Unless you are working at a very advanced level, this is the only SQL book you will ever need. The authors have 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

I learned SQL primarily from the first edition of this book, and I am pleased to see a second edition of this book so that others can continue to benefit from its organized presentation of the language. 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 any more, 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 and Mike Hernandez must have remembered because they take everyday English queries and literally translate 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, Second 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.

— 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 and Mike do 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
SQL Queries for Mere Mortals® Second Edition
Addison-Wesley presents the

**For Mere Mortals® Series**

**Series Editor: Michael J. Hernandez**

The goal of the *For Mere Mortals® Series* is to present you with information on important technology topics in an easily accessible, common-sense manner. The primary audience for *Mere Mortals* books is that of readers who have little or no background or formal training in the subject matter. Books in the Series avoid dwelling on the theoretical and instead take you right into the heart of the topic with a matter-of-fact, hands-on approach. The books are not designed to address all the intricacies of a given technology, but they do not avoid or gloss over complex, essential issues either. Instead, they focus on providing core, foundational knowledge in a way that is easy to understand and that will properly ground you in the topic. This practical approach provides you with a smooth learning curve and helps you to begin to solve your real-world problems immediately. It also prepares you for more advanced treatments of the subject matter, should you decide to pursue them, and even enables the books to serve as solid reference material for those of you with more experience. The software-independent approach taken in most books within the Series also teaches the concepts in such a way that they can be applied to whatever particular application or system you may need to use.

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For more information, check out the series web site at www.awprofessional.com/ForMereMortalsSeries.
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In the 20 years since the database language SQL was adopted as an international standard, and the 25 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, Second 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 H2—the USA SQL Standards Committee  
Convenor, ISO/IEC JTC1 SC32 WG3—the International SQL Standards Committee
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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 Earnest 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 our many years as database consultants, we’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, we decided it was time to write a book that would help people learn how to query a database properly and effectively. We produced the first edition of this book in 2000. With this new edition, we also wanted to introduce you to the basic ways to change data in your database using SQL. The result of our decision 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 second edition includes hundreds of new examples, and we included versions of the sample databases using the popular open-source MySQL database system. When you finish reading this book, you’ll have the skills you need to retrieve or modify any information you require.
Acknowledgments

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 we need it the most. These people continually provide us with encouragement, help us to remain focused, and motivate us to see this project through to the end.

First and foremost, we want to thank our acquisitions editor, Elizabeth Peterson, for prodding us to produce this second edition. Thanks also to Kristin Weinberger for shepherding us along the way. And we can’t forget our final acquisitions editor, Chuck Toporek, as well as Romny French and the production staff—they’re a great team! Special thanks to Chrysta Meadowbrooke, who did a fabulous job copyediting the final manuscript. She cleaned up lots of inconsistencies and even pointed out some SQL examples that needed fixing! Finally, thanks to editor-in-chief Karen Gettman, who put this team together and kept a watchful eye over the entire process.

Next, we’d like to acknowledge our technical editors, particularly Stephen Forte and Keith Hare. Keith especially spent time working through all the examples, pointing out a few errors, and making suggestions to enhance the text. Thanks once again to all of you for your time and input and for helping us 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. We have a lot of respect for Keith’s knowledge and expertise on the subject, and we’re pleased to have his thoughts and comments at the beginning of our book.
Introduction

“I presume you’re mortal, and may err.”
—James Shirley
The Lady of Pleasure

If you’ve used a computer more than casually, you have probably used Structured Query Language, or SQL—perhaps without even knowing it. SQL is the standard language for communicating with most database systems. Any time you import data into a spreadsheet or perform a merge into a word processing program, you’re most likely using SQL in some form or another. Every time you go online to an e-commerce site on the Web and place an order for a book, a recording, a movie, or any of the dozens of other products you can order, there’s a very high probability that the code behind the Web page you’re using is accessing its databases with SQL. If you need to get information from a database system that uses SQL, you can enhance your understanding of the language by reading this book.

Are You a Mere Mortal?

You might ask, “Who is a mere mortal? Me?” The answer is not simple. When we started to write this book, we thought we were experts in the database language called SQL. Along the way, we discovered we were mere mortals too, in several areas. We understood a few specific implementations of SQL very well, but we unraveled many of the complex intricacies of the language as we studied how it is used in many commercial products. So, if you fit any of the following descriptions, you’re a mere mortal too!

- If you use computer applications that let you access information from a database system, you’re probably a mere mortal. The first time you don’t get the information you expected using the query tools built in to
your application, you'll need to explore the underlying SQL statements to find out why.

• If you have recently discovered one of the many available desktop database applications but are struggling with defining and querying the data you need, you're a mere mortal.

• If you’re a database programmer who needs to “think out of the box” to solve some complex problems, you’re a mere mortal.

• If you're a database guru in one product but are now faced with integrating the data from your existing system into another system that supports SQL, you're a mere mortal.

In short, anyone who has to use a database system that supports SQL can use this book. As a beginning database user who has just discovered that the data you need can be fetched using SQL, you will find that this book teaches you all the basics and more. For an expert user who is suddenly faced with solving complex problems or integrating multiple systems that support SQL, this book will provide insights into leveraging the complex abilities of the SQL database language.

**About This Book**

Everything you read in this book is based on the current International Organization for Standardization (ISO) Standard for the SQL database language (document ISO/IEC 9075-2:2003), as currently implemented in most of the popular commercial database systems. The ISO document was also adopted by the American National Standards Institute (ANSI), so this is truly an international standard. The SQL you’ll learn here is not specific to any particular software product.

As you'll learn in more detail in Chapter 3, A Concise History of SQL, the SQL Standard defines both more and less than you'll find implemented in most commercial database products. Most database vendors have yet to implement many of the more advanced features, but most do support the core of the standard.

We researched a wide range of popular products to make sure that you can use what we’re teaching in this book. When we found parts of the core of the language not supported by some major products, we warned you in the text and showed you alternate ways to state your database requests in standard SQL. When we found significant parts of the SQL Standard supported by only
a few vendors, we introduced you to the syntax and then suggested alternatives.

We have organized this book into five major sections.

- **Part I, Relational Databases and SQL**, explains how modern database systems are based on a rigorous mathematical model and provides a brief history of the database query language that has evolved into what we know as SQL. We also discuss some simple rules that you can use to make sure your database design is sound.

- **Part II, SQL Basics**, introduces you to using the SELECT statement, creating expressions, and sorting information with an ORDER BY clause. You’ll also learn how to filter data by using a WHERE clause.

- **Part III, Working with Multiple Tables**, shows you how to formulate queries that draw data from more than one table. Here we show you how to link tables in a query using the INNER JOIN, OUTER JOIN, and UNION operators, and how to work with subqueries.

- **Part IV, Summarizing and Grouping Data**, discusses how to obtain summary information and group and filter summarized data. Here is where you’ll learn about the GROUP BY and HAVING clauses.

- **Part V, Modifying Sets of Data**, explains how to write queries that modify a set of rows in your tables. In the chapters in this section, you’ll learn how to use the UPDATE, INSERT, and DELETE statements.

At the end of the book in the appendices, you’ll find syntax diagrams for all the SQL elements you’ve learned, layouts of the sample databases, a list of date and time manipulation functions implemented in five of the major database systems, and book recommendations to further your study of SQL. There is also a CD containing all the sample databases used throughout the book in several different formats.

**What This Book Is Not**

Although this book is based on the 2003 SQL Standard that was current at the time of this writing (a 2007/2008 draft standard is in the works), it does not cover every aspect of the standard. In truth, many features in the 2003 SQL Standard won’t be implemented for many years—if at all—in the major database system implementations. The fundamental purpose of this book is to
give you a solid grounding in writing queries in SQL. Throughout the book, you’ll find us recommending that you “consult your database documentation” for how a specific feature might or might not work. That’s not to say we covered only the lowest common denominator for any feature among the major database systems. We do try to caution you when some systems implement a feature differently or not at all.

You’ll find it difficult to create other than simple queries using a single table if your database design is flawed. We included a chapter on database design to help you identify when you will have problems, but that one chapter includes only the basic principles. A thorough discussion of database design principles and how to implement a design in a specific database system is beyond the scope of this book.

This book is also not about how to solve a problem in the most efficient way. As you work through many of the later chapters, you’ll find we suggest more than one way to solve a particular problem. In some cases where writing a query in a particular way is likely to have performance problems on any system, we try to warn you about it. But each database system has its own strengths and weaknesses. After you learn the basics, you’ll be ready to move on to digging into the particular database system you use to learn how to formulate your query solutions so that they run in a more optimal manner.

How to Use This Book

We have designed the chapters in this book to be read in sequence. Each succeeding chapter builds on concepts taught in earlier chapters. However, you can jump into the middle of the book without getting lost. For example, if you are already familiar with the basic clauses in a SELECT statement and want to learn more about JOINs, you can jump right in to Chapters 7 Thinking in Sets, 8 INNER JOINS, and 9 OUTER JOINS.

At the end of many of the chapters you'll find an extensive set of sample problems, their solutions, and sample result sets. We recommend that you study several of the samples to gain a better understanding of the techniques involved and then try solving some of the later samples yourself without looking at the solutions we propose.

Note that where a particular query returns dozens of rows in the result set, we show you only the first few rows in this book to give you an idea of how the answer should look. You might not see the exact same result on your system, however, because each database system that supports SQL has its own
optimizer that figures out the fastest way to solve the query. Also, the first few rows you see returned by your database system might not exactly match the first few we show you unless the query contains an ORDER BY clause that requires the rows to be returned in a specific sequence.

We’ve also included a complete set of problems for you to solve on your own, which you’ll find at the end of most chapters. This gives you the opportunity to really practice what you’ve just learned in the chapter. Don’t worry—the solutions are included in the sample databases on the CD. We’ve also included hints on those problems that might be a little tricky.

After you have worked your way through the entire book, you’ll find the complete SQL diagrams in Appendix A to be an invaluable reference for all the SQL techniques we showed you. You will also be able to use the sample database layouts in Appendix B to help you design your own databases.

Reading the Diagrams Used in This Book

The numerous diagrams throughout the book illustrate the proper syntax for the statements, terms, and phrases you’ll use when you work with SQL. Each diagram provides a clear picture of the overall construction of the SQL element currently being discussed. You can also use any of these diagrams as templates to create your own SQL statements or to help you acquire a clearer understanding of a specific example.

All the diagrams are built from a set of core elements and can be divided into two categories: statements and defined terms. A statement is always a major SQL operation, such as the SELECT statement we discuss in this book, while a defined term is always a component used to build part of a statement, such as a value expression, a search condition, or a conditional expression. (Don’t worry—we’ll explain all these terms later in the book.) The only difference between a syntax diagram for a statement and a syntax diagram for a defined term is the manner in which the main syntax line begins and ends. We designed the diagrams with these differences so that you can clearly see whether you’re looking at the diagram for an entire statement or a diagram for a term that you might use within a statement. Figure 1 (on page xxviii) shows the beginning and end points for both diagram categories. Aside from this difference, the diagrams are built from the same elements. Figure 2 (on page xxviii) shows an example of each type of syntax diagram and is followed by a brief explanation of each diagram element.
1. **Statement start point**—denotes the beginning of the main syntax line for a statement. Any element that appears directly on the main syntax line is a **required element**, and any element that appears below it is an **optional element**.

2. **Main syntax line**—determines the order of all required and optional elements for the statement or defined term. Follow this line from left to right (or in the direction of the arrows) to build the syntax for the statement or defined term.

3. **Keyword(s)**—indicates a major word in SQL grammar that is a required part of the syntax for a statement or defined term. In a diagram, keywords are formatted in capital letters and bold font. (You don’t have to worry about typing a keyword in capital letters when you actually write the statement in your database program, but it does make the statement easier to read.)
4. **Literal entry**—specifies the name of a value you explicitly supply to the statement. A literal entry is represented by a word or phrase that indicates the type of value you need to supply. Literal entries in a diagram are formatted in all lowercase letters.

5. **Defined term**—denotes a word or phrase that represents some operation that returns a final value to be used in this statement. We’ll explain and diagram every defined term you need to know as you work through the book. Defined terms are always formatted in italic letters.

6. **Optional element**—indicates any element or group of elements that appears below the main syntax line. An optional element can be a statement, keyword, defined term, or literal value and, for purposes of clarity, is placed on its own line. In some cases, you can specify a set of values for a given option, with each value separated by a comma (see number 8). Also, several optional elements have a set of sub-optional elements (see number 7). In general, you read the syntax line for an optional element from left to right, in the same manner that you read the main syntax line. Always follow the directional arrows and you’ll be in good shape. Note that some options allow you to specify multiple values or choices, so the arrow will flow from right to left. After you’ve entered all the items you need, however, the flow will return to normal from left to right. Fortunately, all optional elements work the same way. After we show you how to use an optional element later in the book, you’ll know how to use any other optional element you encounter in a syntax diagram.

7. **Sub-optional element**—denotes any element or group of elements that appears below an optional element. Sub-optional elements allow you to fine-tune your statements so that you can work with more complex problems.

8. **Option list separator**—indicates that you can specify more than one value for this option and that each value must be separated with a comma.

9. **Alternate option**—denotes a keyword or defined term that can be used as an alternative to one or more optional elements. The syntax line for an alternate option will bypass the syntax lines of the optional elements it is meant to replace.

10. **Statement end point**—denotes the end of the main syntax line for a statement.

11. **Defined term start point**—denotes the beginning of the main syntax line for a defined term.

12. **Defined term end point**—denotes the end of the main syntax line for a defined term.

Now that you’re familiar with these elements, you’ll be able to read all the syntax diagrams in the book. And on those occasions when a diagram requires further explanation, we provide you with the information you need to read
the diagram clearly and easily. To help you better understand how the diagrams work, here’s a sample SELECT statement that we built using Figure 2.

```
SELECT FirstName, LastName, City, DOB AS DateOfBirth
FROM Students
WHERE City = 'El Paso'
```

This SELECT statement retrieves four columns from the Students table, as we’ve indicated in the SELECT and FROM clauses. As you follow the main syntax line from left to right, you see that you have to indicate at least one *value expression*. A value expression can be a column name, an expression created using column names, or simply a constant (literal) value that you want to display. You can indicate as many columns as you need with the value expression’s *option list separator* (a comma). This is how we were able to use four column names from the Student table. We were concerned that some people viewing the information returned by this SELECT statement might not know what DOB means, so we assigned an *alias* to the DOB column with the value expression’s AS sub-option. Finally, we used the WHERE clause to make certain the SELECT statement shows only those students who live in El Paso. (If this doesn’t quite make sense to you just now, there’s no cause for alarm. You’ll learn all this in great detail throughout the remainder of the book.)

You’ll find a full set of syntax diagrams in Appendix A. They show the complete and proper syntax for all the statements and defined terms we discuss in the book. If you happen to refer to these diagrams as you work through each chapter, you’ll notice a slight disparity between some of the diagrams in a given chapter and the corresponding diagrams in the appendix. The diagrams in the chapters are just simplified versions of the diagrams in the appendix. These simplified versions allow us to explain complex statements and defined terms more easily and give us the ability to focus on particular elements as needed. But don’t worry—all the diagrams in the appendix will make perfect sense after you work through the material in the book.

**Sample Databases Used in This Book**

Bound into the back of the book, you’ll find a CD-ROM containing five sample databases that we use for the example queries throughout the book. We’ve also included diagrams of the database structures in Appendix B: Schema for the Sample Databases.
• The fourth format is a series of SQL scripts that you can modify and use with any major database system that supports SQL. You can find scripts to define the schema (the tables) of each database, to load the data using INSERT statements, and to create the queries using CREATE VIEW statements in the SQLScripts subfolder. Although we created these scripts using utilities in Microsoft SQL Server, we simplified them to make them generic for use with most database systems.

To install the sample files, see the file ReadMe.txt in the root folder of the sample CD. If you mount the sample CD on an Apple Macintosh system, you will find only the sample files for MySQL and the SQL scripts.

❖ Note Although we were very careful to use the most common and simplest syntax for the CREATE TABLE, CREATE INDEX, CREATE CONSTRAINT, and INSERT commands in the sample SQL scripts, you (or your database administrator) might need to modify these files slightly to work with your database system. If you’re working with a database system on a remote server, you might need to gain permission from your database administrator to build the samples from the SQL commands we supplied.

For the chapters in Parts II, III, and IV that focus on the SELECT statement, you’ll find all the example statements and solutions in the “example” version of each sample database (e.g., SalesOrdersExample, EntertainmentAgency Example). Because the examples in Part V modify the sample data, we created “modify” versions of each of the sample databases (e.g., SalesOrdersModify, EntertainmentAgencyModify). The sample databases for Part V also include additional columns and tables not found in the SELECT examples that enable us to demonstrate certain features of UPDATE, INSERT, and DELETE queries.

“Follow the Yellow Brick Road”

—Munchkin to Dorothy in The Wizard of Oz

Now that you’ve read through the Introduction, you’re ready to start learning SQL, right? Well, maybe. At this point, you’re still in the house, it’s still being tossed about by the tornado, and you haven’t left Kansas.

Before you make that jump to Chapter 4, Creating a Sample Query, take our advice and read through the first three chapters. Chapter 1, What Is Relational?, will give you an idea of how the relational database was conceived
and how it has grown to be the most widely used type of database in the industry today. We hope this will give you some amount of insight into the database system you're currently using. In Chapter 2, Ensuring Your Database Structure Is Sound, you'll learn how to fine-tune your data structures so that your data is reliable and, above all, accurate. You’re going to have a tough time working with some of the SQL statements if you have poorly designed data structures, so we suggest you read this chapter carefully.

Chapter 3 is literally the beginning of the “yellow brick road.” Here you’ll learn the origins of SQL and how it evolved into its current form. You’ll also learn about some of the people and companies who helped pioneer the language and why there are so many varieties of SQL. Finally, you’ll learn how SQL came to be a national and international standard and what the outlook for SQL will be in the years to come.

After you’ve read these chapters, consider yourself well on your way to Oz. Just follow the road we’ve laid out through each of the remaining chapters. When you’ve finished the book, you’ll find that you’ve found the wizard—and he is you.
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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, we’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 we’re going to show you how to solve will involve getting data from multiple tables. We’re not only going to show you how to put together a good stew—we’re 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. We’re 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, we’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 we’re 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?) 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 records that are made up of one or more fields. (Remember that in SQL, records are known as rows, and fields are known as 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, we'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, we 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.

After you 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: “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.”

In the following three sections, we'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></th>
<th>Potatoes</th>
<th>Water</th>
<th>Lamb</th>
<th>Peas</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Rice</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pasta</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Potatoes</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pasta</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

A second set might look like the following.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Potatoes</th>
<th>Water</th>
<th>Lamb</th>
<th>Onions</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Rice</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pasta</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Potatoes</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Beans</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Potatoes</th>
<th>Beef Stock</th>
<th>Beef</th>
<th>Cabbage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

**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 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.)

<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.

![Figure 7–1 Finding out which recipes have both beef and onions](image)

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, we 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 to first find all the beef rows, then find all the onions rows, and then intersect them on RecipeID. (If you’re confused about why we’re 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
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 we’ll show you all about solving these problems (and more) by using JOINs. And because so few commercial implementations of SQL support INTERSECT, we’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 we 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.

<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 difference of the first set minus the second set is the objects in the first set that don’t exist in the second set.

<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>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.)

<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 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.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Recipe</th>
<th>Starch</th>
<th>Stock</th>
<th>Meat</th>
<th>Vegetable</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<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>Pork Stew</td>
<td>Pasta</td>
<td>Water</td>
<td>Pork</td>
<td>Onions</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Recipe</th>
<th>Starch</th>
<th>Stock</th>
<th>Meat</th>
<th>Vegetable</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<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>

Again, we 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.

![Figure 7–3](image)

**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."

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

```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 to first 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.

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
Thinking in Sets

![Venn Diagram with Recipes and Sets](image)

**Figure 7–4** Finding out which recipes have beef but no onions or carrots

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 entertainer.” (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! We’ll show you all about solving these problems (and more) using OUTER JOINs in Chapter 9. Also, because few commercial implementations of SQL support EXCEPT (the keyword for difference), we’ll show how to use an OUTER JOIN to solve many problems that might otherwise require an EXCEPT.

**Union**

So far we’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 chemist 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.
The union of these two sets is the set of objects from both sets. Duplicates are eliminated.

<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>

**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>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 this one. (These are recipes from 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 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>
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<td>Rice</td>
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</tr>
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<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 (on page 232) shows you 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. 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
Figure 7–5 Finding out which recipes have either beef or onions

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. We’ll explore the uses of the SQL UNION operator in detail in Chapter 10.

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. We’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. We think that these set operations are important enough to at least warrant an overview of the syntax.

As promised, we’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.”

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

❖ Note    Readers familiar with SQL might ask why we didn’t JOIN Order_Details to Products and look for bike or helmet product names. The simple answer is that we haven’t introduced the concept of a JOIN yet, so we 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.

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.)
“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.

Figure 7–7 All orders for a helmet also contain an order for a bicycle.
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.)

![Figure 7–8 Linking two SELECT statements with INTERSECT](image)

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

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.) We’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 most 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**  
```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.

![Figure 7–9 Orders for a bicycle that do not also contain a helmet](image)

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.”

**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—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.

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

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 our 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.) We’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 most commercial implementations of SQL do support OUTER JOIN.

### Combining Sets: UNION

One more problem about bicycles and helmets, then we’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
SQL SELECT DISTINCT OrderNumber
FROM Order_Details
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 we 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 we haven’t shown you how to do a JOIN yet, we’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.

**Figure 7–11 Orders for bicycles or helmets**

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.”

**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—a union of the two sets. Figure 7–12 shows the SQL syntax diagram that handles this problem.

![Figure 7–12 Linking two SELECT statements with UNION](image)

You can now take the two parts of your request and link them with a UNION operator to get the correct answer.

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 most 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. We’ll explore UNION in much more detail in Chapter 10.
We began this chapter by discussing the concept of a set. Next, we discussed each of the major set operations implemented in SQL in detail—intersection, difference, and union. We showed how to use set diagrams to visualize the problem you’re trying to solve. Finally, we 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. We showed you the SQL Standard EXCEPT operation, but an OUTER JOIN might also do the trick. Get the details in Chapter 9.

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