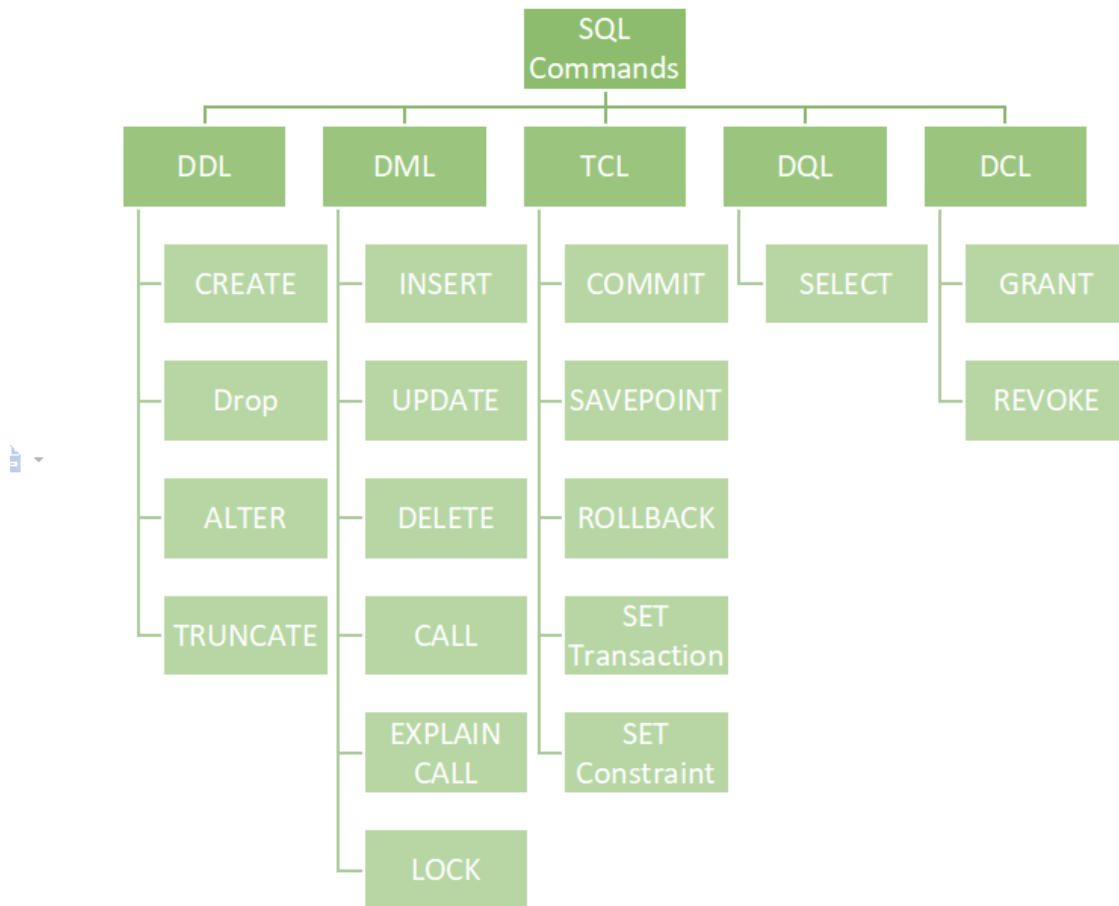


SQL Syntax

SQL hierarchy : Server → Database → Table → Data

ACID stands for Atomicity, Consistency, Isolation, and Durability, and these properties are crucial for maintaining the integrity of data in a database management system (DBMS).



Warning: The provided syntax is not common for MySQL and PostgreSQL, but variations may exist in keywords or options. Always refer to the official documentation of your specific database system for accurate commands and details.

Below is some example:

1. Rename column

MySQL: `ALTER TABLE student_info CHANGE COLUMN mobile phone INT;`

PostgreSQL: `ALTER TABLE student_info RENAME COLUMN mobile TO phone;`

2. Modify column

MySQL: `ALTER TABLE student_info MODIFY COLUMN mobile INT;`

PostgreSQL: `ALTER TABLE student_info ALTER COLUMN mobile TYPE INT;`

3. Changing the table name (varies between databases):

MySQL: `RENAME TABLE oldTableName TO newTableName;`

PostgreSQL: `ALTER TABLE oldTableName RENAME TO newTableName;`

SQL Syntex

DDL (Data Definition Language)

1. **Create** - Used to create database objects such as tables, indexes, views, and stored procedures.
 - **create database:** `create database database_name`
Eg 1 `create database student`
 - **create table:** `create table table_name (
column1 datatype1,
column2 datatype2,
...
primary key (one_or_more_columns)
)`
Eg 1 `create table student_info(rollno int primary key, name varchar(50),
bloodgroup varchar(10))`
2. **Alter** - Used to modify the structure of existing database objects, such as adding or drop or modifying columns from a table.
 - **Add a new column:** `alter table table_name add column new_column1 datatype, add
column new_column2 datatype;`
Eg 1 `alter table student_info add column age int`
 - **Modify a column:** `alter table table_name [rename/change/alter] column old_column
new_column type datatype`
Eg 1 `alter table student_info rename column rollno reg_no -- column name`
Eg 2 `alter table student_info alter column rollno type bigint -- column datatype`
 - **Drop a column:** `alter table table_name drop column column_to_drop`
Eg 1 `alter table student_info drop column age`
3. **Drop** - Used to delete database objects, such as tables, indexes, or views.
 - `drop database database_name`
Eg 1 `drop datavase student`
 - `drop table table_name`
Eg 1 `drop table student_info`
4. **Truncate** - Removes all records from a table but keeps the table structure for future use.
 - `truncate table table_name`
Eg 1 `truncate table student_info`

DQL (Data Query Language)

1. **Select** - Used to retrieve data from one or more tables.
 - `select column1, column2, ... from table_name where condition;`

DML (Data Manipulation Language)

SQL Syntax

1. **Insert** - Used to add new records (rows) to a table.
 - **insert into** table_name (column1, column2, ...) **values** (value1, value2, ...);
2. **Update (set)** - Used to modify existing records in a table using **set**.
 - **update** table_name **set** column1 = value1, column2 = value2, ... **where** condition;
3. **Delete** - Used to remove records from a table.
 - **delete from** table_name **where** condition;

Example 1

1. create table employees (employee_id int primary key, first_name varchar(50), last_name varchar(50), salary int)
2. insert into employees (employee_id, first_name, last_name, salary) values (1, 'alice', 'johnson', 60000), (2, 'bob', 'smith', 70000), (3, 'charlie', 'brown', 55000)
3. select * from employees where salary > 60000
4. insert into employees (employee_id, first_name, last_name, salary) values (4, 'david', 'miller', 80000);
5. update employees set salary = 75000 where first_name = 'bob'
6. delete from employees where employee_id = 3;

Example 2

1. create table students (student_id int primary key, first_name varchar(50), last_name varchar(50), age int, grade varchar(2))
2. insert into students (student_id, first_name, last_name, age, grade) values (1, 'john', 'doe', 18, 'a'), (2, 'alice', 'smith', 20, 'b'), (3, 'bob', 'johnson', 19, 'c')
3. select * from students where age < 20
4. insert into students (student_id, first_name, last_name, age, grade) values (4, 'emma', 'brown', 22, 'b')
5. update students set age = 21 where first_name = 'alice'
6. delete from students where student_id = 3

SQL Syntax

Join operations

1. **Join** - Combines rows from two or more tables based on a related column between them.
 - `select column1, column2, ... from table1 join table2 on table1.column_name = table2.column_name;`
2. **Inner join** - Returns only the rows where there is a match in both tables.
 - `select column1, column2, ... from table1 inner join table2 on table1.column_name = table2.column_name;`
3. **Left join** - Returns all rows from the left table and the matched rows from the right table. If there is no match, NULL values are returned for columns from the right table.
 - `select column1, column2, ... from table1 left join table2 on table1.column_name = table2.column_name;`
4. **Right join (or right outer join)** - Returns all rows from the right table and the matched rows from the left table. If there is no match, NULL values are returned for columns from the left table.
 - `select column1, column2, ... from table1 right join table2 on table1.column_name = table2.column_name;`
5. **Full join (or full outer join)** - Returns all rows when there is a match in either the left or right table. If there is no match, NULL values are returned for columns from the table without a match.
 - `select column1, column2, ... from table1 full join table2 on table1.column_name = table2.column_name;`

Clause in SQL

1. **From** - Specifies the table or tables from which to retrieve data.
 - `select column1, column2, ... from table_name;`
2. **Where** - Filters the rows returned by a query based on specified conditions.
 - `select column1, column2, ... from table_name where condition;`
3. **Order by** - Sorts the result set based on specified columns and sort orders.
 - `select column1, column2, ... from table_name where condition order by column1 [asc | desc], column2 [asc | desc], ...;`
4. **Group by** - Groups rows that have the same values in specified columns into summary rows.
 - `select column1, column2, ..., aggregate_function(column) from table_name where condition group by column1, column2, ...;`
5. **Limit** - Limits the number of rows returned by a query.
 - `select column1, column2, ... from table_name where condition order by column1 [asc | desc], column2 [asc | desc], ... limit number_of_rows;`
6. **Offset** - Skips a specified number of rows before starting to return rows.

SQL Syntex

- **select** column1, column2, ... **from** table_name **where** condition **order by** column1 [asc | desc], column2 [asc | desc], ... **limit** number_of_rows **offset** offset_value;
7. **Union** - Combines the result sets of two or more SELECT statements into a single result set.
 - **select** column1, column2, ... **from** table1 **where** condition1 **union** **select** column1, column2, ... **from** table2 **where** condition2;
 8. **Distinct** - Removes duplicate rows from the result set.
 - **select** **distinct** column1, column2 **from** table_name;

Aggregate functions

Aggregate functions perform a calculation on a set of values and return a single value. These functions are often used with the **GROUP BY** clause to perform calculations on groups of rows

Syntex: **select** column1, column2, ..., **aggregate_function**(column) **from** table_name **where** condition **group by** column1, column2, ...;

1. **sum()**: calculates the sum of values in a numeric column.
 - **select** sum(salary) as total_salary from employees;
2. **avg()**: calculates the average (mean) of values in a numeric column.
 - **select** avg(salary) as avg_salary from employees;
3. **count()**: counts the number of rows or non-null values in a column.
 - **select** count(employee_id) as employee_count from employees;
4. **min()**: finds the minimum value in a column.
 - **select** min(salary) as min_salary from employees;
5. **max()**: finds the maximum value in a column.
 - **select** max(salary) as max_salary from employees;
6. **having**: filters the results of a group by clause based on specified conditions.
 - **select** department_id, avg(salary) as avg_salary from employees group by department_id having avg(salary) > 50000;
7. **group_concat()**: concatenates values from multiple rows into a single string, often used with group by.
 - **select** department_id, group_concat(employee_name) as employee_names from employees group by department_id;

SQL Syntax

SQL Operators

Comparison Operators:

1. = (Equal to)
2. != or <> (Not equal to)
3. < (Less than)
4. > (Greater than)
5. <= (Less than or equal to)
6. >= (Greater than or equal to)

Example:

`select column1, column2, ... from table_name where column1 = value1 and column2 > value2,...;`

- `select * from employees where salary = 50000;`
- `select * from products where category_id <> 3;`
- `select * from orders where order_amount < 1000;`
- `select * from products where price > 50;`
- `select * from customers where registration_year <= 2020;`
- `select * from employees where years_of_service >= 5;`
- `select * from orders where order_amount > 100 and order_date >= '2023-01-01';`

Logical Operators:

1. **and** - true if all the conditions separated by and is true
 - `select column1, column2, ... from table_name where condition1 and condition2;`
Eg1 `select * from orders where order_status = 'shipped' and total_amount > 1000;`
2. **or** - true if any of the conditions separated by or is true
 - `select column1, column2, ... from table_name where condition1 or condition2;`
Eg1 `select * from orders where order_status = 'shipped' or order_status = 'in transit';`
3. **not** - displays a record if the condition(s) is not true
 - `select column1, column2, ... from table_name where condition1 not condition2;`
Eg1 `select * from products where not discontinued = 1;`
4. **between** - filters the result set to include only rows where a column value is within a specified range.
 - `select column1, column2, ... from table_name where column_name between value1 and value2;`
Eg1 `select * from employees where age between 25 and 35;`
Eg2 `select * from orders where order_date between '2022-01-01' and '2022-12-31' and order_status = 'shipped';`
5. **in** - specifies multiple values in a where clause for a column.
 - `select column1, column2, ... from table_name where column_name in (value1, value2, ...);`

SQL Syntex

Eg1 select * from products where category_id in (1, 2, 3);

Eg2 select * from employees where department in ('hr', 'it', 'finance');

6. **like** - used in a where clause to search for a specified pattern in a column.

- select column1, column2, ... from table_name where column_name like pattern;

Eg1 select * from employees where last_name like 'sm%';

Eg2 select * from products where product_name like 'laptop%';

7. **is null** - true if the operand is null.

- select column1, column2, ... from table_name where column_name is null;

Eg1 select * from employees where middle_name is null;

Eg2 select * from orders where shipping_address is null;

8. **is not null** - true if the operand is not null.

- select column1, column2, ... from table_name where column_name is not null;

Eg1 select * from orders where ship_date is not null;

Eg2 select * from customers where email is not null;

9. **is true / is false** - true if the operand is explicitly true or false

- select * from products where discontinued is true;

10. **all** - true if all of the subquery values meet the condition

- select * from products where price > all (select average_price from price_stats);

11. **any** - true if any of the subquery values meet the condition

- select * from products where price > any (select competitor_price from competitors);

12. **exists** - true if the subquery returns one or more records

- select * from customers where exists (select 1 from orders where customers.customer_id = orders.customer_id);

13. **some** - true if any of the subquery values meet the condition

- select * from products where price > some (select competitor_price from competitors);

Arithmetic Operators:

+ Add, - Subtract, * Multiply, / Divide and % Modulo

Example: select column1 + column2 as sum_result from table_name;

Concatenation Operator:

|| (Concatenates two strings)

Example: select first_name || ' ' || last_name as full_name from employees;

Special wildcard characters

In SQL, the asterisk is often used as a wildcard character, but it also has a specific meaning when used in a SELECT statement.

When used in the SELECT clause, the asterisk is a shorthand way of selecting all columns from a table. It is often used to retrieve all available columns without explicitly listing each one.

SQL Syntax

1. **Asterisk (*)**: select * from table_name;

In SQL, the two main special wildcard characters used with the LIKE operator for pattern matching are the percent sign (%) and the underscore (_). Here's a summary of their use:

1. **Percent Sign %**: Represents zero, one, or multiple characters in a string.
 - Example: LIKE 'a%' matches any string that starts with 'a', such as 'apple' or 'apricot'.
 - Example: LIKE '%ing' matches any string that ends with 'ing', like 'running' or 'singing'.
 - Example: LIKE '%an%' matches any string that contains 'an' anywhere within it, such as 'banana' or 'stand'.
2. **Underscore _**: Represents a single character in a string.
 - Example: LIKE '_pple' matches any five-letter word ending with 'pple', such as 'apple'.
 - Example: LIKE 'h_ll%' matches any word of at least four characters, starting with 'h' and ending with 'll', like 'hello' or 'hall'.

These wildcard characters are essential for flexible pattern matching when working with string data. They are commonly used in conjunction with the WHERE clause to filter and retrieve specific data from a database based on patterns

Keyword

1. **database** - Used to create a new database in SQL. After creating a database, you can use the USE statement to switch to that database.
 - create database database_name;
2. **table** - Used to create a new table in a database. After creating a table, you can use the ALTER, DROP & TRUNCATE TABLE statement to modify, delete, remove all rows from a table,
 - create table table_name (column1 datatype, column2 datatype, ...);
 - alter table table_name add column new_column datatype
 - alter table table_name change old_column new_column datatype
 - drop table table_name
 - truncate table table_name
3. **use** - Used to switch to a specific database.
 - use database_name;
4. **Into** - Used in conjunction with SELECT / INSERT statement to insert the selected data into a new table.
 - select column1, column2, ... into new_table from existing_table where condition;
 - insert into table_name (column1, column2, ...) values (value1, value2, ...);
5. **Values** - Used in INSERT INTO statement to specify the values to be inserted into a table.
 - insert into table_name (column1, column2, ...) values (value1, value2, ...);
6. **Set** - Used in UPDATE statement to set new values for columns in an existing row.
 - update table_name set column1 = value1, column2 = value2, ... where condition;

SQL Syntax

7. **desc (Descending)** - Used in the ORDER BY clause to sort the result set in descending order.
 - **select** column1, column2, ... **from** table_name **order by** column1 **desc**;
8. **asc (Ascending)** - Used in the ORDER BY clause to sort the result set in ascending order (default).
 - **select** column1, column2, ... **from** table_name **order by** column1 **asc**;
9. **add** - Used in the ALTER TABLE statement to add a new column to an existing table.
 - **alter** table table_name **add** column new_column_name data_type;
10. **change** - Used in the ALTER TABLE statement to change the name and/or data type of an existing column.
 - **alter** table table_name **change** old_column_name new_column_name data_type;

Data type

Numeric Types:

1. **int** : (Integer) Whole numbers without decimal points.
2. **bigint**: A large integer. The size parameter specifies the maximum display width (which is 255)
3. **float (size, d)**: Floating-point numbers with decimal points.

Character Strings:

1. **char(n)**: Fixed-length character string with a specified length 'n'.
2. **varchar(n)**: Variable-length character string with a maximum length 'n'.
3. **text**: Variable-length character string with no specified maximum length.

Date and Time Types:

1. **date**: Stores a date value in the format 'YYYY-MM-DD'.
2. **time**: Stores a time value in the format 'HH:MI:SS'.
3. **datetime or timestamp**: Stores both date and time values.

Example

Example 1:

```
-- DDL: Create a database
CREATE DATABASE company;

-- DDL: Create tables
CREATE TABLE employees (
    employee_id INT PRIMARY KEY,
    first_name VARCHAR(50),
    last_name VARCHAR(50),
    salary INT
);
```

SQL Syntex

```
CREATE TABLE departments (  
    department_id INT PRIMARY KEY,  
    department_name VARCHAR(50)  
);  
  
-- DML: Insert data into tables  
INSERT INTO employees (employee_id, first_name, last_name, salary)  
VALUES (1, 'Alice', 'Johnson', 60000),  
        (2, 'Bob', 'Smith', 70000),  
        (3, 'Charlie', 'Brown', 55000);  
  
INSERT INTO departments (department_id, department_name)  
VALUES (1, 'HR'),  
        (2, 'IT'),  
        (3, 'Finance');  
  
-- DQL: Select data from tables with a join  
SELECT employees.employee_id, first_name, last_name, salary, department_name  
FROM employees  
INNER JOIN departments ON employees.employee_id = departments.department_id;  
  
-- DML: Update records  
UPDATE employees SET salary = 75000 WHERE first_name = 'Bob';  
  
-- DML: Delete records  
DELETE FROM employees WHERE employee_id = 3;  
  
-- DQL: Select data with aggregate functions  
SELECT department_name, AVG(salary) AS avg_salary, COUNT(employee_id) AS  
employee_count FROM employees  
INNER JOIN departments ON employees.employee_id = departments.department_id  
GROUP BY department_name  
HAVING AVG(salary) > 60000;  
  
-- SQL Clauses: Order By, Limit, Offset  
SELECT * FROM employees ORDER BY salary DESC LIMIT 2 OFFSET 1;  
  
-- SQL Clauses: Group By, Having  
SELECT department_id, AVG(salary) AS avg_salary  
FROM employees  
GROUP BY department_id  
HAVING AVG(salary) > 60000;  
  
-- SQL Clauses: Union  
SELECT employee_id, first_name, last_name FROM employees  
UNION  
SELECT department_id, department_name, NULL FROM departments;  
  
-- SQL Clauses: Distinct  
SELECT DISTINCT department_id FROM employees;
```

SQL Syntax

```
-- SQL Wildcard Characters
SELECT * FROM employees WHERE last_name LIKE 'S%';
```

```
-- DDL: Drop the database (clean-up)
DROP DATABASE company;
```

Example 2:

```
-- DDL: Create a database
CREATE DATABASE university;
```

```
-- DDL: Create tables
CREATE TABLE students (
    student_id INT PRIMARY KEY,
    first_name VARCHAR(50),
    last_name VARCHAR(50),
    age INT,
    grade VARCHAR(2)
);
```

```
CREATE TABLE courses (
    course_id INT PRIMARY KEY,
    course_name VARCHAR(50),
    department VARCHAR(50)
);
```

```
CREATE TABLE enrollments (
    enrollment_id INT PRIMARY KEY,
    student_id INT,
    course_id INT,
    grade VARCHAR(2),
    FOREIGN KEY (student_id) REFERENCES students(student_id),
    FOREIGN KEY (course_id) REFERENCES courses(course_id)
);
```

```
-- DML: Insert data into tables
INSERT INTO students (student_id, first_name, last_name, age, grade)
VALUES (1, 'John', 'Doe', 18, 'A'),
       (2, 'Alice', 'Smith', 20, 'B'),
       (3, 'Bob', 'Johnson', 19, 'C');
```

```
INSERT INTO courses (course_id, course_name, department)
VALUES (101, 'Introduction to Programming', 'Computer Science'),
       (102, 'Mathematics I', 'Mathematics'),
       (103, 'English Composition', 'English');
```

```
INSERT INTO enrollments (enrollment_id, student_id, course_id, grade)
```

SQL Syntex

```
VALUES (1, 1, 101, 'A'),  
       (2, 2, 102, 'B'),  
       (3, 3, 103, 'A');
```

```
-- DQL: Select data from multiple tables with join  
SELECT students.student_id, first_name, last_name, age, grade, course_name, department  
FROM students  
JOIN enrollments ON students.student_id = enrollments.student_id  
JOIN courses ON enrollments.course_id = courses.course_id;
```

```
-- DQL: Select data with aggregate function and grouping  
SELECT courses.course_id, course_name, AVG(age) AS avg_age, COUNT(student_id) AS  
student_count  
FROM courses  
JOIN enrollments ON courses.course_id = enrollments.course_id  
JOIN students ON enrollments.student_id = students.student_id  
GROUP BY courses.course_id, course_name  
HAVING COUNT(student_id) > 1;
```

```
-- SQL Clauses: Order By, Limit  
SELECT first_name, last_name, grade  
FROM students  
ORDER BY age DESC  
LIMIT 2;
```

```
-- SQL Clauses: Group By, Having  
SELECT department, AVG(age) AS avg_age  
FROM courses  
JOIN enrollments ON courses.course_id = enrollments.course_id  
JOIN students ON enrollments.student_id = students.student_id  
GROUP BY department  
HAVING AVG(age) > 18;
```

```
-- SQL Clauses: Union  
SELECT first_name, last_name FROM students  
UNION  
SELECT course_name, department FROM courses;
```

```
-- SQL Clauses: Distinct  
SELECT DISTINCT grade FROM enrollments;
```

```
-- SQL Wildcard Characters  
SELECT * FROM students WHERE last_name LIKE 'S%';
```

```
-- DDL: Drop the database (clean-up)  
DROP DATABASE university;
```

SQL Syntax

Integrating python with SQL



Syntax

```
import pymysql # pip install pymysql
```

```
# Connect to the database
```

```
client(object) = pymysql.connect(  
    host='your_host',  
    user='your_username',  
    password='your_password',  
    database='your_database_name'  
)
```

```
# Create a cursor object
```

```
cursor(object) = client.cursor()
```

```
# Create a table
```

```
cursor.execute("""create table Table_name(object) (Column1 datatype,  
    Column2 datatype,  
    Column3 datatype,
```

SQL Syntex

```
client.commit()

Colum4 datatype)""")

# Execute SQL queries
cursor.execute("SELECT * FROM your_table")
connection.commit()

# Fetch data
data = cursor.fetchall()

# Close the connection
connection.close()
```

Sample

```
import [psycopg2 / mysql.connector]    #pip install [psycopg2 / mysql-connector-python]

client (object) = [psycopg2 / mysql.connector].connect (host='localhost', user='postgres',
password='*****', database='student', port=5432)

access (object) = client.cursor()

access.execute("""create table student1(
rollno int,
name varchar(50),
bloodgroup varchar(10),
address text,
age int,
department varchar(10),
gender varchar(10),
mobile bigint,
mark int
)""")
client.commit()

access.execute("""insert into student1 values
(14530,'Guru', 'B +','Salem',18,'CSE','Male',984154154,94),
(14880,'Lavanya','AB +','Chennai',34,'EEE','Female',984444044,64),
(13330,'Sankar','AB -','Vilupuram',23,'AUTOMOBILE','Male',983333354,74),
(16530,'Venkat','O +','Covai',25,'ECE','Male',63111154,84),
(12530,'Vithya','B -','Salem',27,'MECH','Female',98000054,44),
(13330,'Raja','A +','Chennai',29,'CIVIL','Male',8844554154,34),
(14460,'Ramya','A -','Madurai',31,'B TECH','Female',78706654,634)""")
client.commit()

access.execute("""select * from student1 """)
x=access.fetchall()
for i in x:
    print(i)
```

SQL Syntex

```
access.execute("""update student_info set mark=25 where address='Chennai'""")
client.commit()
```

```
access.execute("""select * from student1 """)
x=access.fetchall()
for i in x:
    print(i)
```

```
access.execute("""select * from student1 where age>30""")
x=access.fetchall()
for i in x:
    print(i)
```

commit() and **fetchall()** are methods commonly used in database programming, especially when working with Python's Database API (PEP 249). These methods are typically associated with database connections and cursors.

1. The **commit()** method is used to save changes made to the database since the last call to **commit()**. It essentially commits the current transaction, making the changes permanent in the database.
 - Without the **commit()** call, changes made with **INSERT**, **UPDATE**, or **DELETE** statements won't be saved permanently.
2. The **fetchall()** method is used to retrieve all the rows of a query result set as a list of tuples. It fetches all the rows returned by the last executed **SELECT** statement.

SQL Syntax

Example

Example 1:

```
import psycopg2

# Connect to the PostgreSQL database
client = psycopg2.connect(
    host='localhost',
    user='postgres',
    password='*****',
    database='student',
    port=5432
)

# Create a cursor object for database operations
access = client.cursor()

# DDL: Create a table
access.execute("""
    CREATE TABLE courses (
        course_id SERIAL PRIMARY KEY,
        course_name VARCHAR(50),
        credits INT )""")

# DML: Insert data into the table
access.execute("""
    INSERT INTO courses (course_name, credits)
    VALUES (%s, %s)", ('Mathematics', 3))

access.execute("""
    INSERT INTO courses (course_name, credits)
    VALUES (%s, %s)", ('Computer Science', 4))

# DQL: Select data from the table
access.execute('SELECT * FROM courses')
courses_data = access.fetchall()

print("Courses Data:")
for course in courses_data:
    print(course)

# DML: Update a record
access.execute("""
    UPDATE courses
    SET credits = %s
    WHERE course_name = %s
    """, (5, 'Computer Science'))

# DQL: Select updated data
access.execute('SELECT * FROM courses')
```


SQL Syntex

```
updated_courses_data = access.fetchall()

print("\nUpdated Courses Data:")
for course in updated_courses_data:
    print(course)

# DML: Delete a record
access.execute("""
    DELETE FROM courses
    WHERE course_name = %s
""", ('Mathematics',))

# DQL: Select remaining data
access.execute('SELECT * FROM courses')
remaining_courses_data = access.fetchall()

print("\nRemaining Courses Data:")
for course in remaining_courses_data:
    print(course)

# Cleanup and close the connection
client.commit()
access.close()
client.close()
```

Example 2:

```
import psycopg2

# Connect to the PostgreSQL database
client = psycopg2.connect(
    host='localhost',
    user='postgres',
    password='*****',
    database='university',
    port=5432
)

# Create a cursor object for database operations
access = client.cursor()

# DDL: Create tables
access.execute("""
    CREATE TABLE departments (
        department_id SERIAL PRIMARY KEY,
        department_name VARCHAR(50)
    )
""")

access.execute("""
```

SQL Syntex

```
CREATE TABLE professors (  
    professor_id SERIAL PRIMARY KEY,  
    first_name VARCHAR(50),  
    last_name VARCHAR(50),  
    department_id INT,  
    FOREIGN KEY (department_id) REFERENCES departments(department_id)  
)  
"
```

DML: Insert data into tables

```
access.execute("  
    INSERT INTO departments (department_name)  
    VALUES (%s)  
", ('Computer Science',))
```

```
access.execute("  
    INSERT INTO professors (first_name, last_name, department_id)  
    VALUES (%s, %s, %s)  
", ('John', 'Doe', 1))
```

DQL: Select data from multiple tables with a join

```
access.execute("  
    SELECT professors.professor_id, first_name, last_name, department_name  
    FROM professors  
    JOIN departments ON professors.department_id = departments.department_id  
")  
professors_data = access.fetchall()
```

```
print("Professors Data:")  
for professor in professors_data:  
    print(professor)
```

Cleanup and close the connection

```
client.commit()  
access.close()  
client.close()
```

SQL Syntex

To migrate data from MongoDB to PostgreSQL

Export Data from MongoDB:

Use a tool or script to export data from MongoDB into a format that can be imported into PostgreSQL. Common formats include JSON or CSV.

Transform Data (if necessary):

Depending on the structure of your data in MongoDB and the schema of your PostgreSQL database, you may need to transform the data to fit the target schema. This might involve restructuring JSON documents or performing data type conversions.

Set Up PostgreSQL:

Ensure that you have PostgreSQL installed and configured properly on your system. Create the necessary tables and indexes to match the structure of the MongoDB data.

Import Data into PostgreSQL:

Use PostgreSQL's built-in tools or utilities like pgloader to import the exported data into PostgreSQL. Ensure that the data is imported into the correct tables and columns.

Here's a more detailed explanation of these steps:

Step 1: Export Data from MongoDB

You can export data from MongoDB using mongoexport utility or by writing a script in a programming language like Python using MongoDB drivers.

Example using mongoexport:

```
mongoexport --db your_database --collection your_collection --out data.json
```

Step 2: Transform Data (if necessary)

If the structure of your data needs to be transformed to fit the PostgreSQL schema, you'll need to write a script to perform this transformation. This could involve parsing the exported JSON file and reshaping the data as needed.

Step 3: Set Up PostgreSQL

Ensure that PostgreSQL is installed and running. You can install it using your package manager or by downloading it from the official PostgreSQL website.

For Ubuntu/Debian

```
sudo apt-get install postgresql
```

For CentOS/RHEL

```
sudo yum install postgresql-server
```

Once installed, you may need to initialize the database cluster and start the PostgreSQL service.

```
sudo postgresql-setup initdb  
sudo systemctl start postgresql
```

Step 4: Import Data into PostgreSQL

SQL Syntex

You can import data into PostgreSQL using the psql command-line tool, or you can use tools like pgloader for more complex migrations.

Example using psql:

```
psql -U username -d your_database -c "COPY your_table FROM 'data.json' DELIMITER ',' CSV;"
```

Example using pgloader:

```
pgloader mongodb.load
```

Ensure that the data is imported correctly and verify the integrity of the migrated data.

By following these steps, you should be able to migrate data from MongoDB to PostgreSQL