CHAPTER 2

Introducing Relational Databases

In Chapter 1, you learned that you can use almost any kind of data source to drive your dynamic pages. You also learned that the relational database is the most commonly used type of data source for this purpose. In this chapter, you'll take a closer look at how relational databases actually work. You'll see how data is organized inside a database, and to make sure you understand it, you'll build your own sample database from scratch.

If you're wondering why this whole chapter focuses on the theory and setup of a database, it's because a badly designed and badly built database will nearly always come back to bite you once you start to build an application that uses it. And this isn't an issue specific to ASP.NET. Any application on any platform that connects to a database will run into problems if the database isn't designed correctly in the first place. Applications become harder to expand and slower to run as you spot-fix individual problems that wouldn't have come up if you had built the database correctly.

A data-driven Web site relies totally on its data source for content, so having it drag its heels because you built it wrong wouldn't be a good thing. You'll look further at the actual designing of a database in Chapter 13, but you need to be familiar with the basics before you can go there.

This chapter covers the following topics:

- The different pieces that make up a database: the tables that hold the data, the columns that define what the table holds, and the rows that contain the actual data
- The different types of SQL queries and an introduction to the most commonly used queries, as well as stored procedures
- How indexes can make your databases more efficient
- The different types of relationships between tables and how these can be modeled in the database
- How to create and use SQL Server 2005 database diagrams, which show the layout of your database
- An introduction to database views and triggers

The Databases and Tools

We're going to work with three different databases throughout the course of this book. You've already seen one of these, Microsoft Access at the end of Chapter 1. The other two that we'll look at are Microsoft SQL Server 2005 Express Edition and MySQL 5.0.

Microsoft SQL Server 2005 Express Edition is the free version of Microsoft's full SQL Server 2005 database server. The Express Edition lacks several features available in the full-blown version (none of which will cause any problems during the course of this book), and the numerous administration tools SQL Server 2005 comes with aren't included. In previous releases of SQL Server, the lack of administration tools for the free edition was a problem. However, a quite powerful administration tool, SQL Server Management Studio Express Edition, was released along with the SQL Server 2005 Express Edition. We'll use this tool to manage the SQL Server 2005 Express Edition database that we will build in this chapter.

The second, real, database that we'll use is MySQL 5.0. This is a free database server that, in its latest incarnation, provides a very comprehensive range of functionality that rivals other databases. Several free administration tools work with MySQL. We'll use of one of these: MySQL Query Browser.

As you saw in Chapter 1, Visual Web Developer 2005 Express Edition provides functionality for interacting with databases, although that functionality is limited. Visual Web Developer 2005 Express Edition allows you to connect to any data source that has an ODBC driver or OLE DB provider. If you're using ODBC or OLE DB to connect to the data source, you can only view and query the data that it contains. If you're using the SqlClient data provider—that is, connecting to SQL Server—then Visual Web Developer 2005 Express Edition offers most of the same functionality provided by SQL Server Management Studio Express Edition.

You can find the instructions for installing SQL Server 2005 Express Edition, SQL Server Management Studio Express Edition, MySQL 5.0, and MySQL Query Browser in Appendix A. You can find the complete details of the sample database you'll be building in this chapter in Appendix D. It's a simple database, which contains the details of several MP3 Players, their Manufacturers, and supported Formats.

■ **Note** As marketing people are prone to do, they make the job of talking about their products quite long-winded. What sort of name for a product is Visual Web Developer 2005 Express Edition? If I had to use that every time I talked about the product, this book would be about three times longer! I'm going to use shorter versions of the names: Visual Web Developer, SQL Server 2005, and SQL Server Management Studio. Just keep in mind that I'm referring to the Express Editions.

Tables, Rows, and Columns

The first thing to know and be comfortable with is that a relational database stores all data as *tables*. Each of these tables represents a single, distinct subject: an object or an event. For example, a table may contain details of Manufacturers (as in Figure 2-1), fish, or compact discs. Or it may keep data on appointments, deliveries, or customer service enquiries.

	ManufacturerID	ManufacturerName	ManufacturerCountry	ManufacturerEmail	ManufacturerWebsite
	1	Apple	USA	lackey@apple.com	http://www.apple.com
	2	Creative	Singapore	someguy@creative.com	http://www.creative.com
	3	iRiver	Korea	knockknock@iriver.com	http://www.river.com
	4	MSI	Taiwan	hello@miscomputer.co.uk	http://www.miscomputer.co.uk
	5	Rio	USA	Greetings@rio.com	http://www.rio.com
more rows...					

Figure 2-1. *A simple table*

In general, databases shouldn't store information about several types of objects or events—say, cats and fish—in the same table, unless the application of the database says otherwise. Biologists, for example, will want to keep details on cats and details on fish separate. More than likely, the details they keep for the two species of animal will be quite different. On the other hand, an online pet store may use a single table to keep a record of all the pets it has in stock. Cats and fish would be grouped together as "pets" in one table.

When you create a table in a database, you give it a name to reflect its contents—Book, Compact_Disc, Customer_Service_Enquiry, and so on. The table in Figure 2-1 is named Manufacturer. If you start calling a table Cats_And_Fish, for example, chances are you actually want to be creating two tables: one for cats and one for fish.

Every table contains a number of *rows*, or *records* if you prefer (or even *tuples*, if you're a mathematician). Each row represents exactly one instance of the object or event the table holds details about. In Figure 2-1, each row in the Manufacturer table holds the details for exactly one Manufacturer. These details aren't duplicated or continued elsewhere in the table, so when you locate that particular row, it contains all the information you have on that Manufacturer. In Figure 2-2, for example, the row containing all the information about Creative has been highlighted.

	ManufacturerID	ManufacturerName	ManufacturerCountry	ManufacturerEmail	ManufacturerWebsite
	1	Apple	USA	lackey@apple.com	http://www.apple.com
▶	2	Creative	Singapore	someguy@creative.com	http://www.creative.com
	3	iRiver	Korea	knockknock@iriver.com	http://www.river.com
	4	MSI	Taiwan	hello@miscomputer.co.uk	http://www.miscomputer.co.uk
	5	Rio	USA	Greetings@rio.com	http://www.rio.com
more rows...					

Figure 2-2. *A row in a table contains data about one object instance.*

Every row contains a number of *columns*, also called *attributes* or *fields*. Each column contains a single piece of information indicated by the column's name. Like the name for a table, the name for a column should be as unambiguous as possible. In the example in Figure 2-2, all of the columns are prefixed with *Manufacturer*. If it used a column called Name to represent the Manufacturer's name, for instance, it would not be immediately clear what it's referring to—Name could refer to a person's name, a Web site's name, or any name you like if you take it out of context. With the column name ManufacturerName, it's pretty clear what this column will contain.

■ **Note** All table and column names should start with a letter and be followed only by more letters, numbers, or an underscore—never a space. Some, but not all, databases permit using a few punctuation characters in names, but it's easier to stay clear of them altogether.

Retrieving information from a table is reasonably simple, because every table must contain a column or a combination of columns that uniquely identifies any piece of data in the table. This means that it doesn't matter in what order you add rows to the table, because you'll still be able to identify them individually. When you're building a database table, you identify this column or combination of columns as the table's *primary key*. In Figure 2-1, for example, the ManufacturerID column does this job nicely. Because of this primary key, you can access any column in a database with relative ease, as long as you know the column name, the value of the primary key for the row it's in, and the name of the table. For example, say you need a contact e-mail address for iRiver. To get this information, you need to find the Manufacturer table, then the row for iRiver, and then the value in the ManufacturerEmail column in that row, as shown in Figure 2-3.

	ManufacturerID	ManufacturerName	ManufacturerCountry	ManufacturerEmail	ManufacturerWebsite
	1	Apple	USA	lackey@apple.com	http://www.apple.com
	2	Creative	Singapore	someguy@creative.com	http://www.creative.com
▶	3	iRiver	Korea	knockknock@iriver.com	http://www.river.com
	4	MSI	Taiwan	hello@miscomputer.co.uk	http://www.miscomputer.co.uk
	5	Rio	USA	Greetings@rio.com	http://www.rio.com
more rows...					

Figure 2-3. *Pinpointing data in a database*

Every table should have a primary key. It doesn't have to be an ID number (although that's the norm in a simple table) as in this example, but you must be able to guarantee that each value for that primary key column will be unique. A person's last name or an appointment date won't do for a primary key, but a global unique identifier (GUID) or a product's Amazon standard identification number (ASIN) should do fine. Consider the situation where a table doesn't have a primary key. The database server may not be able to identify a specific row in a table, so it might return the wrong one or return many. What if a Web site were trying to retrieve a user's preferences and presented him with the wrong set of options? What if credit card numbers weren't unique but were used as primary keys? You could get sent the wrong bill or be charged with someone else's transactions. You can see why primary keys must be unique.

You can also use a combination of columns, rather than just one column, as a primary key. If a primary key is a single column, it's a *simple primary key*. If it consists of two or more columns, it's a *composite primary key*. For example, you couldn't uniquely identify an album in a table by its name alone (consider 4—the name of albums by Peter Gabriel, Led Zeppelin, and Black Sabbath, no less), so you could set the table's primary key to contain both the band and title. You'll see further examples of composite primary keys in the "Many-to-Many Relationships" section later in this chapter.

You can create a new table in a database in many ways, depending on which database server software and which development environment you're using. In the following sections, you'll investigate how to do this within SQL Server 2005 and MySQL 5.0.

Try It Out: Creating a Table in SQL Server 2005

In this example, you'll create the Manufacturer table shown in Figure 2-1 inside a new SQL Server 2005 database using the tools provided in SQL Server Management Studio. Follow these steps:

1. Start SQL Server Management Studio. You're immediately presented with the Connect to Server dialog box.
2. Enter the server name as `localhost\BAND` and select SQL Server Authentication as the authentication method. Enter a Login of **sa** and a Password of **bandpass**. Check the Remember Password check box. Your dialog box should look like Figure 2-4. Once all the information is entered, click the Connect button to connect to the database server.

Figure 2-4. *Connecting to the correct SQL Server instance*

3. In the Object Explorer, right-click the Databases node and select New Database from the context menu to open the New Database dialog box.
4. Enter a name of **Players** for the database, as shown in Figure 2-5, and click the OK button to create the database. This will close the dialog box, and you'll see in the Summary window that the database has been created.

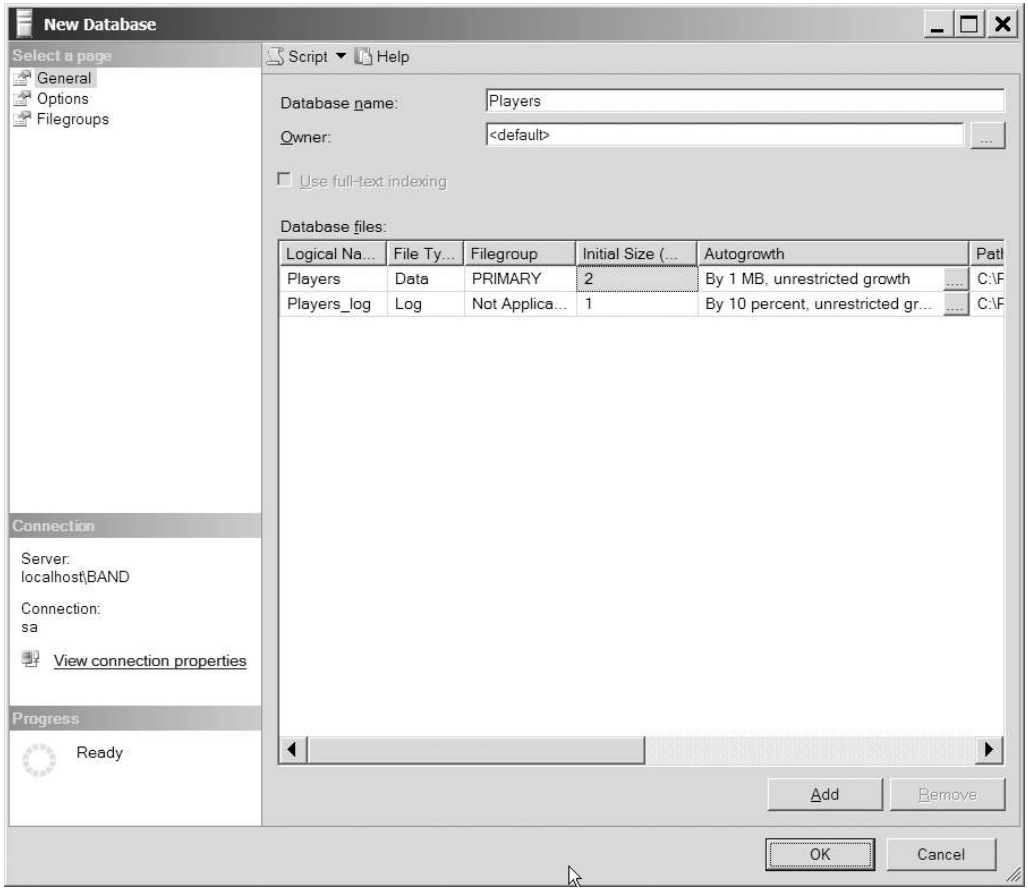


Figure 2-5. *The New Database dialog box*

5. You can also see that the database has been created by expanding the Databases node in the Object Explorer, as shown in Figure 2-6. Expand the new database, right-click the Tables node, and select New Table.

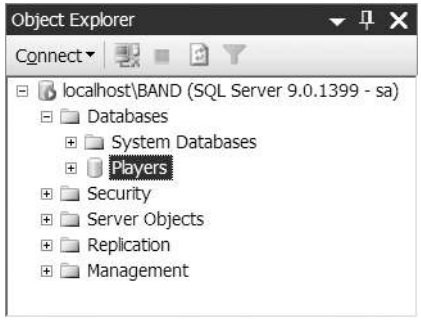


Figure 2-6. *The Players database has been created.*

6. The first task is to create the ManufacturerID column that contains the primary key for this table. Enter **ManufacturerID** in the Column Name field and select int from the drop-down list for the Data Type. Finally, uncheck the Allow Nulls check box. Your column definition should look like Figure 2-7.

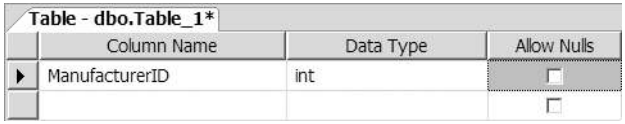


Figure 2-7. *The basic column details have been entered.*

7. Right-click the column you just created and select Set Primary Key. This marks the column as the primary key for the table. This is indicated by the key icon in the column to the left of the Column Name field, as shown in Figure 2-8.

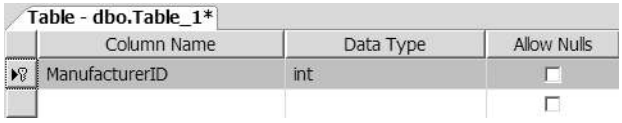


Figure 2-8. *Primary key columns are indicated graphically.*

8. Now add the four remaining columns to the Manufacturer table, as shown in Figure 2-9. As you enter details for a column in the table, a new blank row is added to the bottom of the list, allowing you to enter the details for the next column. Set up the remaining four columns as follows:

Column Name	Data Type	Allow Nulls
`ManufacturerName`	Varchar(50)	Not checked
`ManufacturerCountry`	Varchar(50)	Checked
`ManufacturerEmail`	Varchar(100)	Checked
`ManufacturerWebsite`	Varchar(100)	Checked

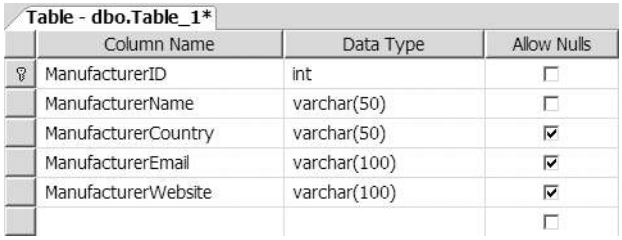


Figure 2-9. *The column definitions for the Manufacturer table in SQL Server 2005*

9. In the Properties window for the table (shown on the right side of the SQL Server Management Studio window), select ManufacturerID as the Identity Column.

10. Save the table by clicking the Save button in the toolbar or by selecting File ➤ Save Table_1 from the menu. In the Choose Name dialog box, enter the name **Manufacturer**, as shown in Figure 2-10, and then click the OK button.

Figure 2-10. *Entering a name for the new table*

11. To confirm that the table has been created, expand the Tables node in the Object Explorer. You'll see the new Manufacturer table in the list of tables (you can expand this to show the full details of the table).

12. Open Visual Web Developer and switch to the Database Explorer view. Right-click the Data Connections node and select Add Connection from the context menu. In the Add Connection dialog box, enter the same information as you used to connect in SQL Server Express Management Studio in step 1. In addition, select Players from the Connect to a Database drop-down list. Once you've entered the information, click OK to add the connection.

13. Expand the connection you just added, and then expand the Tables node in the tree that is presented. You'll see the Manufacturer table that you've just created, as shown in Figure 2-11.

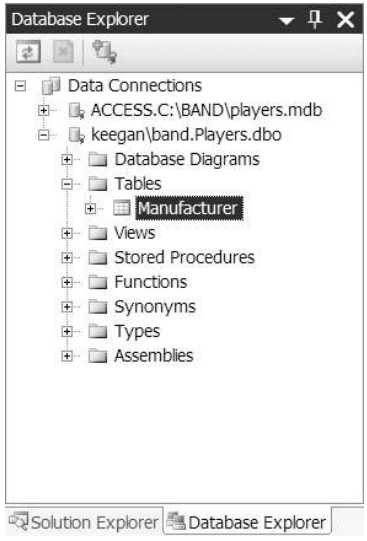


Figure 2-11. *Visual Web Developer can also connect to the SQL Server 2005 database.*

How It Works

As you've just seen, the tools provided by SQL Server Management Studio make creating a new table within a database quite simple. In the example, you actually accomplished three different tasks:

- Creating a new database
- Creating a new table in the database
- Creating new columns in the table

When first launching SQL Server Management Studio, you first connect to a SQL Server 2005 database server. Once you're connected to the database server, you can create a new database quite easily. You specify the name of the database, and SQL Server Management Studio takes care of the details of creating the database and adding it to the list of databases that you can see.

Once you've created the database, you can add new tables to it as required. You can see how easy it is to create a column by simply specifying the column's name and data type, and deciding whether the column can have null values.

You also saw how you can create a primary key on a table very easily by using the context menu for the column. As you learned earlier, primary keys allow you to individually identify a row in a table. You'll see how important primary keys are when we look at relationships between database tables later in the chapter.

The final piece in the puzzle was the setting of the identity column for the table. This allows you to set an auto-incrementing column in the table, which will be incremented by one every time a new row is added to the table. If you look again at the drop-down list that is presented for the table (you can view and edit the design of an existing table by selecting Modify from the table's context menu in the Object Explorer), you'll see that the only column that is available as an identity column is ManufacturerID. ManufacturerID can be an identity column because it contains only integers, and these can be incremented automatically every time a new row is added. As you also have a requirement for ManufacturerID to be your primary key—with unique values—setting it as the identity column makes perfect sense.

SQL Server Management Studio actually interprets your wishes to create databases and tables into queries in the database's own language—Structured Query Language (SQL)—which you'll look at in the "Queries and Stored Procedures" section later in this chapter. Actually, you have several other ways to send these same queries and build the Manufacturer table, including the following:

- Using Visual Web Developer to interact with the SQL Server 2005
- Using the SQL Server 2005 client tools to work with the database
- Using a database's command-line utility, such as `osql.exe`, as you'll see in Chapter 11
- Building your own application to send the query to the database

At the end of the example, you saw how to connect Visual Web Developer to the database you created. From within the development environment, you can see the structure of the databases, view the contents of tables, and run queries against the tables. Since you connected to the database using the SqlClient data provider, the context menu also provides options to modify

the database. In later examples, you'll use Visual Web Developer to look at the database, but you will not use its management features. You'll stick to using SQL Server Management Studio for making modifications.

Try It Out: Creating a Table in MySQL 5.0

In this example, you'll create the Manufacturer table shown in Figure 2-1 inside a new MySQL 5.0 database using the tools provided in MySQL Query Browser. Follow these steps:

1. Start MySQL Query Browser. You're immediately presented with the Connect to MySQL Server Instance dialog box.
2. Enter a Server Host of **localhost**, a Username of **root**, and a Password of **bandpass**. Your dialog box should look like Figure 2-12. Once you've entered the information, click OK to connect to the database server.

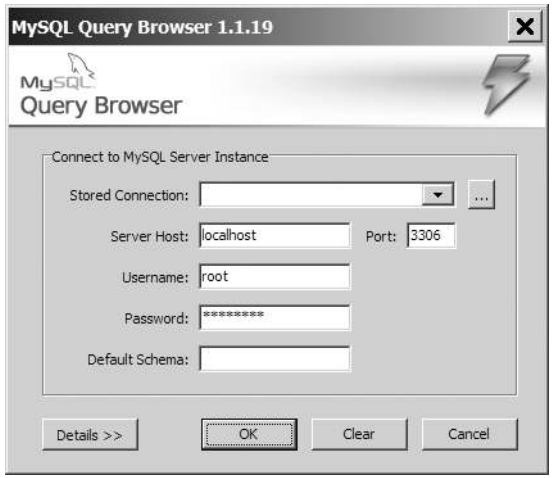


Figure 2-12. *Connecting to the correct MySQL instance*

3. Right-click in the Schemata pane on the right side of the MySQL Query Browser window and select Create New Schema from the context menu to open the Create New Schema dialog box.
4. Enter a name of **Players** for the database, as shown in Figure 2-13, and then click the OK button. This will close the dialog box, and you'll see that the new database has been added to the Schemata pane, as shown in Figure 2-14.

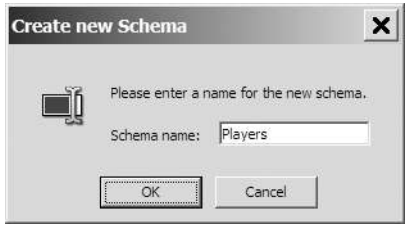


Figure 2-13. *The Create New Schema dialog box*

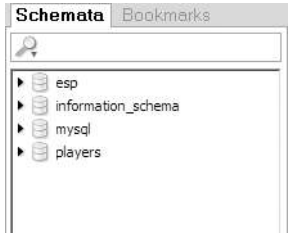


Figure 2-14. *The Players database has been created.*

5. Right-click the Players database and select Create New Table from the context menu.

6. The first step is to create the ManufacturerID column that contains the primary key for the table. Double-click in the first row of the Columns and Indices grid underneath Column Name and enter **ManufacturerID** as the name. You'll see that the column has already been marked as the primary key and is set to be auto-incrementing.

7. Accept the defaults for the rest of the values. Your column definition should look like Figure 2-15.

Figure 2-15. *The ManufacturerID column has been created.*

8. Now add the remaining four columns to the Manufacturer table, as shown in Figure 2-16. As you enter details for a column in the table, a new blank row is added to the bottom of the list, allowing you to enter the details for the next column. Set up the four columns as follows:

Column Name	Datatype	Not Null
ManufacturerName	Varchar(50)	Checked
ManufacturerCountry	Varchar(50)	Not checked
ManufacturerEmail	Varchar(100)	Not checked
ManufacturerWebsite	Varchar(100)	Not checked

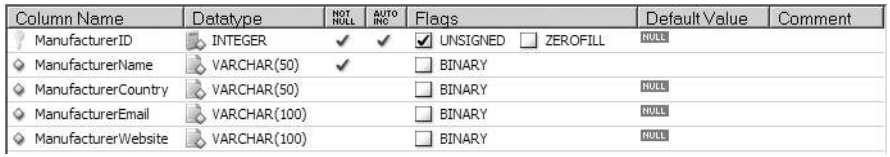


Figure 2-16. *The column definitions for the Manufacturer table in MySQL 5.0*

9. Enter a table name of **Manufacturer** at the top of the Table Editor dialog box, and then click Apply Changes to save the table. In the Confirm Table Edit dialog box, click Execute to create the table. Once the table has been saved, click Close to close the Table Editor dialog box.

10. To confirm that the table has been created, expand the Players database in the Schemata pane. You'll see the new Manufacturer table in the list of tables (you can expand this to show the columns that make up the table).

11. Open Visual Web Developer and switch to the Database Explorer view. Right-click the Data Connections node and select Add Connection from the context menu.

12. Click the Change button next to the Data Source field, and then select Microsoft ODBC Data Source from the Change Data Source dialog box.

13. Select the Use Connection String option and enter the following connection string:

```
Driver={MySQL ODBC 3.51 Driver};server=localhost;database=players;
```

14. Enter a Username of **root** and a Password of **bandpass**.

15. Click OK to add the connection.

16. Expand the connection that you just added, and then expand the Tables node in the tree that is presented. You'll see the Manufacturer table that you just created, as shown in Figure 2-17.

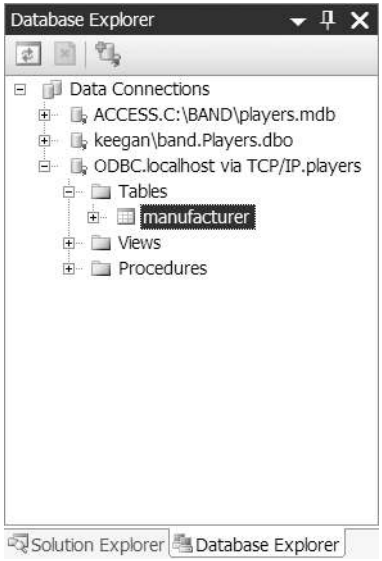


Figure 2-17. *Visual Web Developer can also connect to the MySQL 5.0 database.*

How It Works

As you saw, the tools for MySQL Query Browser are comparable to those available using SQL Server Management Studio, although they work a bit differently.

As with SQL Server Management Studio, the creation of the database and the table are performed in SQL. When you created the table, you had a sneak preview of this SQL in the Confirm Table Edit dialog box. You'll look at the SQL to modify the database structure in Chapter 11.

At the end of the example, you saw how you can use Visual Web Developer to view a MySQL database. Using the SqlClient data provider, the process is quite simple, and Visual Web Developer takes care of a lot of the work for you. However, when you use the ODBC data provider, you must create the connection string yourself. Here, you specified the following connection string:

```
Driver={MySQL ODBC 3.51 Driver};server=localhost;database=players;
```

You need to tell the ODBC data provider which ODBC driver you want to use, and then specify the specific properties for the driver—in this case, the server and database to which you're connecting.

The same is also true when you need to use the OLE DB data provider. You specify the OLE DB provider to use, and then set any properties that are specific for that provider. If you wanted to connect to the Access database, you would use the following connection string:

```
Provider=Microsoft.Jet.OLEDB.4.0;Data Source=c:\BAND\Players.mdb
```

Once the connection has been made, Visual Web Developer treats all non-SqlClient data sources equally. You can view and query the database, but you cannot modify the database in any way. The options to modify the database are simply not displayed in any of the context menus.

■ **Note** Each type of ODBC driver and OLE DB provider has a different syntax for its connection string. A good place to look for the connection string that you're after is `http://www.connectionstrings.com`. It has connection string examples for the common ODBC drivers and OLE DB providers.

Column Properties and Constraints

When building even a simple table, you can do a lot more than give the columns in the table a name. You can give each one a series of properties that strongly types and then further restricts the range of values that it can hold. This is akin to the way you give every variable in C# a simple type, or perhaps even a complex type if you want to restrict its values further.

Strictly speaking, you actually give each column a set of *properties* and then apply zero or more *constraints* that restrict the values it can hold.

The following are the column properties and constraints you've seen in the Manufacturer table example:

Column Name: This is the name of the column.

Data Type: This is the data type of the column. In the Manufacturer table, you used only two types—int/integer and varchar—but there are many more. You can find a complete list of data types you can give to a column in Appendix B.

Length: When you specified a data type of varchar, you also specified a number, in brackets, that indicates the maximum number of characters that may be entered in the column. The length property is available only for data types that contain text, such as char and varchar.

Allow Nulls: If you allow null values for a column, you're saying that the column can actually be completely empty, with nothing in it. And by "nothing," I do mean nothing. Spaces, zeros, or any other actual characters are not the same as having a null value in the column.

Primary Key: This sets whether the column is part of the primary key for its table. For the Manufacturer table, you have one column making up the primary key, indicated by the key icon next to the column name. As mentioned earlier, it is possible to have multiple columns making up the primary key, and all the columns in the key would be indicated in the same way.

You also set another property on the ManufacturerID column, making it an identity column and giving it an auto-incrementing value. This is where you'll see the first difference between SQL Server 2005 and MySQL 5.0.

In SQL Server 2005, you specify that the ManufacturerID column is auto-incrementing by setting the Identity Column property for the table. SQL Server Management Studio shields you from some of the details of designing tables, and this is one of those cases. When you set the table's identity column, you're actually modifying the ManufacturerID column directly and setting three properties on that column:

Is Identity: This indicates that the column is an identity column and will have an auto-incrementing value.

Identity Seed: This sets the value given to the first row entered into the table. The default is 1.

Identity Increment: This sets the number added to the most recently created row in the table to produce the next value of the column for a new row yet to come. The default is 1.

By default, an automatically generated integer column will be set to 1 for the first row created in the table, then 2 for the second, 3 for the third, and so on. If you set Identity Seed to 10 and Identity Increment to 2, the first row would get 10, the second 12, the third 14, and so on.

You can actually see these values for the column if you look at the Column Properties tab at the bottom of the main SQL Server Management Studio window and expand the Identity Specification node, as shown in Figure 2-18.

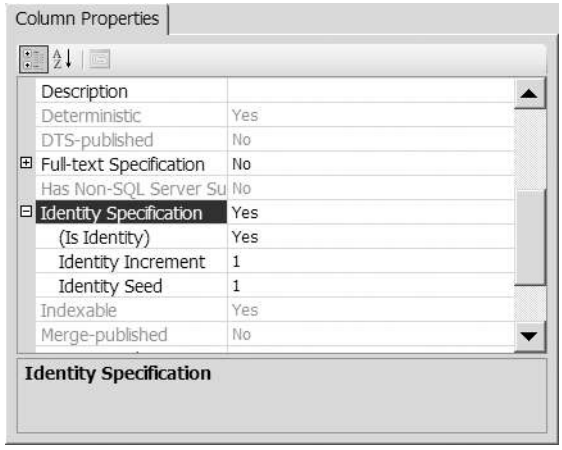


Figure 2-18. *Viewing the Identity Specification details for a column*

MySQL 5.0 specifies that a column is auto-incrementing by setting the AUTO INC property when adding the column. If you look back at Figure 2-16, you'll see that the AUTO INC column is checked for ManufacturerID.

■ **Note** You can have only one auto-incrementing column on a table. Although SQL Server Management Studio and MySQL 5.0 specify auto-incrementing columns differently, they both allow you to have only one column set as auto-incrementing at a time. SQL Server Management Studio allows you to select one column from the Identity Column list, and MySQL Query Browser lets you check only one AUTO INC column at a time.

Once you've set the general characteristics for a column, you can narrow them down by applying constraints. We've already looked at two constrains: Allow Null and Primary Key. The Column Properties tab allows you to set a further constraint on the column: its default value.

The default value for a column is specified in the Default Value or Binding property for SQL Server 2005 and as the Default Value for MySQL 5.0. This property allows you to specify a value that is used when the user doesn't enter a value when creating a new row.

You'll learn about one more type of constraint in this chapter. The foreign key constraint is concerned with maintaining the validity of data between two tables that are related. Of course, this doesn't make much sense until you understand how tables can be related, so you'll come back to this topic in the "Relationships Between Tables" section.

Queries and Stored Procedures

Many parallels exist between the way you program in .NET and the way you set up a relational database. You've already come across the idea of strongly typing columns and giving them properties. It shouldn't be a surprise then to learn that relational databases also allow you to perform actions (methods, if you like) on rows, columns, tables, and even the database itself. These actions are written in SQL, and knowing how to write queries in SQL is as fundamental to working with a database as knowing how tables, rows, and columns fit together.

Recall from Chapter 1 that the second step of talking to a database is to send it a query to retrieve, create, modify, or delete some data. This query needs to be defined and called explicitly, much like a method in .NET, and you use SQL to do this.

So, what is SQL, and why do you need to use it? Why can't you just use C# instead? SQL (usually pronounced "sequel") is the de facto standard language for talking to relational databases. Invented by IBM along with the original idea of relational databases, SQL was designed to fit the mathematical concepts that relational databases were built upon, while being straightforward to use. (Interestingly, the man who first published the rules for relational databases, Dr. E. F. Codd, disliked SQL quite a lot and preferred another query language.)

SQL is now in its second version as an International Organization for Standardization (ISO) and American National Standards Institute (ANSI) standard. It essentially works like ODBC as a common interface to a database that all vendors implement and everyone uses. One key difference between SQL and ODBC is that although all vendors implement the majority of the basic elements of the SQL standard, they then add their own proprietary queries to it and badge the whole as their version of SQL. Microsoft SQL Server uses Transact-SQL (T-SQL), Oracle uses PL\SQL, and MySQL aims to implement straight ANSI-standard SQL, although it hasn't managed all of it just yet.

SQL Queries

SQL queries are at the heart of what you'll be doing in the rest of this book. They're the commands the page gives the database, and they can be sent individually or in batches. You need to learn how to write those queries correctly, what kind of results they will return, and how to handle those results.

SQL can be divided into three main parts: a Data Manipulation Language (DML), a Data Definition Language (DDL), and a Data Control Language (DCL). Over the next few pages, you'll take a whirlwind tour through the key queries that you'll use throughout this book. I'll expand on the syntax for each instruction as you use them, and Appendix C provides a summary syntax reference for these queries.

■ **Note** Keywords in SQL aren't case-sensitive. However, I write them in all uppercase letters to make them easily distinguishable from the values you add to queries.

DML Queries

SQL's DML contains queries that let you create, retrieve, update, and delete data from a database. It has the following four basic queries:

`INSERT`: The `INSERT` query creates a new row in a table, and then adds some new data to it. For example, here is the query to add a new row to the Manufacturer table:

```
INSERT INTO Manufacturer (ManufacturerName, ManufacturerCountry,
  ManufacturerEmail, ManufacturerWebsite)
VALUES ('Apple', 'USA', 'lackey@apple.com'', 'http://www.apple.com')
```

Each column in the row you want to give a value to is named in the first list, and the values they will be given are in the second list, respectively. If the table has an identity column (as the Manufacturer table does), you don't need to specify it, as it is added automatically with the new row.

`UPDATE`: The `UPDATE` query changes the values of one or more columns in a table row. For example, to change the name of a Manufacturer from Apple to Pear, issue the following query:

```
UPDATE Manufacturer
SET ManufacturerName = 'Pear'
WHERE ManufacturerName = 'Apple'
```

As mentioned earlier, every column can be identified uniquely using the table name, primary key value, and column name. `UPDATE` queries can use all three to pinpoint exactly which piece of data to change, but they can also effect more sweeping changes, modifying several rows at a time by being less specific.

`DELETE`: The `DELETE` query removes a row or rows from a table. For example, to remove the entry in the Manufacturer table for the Manufacturer Pear, issue the following query:

```
DELETE FROM Manufacturer
WHERE ManufacturerName = 'Pear'
```

Like `UPDATE`, `DELETE` can target many rows in a table at a time. You need to be careful using `DELETE`. One false step, and you might delete all the data in a table by accident.

`SELECT`: The `SELECT` query fetches data from the database and returns it to the waiting page. For example, to retrieve a list of all Manufacturers and their e-mail addresses, issue the following query:

```
SELECT ManufacturerName, ManufacturerEmail
FROM Manufacturer
```

The SELECT query is incredibly powerful. You can use it to preprocess data, retrieve data across several tables at once, and then work on that data again before the page gets it. You can return tables of data or single values. You can present data using aliases or using a column's name as it is in the table. You can filter the results that you're returning using the WHERE clause.

■ **Note** There are books dedicated to just the SELECT query, so don't be disheartened if you don't get your SELECT queries working first time round. One of the best books about SELECT queries is *SQL Queries for Mere Mortals* by Michael J. Hernandez and John L. Viescas (0201433362: Addison-Wesley, 2000).

The basic syntax for all four queries is pretty straightforward. To begin with, you'll just plug in values to those simple queries and go. Then you'll start to vary and tweak. You can already see that the WHERE keyword is used in UPDATE, DELETE, and SELECT queries. It can match more than one row if you want to affect more than one row and can concatenate conditions together with Boolean operators (AND, NOT, and OR) to create specific clauses that may not match any rows at all.

DDL Queries

A DDL query lets you build, alter, and remove databases, tables, relationships, constraints, indexes, and more. For example, the sample database that you'll build in this chapter can also be built using a mixture of DDL and DML: DDL to create the Players database, construct the tables within it, and the columns within the tables, and some DML to add the values to the tables.

DDL has three basic queries:

CREATE: The CREATE query allows you to create a new database or object within the database. For example, to add a new table called Player with PlayerID and PlayerName columns, issue the following query:

```
CREATE TABLE Player (PlayerID INT, PlayerName VARCHAR(50))
```

The CREATE TABLE query is quite powerful. You can create as many strongly typed columns for the table as you like, specify a primary key, and set some of the column properties and constraints you saw earlier.

ALTER: The ALTER query allows you to modify a database object that already exists. For example, to add a new column called PlayerStorage to the Player table, issue the following query:

```
ALTER TABLE Player ADD PlayerStorage VARCHAR(50)
```

It's possible for a database to refuse to execute an ALTER query and return an error. This is usually because in changing the table, constraint, and so on, the altered version of the database will break the rules that still apply to the database and violate its integrity. Or rather, it will render the data invalid. For example, changing the type of the ManufacturerName column in the Manufacturer table to integer isn't allowed.

DROP: The DROP query allows you to delete any object in a database. For example, to delete the Player table from the database, issue the following query:

```
DROP TABLE Player
```

As with ALTER, a database may not execute a DROP query if the altered version of the database breaks its integrity rules.

■ **Caution** As long as your page has the appropriate privileges to delete a database, the server will go ahead and delete anything you tell it to if it doesn't violate a constraint, regardless of whether you've backed up anything or the database still contains data. Database servers have no concept of a recycle bin either, so once you say delete, it's gone. Be very careful using DROP. It can kill anything—database, table, constraint, and so on—just as CREATE and ALTER can create and modify anything.

DCL Queries

All database servers can also restrict which of the previous SQL queries a user may execute. The DCL queries are used to control access to the database. The following are the three most common DCL queries:

GRANT: The GRANT query allows you to give a user account the permission to run a certain kind of SQL query. For example, to let the user account Damien INSERT and SELECT data from the Manufacturer table, issue the following query:

```
GRANT INSERT, SELECT ON Manufacturer TO Damien
```

DENY: The DENY query allows you to prevent a user account from running a certain SQL query that it already has permission to run indirectly, say, because the permission was given to a group or role to which the user was assigned. For example, to prevent the user account Jill from running DELETE and DROP queries against the Manufacturer table, issue the following query:

```
DENY DELETE, DROP ON Manufacturer TO Jill
```

REVOKE: The REVOKE query completely removes the permission to run a certain SQL query from a user account. For example, to remove all permissions from an exEmployee user, issue the following query:

```
REVOKE ALL FROM exEmployee
```

ALTERNATIVES TO SQL

SQL won't be going anywhere for quite some time to come, because it's too well established and because it's the de facto standard language that all database servers use. Indeed, millions of lines of SQL run every day. But that doesn't mean you'll always need to use it.

With the release of SQL Server 2005, Microsoft has moved the goal posts quite a bit by allowing queries to be written in any of the .NET languages (C#, VB.NET, and so on), as well as in traditional SQL. For more information about using a .NET language this way, visit the SQL Server 2005 Web site at `http://www.microsoft.com/sql/2005/default.mspx`. You can also refer to *Pro SQL Server 2005* by Louis Davidson (1-59059-477-0; Apress, 2005).

If you think XML may be your calling, then you also have a third option. The World Wide Web Commission (W3C) has been working on an XML-based database querying language for some time. XQuery is still a working draft—the biggest the commission has ever created—but will be pretty solid when it's finished. The big companies such as Microsoft, IBM, and Oracle are all working on this with the W3C, so it will be well supported. For more details, go to `http://www.w3.org/XML/Query`.

Stored Procedures

Most relational database servers allow you to store SQL queries along with the databases they query. These are known as *stored procedures*, and they allow you to insulate the application developer from the intricacies of your database. After all, if all the developer is after is a list of Manufacturers from the database, does she really need to know that the table is called Manufacturer and then issue the `SELECT` query against that table to return the required columns?

Stored procedures allow you to create something like a `GetManufacturers` stored procedure and let the developer use that. Rather than the `SELECT` query itself, the page now sends a call to a stored procedure on the database, along with any parameter values it may require, just as you call a method on an object.

You'll look at using stored procedures in much greater detail in Chapter 10.

Indexes

While constraints help ensure that any modifications to the database don't disturb the validity of the data it contains, and so potentially slow down the rate at which you interact with a database, the aim of indexes is to increase the rate at which you can retrieve information. Consider a situation where you want to find all the references to SQL Server in this book. You could read this book from cover to cover and write them all down, or (if the publisher has done a particularly good job) you could turn to the back of the book, look in the index under SQL Server, and turn to the pages listed under that entry. The second method—using an index—is obviously a lot faster, and a database index works in the same way for the same reason.

Consider a situation where you want to retrieve information about all the Manufacturers who are based in Japan. Even with just ten Manufacturers, the database must work through all of the rows to make sure it has found all the entries that fit the criteria before returning the results to the page. As you can see in Figure 2-19, this search returns only two Manufacturers.

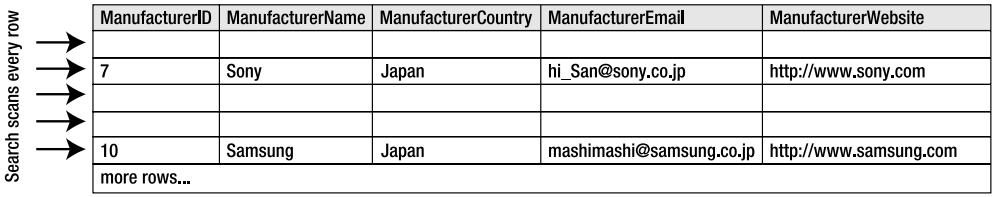


Figure 2-19. *Scanning through a table without an index*

By asking it to create an index on the ManufacturerCountry column of the Manufacturer table (the ManufacturerCountry column is to referred to as the *index key* in this context), the database server makes available to any searches an ordered list of the values in the ManufacturerCountry column. Essentially, this works in the same way the index in the back of a book works. When it needs to look up a Manufacturer, the search knows that titles are ordered alphabetically in the index you've created, so it just looks under *J*, finds the Manufacturers that have Japan as the location, and follows the index links to the correct rows. Rather than search through all of the rows in the Manufacturer table, it looks through two, as shown in Figure 2-20.

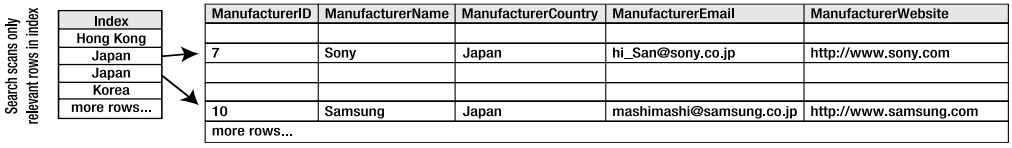


Figure 2-20. *Scanning through a table with an index*

Database indexes work exclusively behind the scenes, and aside from adding and removing indexes, you never need to reference them in your code. If an index exists it will be used automatically.

Adding the right indexes to the right tables can significantly improve performance. If you frequently issue a query that requests information to be ordered on or grouped by a certain column, it makes sense to add an index to the database based on that column.

Of course, there are always downsides. The database server must maintain every index added to the database, which means a performance hit if items are frequently added, deleted, or changed. With each modification, the server must first make that change, see if it affects any index, and then update the index if it does. That's three operations per modification. An index also consumes a fair amount of additional disk space. Therefore, overusing indexes has downsides, especially when they contain large amounts of data.

The power of indexes is in creating them wisely. For example, the effectiveness of an index whose index key column contains values that are usually the same will be much less than one where the values are unique. Consider also that a database server silently copies all the values in a nonclustered index (the default type, as described in the next section) key column in order to sort them and maintain the index. Therefore, choosing a column for the index key that contains sizable values (in other words, values that require a lot of storage) will increase the resources

needed by the database and make it slower to use. The same is true of indexing a column that changes regularly, as every change requires the index to be altered.

Where possible, you should choose integer columns as indexes over those that are text-based. You should also avoid adding indexes on columns that change regularly.

Types of Index

You can add several kinds of indexes to a database:

Simple index: A simple index uses only one column as the index key.

Composite index: A composite index uses two or more columns in its index key.

Nonclustered index: A nonclustered index contains a list of index key columns in the correct order with links to the actual rows in the table (see Figure 2-20).

Clustered index: This is the most important kind of index in a database. It determines the order in which rows in a table are stored in the database. Because the clustered index changes the ordering of the rows in the table, you can have only one clustered index per table. Creating a primary key column in a table automatically creates a simple clustered index using the primary key column as the index key.

Unique index: A unique index ensures that values in the index key columns are unique, as well as orders them.

Simple and composite indexes are mutually exclusive, but you can create nonclustered, clustered, and unique indexes with one or more columns in the index key.

In the sample database, you'll add a simple index to the Manufacturer table using the ManufacturerCountry column as the index key. With only a few records in the table itself, this will have a small effect on performance, but it's important to know how to add indexes to your databases.

Try It Out: Adding Indexes in SQL Server 2005

In this example, you'll add a simple index to the ManufacturerCountry column in the Manufacturer table of the database using SQL Server Management Studio. Follow these steps:

1. Start SQL Server Management Studio. Connect to the `localhost\BAND` server using the login details that you used in the first example.
2. Expand the Databases node in Object Explorer. Expand the Players database, and then expand the Tables node.
3. Right-click the Manufacturer table and select Modify from the context menu.
4. Right-click in the table definition window and select Indexes/Keys from the context menu to open the Indexes/Keys dialog box.
5. Click Add to create a new index. Under the Identity grouping, enter **IX_ManufacturerCountry** as the index's Name, as shown in Figure 2-21.

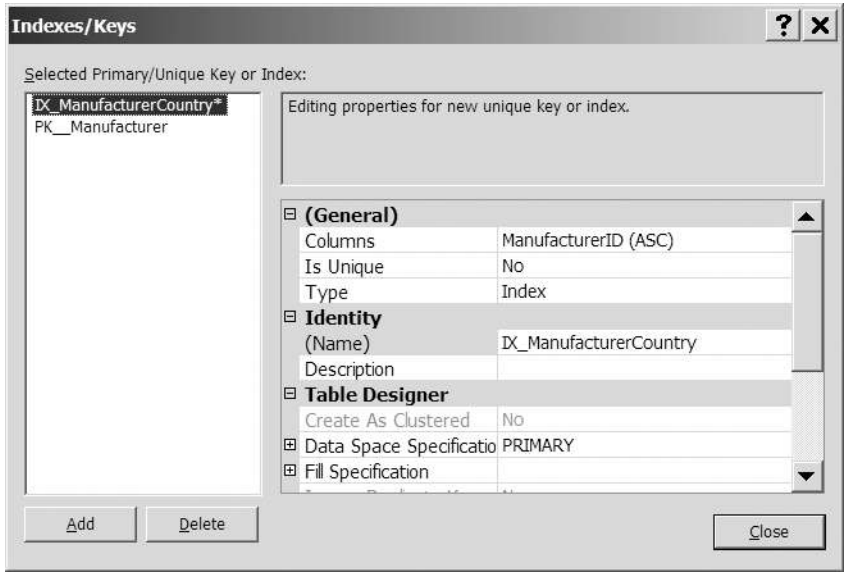


Figure 2-21. *The Indexes/Keys dialog box*

6. Click the Columns property under the (General) grouping, and then click the ellipsis in the right column.

7. In the Index Columns dialog box, select ManufacturerCountry from the Column Name drop-down list, as shown in Figure 2-22.

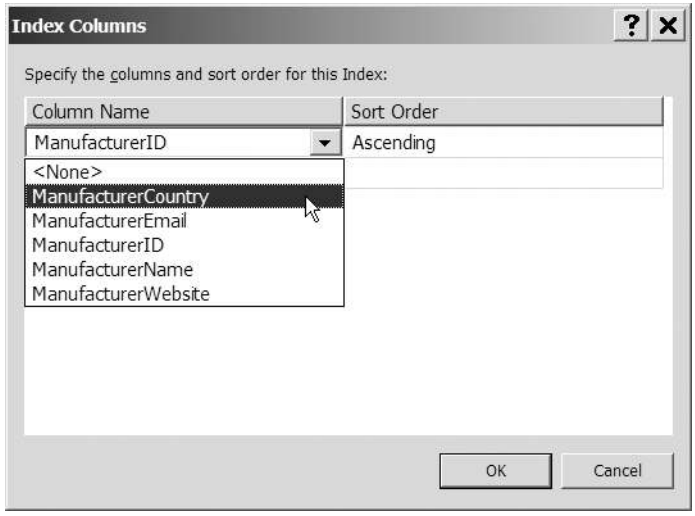


Figure 2-22. *Selecting the column for an index*

8. Click OK to close the Index Columns dialog box.

9. Click Close to close the Indexes/Keys dialog box.

10. Click Save on the toolbar to save the changes to the database.

11. In the Object Explorer, expand the Manufacturer table node, and then expand the Indexes node, as shown in Figure 2-23. (You may need to refresh the node, by right-clicking Indexes and select Refresh from the context menu, to see the two indexes that are present on the table.)

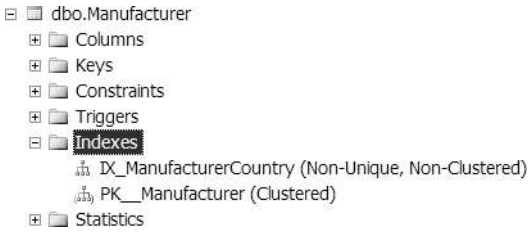


Figure 2-23. *Indexes can be viewed in Object Explorer.*

How It Works

As you can see, creating an index using SQL Server Management Studio is very simple. You give it a name, and then specify the columns that you want to include in the index. SQL Server Management Studio deals with sending the correct queries to the database to create the index. We'll look at the SQL queries for creating database indexes in Chapter 11, but for the curious, what is actually sent is as follows:

```
CREATE INDEX IX_ManufacturerCountry
ON Manufacturer (ManufacturerCountry)
```

If you need to create a clustered or unique index, you use the query `CREATE CLUSTERED INDEX` or `CREATE UNIQUE INDEX`, respectively. A nonclustered index is the default for the `CREATE INDEX` query, but you could have used `CREATE NONCLUSTERED INDEX` to accomplish the same thing.

In the same way, the indexes you create from the Indexes/Keys dialog box are nonclustered by default. The Indexes/Keys dialog box allows you to create all three index types (nonclustered, clustered, and unique), and it provides a bit of logic to prevent you from making any simple errors. In Figure 2-21, you see two options that allow you to alter the index that you're adding: Is Unique and Create As Clustered. However, since you already have a clustered index on the table (for the ManufacturerID primary key), the Create As Clustered option is disabled.

You can also delete indexes by selecting the index in the Indexes/Keys dialog box and selecting Delete.

■ **Note** You'll notice that in the very last step of this example, you explicitly clicked the Save button to save the changes to the database. SQL Server Management Studio allows you to modify the database tables and doesn't automatically save changes to the database structure. This prevents any errors that you may make from affecting data that you don't really want to change. To keep the changes that you've made, you must explicitly save the changes. If you try to close the table without doing so, SQL Server Management Studio will prompt for you to save the changes.

Try It Out: Adding Indexes in MySQL 5.0

In this example, you'll add a simple index to the ManufacturerCountry column in the Manufacturer table of the database using MySQL Query Browser. Follow these steps:

1. Open MySQL Query Browser, if it isn't already running. Connect to the `localhost` server using the login details that you used earlier.
2. Expand the Players database in the Schemata pane.
3. Right-click the Manufacturer table and select Edit Table to open the Table Editor dialog box. The Indices tab in the lower half of the dialog box allows you to create, edit, and delete any indexes on this table. Initially, it displays the primary key index created automatically when you first built the table, as shown in Figure 2-24.

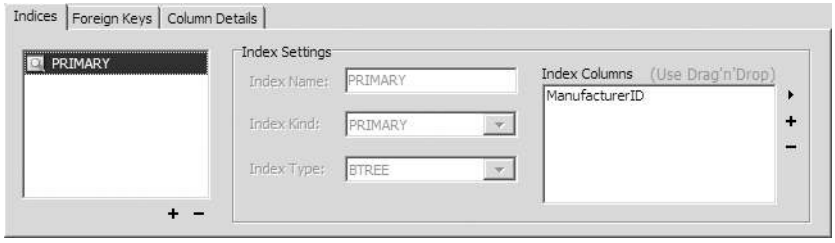


Figure 2-24. *The Indices tab in MySQL Query Browser*

4. To add the index, click the plus sign under the list of indexes. A dialog box pops up and asks for the name of the new index. Type **IX_ManufacturerCountry**, and then click OK.
5. The new index now appears in the list of indexes. This index contains only the ManufacturerCountry column. Select the column from the column list at the top of the dialog box and drag it to the Index Columns box at the bottom of the dialog box. The new index should now look like Figure 2-25.

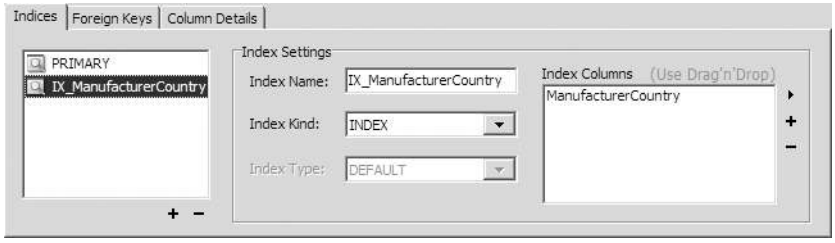


Figure 2-25. *Building an index for MySQL 5.0*

6. Click Apply Changes to save the changes to the database, and then click Execute in the Confirm Table Edit dialog box.
7. Click Close to close the Table Editor dialog box.

How It Works

The two distinctly different methods with which you created this simple index in the two databases demonstrates nicely that, although you use a graphical tool to work with the database, all the tool actually does is generate some SQL in the background to send to the database. SQL Server Management Studio hides this from you completely, whereas MySQL Query Browser shows you the SQL that is going to be executed (in the Confirm Table Edit dialog box).

Although SQL Server Management Studio executes a `CREATE INDEX` query to create the index, MySQL Query Browser uses an `ALTER TABLE` query:

```
ALTER TABLE players.manufacturer
  ADD INDEX IX_ManufacturerCountry(ManufacturerCountry)
```

This `ALTER TABLE` query is functionally equivalent to the `CREATE INDEX` query that you saw earlier. In fact, the `CREATE INDEX` query works equally well in MySQL 5.0, as you'll see in Chapter 11 when we look at the SQL queries for creating database indexes.

Relationships Between Tables

Ironically, the term *relational databases* was coined because this kind of database was developed using mathematical set theory—a relation is a part of set theory—rather than because you can create relationships between tables. Regardless, this ability is one of the core concepts in relational databases.

Tables are said to have a *relationship* between them if the records they contain are somehow associated with each other. For example, a Player is "built by" a Manufacturer and "supports" different Formats. Thus, in a database, a Player table would have a relationship with a Manufacturer table and a Format table.

When you design databases to drive an application, you should strive to build relationships between the objects and events modeled by the various tables you've established. This allows you to bind the data closer together, make it easier to update, and allow the database to help you establish whether new changes are valid.

Suppose that your database includes a second table called Player, which contains details of various Players built by the Manufacturers listed in the Manufacturer table. The initial design of the table, with various flaws that we'll look at shortly, is shown in Figure 2-26.

PlayerID	PlayerName	PlayerManufacturer	PlayerCost	PlayerStorage	PlayerFormats
1	iPod Shuffle	Apple	99.00	Solid State	wav, mp3, aac
2	MuVo V200	Creative	96.00	Solid State	mp3, wma
3	iFP-700 Series	iRiver	149.00	Solid State	mp3, wma, asf, ogg
4	iFP-900 Series	iRiver	199.00	Solid State	mp3, wma, asf, ogg
5	MegaPlayer 521	MSI	93.00	Solid State	wav, mp3, wma
more rows...					

Figure 2-26. *The Player table*

The Players detailed in this table have a relationship to several other tables in the database. Every Player needs a Manufacturer to build it, and each Player supports one or more Formats.

The PlayerManufacturer column details which Manufacturer builds the Player. This looks okay, but hang on a minute; it's not terribly efficient. The following two problems spring to mind:

What happens if a Manufacturer changes its name? Suppose that a Manufacturer changes its name, say from iRiver to iStream. Potentially, you would need to look through every row in the Player table and any other tables in the database that are related to the Manufacturer table and change any reference to iRiver. If you miss an entry, and then a page looks up details for iRiver, it won't exist according to the database because it has changed its name. Things could easily start to go wrong.

What happens if a Manufacturer ceases to exist? A Manufacturer may go out of business or get bought by someone else. In this case, you might delete the row in the Manufacturer table while Players in the Player table still have references to the Manufacturer. This doesn't make sense.

Fortunately, it's easy to fix this so that, if a Manufacturer changes its name, all you need to do is change the name in the Manufacturer table. Likewise, it's easy to make sure that the computer checks whether it's valid to delete data still used by other tables. It's just a matter of creating the right relationship between the two tables and creating the right foreign key constraint over the relationship.

Establishing a relationship between tables usually means copying one table's primary key column into the second table. At this point, it becomes a *foreign key*—foreign because it isn't directly relevant to the object or event the second table models. Values of a foreign key must be drawn from the table where it's the primary key. It makes no sense for a foreign key to contain a value that doesn't identify a row in the other table.

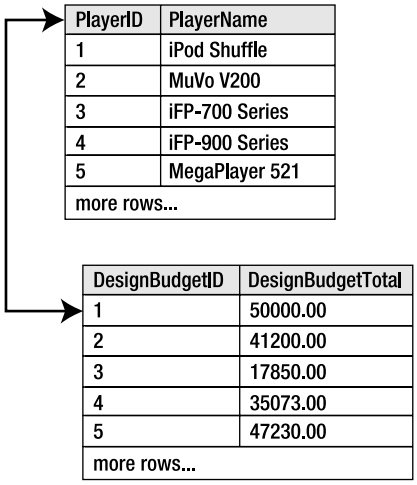
Types of Relationship

Three types of relationships exist: one-to-one, one-to-many, and many-to-many. It's quite important that you understand how each of them works.

One-to-One Relationships

When a row in one table can be associated with just one row in another table, and a row in that table can be associated with only one row in the first table, those two tables are said to have a *one-to-one* (1:1) relationship. For example, a Player can have only one design budget, and a design budget is specific to a particular Player. Thus, a table containing Players has a one-to-one relationship to a table containing design budgets.

To establish this relationship in a relational database, the primary key in one table is copied across to become the primary key of the second table, as shown in Figure 2-27. To determine which design budget belongs to which Player, you just use the value of the primary key as a reference.



PlayerID	PlayerName
1	iPod Shuffle
2	MuVo V200
3	iFP-700 Series
4	iFP-900 Series
5	MegaPlayer 521
more rows...	

DesignBudgetID	DesignBudgetTotal
1	50000.00
2	41200.00
3	17850.00
4	35073.00
5	47230.00
more rows...	

Figure 2-27. *Player and DesignBudget tables in a one-to-one relationship*

One-to-Many Relationships

When a single row in one table can be associated with many rows in another table, but a single row in that table can be associated with only a single row in the first table, you have a *one-to-many* (1:n) relationship. This fits in with the Player and Manufacturer example from earlier. A Manufacturer can build many Players, but a Player can be built by only one Manufacturer at a time.

To establish this relationship, you need to copy the primary key from the table on the "one" side—in this example, the Manufacturer table—and use it as a foreign key in the "many" table—the Player table, as shown in Figure 2-28. To determine who built the Player, you use the PlayerManufacturerID in the Player table to look up the name in the Manufacturer table.

ManufacturerID	ManufacturerName	ManufacturerCountry	ManufacturerEmail	ManufacturerWebsite
1	Apple	USA	lackey@apple.com	http://www.apple.com
2	Creative	Singapore	someguy@creative.com	http://www.creative.com
3	iRiver	Korea	knockknock@iriver.com	http://www.river.com
4	MSI	Taiwan	hello@miscomputer.co.uk	http://www.miscomputer.co.uk
5	Rio	USA	Greetings@rio.com	http://www.rio.com
more rows...				

PlayerID	PlayerName	PlayerManufacturerID	PlayerCost	PlayerStorage	PlayerFormats
1	iPod Shuffle	1	99.00	Solid State	wav, mp3, aac
2	MuVo V200	2	96.00	Solid State	mp3, wma
3	iFP-700 Series	2	149.00	Solid State	mp3, wma, asf, ogg
4	iFP-900 Series	3	199.00	Solid State	mp3, wma, asf, ogg
5	MegaPlayer 521	4	93.00	Solid State	wav, mp3, wma
more rows...					

Figure 2-28. *Establishing a one-to-many relationship*

Every Player now points to one place where Manufacturer details are stored. If you change the details in the Manufacturer table, they're changed for every Player as well.

Many-to-Many Relationships

The third type of relationship between tables occurs when rows in one table can be associated with many rows in another, and when rows in that other table can be associated with many rows in the first table. In this case, the two tables are said to have a *many-to-many* (m:n) relationship. In our example, this is certainly the case of the relationship between Players and the Formats that they support. A Player can support multiple Formats, and a Format may be supported by multiple Players.

In Figure 2-28, the Player table contains a column called PlayerFormats. An alarm should already be ringing, because the column name is plural. Columns should contain single pieces of information, rather than several. So then, say that every Player has only one supported Format. If that were the case, you would create a new table called Format, which is in a one-to-many relationship with the Player table, much as in Figure 2-29.

FormatID	FormatName
1	wav
2	mp3
3	aac
4	wma
5	asf
6	ogg
7	atrac
8	aiff
more rows...	

PlayerID	PlayerName	PlayerManufacturerID	PlayerCost	PlayerStorage	PlayerFormatID
1	iPod Shuffle	1	99.00	Solid State	1
2	MuVo V200	2	96.00	Solid State	2
3	iFP-700 Series	2	149.00	Solid State	2
4	iFP-900 Series	3	199.00	Solid State	2
5	MegaPlayer 521	4	93.00	Solid State	1
more rows...					

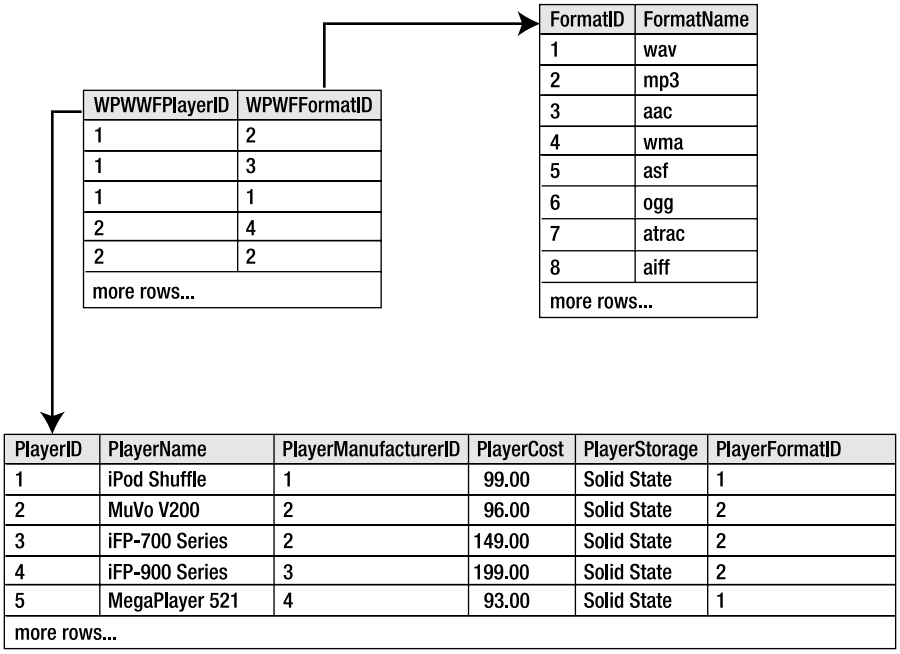
Figure 2-29. *If Players supported only one Format, this would be correct.*

Of course, most Players support more than one Format. But how many? You could add a couple more columns to the Player table to account for a Player supporting two or three Formats, but what happens when you have a fourth? This relationship is still unresolved. Logic dictates there has to be a better solution than this, and there is.

Databases cannot express a many-to-many relationship directly. A many-to-many relationship is modeled as two one-to-many relationships. To express this many-to-many relationship

properly, you remove PlayerFormat columns from the Player table, and you create a *link table* (with its own name—for example, WhatPlaysWhatFormat) that contains at least two columns: one for each of the two table's primary keys, as shown in Figure 2-30.

To discover which Formats a Player supports, you now look up the PlayerID in the link table and follow all the FormatIDs associated to the Player for the details. You just need to be aware that the PlayerID will occur in several rows in the link table—one for each supported Format. The combination of the two foreign keys, WPWFPlayerID and WPWFFormatID, is then used as the primary key for the table.



WPWWFPlayerID	WPWFFormatID
1	2
1	3
1	1
2	4
2	2
more rows...	

FormatID	FormatName
1	wav
2	mp3
3	aac
4	wma
5	asf
6	ogg
7	atrac
8	aiff
more rows...	

PlayerID	PlayerName	PlayerManufacturerID	PlayerCost	PlayerStorage	PlayerFormatID
1	iPod Shuffle	1	99.00	Solid State	1
2	MuVo V200	2	96.00	Solid State	2
3	iFP-700 Series	2	149.00	Solid State	2
4	iFP-900 Series	3	199.00	Solid State	2
5	MegaPlayer 521	4	93.00	Solid State	1
more rows...					

Figure 2-30. *Using a link table to model a many-to-many relationship*

Foreign Keys and Foreign Key Constraints

To model any of the three kinds of relationship between two tables, you create a column in one table that contains only the values from the primary key in another. For example, in Figure 2-30, you reference the primary key column PlayerID from the Player table in the WhatPlaysWhatFormat table as the WPWFPlayerID column. WPWFPlayerID is known as a *foreign key* column.

■ **Note** A foreign key is a column that references values of a primary key in another table. If the primary key is a composite one, the foreign key may also consist of more than one column.

This all makes sense, but what keeps track of these relationships as you build them? After all, the foreign key column is just another column. When you start adding, changing, and deleting data to and from those related tables, do you need to keep making sure that the data makes sense according to those relationships, or can you get the database to do it for you? Say, for example, you delete a Player from the Player table. What happens to the entries relating to that Player in the WhatPlaysWhatFormat table? They don't reference a Player anymore, so do you delete those entries, too? Do you set them to null?

If the data in a database remains valid and obeys the rules and relationships set out over the tables containing it, then the integrity of the database is intact. If you delete a Player, that integrity isn't intact, because the WhatPlaysWhatFormat table now references a Player that has been deleted. How do you manage this and restore the (referential) integrity of the database?

The answer lies in the fifth type of constraint I mentioned earlier in the section about properties and constraints: a *foreign key constraint*. By applying this kind of constraint to the two columns concerned, you can lay out exactly how the database will react when you delete an entry from the table containing the primary key in a relationship. A foreign key constraint lets you define three particular things:

- Which columns are the primary key and the foreign key
- If the database should check newly entered data against this constraint
- If the database should enforce this constraint when data in either column is modified or deleted, and if so, what the database should do about it

By default, the database won't allow you to violate the integrity of the database by modifying or deleting information, but you can reverse this so that either the action is just allowed (and the database's integrity is violated) or the database updates/deletes the appropriate rows in the corresponding tables. This is known as *cascading changes* between the tables in the relationship, and any changes to the table containing the primary key will cause the data in the other tables to be modified. If you delete a row that is the primary key in the relationship, then any rows that reference that primary key are also deleted. If you update a primary key, then all rows that reference that foreign key are updated with the new key value. In the majority of cases, you won't use cascading changes in your database.

Now you'll look at relationships in practice by adding some tables to your sample database, and then creating some constraints to enforce the relationships between the tables. In the previous set of examples, you saw how to build a single table—the Manufacturer table—and add some data to it. The next step is to build the remaining three tables—Player, Format, and WhatPlaysWhatFormat—and then add the appropriate foreign key constraints that ensure their relationships are maintained and the integrity of the data within them stays intact.

You'll add three foreign key constraints to your database. The first is between the Manufacturer and Player table and will strengthen the one-to-many relationship between Players and their Manufacturers. The second and third will strengthen the many-to-many relationship between Players and their supported Formats using the WhatPlaysWhatFormat table as the middleman.

Figure 2-31 illustrates the relationships between the different tables. This relationship diagram was drawn using the built-in tools in SQL Server Management Studio, which we'll look at shortly.

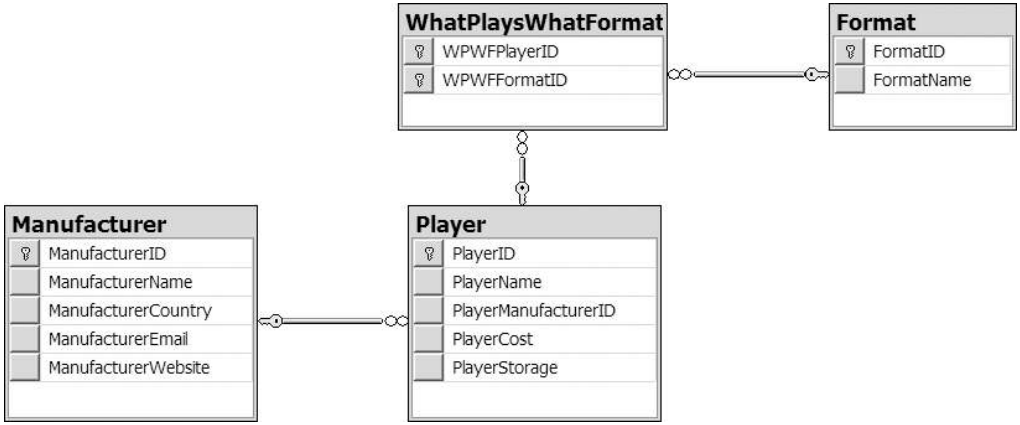


Figure 2-31. *The relationships between the tables in the database*

Try It Out: Adding Relationships in SQL Server 2005

In this example, you'll add two relationships to the SQL Server 2005 database. Of course, first you need to add the other tables. To create the remaining three tables, follow the steps again in the "Try It Out: Creating a Table in SQL Server 2005" section, but use the table information for the other tables as listed in Appendix D.

Follow these steps to add the relationships:

1. Start SQL Server Management Studio. Connect to the `localhost\BAND` server using the login details that you used earlier.
2. In the Object Explorer, expand the Databases node, then the Players database, and then the Tables node.
3. Right-click the Player table and select Modify from the context menu.
4. Right-click in the table definition window and select Relationships from the context menu to open the Foreign Key Relationships dialog box. Click the Add button to create a new relationship. This adds a new relationship to the dialog box, as shown in Figure 2-32.
5. Click the ellipsis button in the right column of the Tables and Columns Specification node under the (General) option to open the Tables and Columns dialog box.
6. Select Manufacturer as the primary key table and ManufacturerID as the primary key. For the foreign key, select PlayerManufacturerID. Your dialog box should look like Figure 2-33.

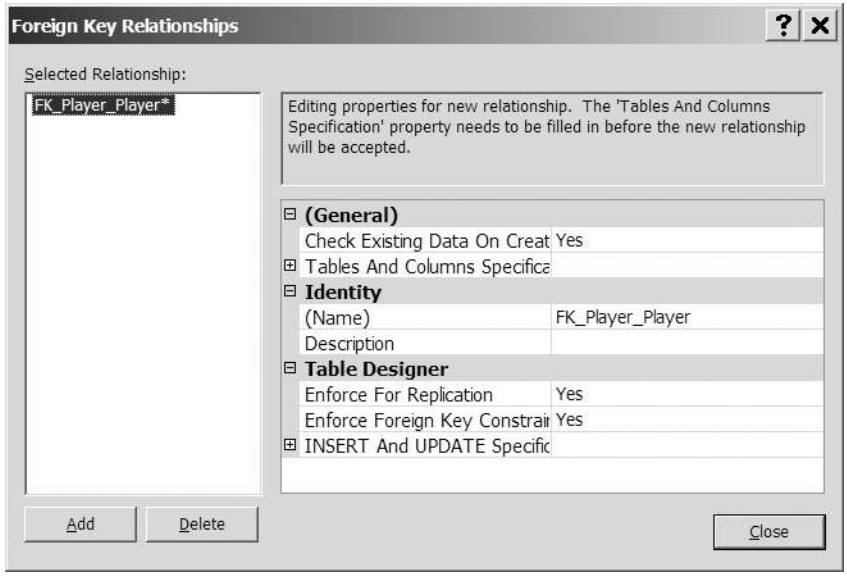


Figure 2-32. *The Foreign Key Relationships dialog box*

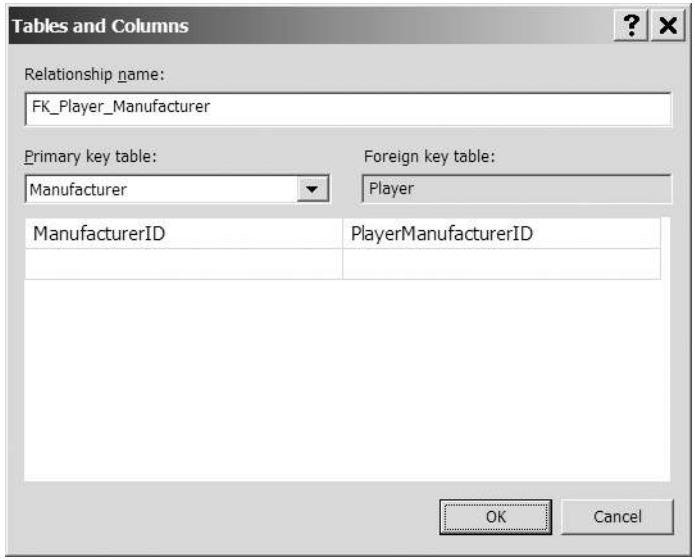


Figure 2-33. *The Tables and Columns dialog box*

7. Click OK to close the Tables and Columns dialog box.

8. In the Foreign Key Relationships dialog box, expand the Tables and Columns Specification node under the (General) option. You'll see the details for the relationship, as shown in Figure 2-34.

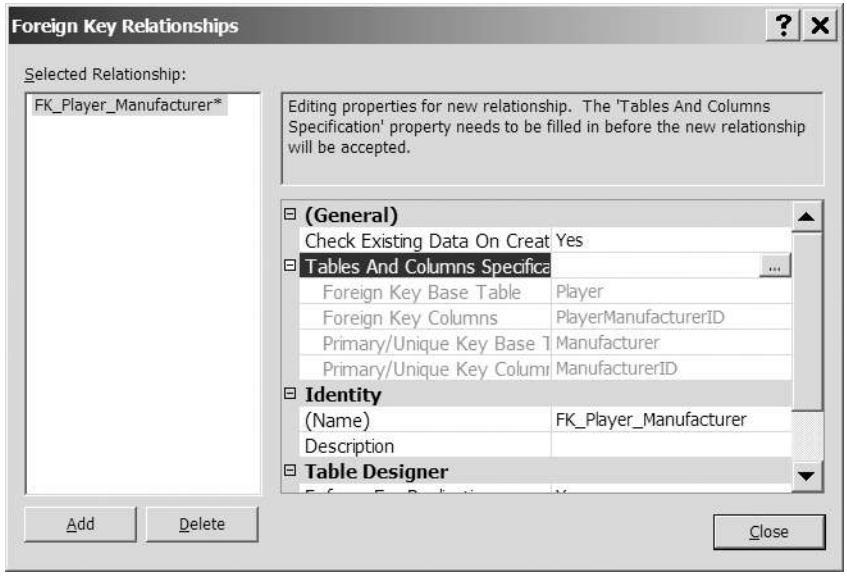


Figure 2-34. *Relationship information can be viewed directly.*

9. Click Close to close the Foreign Key Relationships dialog box, and then click Save on the toolbar to save the changes to the database. In the Save dialog box, click Yes to confirm the changes.

10. In the Object Explorer, expand the Player table node, and then expand the Keys node, as shown in Figure 2-35. (You may need to refresh the node, by selecting Refresh from the Keys context menu, to see that the relationship has been added to the table.)

Figure 2-35. *Relationships can be viewed in Object Explorer.*

11. From the Object Explorer, open the table definition for the WhatPlaysWhatFormat table, and then open the Foreign Key Relationships dialog box.

12. Click Add to create a new relationship, and open the Tables and Columns dialog box for the new relationship.

13. Select Player as the primary key table and PlayerID as the primary key column.

14. Select WPWFPlayerID as the foreign key.

15. In the second row, select <NONE> for the foreign key instead of WPWFFormatID.

16. Click OK to complete the relationship, and then click Close to close the Foreign Key Relationships dialog box.

17. Click Save on the toolbar to save the changes to the database, confirming the changes as required. If you now expand the Keys node under the WhatPlaysWhatFormat table, you'll see that the new relationship has been created.

How It Works

This example demonstrated how easy it is to create relationships using the graphical tools provided by SQL Server Management Studio. You created two relationships with very little work. The only thing that you need to remember is that the relationship is added to the foreign key side of the relationship; the relationship between the Manufacturer table and the Player table is added to the Player table, as this table contains the foreign key.

The eagle-eyed among you will notice that you created only two relationships, when I said there would be three relationships. You'll see how to add a relationship between the Format and WhatPlaysWhatFormat tables when we look at another way of creating relationships with database diagrams.

When we look at DDL queries in detail in Chapter 11, you'll appreciate how much work SQL Server Management Studio is doing on your behalf. For each relationship, SQL Server Management Studio is creating an `ALTER TABLE` query and executing this against the database. For example, the Manufacture to Player relationship is created using the following SQL query:

```
ALTER TABLE dbo.Player
ADD CONSTRAINT FK_Player_Manufacturer
FOREIGN KEY (PlayerManufacturerID)
REFERENCES dbo.Manufacturer (ManufacturerID)
```

I'm sure you'll agree that the graphical tools make this process a lot less painful than having to create a SQL query like this. As you'll see shortly, database diagrams make it even simpler to create a relationship.

Although we've not explicitly looked at editing and deleting existing relationships, it is a painless task and can be accomplished from the Foreign Key Relationships dialog box. Selecting an existing relationship will allow you to edit the details for the relationship. You can choose to delete the relationship by clicking the Delete button.

Try It Out: Adding Relationships in MySQL 5.0

In this example, you'll add all three relationships to the MySQL 5.0 database. Unlike SQL Server Management Studio, MySQL Query Browser doesn't provide a diagramming tool, so you need to design all the relationships using the Table Editor dialog box.

Again, you first need to create the other tables. To create the remaining three tables, follow the steps again in the "Try It Out: Creating a Table in MySQL 5.0" sections, but use the table information for the other tables as listed in Appendix D.

Follow these steps to add the relationships:

1. Open MySQL Query Browser if it isn't already running and connect to the `localhost` server using the login details that you used earlier.
2. Expand the Players database in the Schemata pane.
3. Right-click the Player table and select Edit Table to open the Table Editor dialog box. The Foreign Keys tab in the lower half of the dialog box allows you to create, edit, and delete any foreign keys on this table. Initially, it will not contain any relationships, as shown in Figure 2-36.

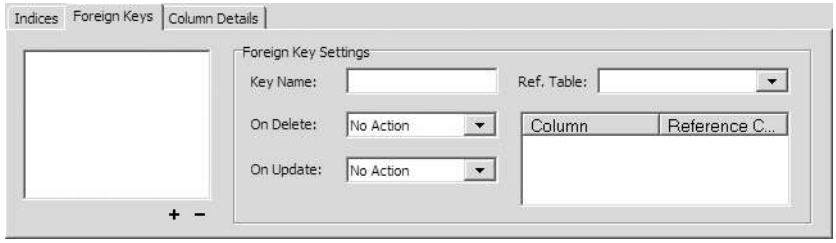


Figure 2-36. *The Foreign Keys tab in MySQL Query Browser*

4. To add the relationship, click the plus sign under the list of foreign keys. A dialog box pops up and asks for the name of the new foreign key. Type **FK_Player_Manufacturer**, and then click OK.
5. Select Manufacturer from the Ref. Table drop-down list. The reference column will be populated with ManufacturerID automatically. You need to select PlayerManufacturerID as the column in the list on the right of the tab. You can do this by clicking underneath the Column heading in the list and selecting the column from the drop-down list or by dragging the PlayerManufacturerID column from the column list. The new relationship should now look like Figure 2-37.

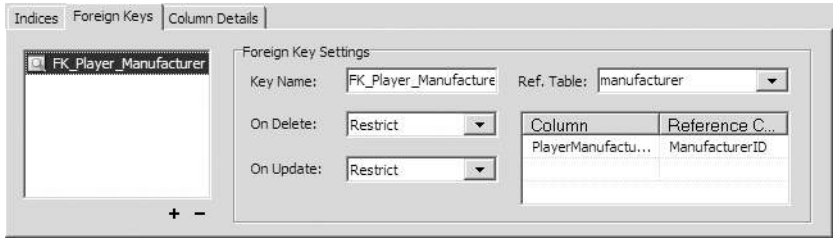


Figure 2-37. *Building a relationship for MySQL*

6. Click Apply Changes to save the changes to the database, and then click Execute in the Confirm Table Edit dialog box.

7. Click Close to close the Table Editor dialog box.
8. Select the WhatPlaysWhatFormat table in the Schemata pane and select Edit Table from the context menu.
9. Switch to the Foreign Keys tab and click the plus icon to create a new relationship.
10. In the Add Foreign Key dialog box, give the relationship the name **FK_WhatPlaysWhatFormat_Player**, and then click OK.
11. Select Player as the Ref. Table and the WPWFPlayerID column as the foreign key column.
12. Add another relationship, and give this one the name **FK_WhatPlaysWhatFormat_Format**.
13. Select Format as the Ref. Table and the WPWFFormatID column as the foreign key column.
14. Click Apply Changes to save the changes to the database, and then click Execute in the Confirm Table Edit dialog box.
15. Click Close to close the Table Editor dialog box.

How It Works

MySQL Query Browser makes it quite easy to create relationships between tables without needing to remember the syntax of the `ALTER TABLE` query. You can see the exact queries that are being executed. If you compare the queries that it executes against the basic `ALTER TABLE` query, shown in the description of how adding relationships to SQL Server 2005 works, you'll begin to appreciate more fully how well the graphical tools shield you from the SQL. We'll come back to the `ALTER TABLE` query in Chapter 11.

Although both tools are creating the same relationships, MySQL 5.0 works in a slightly different way and requires an index on every column that participates in a relationship. And not just any index—the column that is referenced must be the first column in the index. Thankfully, MySQL 5.0 will automatically create any necessary indexes when it creates the relationships.

If you look at the indexes in the Table Editor dialog box for the Players table, you'll see that an index, FK_Player_Manufacturer, containing the PlayerManufacturerID column, has been added. If you look at the Manufacturer table, you won't see a new index, because the ManufacturerID column is already indexed, as it's the primary key for the table.

The WhatPlaysWhatFormat table is slightly different. Even though both columns are in the primary key, and so are already indexed, an extra index has been created. MySQL 5.0 requires that the column must be the first column in the index, and as the existing index contains two columns, it can't be fully used for the relationship. If you look at the PRIMARY index, you'll see that the WPWFFormatID column is the first column in the index, so it can be used for the relationship. MySQL 5.0 has added a new index, FK_WhatPlaysWhatFormat_Player, containing the WPWFPlayerID column, as shown in Figure 2-38.

Earlier versions of MySQL required you to manually add the indexes before you could add relationships, and an error was thrown if the correct indexes were not in place. Thankfully, you don't need to remember to add the indexes now, as MySQL 5.0 will do it for you. It will throw an error if you try to delete an index that is required for a relationship.

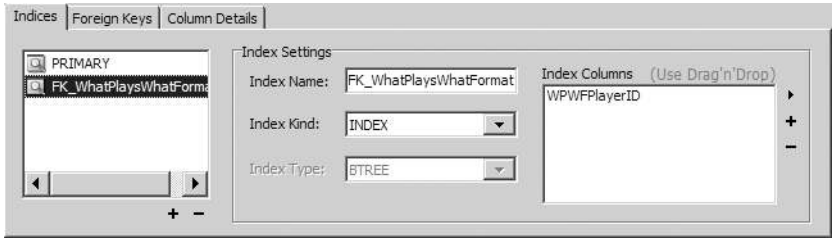


Figure 2-38. *Composite primary keys require a separate index when they are in a relationship.*

Database Diagrams

It's time for a quick aside before leaving the topic of relationships. Consider a situation where you want to share with others how you've designed the structure of the tables in your database and how they relate. You could write a document containing descriptions of each table, the columns they contain, and the relationships you've established between them, but that's a bit long-winded. Alternatively, you can prepare a relationship diagram for the database.

It's said that a picture is worth a thousand words, and in this case, that's true. A relationship diagram allows you to capture all this information in one fell swoop, and it can be handy to know how to use them. SQL Server Management Studio allows you to build tables in a database, and then create relationship diagrams for those tables. As you do so, the relationships you draw are then enforced by the databases as they generate the appropriate constraints to match your diagram.

Unfortunately, MySQL Query Browser doesn't support database diagrams. When you use that tool, you'll need to stick to creating a document that details each table, the columns they contain, and the relationships between the tables.

In the following examples, you'll use the diagramming facilities of SQL Server Management Studio to create a database diagram showing the relationships that you've already added. You'll then add the final relationship graphically.

Try It Out: Creating a Database Diagram in SQL Server 2005

Follow these steps to create a database diagram:

1. Start SQL Server Management Studio and connect to the `localhost\BAND` server using the login details that you used in earlier examples.

2. Expand the Databases node in Object Explorer, and then expand the Players database. Right-click the Database Diagram node and select New Database Diagram from the context menu.

3. If this is the first time that you've tried to view the Database Diagrams node, you'll receive a message informing you that some necessary database objects are missing, as shown in Figure 2-39. Click Yes to create the necessary objects.

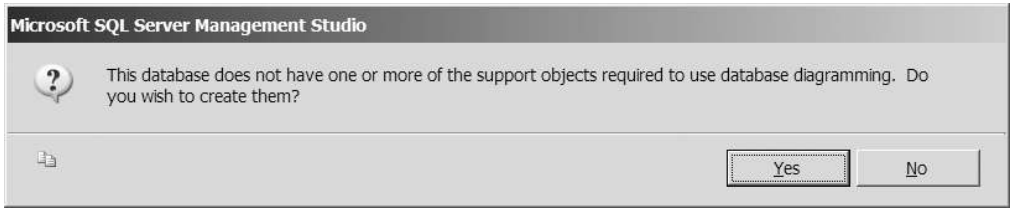


Figure 2-39. *New objects are required to allow database diagramming.*

4. In the Add Table dialog box, select the four tables: Manufacturer, Player, Format, and WhatPlaysWhatFormat. Then click the Add button. This adds all four tables to a new diagram, along with indicators of their relationships, as shown in Figure 2-40 (you may need to drag things around a little to get your diagram to look like this one).

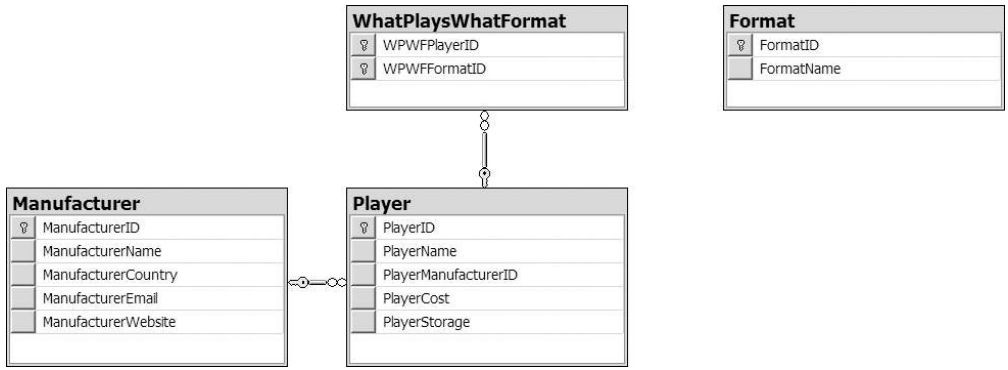


Figure 2-40. *The relationship diagram for the sample database*

5. Click the Save button on the toolbar and give the diagram a name of **Relationships**. You'll see that the diagram is added under the Database Diagrams node.

How It Works

SQL Server Management Studio provides quite a powerful tool for displaying database architectures. The basic diagram that you added shows the database structure at a glance. A database diagram contains the tables that you specify. The default view shows the name of the table, as well as the names of the columns within the table.

The diagram allows you to do a lot more than simply lay out the tables. If you right-click a table in the diagram—for instance, the WhatPlaysWhatFormat table—you'll get an idea of what you can do, as shown in Figure 2-41.

The first thing that you'll notice is that you have access to the Relationships and Indexes/Keys options, which allow you to modify the relationships and indexes that are present on a table.

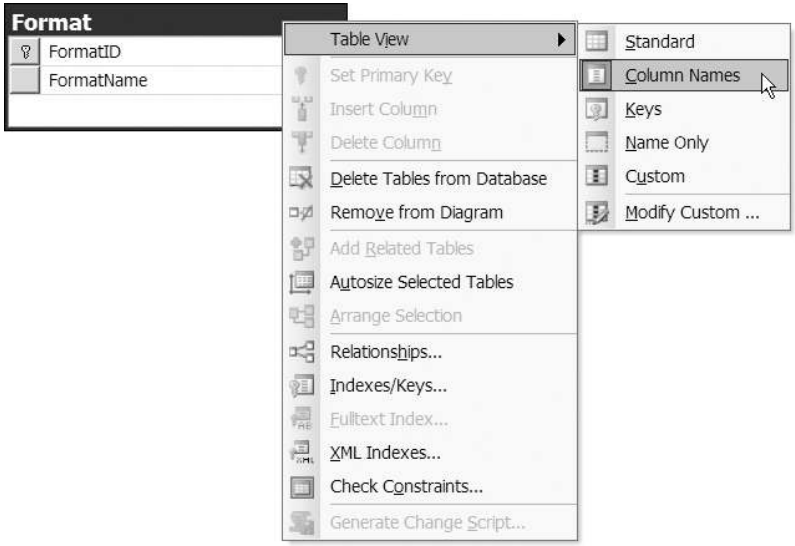


Figure 2-41. *Database diagrams allow you to do a lot more than view the database structure.*

In Figure 2-41, the Table View menu is expanded to show a submenu containing six options. These allow you to see a lot more data about a table than just the names of the columns. For instance, if you select Standard, you'll also see the data type of the column and whether it can allow null values. If you select Modify Custom, you can choose what you see from a list of 15 different properties and constraints.

A database diagram also shows the relationships between the tables on the diagram (if a table has a relationship to another table that isn't on the diagram, you will not see that relationship on the diagram). These are shown as lines between tables. At the ends of each line are a key and an infinity symbol. The table on the key side contains the primary key being used as a foreign key in the table on the infinity symbol side.

It's not immediately obvious, however, to which columns the relationship refers. In order to see this, you must click one of the tables in the relationship and select the Relationships option from the context menu.

Try It Out: Using a Database Diagram to Create a New Relationship in SQL Server 2005

In this example, you'll use the graphical tools provided by SQL Server Management Studio to create the missing relationship in your database. Follow these steps:

1. If you've closed the diagram you created in the last example, open it by double-clicking it in the Object Explorer.

2. Select the key icon next to the FormatID column in the Format table, and then drag your cursor over the WPWFFormatID column of the WhatPlaysWhatFormat table. This adds a plus symbol to the mouse cursor. Once you're sure you've selected the correct

column, release the mouse button. The Tables and Columns dialog box opens, already populated with the correct primary and foreign keys, as shown in Figure 2-42.

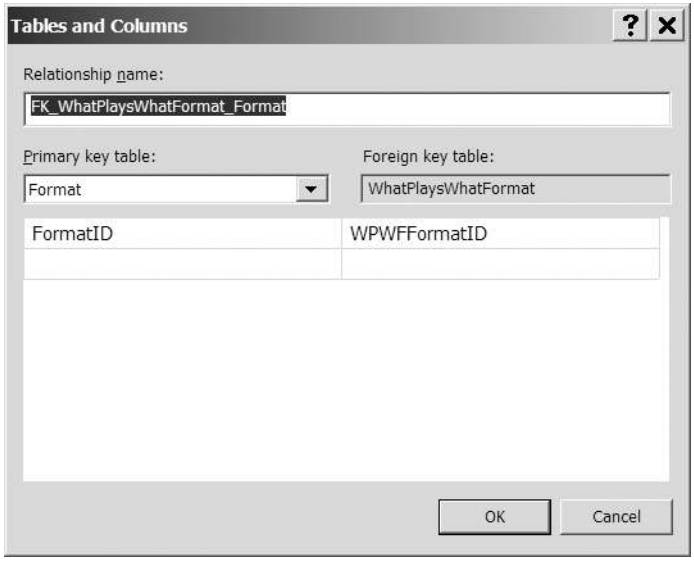


Figure 2-42. *Creating relationships graphically prepopulates the dialog box.*

3. Click OK to close this dialog box, and then click OK to close the Foreign Key Relationship dialog box. As shown in Figure 2-43, the new relationship is created, and the diagram is updated.

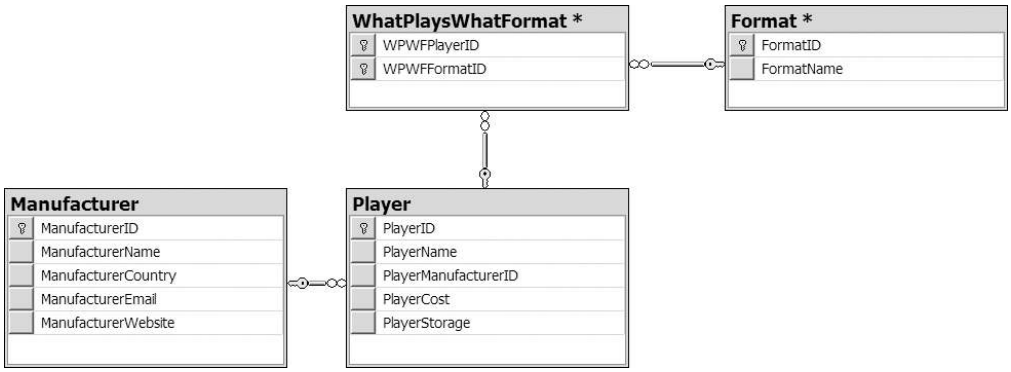


Figure 2-43. *The database with all the relationships completed*

4. Click Save on the toolbar to save the changes to the database.

How It Works

As you saw, creating a relationship by dragging and dropping the primary key over the foreign key is a breeze. By using the graphical tools, you can create relationships between tables in seconds.

Deleting a relationship is also simple. Just right-click the relationship and select Delete Relationship from Database from the context menu.

Users, Roles, and Permissions

Just like any other modern server product or operating system, a database server has a security layer that restricts access to its contents based on the credentials a user or program supplies when logging in. A database server maintains a list of all user accounts that can log in to a specific database, as well as exactly what those users can do to the contents of that database.

All databases are installed with one user already set up: the system administrator. This account, called sa in SQL Server 2005 and root in MySQL 5.0, has the complete run of the system. When logged in as the system administrator, a user or program can back up the system, add data, delete everything, and do whatever, so it's vital that this account is secured properly.

■ **Note** If you've followed the instructions in Appendix A, the system administrator account will have a password of bandpass.

Now it won't come as a surprise to learn that connecting to the database from a page using the system administrator account isn't a good idea. Any malcontents might find a way to hijack the connection to the database through a page, and if you used the system administrator account to make that connection, they would have the run of the system. Instead, you must create your own user accounts for use by your applications. This process has the following three steps:

Add a user account to the database server's user table. You need to give the account a user ID and a password.

Give the account the correct permissions on the application's database. You need to tell the server whether the account is restricted to just retrieving data from the database and whether it can modify data, add data, delete data, or even modify the structure of the database itself.

Give the account any server permissions, if appropriate. An account can also be given varying levels of permissions to work with all the databases being hosted by the server. For example, an account can be given permissions for backing up, securing, and optimizing the databases on the server. Unless you're writing a Web-based data administration application, though, there's no reason to give a user account any of these permissions.

The best rule of thumb when it comes to adding users is to give them the fewest permissions possible to do the job they need to do. You need to use your common sense, evaluate exactly what may need to be done to the database, and connect to a database with a user account with permissions for those specific actions. Any more is wasteful.

You'll now follow this advice and add a new user account called band to access the sample database during the course of the book. In the next few chapters, you'll see how to add, modify, retrieve, and delete information from the database, so those are the permissions you will give it, along with the password letmein.

Try It Out: Creating User Accounts in SQL Server 2005

In this example, you'll create a user account, which you'll use to access your SQL Server 2005 database. Follow these steps:

1. Start SQL Server Management Studio and connect to the `localhost\BAND` server using the login details you used in the earlier examples.
2. Expand the Security node, right-click Logins, and select New Login.
3. Enter a login name of **band** and select the SQL Server Authentication radio button. Enter **letmein** as the password, and then confirm it.
4. Uncheck the Enforce Password Expiration option. Your dialog box should look like Figure 2-44. Click OK to create the login.

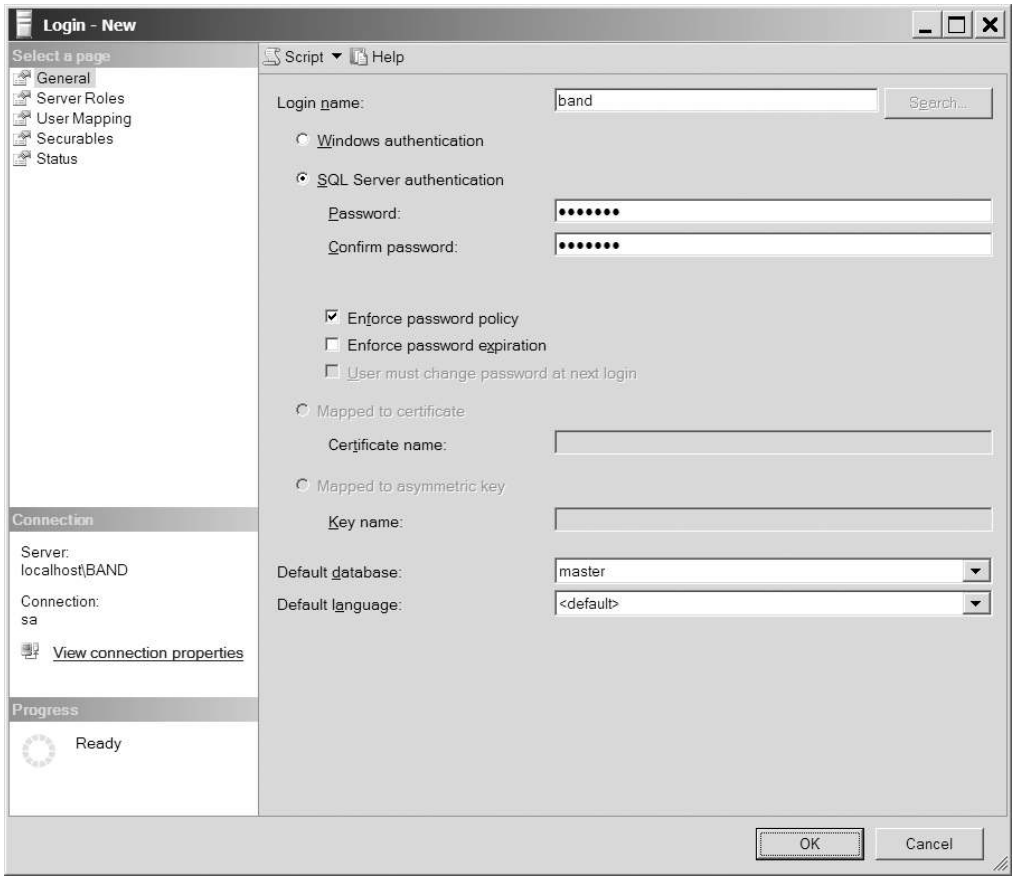


Figure 2-44. *Adding a new login account to the database server*

5. Expand the Logins node to see the new login (you may need to refresh the list from the context menu for the Logins node), as shown in Figure 2-45.

6. Expand the Databases node in Object Explorer, and then expand the Players database.
7. Right-click the Security node, and select New, then User from the context menu.
8. Enter **band** as both the username and login name. Click OK to create the user.

Figure 2-45. *Server access is shown under the Logins node for the server.*

9. Expand the Security node, and then expand the Users node to see that the user has been added to the database (you may need to refresh the list from the context menu for the Logins node) as shown in Figure 2-46.

Figure 2-46. *Database access is shown in the Users node for the database.*

10. Right-click the Players database and select New Query from the context menu.
11. Run the following query to give the user permissions to query the database:

```
GRANT SELECT, INSERT, UPDATE, DELETE TO band
```

How It Works

In this relatively short example, you've performed three different security tasks:

- Created a login called band on the `localhost\BAND` server so that the user can connect to the server. If you stopped at this point, the user would be able to connect to the server but would not be able to access any databases.

- Created a user, also called band, with access rights to the Players database. Although this user can now access the Players database, the account still does not have permissions to do anything in the database.
- Gave the user of the database permission to perform `SELECT`, `INSERT`, `UPDATE`, and `DELETE` queries on the Players database.

Setting up security correctly in SQL Server 2005 is not a trivial task. The graphical tools make it very easy to create logins and users, but also make it dangerously very easy to delete logins and roles. The main thrust of setting your security settings should be to give users the minimum permission that you can.

You've given the band account the minimum privileges possible. The account can query and modify the contents of the tables within the database, but it has no permissions to alter the structure of the database. That's a permission that you should not give to anyone.

Now that you have a reduced-permission account, you'll use it from now on within the database, as you're finished making changes to the structure of the database.

Try It Out: Creating User Accounts in MySQL 5.0

In this example, you'll create a user account in MySQL 5.0, which you'll then use to access your MySQL 5.0 database. Follow these steps:

1. Open MySQL Query Browser if it isn't already running and connect to the `localhost` server.
2. In the query box at the top of the MySQL Query Browser window, enter the following query:

```
GRANT SELECT, UPDATE, INSERT, DELETE ON players.* TO band
  IDENTIFIED BY 'letmein';
```

3. Click Execute.

How It Works

Unlike SQL Server Management Studio, the MySQL Query Browser doesn't provide a graphical interface for adding users. Therefore, you need to execute a SQL query to create the user:

```
GRANT SELECT, UPDATE, INSERT, DELETE ON players.* TO band
  IDENTIFIED BY 'letmein';
```

This one query performs all three steps that are required to access the Players database in one query. It creates the login, gives the login access rights to the Players database, and then grants the correct permission within the database.

You can break the query down to four parts:

- `GRANT`: You grant `SELECT`, `INSERT`, `UPDATE`, and `DELETE` permissions.
- `ON`: Using the `players.*` syntax, you specify that you want to give the permissions to everything within the Players database.

- `TO`: You specify the login that you want to use. If the login doesn't exist, it will be created.
- `IDENTIFIED BY`: You assign a password for the login.

You've given the band account the minimum privileges possible. It can `SELECT`, `INSERT`, `UPDATE`, and `DELETE` data within the tables of the Players database, but nothing else.

Now that you have a reduced-permission account, you'll use it within the database, since you're finished making changes to the structure of the database.

Data for the Sample Database

Now that you've done all the hard work building the sample database, all you have left to do is put some data in it. You'll spend a lot of Chapter 8 and Chapter 9 learning how to add, alter, and delete data through a page. Right now, you'll fill the database using the same tools you used to build it.

Try It Out: Adding Data to a SQL Server 2005 Database

Follow these steps to add data to a database table using SQL Server Management Studio:

1. Start SQL Server Management Studio and connect to the `localhost\BAND` server using the account you just created: a login of band and a password of letmein.
2. Expand the Databases node, and then expand the Players database.
3. Expand the Tables node, right-click the Manufacturer table, and select Open Table from the context menu.
4. In the main window, enter the data for the table as specified in Appendix D. You'll be able to enter all the data, except for the entries in the ManufacturerID column. Since ManufacturerID is a primary key, its values will be generated automatically.
5. Once you've entered all the data for the Manufacturer table, close the window.
6. Repeat steps 3 to 5 for the remaining three tables in the database: Player, Format, and WhatPlaysWhatFormat. The data for each is in Appendix D.

How It Works

Using SQL Server Management Studio, you can enter data into the database very quickly. You enter a row of data. As soon as you move to the next row of data, the entry is sent to the database, and a new primary key value is generated automatically.

As with the other tasks you've accomplished with SQL Server Management Studio, the work is actually handled by a SQL query. In this case, a new `INSERT` query is sent to the database whenever you move to enter a new row in the table.

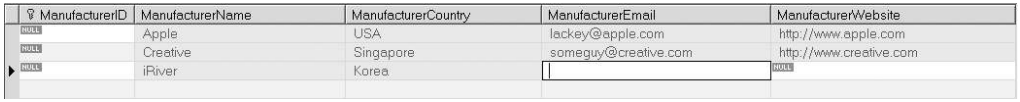
Try It Out: Adding Data to a MySQL 5.0 Database

In this exercise, you'll add data to a database table using MySQL Query Browser. Follow these steps:

1. Start MySQL Query Browser and connect to the localhost server using the login that you just created: username of band and a password of letmein.
2. Expand the Players database.
3. Double-click the Manufacturer table to build the `SELECT` query for the table. Click Execute to return the existing data in the table (which should be empty).
4. Click the Edit button at the bottom of the results window, as shown in Figure 2-47. Now, you can enter the data for the table in the main window, as specified in Appendix D.

Figure 2-47. *Switching MySQL Query Browser into Edit mode*

5. To start editing data, double-click in the blank row underneath the ManufacturerName column heading. You can then enter a single row of data. Use Tab to jump to the next column or double-click in the column. Don't enter a value for the ManufacturerID column, as this is auto-generated. All new data that you enter will be shown with a green background. Figure 2-48 shows some of the data entered in the table.



ManufacturerID	ManufacturerName	ManufacturerCountry	ManufacturerEmail	ManufacturerWebsite
NULL	Apple	USA	lackey@apple.com	http://www.apple.com
NULL	Creative	Singapore	someguy@creative.com	http://www.creative.com
NULL	iRiver	Korea		NULL

Figure 2-48. *Editing data in MySQL Query Browser*

6. After you've entered all the data for the Manufacturer table, click the Apply Changes button, as shown in Figure 2-49. (This button became active as soon as you started entering the data.)

Figure 2-49. *Changes must be explicitly accepted.*

7. Repeat steps 3 to 6 for the remaining three tables in the database: Player, Format, and WhatPlaysWhatFormat. The data for each is in Appendix D.

How It Works

The MySQL Query Browser isn't quite as easy to use as SQL Server Management Studio. However, once you get used to the way that it expects you to do things, it's an adequate interface for adding data.

Database Views and Triggers

You may find that two other facets to a relational database server are handy in future projects. (You won't use them in the examples in this book.)

One drawback of the "one object or event per table" rule is that quite often the information you actually need for a page is spread across several tables. For example, it wouldn't be a stretch to imagine a page displaying a Player's name and the name of its Manufacturer. This means pulling information from two different tables, using a complex `SELECT` query. Like indexes, *views* are designed to save you some time. They're virtual tables containing related columns from many tables in one place. You could, for example, create a view on your sample database containing PlayerName and ManufacturerName. All you do then is write a `SELECT` query on this view, and the database server does the complex part of pulling all the information together without you knowing.

You can also set up *triggers*—the database equivalent of an event in ASP.NET. These triggers monitor the state of a database table or group of tables. They are fired when a certain kind of query—for example, a `CREATE` query—is run on that table, or when a certain condition in your database occurs.

If you would like to learn more about SQL views, check out this MSDN tutorial about them at `http://msdn.microsoft.com/library/en-us/architec/8_ar_da_2d9v.asp`. For more on SQL triggers, check out a two-part article from MSDN Magazine at `http://msdn.microsoft.com/msdnmag/issues/03/12/DataPoints/default.aspx` and `http://msdn.microsoft.com/msdnmag/issues/04/01/DataPoints/default.aspx`.

Summary

In this chapter, you've taken a crash course in what makes a relational database (and its server) tick. You've also used some of that theory to build your own database for use in the following chapters. This chapter has covered a lot of ground. Here's a recap of what you've learned:

- All relational database management systems use tables to store information about a single type of object or event. Each row in a table represents one instance of that object or event, and every column in the row contains a single piece of information about that instance.
- Every column has a number of properties and constraints that determine the range of values the column may contain.
- Every table must contain a column or a combination of columns that uniquely identifies that row in the table. This (combination of) column(s) is designated as the primary key for the table. Together, the table name, primary key value for the row, and column name allow you to pinpoint any single piece of information in the database.
- You can model three kinds of relationships between a pair of tables in a database: one-to-one, many-to-one, and many-to-many. Each type of relationship is realized by using one table's primary key as a foreign key in another. Each relationship should be enforced with a foreign key constraint on the tables.

- You use queries written in SQL to convey your wishes to the database.
- You can use stored procedures, indexes, views, and triggers to improve the performance of the database.

In Chapter 3, you'll start building data-driven pages and discover how easy ASP.NET 2.0 makes it to create quite complex data-driven Web pages.

One final note: Congratulations for building the sample database for this book. It would be a bit unfair to expect you to rebuild it each time something went wrong, so you'll find SQL scripts that will rebuild the database included with the code downloads for this book (available from the Downloads section of the Apress Web site, `http://www.apress.com`). You can find instructions on how to run the script in Appendix D.