Praise for SQL Queries for Mere Mortals®

The good books show you how to do something. The great books enable you to think clearly about how you can do it. This book is the latter. To really maximize the potential of your database, thinking about data as a set is required and the authors’ accessible writing really brings out the practical applications of SQL and the set-based thinking behind it.


Unless you are working at a very advanced level, this is the only SQL book you will ever need. The author has taken the mystery out of complex queries and explained principles and techniques with such clarity that a “Mere Mortal” will indeed be empowered to perform the superhuman. Do not walk past this book!

— Graham Mandeno, Database Consultant

It’s beyond brilliant! I have been working with SQL for a really long time, and the techniques presented in this book exposed some of the bad habits I picked up over the years in my learning process. I wish I had learned these techniques a long time ago and saved myself all the headaches of learning SQL the hard way. Who said you can’t teach old dogs new tricks?

— Leo (theDBguy), Utter Access Moderator and Microsoft Access MVP

I learned SQL primarily from the first and second editions of this book... Starting from how to design your tables so that SQL can be effective (a common problem for database beginners), and then continuing through the various aspects of SQL construction and capabilities, the reader can become a moderate expert upon completing the book and its samples. Learning how to convert a question in English into a meaningful SQL statement will greatly facilitate your mastery of the language. Numerous examples from real life will help you visualize how to use SQL to answer the questions about the data in your
database. Just one of the “watch out for this trap” items will save you more than the cost of the book when you avoid that problem when writing your queries. I highly recommend this book if you want to tap the full potential of your database.

— Kenneth D. Snell, Ph.D., Database Designer/Programmer

I don’t think they do this in public schools anymore, and it is a shame, but do you remember in the seventh and eighth grades when you learned to diagram a sentence? Those of you who do may no longer remember how you did it, but all of you do write better sentences because of it. John Viescas must have remembered because he takes everyday English queries and literally translates them into SQL. This is an important book for all database designers. It takes the complexity of mathematical set theory and of first order predicate logic, as outlined in E. F. Codd’s original treatise on relational database design, and makes it easy for anyone to understand. If you want an elementary-through intermediate-level course on SQL, this is the one book that is a requirement, no matter how many others you buy.

— Arvin Meyer, MCP, MVP

SQL Queries for Mere Mortals, provides a step-by-step, easy-to-read introduction to writing SQL queries. It includes hundreds of examples with detailed explanations. This book provides the tools you need to understand, modify, and create SQL queries.

— Keith W. Hare, Convenor, ISO/IEC JTC1 SC32 WG3, the International SQL Standards Committee

Even in this day of wizards and code generators, successful database developers still require a sound knowledge of Structured Query Language (SQL, the standard language for communicating with most database systems). In this book, John does a marvelous job of making what’s usually a dry and difficult subject come alive, presenting
the material with humor in a logical manner, with plenty of relevant examples. I would say that this book should feature prominently in the collection on the bookshelf of all serious developers, except that I'm sure it'll get so much use that it won't spend much time on the shelf!

— Doug Steele, Microsoft Access Developer and author

I highly recommend SQL Queries for Mere Mortals to anyone working with data. John makes it easy to learn one of the most critical aspects of working with data: creating queries. Queries are the primary tool for selecting, sorting, and reporting data. They can compensate for table structure, new reporting requirements, and incorporate new data sources. SQL Queries for Mere Mortals uses clear, easy to understand discussions and examples to take readers through the basics and into complex problems. From novice to expert, you will find this book to be an invaluable reference as you can apply the concepts to a myriad of scenarios, regardless of the program.

— Teresa Hennig, Microsoft MVP-Access, and lead author of several Access books, including Professional Access 2013 Programming (Wrox)
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Foreword

In the 30 years since the database language SQL was adopted as an international standard, and the 30 years since SQL database products appeared on the market, SQL has become the predominant language for storing, modifying, retrieving, and deleting data. Today, a significant portion of the world’s data—and the world’s economy—is tracked using SQL databases.

SQL is everywhere because it is a very powerful tool for manipulating data. It is in high-performance transaction processing systems. It is behind Web interfaces. I’ve even found SQL in network monitoring tools and spam firewalls.

Today, SQL can be executed directly, embedded in programming languages, and accessed through call interfaces. It is hidden inside GUI development tools, code generators, and report writers. However visible or hidden, the underlying queries are SQL. Therefore, to understand existing applications and to create new ones, you need to understand SQL.

*SQL Queries for Mere Mortals, Fourth Edition*, provides a step-by-step, easy-to-read introduction to writing SQL queries. It includes hundreds of examples with detailed explanations. This book provides the tools you need to understand, modify, and create SQL queries.

As a database consultant and a participant in both the U.S. and international SQL standards committees, I spend a lot of time working with SQL. So, it is with a certain amount of authority that I state, “The authors of this book not only understand SQL, they also understand how to explain it.” Both qualities make this book a valuable resource.

—Keith W. Hare, Senior Consultant,
JCC Consulting, Inc. Vice Chair, INCITS DM32.2
—the USA SQL Standards Committee: Convenor, ISO/IEC JTC1 SC32 WG3
—the International SQL Standards Committee
Preface

"Language is by its very nature a communal thing: that is, it expresses never the exact thing but a compromise—that which is common to you, me, and everybody."
—Thomas Ernest Hulme, Speculations

Learning how to retrieve information from or manipulate information in a database is commonly a perplexing exercise. However, it can be a relatively easy task as long as you understand the question you're asking or the change you're trying to make to the database. After you understand the problem, you can translate it into the language used by any database system, which in most cases is Structured Query Language (SQL). You have to translate your request into an SQL statement so that your database system knows what information you want to retrieve or change. SQL provides the means for you and your database system to communicate.

Throughout my many years as a database consultant, I've found that the number of people who merely need to retrieve information from a database or perform simple data modifications in a database far outnumber those who are charged with the task of creating programs and applications for a database. Unfortunately, no books focus solely on this subject, particularly from a "mere mortals" viewpoint. There are numerous good books on SQL, to be sure, but most are targeted to database programming and development.

With this in mind, I decided it was time to write a book that would help people learn how to query a database properly and effectively. I, along with my good friend, Michael J. Hernandez, produced the first edition of this book in 2000. We created a second edition in 2008 that introduced basic ways to change data in your database using SQL. With the third edition in 2014, we stepped lightly into the realm of tougher problems—the sorts of problems that make the heads of even experienced users spin around three times. In this fourth edition, I expand your knowledge of tougher problems by covering Window functions and
Grouping Sets. The result of my effort is in your hands. This book is unique among SQL books in that it focuses on SQL with little regard to any one specific database system implementation. This fourth edition includes dozens of new examples, and I included versions of the sample databases using Microsoft Office Access, Microsoft SQL Server, and the popular open-source MySQL and PostgreSQL database systems. When you finish reading this book, you'll have the skills you need to retrieve or modify any information you require.
Writing a book such as this is always a cooperative effort. There are always editors, colleagues, friends, and relatives willing to lend their support and provide valuable advice when I need it the most. These people continually provide me with encouragement, help me to remain focused, and motivate me to see this project through to the end.

First and foremost, I want to thank my acquisitions editor, Trina MacDonald, for helping me get signed up to produce this fourth edition. Thanks also to Developmental Editor, Rick Kughen, for shepherding me along the way. And I can't forget the production staff—they're a great team! Next, I'd like to acknowledge my technical editor, Doug Steele. I also had help from one of my database friends, Ben Clothier. Thanks once again to all of you for your time and input and for helping me to make this a solid treatise on SQL queries.

Finally, another very special thanks to Keith Hare for providing the Foreword. As the Convenor of the International SQL Standards Committee, Keith is an SQL expert par excellence. I have a lot of respect for Keith's knowledge and expertise on the subject, and I'm pleased to have his thoughts and comments at the beginning of my book.
About the Author

John L. Viescas is an independent database consultant with more than 50 years of experience. He began his career as a systems analyst, designing large database applications for IBM mainframe systems. He spent 6 years at Applied Data Research in Dallas, Texas, where he directed a staff of more than 30 people and was responsible for research, product development, and customer support of database products for IBM mainframe computers. While working at Applied Data Research, John completed a degree in business finance at the University of Texas at Dallas, graduating cum laude.

John joined Tandem Computers, Inc., in 1988, where he was responsible for the development and implementation of database marketing programs in Tandem’s U.S. Western Sales region. He developed and delivered technical seminars on Tandem’s relational database management system, NonStop SQL. John wrote his first book, A Quick Reference Guide to SQL (Microsoft Press, 1989), as a research project to document the similarities in the syntax among the ANSI-86 SQL standard, IBM’s DB2, Microsoft’s SQL Server, Oracle Corporation’s Oracle, and Tandem’s NonStop SQL. He wrote the first edition of Running Microsoft Access (Microsoft Press, 1992) while on sabbatical from Tandem. He has since written four editions of Running, three editions of Microsoft Office Access Inside Out (Microsoft Press, 2003, 2007, and 2010—the successor to the Running series), Building Microsoft Access Applications (Microsoft Press, 2005), and Effective SQL (Addison-Wesley, 2017).

John formed his own company in 1993. He provides information systems management consulting for a variety of small to large businesses around the world, with a specialty in the Microsoft Access and SQL Server database management products. He maintains offices in Nashua, New Hampshire, and Paris, France. He was recognized as a “Most Valuable Professional” (MVP) from 1993 to 2015 by Microsoft Product Support Services for his assistance with technical questions on public support forums. He set a landmark 20 consecutive years as an MVP in 2013.

You can visit John’s Web site at www.viescas.com or contact him by e-mail at john@viescas.com.
Register your copy of *SQL Queries for Mere Mortals* on the InformIT site for convenient access to updates and corrections as they become available. To start the registration process, go to informit.com/register and log in or create an account. Enter the product ISBN 9780134858333 and click Submit. Look on the Registered Products tab for an Access Bonus Content link next to this product, and follow that link to access any available bonus materials. If you would like to be notified of exclusive offers on new editions and updates, please check the box to receive email from us.
Thinking in Sets

“Small cheer and a great welcome makes a merry feast.”
—William Shakespeare Comedy of Errors, Act 3, scene 1

Topics Covered in This Chapter

What Is a Set, Anyway?
Operations on Sets
Intersection
Difference
Union
SQL Set Operations
Summary

By now, you know how to create a set of information by asking for specific columns or expressions on columns (SELECT), how to sort the rows (ORDER BY), and how to restrict the rows returned (WHERE). Up to this point, I’ve been focusing on basic exercises involving a single table. But what if you want to know something about information contained in multiple tables? What if you want to compare or contrast sets of information from the same or different tables?

Creating a meal by peeling, slicing, and dicing a single pile of potatoes or a single bunch of carrots is easy. From here on out, most of the problems I’m going to show you how to solve will involve getting data from multiple tables. I’m not only going to show you how to put together a good stew—I’m going to teach you how to be a chef!
Before digging into this chapter, you need to know that it’s all about the concepts you must understand in order to successfully link two or more sets of information. I’m also going to give you a brief overview of some specific syntax defined in the SQL Standard that directly supports the pure definition of these concepts. Be forewarned, however, that many current commercial implementations of SQL do not yet support this “pure” syntax. In later chapters, I’ll show you how to implement the concepts you’ll learn here using SQL syntax that is commonly supported by most major database systems. What I’m after here is not the letter of the law but rather the spirit of the law.

**What Is a Set, Anyway?**

If you were a teenager any time from the mid-1960s onward, you might have studied set theory in a mathematics course. (Remember New Math? Maybe you’re not old enough!) If you were introduced to set algebra, you probably wondered why any of it would ever be useful.

Now you’re trying to learn about relational databases and this quirky language called SQL to build applications, solve problems, or just get answers to your questions. Were you paying attention in algebra class? If so, solving problems—particularly complex ones—in SQL will be much easier.

Actually, you’ve been working with sets from the beginning of this book. In Chapter 1, “What Is Relational?,” you learned about the basic structure of a relational database—tables containing rows that are made up of one or more columns. Each table in your database is a set of information about one subject. In Chapter 2, “Ensuring Your Database Structure Is Sound,” you learned how to verify that the structure of your database is sound. Each table should contain the set of information related to one and only one subject or action.

In Chapter 4, “Creating a Simple Query,” you learned how to build a basic SELECT statement in SQL to retrieve a result set of information that contains specific columns from a single table and how to sort those result sets. In Chapter 5, “Getting More Than Simple Columns,” you learned how to glean a new set of information from a table by writing expressions that operate on one or more columns. In Chapter 6, “Filtering Your Data,” you learned how to restrict further the set of information you retrieve from your tables by adding a filter (WHERE clause) to your query.
As you can see, a set can be as little as the data from one column from one row in one table. Actually, you can construct a request in SQL that returns no rows—an empty set. Sometimes it’s useful to discover that something does not exist. A set can also be multiple columns (including columns you create with expressions) from multiple rows fetched from multiple tables. Each row in a result set is a member of the set. The values in the columns are specific attributes of each member—data items that describe the member of the set. In the next several chapters, I’ll show how to ask for information from multiple sets of data and link these sets together to get answers to more complex questions. First, however, you need to understand more about sets and the logical ways to combine them.

**Operations on Sets**

In Chapter 1, I discussed how Dr. E. F. Codd invented the relational model on which most modern databases and SQL are based. Two branches of mathematics—set theory and first-order predicate logic—formed the foundation of his new model.

To graduate beyond getting answers from only a single table, you need to learn how to use result sets of information to solve more complex problems. These complex problems usually require using one of the common set operations to link data from two or more tables. Sometimes, you’ll need to get two different result sets from the same table and then combine them to get your answer.

The three most common set operations are as follows:

- **Intersection**—You use this to find the common elements in two or more different sets: “List all students and the classes for which they are currently enrolled.” “Show me the recipes that contain both lamb and rice.” “Show me the customers who ordered both bicycles and helmets.”

- **Difference**—You use this to find items that are in one set but not another: “Show me the recipes that contain lamb but do not contain rice.” “Show me the customers who ordered a bicycle but not a helmet.”

- **Union**—You use this to combine two or more similar sets: “Show me all the recipes that contain either lamb or rice.” “Show me the customers who ordered either a bicycle or a helmet.” “List the names and addresses for both staff and students.”
In the following three sections, I’ll explain these basic set operations—the ones you should have learned in high school algebra. The “SQL Set Operations” section later in this chapter gives an overview of how these operations are implemented in “pure” SQL.

**Intersection**

No, it’s not your local street corner. An *intersection* of two sets contains the common elements of two sets. Let’s first take a look at an intersection from the pure perspective of set theory and then see how you can use an intersection to solve business problems.

**Intersection in Set Theory**

An intersection is a very powerful mathematical tool often used by scientists and engineers. As a scientist, you might be interested in finding common points between two sets of chemical or physical sample data. For example, a pharmaceutical research chemist might have two compounds that seem to provide a certain beneficial effect. Finding the commonality (the intersection) between the two compounds might help discover what it is that makes the two compounds effective. Or, an engineer might be interested in finding the intersection between one alloy that is hard but brittle and another alloy that is soft but resilient.

Let’s take a look at intersection in action by examining two sets of numbers. In this example, each single number is a member of the set. The first set of numbers is as follows:

1, 5, 8, 9, 32, 55, 78

The second set of numbers is as follows:

3, 7, 8, 22, 55, 71, 99

The intersection of these two sets of numbers is the numbers common to both sets:

8, 55

The individual entries—the members—of each set don’t have to be just single values. In fact, when solving problems with SQL, you’ll probably deal with sets of rows.
According to set theory, when a member of a set is something more than a single number or value, each member (or object) of the set has multiple attributes or bits of data that describe the properties of each member. For example, your favorite stew recipe is a complex member of the set of all recipes that contains many different ingredients. Each ingredient is an attribute of your complex stew member.

To find the intersection between two sets of complex set members, you have to find the members that match on all the attributes. Also, all the members in each set you’re trying to compare must have the same number and type of attributes. For example, suppose you have a complex set like the one below, in which each row represents a member of the set (a stew recipe), and each column denotes a particular attribute (an ingredient).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Potatoes</th>
<th>Water</th>
<th>Lamb</th>
<th>Peas</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Rice</td>
<td>Chicken Stock</td>
<td>Chicken</td>
<td>Carrots</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pasta</td>
<td>Water</td>
<td>Tofu</td>
<td>Snap Peas</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Potatoes</td>
<td>Beef Stock</td>
<td>Beef</td>
<td>Cabbage</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pasta</td>
<td>Water</td>
<td>Pork</td>
<td>Onions</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

A second set might look like the following:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Potatoes</th>
<th>Water</th>
<th>Lamb</th>
<th>Onions</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Rice</td>
<td>Chicken Stock</td>
<td>Turkey</td>
<td>Carrots</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pasta</td>
<td>Vegetable Stock</td>
<td>Tofu</td>
<td>Snap Peas</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Potatoes</td>
<td>Beef Stock</td>
<td>Beef</td>
<td>Cabbage</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Beans</td>
<td>Water</td>
<td>Pork</td>
<td>Onions</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The intersection of these two sets is the one member whose attributes all match in both sets:

| Potatoes | Beef Stock | Beef | Cabbage |
Intersection between Result Sets

If the previous examples look like rows in a table or a result set to you, you’re on the right track! When you’re dealing with rows in a set of data that you fetch with SQL, the attributes are the individual columns. For example, suppose you have a set of rows returned by a query like the following one. (These are recipes from my cookbook.)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Recipe</th>
<th>Starch</th>
<th>Stock</th>
<th>Meat</th>
<th>Vegetable</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Lamb Stew</td>
<td>Potatoes</td>
<td>Water</td>
<td>Lamb</td>
<td>Peas</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chicken Stew</td>
<td>Rice</td>
<td>Chicken Stock</td>
<td>Chicken</td>
<td>Carrots</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Veggie Stew</td>
<td>Pasta</td>
<td>Water</td>
<td>Tofu</td>
<td>Snap Peas</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Irish Stew</td>
<td>Potatoes</td>
<td>Beef Stock</td>
<td>Beef</td>
<td>Cabbage</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pork Stew</td>
<td>Pasta</td>
<td>Water</td>
<td>Pork</td>
<td>Onions</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

A second query result set might look like the following. (These are recipes from my friend Mike’s cookbook.)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Recipe</th>
<th>Starch</th>
<th>Stock</th>
<th>Meat</th>
<th>Vegetable</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Lamb Stew</td>
<td>Potatoes</td>
<td>Water</td>
<td>Lamb</td>
<td>Peas</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Turkey Stew</td>
<td>Rice</td>
<td>Chicken Stock</td>
<td>Turkey</td>
<td>Carrots</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Veggie Stew</td>
<td>Pasta</td>
<td>Vegetable Stock</td>
<td>Tofu</td>
<td>Snap Peas</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Irish Stew</td>
<td>Potatoes</td>
<td>Beef Stock</td>
<td>Beef</td>
<td>Cabbage</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pork Stew</td>
<td>Beans</td>
<td>Water</td>
<td>Pork</td>
<td>Onions</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The intersection of these two sets is the two members whose attributes all match in both sets—that is, the two recipes that Mike and John have in common.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Recipe</th>
<th>Starch</th>
<th>Stock</th>
<th>Meat</th>
<th>Vegetable</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Lamb Stew</td>
<td>Potatoes</td>
<td>Water</td>
<td>Lamb</td>
<td>Peas</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Irish Stew</td>
<td>Potatoes</td>
<td>Beef Stock</td>
<td>Beef</td>
<td>Cabbage</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Sometimes it’s easier to see how intersection works using a set diagram. A set diagram is an elegant yet simple way to diagram sets of information and graphically represent how the sets intersect or overlap. You might
also have heard this sort of diagram called a Euler or Venn diagram. (By the way, Leonard Euler was an eighteenth-century Swiss mathematician, and John Venn used this particular type of logic diagram in 1880 in a paper he wrote while a Fellow at Cambridge University. So you can see that “thinking in sets” is not a particularly modern concept!)

Let’s assume you have a nice database containing all your favorite recipes. You really like the way onions enhance the flavor of beef, so you’re interested in finding all recipes that contain both beef and onions. Figure 7-1 shows the set diagram that helps you visualize how to solve this problem.

The upper circle represents the set of recipes that contain beef. The lower circle represents the set of recipes that contain onions. Where the two circles overlap is where you’ll find the recipes that contain both—the intersection of the two sets. As you can imagine, you first ask SQL to fetch all the recipes that have beef. In the second query, you ask SQL to fetch all the recipes that have onions. As you’ll see later, you can use a special SQL keyword—INTERSECT—to link the two queries to get the final answer.

Yes, I know what you’re thinking. If your recipe table looks like the samples above, you could simply say the following:

“Show me the recipes that have beef as the meat ingredient and onions as the vegetable ingredient.”
Translation Select the recipe name from the recipes table where meat ingredient is beef and vegetable ingredient is onions

Clean Up Select the recipe name from the recipes table where meat ingredient is 'beef' and vegetable ingredient is 'onions'

SQL
```
SELECT RecipeName
FROM Recipes
WHERE MeatIngredient = 'Beef'
AND VegetableIngredient = 'Onions'
```

Hold on now! If you remember the lessons you learned in Chapter 2, you know that a single Recipes table probably won’t cut it. (Pun intended!) What about recipes that have ingredients other than meat and vegetables? What about the fact that some recipes have many ingredients and others have only a few? A correctly designed recipes database will have a separate Recipe_Ingredients table with one row per recipe per ingredient. Each ingredient row will have only one ingredient, so no single row can be both beef and onions at the same time. You’ll need first to find all the beef rows, then find all the onions rows, and then intersect them on RecipeID. (If you’re confused about why I’m criticizing the previous table design, be sure to go back and read Chapter 2!)

How about a more complex problem? Let’s say you want to add carrots to the mix. A set diagram to visualize the solution might look like Figure 7-2.

![Figure 7-2: Determining which recipes have beef, onions, and carrots](image)

**Figure 7-2** Determining which recipes have beef, onions, and carrots
Got the hang of it? The bottom line is that when you're faced with solving a problem involving complex criteria, a set diagram can be an invaluable way to see the solution expressed as the intersection of SQL result sets.

**Problems You Can Solve with an Intersection**

As you might guess, you can use an intersection to find the matches between two or more sets of information. Here’s just a small sample of the problems you can solve using an intersection technique with data from the sample databases:

“Show me customers and employees who have the same name.”

“Find all the customers who ordered a bicycle and also ordered a helmet.”

“List the entertainers who played engagements for customers Bonnicksen and Rosales.”

“Show me the students who have an average score of 85 or better in Art and who also have an average score of 85 or better in Computer Science.”

“Find the bowlers who had a raw score of 155 or better at both Thunderbird Lanes and Bolero Lanes.”

“Show me the recipes that have beef and garlic.”

One of the limitations of using a pure intersection is that the values must match in all the columns in each result set. This works well if you’re intersecting two or more sets from the same table—for example, customers who ordered bicycles and customers who ordered helmets. It also works well when you’re intersecting sets from tables that have similar columns—for example, customer names and employee names. In many cases, however, you’ll want to find solutions that require a match on only a few column values from each set. For this type of problem, SQL provides an operation called a JOIN—an intersection on key values. Here’s a sample of problems you can solve with a JOIN:

“Show me customers and employees who live in the same city.” (JOIN on the city name.)

“List customers and the entertainers they booked.” (JOIN on the engagement number.)
“Find the agents and entertainers who live in the same ZIP Code.” (JOIN on the ZIP Code.)

“Show me the students and their teachers who have the same first name.” (JOIN on the first name.)

“Find the bowlers who are on the same team.” (JOIN on the team ID.)

“Display all the ingredients for recipes that contain carrots.” (JOIN on the ingredient ID.)

Never fear. In the next chapter I’ll show you all about solving these problems (and more) by using JOINs. And because so few commercial implementations of SQL support INTERSECT, I’ll show how to use a JOIN to solve many problems that might otherwise require an INTERSECT.

**Difference**

What’s the difference between 21 and 10? If you answered 11, you’re on the right track! A *difference* operation (sometimes also called subtract, minus, or except) takes one set of values and removes the set of values from a second set. What remains is the set of values in the first set that are *not* in the second set. (As you’ll see later, EXCEPT is the keyword used in the SQL Standard.)

**Difference in Set Theory**

Difference is another very powerful mathematical tool. As a scientist, you might be interested in finding what’s different about two sets of chemical or physical sample data. For example, a pharmaceutical research chemist might have two compounds that seem to be very similar, but one provides a certain beneficial effect and the other does not. Finding what’s different about the two compounds might help uncover why one works and the other does not. As an engineer, you might have two similar designs, but one works better than the other. Finding the difference between the two designs could be crucial to eliminating structural flaws in future buildings.

Let’s take a look at difference in action by examining two sets of numbers. The first set of numbers is as follows:

1, 5, 8, 9, 32, 55, 78
The second set of numbers is as follows:

3, 7, 8, 22, 55, 71, 99

The difference of the first set of numbers minus the second set of numbers is the numbers that exist in the first set but not the second:

1, 5, 9, 32, 78

Note that you can turn the previous difference operation around. Thus, the difference of the second set minus the first set is

3, 7, 22, 71, 99

The members of each set don't have to be single values. In fact, you'll most likely be dealing with sets of rows when trying to solve problems with SQL.

Earlier in this chapter I said that when a member of a set is something more than a single number or value, each member of the set has multiple attributes (bits of information that describe the properties of each member). For example, your favorite stew recipe is a complex member of the set of all recipes that contains many different ingredients. You can think of each ingredient as an attribute of your complex stew member.

To find the difference between two sets of complex set members, you have to find the members that match on all the attributes in the second set with members in the first set. Don't forget that all of the members in each set you're trying to compare must have the same number and type of attributes. Remove from the first set all the matching members you find in the second set, and the result is the difference. For example, suppose you have a complex set like the one below. Each row represents a member of the set (a stew recipe), and each column denotes a particular attribute (an ingredient).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Potatoes</th>
<th>Water</th>
<th>Lamb</th>
<th>Peas</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Rice</td>
<td>Chicken Stock</td>
<td>Chicken</td>
<td>Carrots</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pasta</td>
<td>Water</td>
<td>Tofu</td>
<td>Snap Peas</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Potatoes</td>
<td>Beef Stock</td>
<td>Beef</td>
<td>Cabbage</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pasta</td>
<td>Water</td>
<td>Pork</td>
<td>Onions</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
A second set might look like this:

<p>| | | | |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Potatoes</td>
<td>Water</td>
<td>Lamb</td>
<td>Onions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rice</td>
<td>Chicken Stock</td>
<td>Turkey</td>
<td>Carrots</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pasta</td>
<td>Vegetable Stock</td>
<td>Tofu</td>
<td>Snap Peas</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Potatoes</td>
<td>Beef Stock</td>
<td>Beef</td>
<td>Cabbage</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Beans</td>
<td>Water</td>
<td>Pork</td>
<td>Onions</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The difference of the first set minus the second set is the objects in the first set that don't exist in the second set:

<p>| | | | |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Potatoes</td>
<td>Water</td>
<td>Lamb</td>
<td>Peas</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rice</td>
<td>Chicken Stock</td>
<td>Chicken</td>
<td>Carrots</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pasta</td>
<td>Water</td>
<td>Tofu</td>
<td>Snap Peas</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pasta</td>
<td>Water</td>
<td>Pork</td>
<td>Onions</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Difference between Result Sets**

When you're dealing with rows in a set of data fetched with SQL, the attributes are the individual columns. For example, suppose you have a set of rows returned by a query like the following one. (These are recipes from John's cookbook.)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Recipe</th>
<th>Starch</th>
<th>Stock</th>
<th>Meat</th>
<th>Vegetable</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Lamb Stew</td>
<td>Potatoes</td>
<td>Water</td>
<td>Lamb</td>
<td>Peas</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chicken Stew</td>
<td>Rice</td>
<td>Chicken Stock</td>
<td>Chicken</td>
<td>Carrots</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Veggie Stew</td>
<td>Pasta</td>
<td>Water</td>
<td>Tofu</td>
<td>Snap Peas</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Irish Stew</td>
<td>Potatoes</td>
<td>Beef Stock</td>
<td>Beef</td>
<td>Cabbage</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pork Stew</td>
<td>Pasta</td>
<td>Water</td>
<td>Pork</td>
<td>Onions</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

A second query result set might look like the following. (These are recipes from Mike's cookbook.)
The difference between John’s recipes and Mike’s recipes (John’s minus Mike’s) is all the recipes in John’s cookbook that do not appear in Mike’s cookbook.

You can also turn this problem around. Suppose you want to find the recipes in Mike’s cookbook that are not in John’s cookbook. Here’s the answer:

Again, I can use a set diagram to help visualize how a difference operation works. Let’s assume you have a nice database containing all your favorite recipes. You really do not like the way onions taste with beef, so you’re interested in finding all recipes that contain beef but not onions. Figure 7-3 shows you the set diagram that helps you visualize how to solve this problem.
Chapter 7  Thinking in Sets

Recipes with Beef

Recipes with Onions

Recipes with Beef but Not Onions

Figure 7-3  Finding out which recipes have beef but not onions

The upper full circle represents the set of recipes that contain beef. The lower full circle represents the set of recipes that contain onions. As you remember from the discussion about INTERSECT, where the two circles overlap is where you'll find the recipes that contain both. The dark-shaded part of the upper circle that's not part of the overlapping area represents the set of recipes that contain beef but do not contain onions. Likewise, the part of the lower circle that's not part of the overlapping area represents the set of recipes that contain onions but do not contain beef.

You probably know that you first ask SQL to fetch all the recipes that have beef. Next, you ask SQL to fetch all the recipes that have onions. (As you'll see later in this chapter, the special SQL keyword EXCEPT links the two queries to get the final answer.)

Are you falling into the trap again? (You did read Chapter 2, didn’t you?) If your recipe table looks like the samples earlier, you might think that you could simply say the following:

“Show me the recipes that have beef as the meat ingredient and that do not have onions as the vegetable ingredient.”
Difference

Translation
Select the recipe name from the recipes table where meat ingredient is beef and vegetable ingredient is not onions

Clean Up
Select the recipe name from the recipes table where meat ingredient is 'beef' and vegetable ingredient is not 'onions'

SQL
SELECT RecipeName
FROM Recipes
WHERE MeatIngredient = 'Beef' AND VegetableIngredient <> 'Onions'

Again, as you learned in Chapter 2, a single Recipes table isn't such a hot idea. (Pun intended!) What about recipes that have ingredients other than meat and vegetables? What about the fact that some recipes have many ingredients and others have only a few? A correctly designed Recipes database will have a separate Recipe_Ingredients table with one row per recipe per ingredient. Each ingredient row will have only one ingredient, so no one row can be both beef and onions at the same time. You'll need first to find all the beef rows, then find all the onions rows, then difference them on RecipeID.

How about a more complex problem? Let's say you hate carrots, too. A set diagram to visualize the solution might look like Figure 7-4.

![Figure 7-4 Finding out which recipes have beef but no onions or carrots](image)

First you need to find the set of recipes that have beef, and then get the difference with either the set of recipes containing onions or the set
containing carrots. Take that result and get the difference again with the remaining set (onions or carrots) to leave only the recipes that have beef but no carrots or onions (the light-shaded area in the upper circle).

**Problems You Can Solve with Difference**

Unlike intersection (which looks for common members of two sets), difference looks for members that are in one set but not in another set. Here’s just a small sample of the problems you can solve using a difference technique with data from the sample databases:

“Show me customers whose names are not the same as any employee.”

“Find all the customers who ordered a bicycle but did not order a helmet.”

“List the entertainers who played engagements for customer Bonnicksen but did not play any engagement for customer Rosales.”

“Show me the students who have an average score of 85 or better in Art but do not have an average score of 85 or better in Computer Science.”

“Find the bowlers who had a raw score of 155 or better at Thunderbird Lanes but not at Bolero Lanes.”

“Show me the recipes that have beef but not garlic.”

One of the limitations of using a pure difference is that the values must match in all the columns in each result set. This works well if you’re finding the difference between two or more sets from the same table—for example, customers who ordered bicycles and customers who ordered helmets. It also works well when you’re finding the difference between sets from tables that have similar columns—for example, customer names and employee names.

In many cases, however, you’ll want to find solutions that require a match on only a few column values from each set. For this type of problem, SQL provides an OUTER JOIN operation, which is an intersection on key values that includes the unmatched values from one or both of the two sets. Here’s a sample of problems you can solve with an OUTER JOIN:

“Show me customers who do not live in the same city as any employees.” (OUTER JOIN on the city name.)

“List customers and the entertainers they did not book.” (OUTER JOIN on the engagement number.)
“Find the agents who are not in the same ZIP Code as any enter-
tainer.” (OUTER JOIN on the ZIP Code.)

“Show me the students who do not have the same first name as any
teachers.” (OUTER JOIN on the first name.)

“Find the bowlers who have an average of 150 or higher who have
never bowled a game below 125.” (OUTER JOIN on the bowler ID from
two different tables.)

“Display all the ingredients for recipes that do not have carrots.”
(OUTER JOIN on the recipe ID.)

Don’t worry! I’ll show you all about solving these problems (and more)
using OUTER JOINs in Chapter 9, “OUTER JOINs.” Also, because only a
few commercial implementations of SQL support EXCEPT (the keyword for
difference), I’ll show how to use an OUTER JOIN to solve many problems
that might otherwise require an EXCEPT. In Chapter 18, “‘NOT’ and ‘AND’
Problems,” I’ll show you additional ways to solve EXCEPT problems.

Union

So far I’ve discussed finding the items that are common in two sets
(intersection) and the items that are different (difference). The third type
of set operation involves adding two sets (union).

Union in Set Theory

Union lets you combine two sets of similar information into one set. As
a scientist, you might be interested in combining two sets of chemical
or physical sample data. For example, a pharmaceutical research chem-
ist might have two different sets of compounds that seem to provide a
certain beneficial effect. The chemist can union the two sets to obtain a
single list of all effective compounds.

Let’s take a look at union in action by examining two sets of numbers.
The first set of numbers is as follows:

1, 5, 8, 9, 32, 55, 78

The second set of numbers is as follows:

3, 7, 8, 22, 55, 71, 99
The union of these two sets of numbers is the numbers in both sets combined into one new set:

1, 5, 8, 9, 32, 55, 78, 3, 7, 22, 71, 99

Note that the values common to both sets, 8 and 55, appear only once in the answer. Also, the sequence of the numbers in the result set is not necessarily in any specific order. When you ask a database system to perform a UNION, the values returned won't necessarily be in sequence unless you explicitly include an ORDER BY clause. In SQL, you can also ask for a UNION ALL if you want to see the duplicate members.

The members of each set don't have to be just single values. In fact, you'll probably deal with sets of rows when working with SQL.

To find the union of two or more sets of complex members, all the members in each set you're trying to union must have the same number and type of attributes. For example, suppose you have a complex set like the one below. Each row represents a member of the set (a stew recipe), and each column denotes a particular attribute (an ingredient).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Potatoes</th>
<th>Water</th>
<th>Lamb</th>
<th>Peas</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Rice</td>
<td>Chicken Stock</td>
<td>Chicken</td>
<td>Carrots</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pasta</td>
<td>Water</td>
<td>Tofu</td>
<td>Snap Peas</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Potatoes</td>
<td>Beef Stock</td>
<td>Beef</td>
<td>Cabbage</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pasta</td>
<td>Water</td>
<td>Pork</td>
<td>Onions</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

A second set might look like the following:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Potatoes</th>
<th>Water</th>
<th>Lamb</th>
<th>Onions</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Rice</td>
<td>Chicken Stock</td>
<td>Turkey</td>
<td>Carrots</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pasta</td>
<td>Vegetable Stock</td>
<td>Tofu</td>
<td>Snap Peas</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Potatoes</td>
<td>Beef Stock</td>
<td>Beef</td>
<td>Cabbage</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Beans</td>
<td>Water</td>
<td>Pork</td>
<td>Onions</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The union of these two sets is the set of objects from both sets. Duplicates are eliminated.
Combining Result Sets Using a Union

It’s a small leap from sets of complex objects to rows in SQL result sets. When you’re dealing with rows in a set of data that you fetch with SQL, the attributes are the individual columns. For example, suppose you have a set of rows returned by a query like the following one. (These are recipes from John’s cookbook.)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Starch</th>
<th>Stock</th>
<th>Meat</th>
<th>Vegetable</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Lamb</td>
<td>Water</td>
<td>Lamb</td>
<td>Peas</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rice</td>
<td>Chicken Stock</td>
<td>Chicken</td>
<td>Carrots</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pasta</td>
<td>Water</td>
<td>Tofu</td>
<td>Snap Peas</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Potatoes</td>
<td>Beef Stock</td>
<td>Beef</td>
<td>Cabbage</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pasta</td>
<td>Water</td>
<td>Pork</td>
<td>Onions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Potatoes</td>
<td>Water</td>
<td>Lamb</td>
<td>Onions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rice</td>
<td>Chicken Stock</td>
<td>Turkey</td>
<td>Carrots</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pasta</td>
<td>Vegetable Stock</td>
<td>Tofu</td>
<td>Snap Peas</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Beans</td>
<td>Water</td>
<td>Pork</td>
<td>Onions</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

A second query result set might look like this one. (These are recipes from Mike’s cookbook.)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Starch</th>
<th>Stock</th>
<th>Meat</th>
<th>Vegetable</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Lamb</td>
<td>Water</td>
<td>Lamb</td>
<td>Peas</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Turkey Stew</td>
<td>Rice</td>
<td>Chicken Stock</td>
<td>Turkey</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Veggie Stew</td>
<td>Pasta</td>
<td>Vegetable Stock</td>
<td>Tofu</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Irish Stew</td>
<td>Potatoes</td>
<td>Beef Stock</td>
<td>Beef</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pork Stew</td>
<td>Beans</td>
<td>Water</td>
<td>Pork</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The union of these two sets is all the rows in both sets. Maybe John and Mike decided to write a cookbook together, too!

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Recipe</th>
<th>Starch</th>
<th>Stock</th>
<th>Meat</th>
<th>Vegetable</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Lamb Stew</td>
<td>Potatoes</td>
<td>Water</td>
<td>Lamb</td>
<td>Peas</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chicken Stew</td>
<td>Rice</td>
<td>Chicken Stock</td>
<td>Chicken</td>
<td>Carrots</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Veggie Stew</td>
<td>Pasta</td>
<td>Water</td>
<td>Tofu</td>
<td>Snap Peas</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Irish Stew</td>
<td>Potatoes</td>
<td>Beef Stock</td>
<td>Beef</td>
<td>Cabbage</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pork Stew</td>
<td>Pasta</td>
<td>Water</td>
<td>Pork</td>
<td>Onions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Turkey Stew</td>
<td>Rice</td>
<td>Chicken Stock</td>
<td>Turkey</td>
<td>Carrots</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Veggie Stew</td>
<td>Pasta</td>
<td>Vegetable Stock</td>
<td>Tofu</td>
<td>Snap Peas</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pork Stew</td>
<td>Beans</td>
<td>Water</td>
<td>Pork</td>
<td>Onions</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Let’s assume you have a nice database containing all your favorite recipes. You really like recipes with either beef or onions, so you want a list of recipes that contain either ingredient. Figure 7-5 shows you the set diagram that helps you visualize how to solve this problem.

**Figure 7-5** Finding out which recipes have either beef or onions

The upper circle represents the set of recipes that contain beef. The lower circle represents the set of recipes that contain onions. The union of the two circles gives you all the recipes that contain either ingredient, with duplicates eliminated where the two sets overlap. As you probably know, you first ask SQL to fetch all the recipes that have beef. In the second query, you ask SQL to fetch all the recipes that have onions. As
you’ll see later, the SQL keyword UNION links the two queries to get the final answer.

By now you know that it’s not a good idea to design a recipes database with a single table. Instead, a correctly designed recipes database will have a separate Recipe_Ingredients table with one row per recipe per ingredient. Each ingredient row will have only one ingredient, so no one row can be both beef or onions at the same time. You’ll need to first find all the recipes that have a beef row, then find all the recipes that have an onions row, and then union them.

**Problems You Can Solve with Union**

A union lets you “mush together” rows from two similar sets—with the added advantage of no duplicate rows. Here’s a sample of the problems you can solve using a union technique with data from the sample databases:

“Show me all the customer and employee names and addresses.”

“List all the customers who ordered a bicycle combined with all the customers who ordered a helmet.”

“List the entertainers who played engagements for customer Bonnicksen combined with all the entertainers who played engagements for customer Rosales.”

“Show me the students who have an average score of 85 or better in Art together with the students who have an average score of 85 or better in Computer Science.”

“Find the bowlers who had a raw score of 155 or better at Thunderbird Lanes combined with bowlers who had a raw score of 140 or better at Bolero Lanes.”

“Show me the recipes that have beef together with the recipes that have garlic.”

As with other “pure” set operations, one of the limitations is that the values must match in all the columns in each result set. This works well if you’re unioning two or more sets from the same table—for example, customers who ordered bicycles and customers who ordered helmets. It also works well when you’re performing a union on sets from tables that have like columns—for example, customer names and addresses and employee names and addresses. I’ll explore the uses of the SQL UNION operator in detail in Chapter 10, “UNIONs.”
In many cases where you would otherwise union rows from the same table, you'll find that using DISTINCT (to eliminate the duplicate rows) with complex criteria on joined tables will serve as well. I'll show you all about solving problems this way using JOINs in Chapter 8, “INNER JOINs.”

**SQL Set Operations**

Now that you have a basic understanding of set operations, let’s look briefly at how they’re implemented in SQL.

**Classic Set Operations versus SQL**

As noted earlier, not many commercial database systems yet support set intersection (INTERSECT) or set difference (EXCEPT) directly. The current SQL Standard, however, clearly defines how these operations should be implemented. I think that these set operations are important enough to at least warrant an overview of the syntax.

As promised, I’ll show you alternative ways to solve an intersection or difference problem in later chapters using JOINs. Because most database systems do support UNION, Chapter 10 is devoted to its use. The remainder of this chapter gives you an overview of all three operations.

**Finding Common Values: INTERSECT**

Let’s say you’re trying to solve the following seemingly simple problem:

“Show me the orders that contain both a bike and a helmet.”

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Translation</th>
<th>Select the distinct order numbers from the order details table where the product number is in the list of bike and helmet product numbers</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Clean Up</td>
<td>Select the distinct order numbers from the order details table where the product number is in the list of bike and helmet product numbers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SQL</td>
<td>SELECT DISTINCT OrderNumber FROM Order_Details WHERE ProductNumber IN (1, 2, 6, 10, 11, 25, 26)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Readers familiar with SQL might ask why I didn’t JOIN Order_Details to Products and look for bike or helmet product names. The simple answer is that I haven’t introduced the concept of a JOIN yet, so I built this example on a single table using IN and a list of known bike and helmet product numbers.

That seems to do the trick at first, but the answer includes orders that contain either a bike or a helmet, and you really want to find ones that contain both a bike and a helmet! If you visualize orders with bicycles and orders with helmets as two distinct sets, it’s easier to understand the problem. Figure 7-6 shows one possible relationship between the two sets of orders using a set diagram.

**Figure 7-6**  *One possible relationship between two sets of orders*

Actually, there’s no way to predict in advance what the relationship between two sets of data might be. In Figure 7-6, some orders have a bicycle in the list of products ordered, but no helmet. Some have a helmet, but no bicycle. The overlapping area, or intersection, of the two sets is where you’ll find orders that have both a bicycle and a helmet. Figure 7-7 shows another case where all orders that contain a helmet also contain a bicycle, but some orders that contain a bicycle do not contain a helmet.
Seeing “both” in your request suggests you’re probably going to have to break the solution into separate sets of data and then link the two sets in some way. (Your request also needs to be broken into two parts.)

Orders for a Bicycle

Orders for a Helmet

Figure 7-7 All orders for a helmet also contain an order for a bicycle

“Show me the orders that contain a bike.”

| Translation | Select the distinct order numbers from the order details table where the product number is in the list of bike product numbers |
| Clean Up    | Select the distinct order numbers from the order details table where the product number is in the list of bike product numbers |
| SQL         | SELECT DISTINCT OrderNumber  
FROM Order_Details  
WHERE ProductNumber IN (1, 2, 6, 11) |

“Show me the orders that contain a helmet.”

| Translation | Select the distinct order numbers from the order details table where the product number is in the list of helmet product numbers |
| Clean Up    | Select the distinct order numbers from the order details table where the product number is in the list of helmet product numbers |
| SQL         | SELECT DISTINCT OrderNumber  
FROM Order_Details  
WHERE ProductNumber IN (10, 25, 26) |

Now you’re ready to get the final solution by using—you guessed it—an intersection of the two sets. Figure 7-8 shows the SQL syntax diagram.
that handles this problem. (Note that you can use INTERSECT more than once to combine multiple SELECT statements.)

![Diagram of SELECT Expression](image)

**Figure 7-8** *Linking two SELECT statements with INTERSECT*

You can now take the two parts of your request and link them with an INTERSECT operator to get the correct answer:

```sql
SQL
SELECT DISTINCT OrderNumber
FROM Order_Details
WHERE ProductNumber IN (1, 2, 6, 11)
INTERSECT
SELECT DISTINCT OrderNumber
FROM Order_Details
WHERE ProductNumber IN (10, 25, 26)
```

The sad news is that not many commercial implementations of SQL yet support the INTERSECT operator. But all is not lost! Remember that the primary key of a table uniquely identifies each row. (You don't have to match on all the fields in a row—just the primary key—to find unique rows that intersect.) I'll show you an alternative method (JOIN) in Chapter 8 that can solve this type of problem in another way. The good news is that virtually all commercial implementations of SQL do support JOIN.

**Finding Missing Values: EXCEPT (DIFFERENCE)**

Okay, let's go back to the bicycles and helmets problem again. Let's say you're trying to solve this seemingly simple request as follows:

"Show me the orders that contain a bike but not a helmet."

Translation
Select the distinct order numbers from the order details table where the product number is in the list of bike product numbers and product number is not in the list of helmet product numbers.

Clean Up
Select the distinct order numbers from the order details table where the product number is in the list of bike product numbers and product number is not in the list of helmet product numbers.

SQL
```
SELECT DISTINCT OrderNumber
FROM Order_Details
WHERE ProductNumber IN (1, 2, 6, 11)
    AND ProductNumber NOT IN (10, 25, 26)
```

Unfortunately, the answer shows you orders that contain only a bike! The problem is that the first IN clause finds detail rows containing a bicycle, but the second IN clause simply eliminates helmet rows. If you visualize orders with bicycles and orders with helmets as two distinct sets, you'll find this easier to understand. Figure 7-9 shows one possible relationship between the two sets of orders.

![Orders for a Bicycle but Not for a Helmet](orders_bicycle_not_helmet.png)

**Figure 7-9** Orders for a bicycle that do not also contain a helmet

Seeing “except” or “but not” in your request suggests you're probably going to have to break the solution into separate sets of data and then link the two sets in some way. (Your request also needs to be broken into two parts.)
"Show me the orders that contain a bike."

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Translation</th>
<th>Select the distinct order numbers from the order details table where the product number is in the list of bike product numbers</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Clean Up</td>
<td>Select the distinct order numbers from the order details table where the product number is in the list of bike product numbers</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
| SQL         | `SELECT DISTINCT OrderNumber`  
              `FROM Order_Details`  
              `WHERE ProductNumber IN (1, 2, 6, 11)` |

"Show me the orders that contain a helmet."

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Translation</th>
<th>Select the distinct order numbers from the order details table where the product number is in the list of helmet product numbers</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Clean Up</td>
<td>Select the distinct order numbers from the order details table where the product number is in the list of helmet product numbers</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
| SQL         | `SELECT DISTINCT OrderNumber`  
              `FROM Order_Details`  
              `WHERE ProductNumber IN (10, 25, 26)` |

Now you’re ready to get the final solution by using—you guessed it—a difference of the two sets. SQL uses the EXCEPT keyword to denote a difference operation. Figure 7-10 shows you the SQL syntax diagram that handles this problem.

![SELECT Expression](image)

**Figure 7-10** Linking two SELECT statements with EXCEPT
You can now take the two parts of your request and link them with an EXCEPT operator to get the correct answer:

```sql
SQL
SELECT DISTINCT OrderNumber
FROM Order_Details
WHERE ProductNumber IN (1, 2, 6, 11)
EXCEPT
SELECT DISTINCT OrderNumber
FROM Order_Details
WHERE ProductNumber IN (10, 25, 26)
```

Remember from my earlier discussion about the difference operation that the sequence of the sets matters. In this case, you're asking for bikes "except" helmets. If you want to find out the opposite case—orders for helmets that do not include bikes—you can turn it around as follows:

```sql
SQL
SELECT DISTINCT OrderNumber
FROM Order_Details
WHERE ProductNumber IN (10, 25, 26)
EXCEPT
SELECT DISTINCT OrderNumber
FROM Order_Details
WHERE ProductNumber IN (1, 2, 6, 11)
```

The sad news is that not many commercial implementations of SQL yet support the EXCEPT operator. Hang on to your helmet! Remember that the primary key of a table uniquely identifies each row. (You don't have to match on all the fields in a row—just the primary key—to find unique rows that are different.) I'll show you an alternative method (OUTER JOIN) in Chapter 9 that can solve this type of problem in another way. The good news is that nearly all commercial implementations of SQL do support OUTER JOIN.

**Combining Sets: UNION**

One more problem about bicycles and helmets, then I'll pedal on to the next chapter. Let's say you're trying to solve this request, which looks simple enough on the surface:
“Show me the orders that contain either a bike or a helmet.”

Translation  Select the distinct order numbers from the order details table where the product number is in the list of bike and helmet product numbers

Clean Up  Select the distinct order numbers from the order details table where the product number is in the list of bike and helmet product numbers

SQL  
\[
\text{SELECT DISTINCT OrderNumber} \\
\text{FROM Order_Details} \\
\text{WHERE ProductNumber IN (1, 2, 6, 10, 11, 25, 26)}
\]

Actually, that works just fine! So why use a UNION to solve this problem? The truth is, you probably would not. However, if I make the problem more complicated, a UNION would be useful:

“List the customers who ordered a bicycle together with the vendors who provide bicycles.”

Unfortunately, answering this request involves creating a couple of queries using JOIN operations, then using UNION to get the final result. Because I haven't shown you how to do a JOIN yet, I'll save solving this problem for Chapter 10. Gives you something to look forward to, doesn't it?

Let's get back to the “bicycles or helmets” problem and solve it with a UNION. If you visualize orders with bicycles and orders with helmets as two distinct sets, then you'll find it easier to understand the problem. Figure 7-11 shows you one possible relationship between the two sets of orders.

![Orders for bicycles or helmets](image-url)
Chapter 7  Thinking in Sets

Seeing “either,” “or,” or “together” in your request suggests that you’ll need to break the solution into separate sets of data and then link the two sets with a UNION. This particular request can be broken into two parts:

“Show me the orders that contain a bike.”

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Translation</th>
<th>Select the distinct order numbers from the order details table where the product number is in the list of bike product numbers</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Clean Up</td>
<td>Select the distinct order numbers from the order details table where the product number is in the list of bike product numbers</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
| SQL         | SELECT DISTINCT OrderNumber  
FROM Order_Details  
WHERE ProductNumber IN (1, 2, 6, 11) |

“Show me the orders that contain a helmet.”

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Translation</th>
<th>Select the distinct order numbers from the order details table where the product number is in the list of helmet product numbers</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Clean Up</td>
<td>Select the distinct order numbers from the order details table where the product number is in the list of helmet product numbers</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
| SQL         | SELECT DISTINCT OrderNumber  
FROM Order_Details  
WHERE ProductNumber IN (10, 25, 26) |

Now you’re ready to get the final solution by using—you guessed it—a union of the two sets. Figure 7-12 shows the SQL syntax diagram that handles this problem.

![Figure 7-12](image_url)  
*Figure 7-12  Linking two SELECT statements with UNION*
You can now take the two parts of your request and link them with a UNION operator to get the correct answer:

```sql
SQL
SELECT DISTINCT OrderNumber
FROM Order_Details
WHERE ProductNumber IN (1, 2, 6, 11)
UNION
SELECT DISTINCT OrderNumber
FROM Order_Details
WHERE ProductNumber IN (10, 25, 26)
```

The good news is that nearly all commercial implementations of SQL support the UNION operator. As is perhaps obvious from the examples, a UNION might be doing it the hard way when you want to get an “either-or” result from a single table. UNION is most useful for compiling a list from several similarly structured but different tables. I’ll explore UNION in much more detail in Chapter 10.

**Summary**

I began this chapter by discussing the concept of a set. Next, I discussed each of the major set operations implemented in SQL in detail—intersection, difference, and union. I showed how to use set diagrams to visualize the problem you’re trying to solve. Finally, I introduced you to the basic SQL syntax and keywords (INTERSECT, EXCEPT, and UNION) for all three operations just to whet your appetite.

At this point you’re probably saying, “Wait a minute, why did you show me three kinds of set operations—two of which I probably can’t use?” Remember the title of the chapter: “Thinking in Sets.” If you’re going to be at all successful solving complex problems, you’ll need to break your problem into result sets of information that you then link back together.

So, if your problem involves “it must be this, and it must be that,” you might need to solve the “this” and then the “that” and then link them to get your final solution. The SQL Standard defines a handy INTERSECT operation—but an INNER JOIN might work just as well. Read on in Chapter 8.
Likewise, if your problem involves “it must be this, but it must not be that,” you might need to solve the “this” and then the “that” and then subtract the “that” from the “this” to get your answer. I showed you the SQL Standard EXCEPT operation, but an OUTER JOIN might also do the trick. Get the details in Chapters 9 and 18.

Finally, I showed you how to add sets of information using a UNION. As promised, I’ll really get into UNION in Chapter 10.
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