMS optimizes query performance through indexing, query optimization techniques, and caching mechanisms.
* Data Independence: RDBMS separates the logical and physical aspects of data storage, allowing for changes to the physical storage without affecting the logical structure.

**DISADVANTAGE OF RDBMS**

* Scalability: Scaling an RDBMS to handle large volumes of data and high transaction rates can be challenging and may require additional hardware or software solutions.
* Complexity: Designing and managing relational databases can be complex, especially for databases with complex data models and relationships.
* Limited Flexibility: RDBMS is based on a fixed schema, which can limit flexibility when dealing with evolving data requirements.
* Performance Overhead: RDBMS is based on a fixed schema, which can limit flexibility when dealing with evolving data requirements.

*Mongo DB, Cassandra are some popular examples of DBMS while MySQL, Oracle Database, Microsoft SQL Server are the most common examples of RDBMS.*

**NORMALISATION**

Normalization is a database design technique used to minimize redundancy and dependency by organizing data into tables and defining relationships between them. Here are different types of normalization techniques commonly used in relational databases:

1. **First Normal Form (1NF):**

* Ensures that each column in a table contains atomic values, meaning each value is indivisible.
* Eliminates repeating groups within rows and ensures that each attribute has a single value.
* Example: Splitting a multi-valued attribute into separate columns.

1. **Second Normal Form (2NF):**

* Builds upon 1NF by removing partial dependencies, where non-key attributes depend on only a part of the primary key.
* Requires that every non-prime attribute is fully functionally dependent on the entire primary key.
* Example: Breaking a table into two tables to remove partial dependencies.

1. **Third Normal Form (3NF):**

* Builds upon 2NF by removing transitive dependencies, where non-key attributes depend on other non-key attributes.
* Ensures that every non-prime attribute is non-transitively dependent on the primary key.
* Example: Moving attributes that are dependent on other non-key attributes into a separate table.

1. **Boyce-Codd Normal Form (BCNF):**

* A stricter form of 3NF where every determinant is a candidate key.
* Ensures that there are no non-trivial functional dependencies where a determinant is not a superkey.
* Example: Decomposing tables further to remove dependencies on candidate keys.

1. **Fourth Normal Form (4NF):**

* Addresses multi-valued dependencies, where one or more non-key attributes depend on a multi-valued attribute.
* Ensures that there are no non-trivial multi-valued dependencies.
* Example: Splitting a table into two or more tables to remove multi-valued dependencies.

1. **Fifth Normal Form (5NF):**

* Also known as Project-Join Normal Form (PJ/NF).
* Addresses join dependencies, where some information is only available by joining multiple tables.
* Ensures that there are no non-trivial join dependencies.
* Example: Decomposing tables to remove join dependencies.

**CONCLUSION**

DBMS and RDBMS play a crucial role in organizing and managing data efficiently. While DBMS provides a platform for data management, RDBMS offers a structured approach to organizing data in tables with relational integrity. Understanding these concepts and their advantages and disadvantages is essential for effective database design and management.

**NORMALIZATION**

1. **What is normalization in the context of database design?**

Normalization in the context of database design is the process of organizing the attributes and tables of a relational database to minimize redundancy and dependency. This process involves breaking down a large table into smaller, related tables and defining relationships between them. The goal of normalization is to reduce data redundancy and improve data integrity.

1. **Why is normalization important for database management?**

Normalization is important for database management for several reasons:

* **Minimises Redundancy:** Normalization eliminates duplicate data, ensuring each piece of information is stored only once.
* **Enhance Data Integrity:** By reducing redundancy, normalization helps maintain the accuracy and consistency of data.
* **Simplifies Updates:** With normalized data, making changes or updates is easier and less error-prone because modifications are made in one place.
* **Improves Query Performance:** Normalized databases often result in faster and more efficient queries, as they involve smaller tables and fewer data repetitions.
* **Facilitates Scalability:** Normalization makes databases more adaptable to changes, allowing for easier expansion and modification as business needs evolve.
* **Easier Maintenance:** Maintaining a normalized database is simpler due to its clear structure, making troubleshooting and fixing issues more straightforward.

1. **Explain the concept of data redundancy and how normalization helps to mitigate it.**

* **Data Redundancy:** It's when the same data is repeated unnecessarily across a database, leading to wasted storage space and increased risk of inconsistencies.
* **Normalization Mitigates Redundancy:**
* **Breaking Data into Smaller Tables:** Normalization divides data into smaller, more manageable tables.
* **Establishing Relationships:** It uses keys (like primary and foreign keys) to connect related data across tables.
* **Eliminating Repetition:** Through normalization forms, redundant data is minimized, ensuring each piece of information is stored only once.
* **Efficient Maintenance:** With normalized data, updates are easier and less error-prone, as changes are made in one place.
* **Benefits of Reducing Redundancy:**
* **Consistency:** Data remains consistent across the database.
* **Efficiency:** Queries are faster and more efficient with smaller, normalized tables.
* **Scalability:** The database is more adaptable to changes and growth.
* **Data Integrity:** With fewer repetitions, there's less risk of conflicting or outdated information.

1. **What are the primary goals of normalization?**

* **Minimise Redundancy:** Avoid storing the same data in multiple places within the database.
* **Ensure Data Integrity:** Keep data accurate and consistent by preventing anomalies and errors.
* **Facilitate Easy Updates:** Make it simple to modify or update data without causing inconsistencies.
* **Improve Query Performance:** Organize data to make searching and retrieving information faster and more efficient.
* **Enhance Flexibility:** Make the database adaptable to changes and expansions without compromising data integrity.

1. **List and explain the different normal forms in normalization theory.**
2. **First Normal Form (1NF):**

* Ensures that each column in a table contains atomic values, meaning each value is indivisible.
* Eliminates repeating groups within rows and ensures that each attribute has a single value.
* Example: Splitting a multi-valued attribute into separate columns.

1. **Second Normal Form (2NF):**

* Builds upon 1NF by removing partial dependencies, where non-key attributes depend on only a part of the primary key.
* Requires that every non-prime attribute is fully functionally dependent on the entire primary key.
* Example: Breaking a table into two tables to remove partial dependencies.

1. **Third Normal Form (3NF):**

* Builds upon 2NF by removing transitive dependencies, where non-key attributes depend on other non-key attributes.
* Ensures that every non-prime attribute is non-transitively dependent on the primary key.
* Example: Moving attributes that are dependent on other non-key attributes into a separate table.

1. **Boyce-Codd Normal Form (BCNF):**

* A stricter form of 3NF where every determinant is a candidate key.
* Ensures that there are no non-trivial functional dependencies where a determinant is not a superkey.
* Example: Decomposing tables further to remove dependencies on candidate keys.

1. **Fourth Normal Form (4NF):**

* Addresses multi-valued dependencies, where one or more non-key attributes depend on a multi-valued attribute.
* Ensures that there are no non-trivial multi-valued dependencies.
* Example: Splitting a table into two or more tables to remove multi-valued dependencies.

1. **Fifth Normal Form (5NF):**

* Also known as Project-Join Normal Form (PJ/NF).
* Addresses join dependencies, where some information is only available by joining multiple tables.
* Ensures that there are no non-trivial join dependencies.
* Example: Decomposing tables to remove join dependencies.

1. **What is First Normal Form (1NF) and why is it necessary?explain with example**

First Normal Form (1NF) means organizing data in a table so that each cell contains a single value, and there are no groups of values in one cell. This is important because it makes the data easier to manage and understand.

First Normal Form is necessary because of:

**Atomic Values**: First Normal Form requires that each attribute within a table holds atomic values, meaning each value cannot be further divided. This ensures data integrity and simplifies data manipulation.

**Elimination of Repeating Groups:** 1NF eliminates repeating groups of data by breaking them down into separate rows. This reduces redundancy and ensures that each row represents a single entity.

Consider a table that stores information about students and their favorite subjects:

|  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- |
| **Student ID** | **Name** | **Favorite Subjects** |
| 101 | Ammu | Maths, Science |
| 102 | Anu | English, Science |

To bring this table into 1NF, we need to split the "Favorite Subjects" column so that each student's favorite subject is in a separate row:

|  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- |
| **Student ID** | **Name** | **Favorite Subjects** |
| 101 | Ammu | Maths |
| 101 | Ammu | Science |
| 102 | Anu | English |
| 102 | Anu | Science |

1. **How does Second Normal Form (2NF) differ from First Normal Form (1NF)?explain with example.**

Second Normal Form (2NF) builds upon the foundation laid by First Normal Form (1NF) by further eliminating redundancy and dependency in the database design. While 1NF ensures that each column in a table contains atomic values and there are no repeating groups of data, 2NF takes it a step further by addressing partial dependencies within composite keys.

Consider a table that stores information about students, their courses, and the instructors who teach those courses:

|  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| **StudentID** | **CourseID** | **Course Name** | **InstructorID** | **Instructor Name** |
| 101 | C1 | Maths | 1 | David |
| 101 | C2 | Science | 2 | Jack |
| 102 | C1 | Maths | 1 | David |
| 102 | C3 | History | 3 | Binil |

To bring this table into 2NF, we need to remove partial dependencies by splitting it into two separate tables:

**StudentsCourses Table**

|  |  |
| --- | --- |
| **StudentID** | **CourseID** |
| 101 | C1 |
| 101 | C2 |
| 102 | C1 |
| 102 | C3 |

**CoursesInstructors Table**

|  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- |
| **CourseID** | **Course Name** | **InstructorID** |
| C1 | Maths | 1 |
| C2 | Science | 2 |
| C3 | History | 3 |

1. **Describe Third Normal Form (3NF) and its significance in database design.explain with example**

Third Normal Form (3NF) is a level of database normalization that builds upon the principles of First Normal Form (1NF) and Second Normal Form (2NF). It aims to further reduce data redundancy and improve data integrity by eliminating transitive dependencies within a relational database schema.

Third Normal Form is significant in database design:

* Data Integrity: By eliminating transitive dependencies, 3NF helps ensure that each piece of data is stored in only one place, reducing the risk of inconsistencies or anomalies.
* Efficient Data Storage: 3NF optimizes storage space by organizing data into smaller, more focused tables, minimizing redundancy.
* Simplified Updates: With data organized in 3NF, updates and modifications to the database are simpler and less error-prone because changes only need to be made in one place.
* Enhanced Query Performance: Queries tend to perform better on databases in 3NF because data is organized logically, allowing for more efficient retrieval.

Consider a table that stores information about students, their courses, and the instructors who teach those courses:

|  |  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| **StudentID** | **StudentName** | **CourseID** | **CourseName** | **InstructorID** | **InstructorName** |
| 101 | Ammu | C1 | Maths | 1 | Smith |
| 102 | Binil | C2 | Science | 2 | Johnson |
| 103 | Charles | C1 | Maths | 1 | Smith |

To bring this table into Third Normal Form (3NF), we need to remove the transitive dependencies by splitting it into two separate tables:

**Courses Table**

|  |  |
| --- | --- |
| **CourseID** | **CourseName** |
| C1 | Maths |
| C2 | Science |

**Instructors Table**

|  |  |
| --- | --- |
| **InstructorID** | **InstructorName** |
| 1 | Smith |
| 2 | Johnson |

**Student Courses Table**

|  |  |
| --- | --- |
| **StudentID** | **CourseID** |
| 101 | C1 |
| 102 | C2 |
| 103 | C1 |

1. **What is Boyce-Codd Normal Form (BCNF) and how does it differ from Third Normal Form (3NF)?explain with example**

Boyce-Codd Normal Form (BCNF) is a higher level of normalization in database design, aiming to eliminate all non-trivial functional dependencies in a relation. It is more stringent than Third Normal Form (3NF) and addresses certain edge cases that 3NF might not fully cover.

To illustrate the difference between BCNF and 3NF, let's consider an example:

|  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| **EmployeeID** | **EmployeeName** | **ProjectID** | **ProjectName** | **Department** |
| 1 | Anna | P1 | A | Accounting |
| 2 | Binil | P2 | B | Marketing |
| 3 | Chandru | P1 | C | Accounting |

To bring this table into BCNF, we need to split it into two separate tables:

**EmployeesProjects Table**

|  |  |
| --- | --- |
| **EmployeeID** | **ProjectID** |
| 1 | P1 |
| 2 | P2 |
| 3 | P1 |

**Projects Table**

|  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- |
| **ProjectID** | **ProjectName** | **Department** |
| **P1** | **A** | **Accounting** |
| **P2** | **B** | **Marketing** |

1. **Explain the concept of transitive dependency and its role in normalization.**

Transitive dependency is a concept in database normalization that occurs when one non-key attribute in a table is functionally dependent on another non-key attribute, rather than directly on the primary key. This creates a chain of dependencies where the value of one non-key attribute determines the value of another non-key attribute.

Consider a table that stores information about students and their courses, where the primary key is the combination of StudentID and CourseID:

|  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- |
| **StudentID** | **CourseID** | **Instructor** | **Department** |
| 101 | C1 | Smith | Maths |
| 102 | C2 | Johnson | Science |

**Courses Table**

|  |  |
| --- | --- |
| **CourseID** | **Instructor** |
| C1 | Smith |
| C2 | Johnson |

**Instructors Table**

|  |  |
| --- | --- |
| **Instructor** | **Department** |
| Smith | Maths |
| Johnson | Science |

1. **Can you provide examples illustrating the process of normalization and its application in real-world database scenarios?**

Scenario: A small company needs to keep track of employee details such as employee ID, name, department, and salary.

Step 1:Identify Entities and Attributes

Entity: Employee

Attributes: EmployeeID, Name, Department, Salary

Step 2: Define Relationships

No complex relationships in this scenario.

Step 3: Normalize the Database

First Normal Form (1NF):

Ensure atomic values in each cell.

Avoid repeating groups of data.

For example, consider the following table:

| EmployeeID | Name | Department | Salary |
| --- | --- | --- | --- |
| 001 | John Doe | HR, Finance | $5000 |
| 002 | Alice Lee | Marketing | $4500 |
| 003 | Bob Smith | IT | $5500 |

This violates 1NF because the Department column contains multiple values. We split it into separate rows:

| EmployeeID | Name | Department | Salary |
| --- | --- | --- | --- |
| 001 | John Doe | HR | $5000 |
| 001 | John Doe | Finance | $5000 |
| 002 | Alice Lee | Marketing | $4500 |
| 003 | Bob Smith | IT | $5500 |

Second Normal Form(2NF):

Remove partial dependencies.

In our case, there are no partial dependencies because all attributes depend on the entire primary key (EmployeeID).

Third Normal Form (3NF):

Remove transitive dependencies.

Our table is already in 3NF since there are no attributes that are dependent on other non-key attributes.Now, our database is normalized, ensuring that data is organized efficiently, and redundancies are minimized.

1. **Define SQL constraints and explain their significance in database management. Provide examples of different types of SQL constraints.**

SQL constraints are rules that enforce the integrity of data stored in a database. They define limits or conditions that data must meet to be considered valid. Constraints are applied to columns or tables to ensure that the data remains accurate, consistent, and reliable.

Here are some common types of SQL constraints and their significance in database management:

1. **NOT NULL Constraint**:
   * Ensures that a column cannot have a **NULL value**.
   * Example:
   * CREATE TABLE Students (

student\_id INT NOT NULL,

student\_name VARCHAR(50) NOT NULL

);

1. **UNIQUE Constraint**:
   * Ensures that all values in a column are **different** (no duplicates).
   * Example:
   * CREATE TABLE Employees (

employee\_id INT UNIQUE,

employee\_email VARCHAR(100) UNIQUE

);

1. **PRIMARY KEY Constraint**:
   * A combination of **NOT NULL** and **UNIQUE** constraints.
   * Uniquely identifies each row in a table.
   * Example:
   * CREATE TABLE Orders (

order\_id INT PRIMARY KEY,

customer\_id INT NOT NULL

);

1. **FOREIGN KEY Constraint**:
   * References a row in another table.
   * Ensures data consistency and maintains relationships between tables.
   * Example:

* CREATE TABLE OrderDetails (

order\_id INT,

product\_id INT,

FOREIGN KEY (order\_id) REFERENCES Orders(order\_id),

FOREIGN KEY (product\_id) REFERENCES Products(product\_id));

1. **CHECK Constraint**:
   * Validates a condition for new values.
   * Example:
   * CREATE TABLE Employees (

employee\_id INT PRIMARY KEY,

salary DECIMAL CHECK (salary >= 30000));

1. **DEFAULT Constraint**:
   * Sets a default value for a column if no value is specified during insertion.
   * Example:
   * CREATE TABLE Customers (

customer\_id INT PRIMARY KEY, registration\_date DATE DEFAULT CURRENT\_DATE);

1. **Discuss the purpose of the NOT NULL constraint in SQL. How does it differ from the UNIQUE constraint?**

The NOT NULL constraint in SQL ensures that a column must have a value for every row in a table, meaning NULL values are not allowed. It's used to enforce the presence of data in a specific column, making it essential for fields where missing information is not acceptable, such as primary keys or required fields.

On the other hand, the UNIQUE constraint ensures that all values in a column (or a combination of columns) are distinct, meaning no two rows can have the same value(s) for the specified column(s). It's used to enforce data uniqueness, preventing duplicate entries in a particular column or set of columns.

NOT NULL: Ensures the presence of data in a column, making it mandatory.

UNIQUE: Ensures the uniqueness of data in a column or set of columns, preventing duplicates.

1. **Explain the concept of a PRIMARY KEY constraint in SQL. What role does it play in database design and data integrity?**

The PRIMARY KEY constraint in SQL uniquely identifies each record (row) in a table. It ensures that each value in the specified column or combination of columns is unique and not null. This constraint plays a crucial role in database design and data integrity by providing a unique identifier for each record, preventing duplicate entries, and facilitating efficient data retrieval and manipulation. It also helps maintain data integrity by enforcing uniqueness and establishing relationships between tables. In simple terms, the PRIMARY KEY constraint is like a fingerprint for each record in a database, ensuring its uniqueness and integrity.

1. **Explain the difference between Data Definition Language (DDL), Data Manipulation Language (DML), and Data Control Language (DCL) in SQL.Provide examples of scenarios where DDL commands would be used.**

* Data Definition Lamguage(DDL)
* DDL is used to define the structure of the database schema, including creating, altering, and dropping database objects such as tables, indexes, views, and constraints.
* Examples of DDL commands:
* CREATE TABLE: Used to create a new table.
* ALTER TABLE: Used to modify the structure of an existing table.
* DROP TABLE: Used to delete an existing table.
* CREATE INDEX: Used to create an index on a table.
* DROP INDEX: Used to remove an index from a table.
* Data Manipulation Language(DML)
* DML is used to manipulate data stored in the database, such as inserting, updating, deleting, and querying data in tables.
* Examples of DML commands:
* INSERT INTO: Used to add new records (rows) into a table.
* UPDATE: Used to modify existing records in a table.
* DELETE FROM: Used to remove records from a table.
* SELECT: Used to retrieve data from one or more tables.
* Data Control Language(DCL)
* DCL is used to control access to the database and its objects, including granting and revoking permissions and privileges to users and roles.
* Examples of DCL commands:
* GRANT: Used to grant specific privileges to a user or role.
* REVOKE: Used to revoke previously granted privileges from a user or role.

**Creating Tables:**

Scenario: A company is setting up a new database to manage employee information. They need to create tables to store employee details such as names, salaries, and departments.

Example DDL command:

CREATE TABLE Employees (

EmployeeID INT PRIMARY KEY,

Name VARCHAR(100),

Salary DECIMAL(10, 2),

Department VARCHAR(50)

);

**Altering Tables:**

Scenario: The company decides to add a new column to the existing Employees table to store employee email addresses.

Example DDL command:

ALTER TABLE Employees

ADD Email VARCHAR(100);

**Dropping Tables:**

Scenario: The company no longer requires the Employees table and wants to remove it from the database.

Example DDL command:

DROP TABLE Employees;

**SQL Queries**

SQL queries are used to retrieve, manipulate, and manage data stored in a relational database. Here are some common types of SQL queries:

**SELECT Query:** Used to retrieve data from one or more tables.

SELECT column1, column2

FROM table\_name

WHERE condition;

**INSERT Query:**The INSERT statement adds new records (rows) into a table.

INSERT INTO table\_name (column1, column2)

VALUES (value1, value2);

**UPDATE Query**: UPDATE statement modifies existing records in a table.

UPDATE table\_name

SET column1 = value1, column2 = value2

WHERE condition;

**DELETE Query:** Used to delete existing records from a table.

DELETE FROM table\_name

WHERE condition;

**Operators in WHERE Clause:**

Operators in the WHERE clause are used to specify conditions for filtering rows returned by a SELECT statement.

**Comparison Operators:** Used to compare values.

=: Equal to

<: Less than

>: Greater than

<=: Less than or equal to

>=: Greater than or equal to

<> or !=: Not equal to

**Logical Operators:** Used to combine multiple conditions.

AND: Returns true if all conditions are true.

OR: Returns true if at least one condition is true.

NOT: Negates a condition.

**IN Operator:** Checks if a value matches any value in a list.

WHERE column\_name IN (value1, value2, ...);

**BETWEEN Operator**: Checks if a value is within a range.

WHERE column\_name BETWEEN value1 AND value2;

**JOINs:**

JOINs are used to combine rows from two or more tables based on a related column between them.

**INNER JOIN:** Returns rows when there is a match in both tables.

SELECT \*

FROM table1

INNER JOIN table2 ON table1.column\_name = table2.column\_name;

**LEFT JOIN:** Returns all rows from the left table and matching rows from the right table.

SELECT \*

FROM table1

LEFT JOIN table2 ON table1.column\_name = table2.column\_name;

**RIGHT JOIN:** Returns all rows from the right table and matching rows from the left table.

SELECT \*

FROM table1

RIGHT JOIN table2 ON table1.column\_name = table2.column\_name;

**FULL OUTER JOIN**: Returns all rows when there is a match in either table.

SELECT \*

FROM table1

FULL OUTER JOIN table2 ON table1.column\_name = table2.column\_name;

**Aggregate Functions:**

Aggregate functions perform calculations on a set of values and return a single value.

**COUNT():** Returns the number of rows that match a specified condition.

SELECT COUNT(column\_name) FROM table\_name;

**SUM():** Returns the sum of values in a numeric column.

SELECT SUM(column\_name) FROM table\_name;

**AVG():** Returns the average of values in a numeric column.

SELECT AVG(column\_name) FROM table\_name;

**MIN():** Returns the minimum value in a column.

SELECT MIN(column\_name) FROM table\_name;

**MAX():** Returns the maximum value in a column.

SELECT MAX(column\_name) FROM table\_name;