

# Transactions, Views, Indexes

Controlling Concurrent Behavior  
Virtual and Materialized Views  
Speeding Accesses to Data

# Why Transactions?

- ◆ Database systems are normally being accessed by many users or processes at the same time.
  - ◆ Both queries and modifications.
- ◆ Unlike operating systems, which *support* interaction of processes, a DMBS needs to keep processes from troublesome interactions.

# Example: Bad Interaction

- ◆ You and your domestic partner each take \$100 from different ATM's at about the same time.
  - ◆ The DBMS better make sure one account deduction doesn't get lost.
- ◆ **Compare:** An OS allows two people to edit a document at the same time. If both write, one's changes get lost.

# Transactions

- ◆ *Transaction* = process involving database queries and/or modification.
- ◆ Normally with some strong properties regarding concurrency.
- ◆ Formed in SQL from single statements or explicit programmer control.

# ACID Transactions

◆ *ACID transactions* are:

- ◆ *Atomic*: Whole transaction or none is done.
- ◆ *Consistent*: Database constraints preserved.
- ◆ *Isolated*: It appears to the user as if only one process executes at a time.
- ◆ *Durable*: Effects of a process survive a crash.

◆ **Optional**: weaker forms of transactions are often supported as well.

# COMMIT

- ◆ The SQL statement COMMIT causes a transaction to complete.
  - ◆ Its database modifications are now permanent in the database.

# ROLLBACK

- ◆ The SQL statement ROLLBACK also causes the transaction to end, but by *aborting*.
  - ◆ No effects on the database.
- ◆ Failures like division by 0 or a constraint violation can also cause rollback, even if the programmer does not request it.

# Example: Interacting Processes

- ◆ Assume the usual *Sells(bar,beer,price)* relation, and suppose that Joe's Bar sells only Bud for \$2.50 and Miller for \$3.00.
- ◆ Sally is querying *Sells* for the highest and lowest price Joe charges.
- ◆ Joe decides to stop selling Bud and Miller, but to sell only Heineken at \$3.50.

# Sally's Program

- ◆ Sally executes the following two SQL statements called **(min)** and **(max)** to help us remember what they do.

**(max)**     SELECT MAX(price) FROM Sells  
              WHERE bar = 'Joe''s Bar';

**(min)**     SELECT MIN(price) FROM Sells  
              WHERE bar = 'Joe''s Bar';

# Joe's Program

- ◆ At about the same time, Joe executes the following steps: **(del)** and **(ins)**.

**(del)** DELETE FROM Sells

WHERE bar = 'Joe''s Bar';

**(ins)** INSERT INTO Sells

VALUES('Joe''s Bar', 'Heineken', 3.50);

# Interleaving of Statements

- ◆ Although **(max)** must come before **(min)**, and **(del)** must come before **(ins)**, there are no other constraints on the order of these statements, unless we group Sally's and/or Joe's statements into transactions.

# Example: Strange Interleaving

- ◆ Suppose the steps execute in the order (max)(del)(ins)(min).

Joe's Prices: {2.50,3.00} {2.50,3.00} {3.50}

Statement: (max) (del) (ins) (min)

Result: 3.00 3.50

- ◆ Sally sees MAX < MIN!

# Fixing the Problem by Using Transactions

- ◆ If we group Sally's statements **(max)(min)** into one transaction, then she cannot see this inconsistency.
- ◆ She sees Joe's prices at some fixed time.
  - ◆ Either before or after he changes prices, or in the middle, but the MAX and MIN are computed from the same prices.

# Another Problem: Rollback

- ◆ Suppose Joe executes **(del)(ins)**, not as a transaction, but after executing these statements, thinks better of it and issues a ROLLBACK statement.
- ◆ If Sally executes her statements after **(ins)** but before the rollback, she sees a value, 3.50, that never existed in the database.

# Solution

- ◆ If Joe executes **(del)(ins)** as a transaction, its effect cannot be seen by others until the transaction executes COMMIT.
  - ◆ If the transaction executes ROLLBACK instead, then its effects can *never* be seen.

# Isolation Levels

- ◆ SQL defines four *isolation levels* = choices about what interactions are allowed by transactions that execute at about the same time.
- ◆ Only one level ("serializable") = ACID transactions.
- ◆ Each DBMS implements transactions in its own way.

# Choosing the Isolation Level

- ◆ Within a transaction, we can say:

`SET TRANSACTION ISOLATION LEVEL  $X$`

where  $X$  =

1. SERIALIZABLE
2. REPEATABLE READ
3. READ COMMITTED
4. READ UNCOMMITTED

# Serializable Transactions

- ◆ If Sally = **(max)(min)** and Joe = **(del)(ins)** are each transactions, and Sally runs with isolation level SERIALIZABLE, then she will see the database either before or after Joe runs, but not in the middle.

# Isolation Level Is Personal Choice

- ◆ Your choice, e.g., run serializable, affects only how *you* see the database, not how others see it.
- ◆ **Example:** If Joe Runs serializable, but Sally doesn't, then Sally might see no prices for Joe's Bar.
  - ◆ i.e., it looks to Sally as if she ran in the middle of Joe's transaction.

# Read-Committed Transactions

- ◆ If Sally runs with isolation level READ COMMITTED, then she can see only committed data, but not necessarily the same data each time.
- ◆ Example: Under READ COMMITTED, the interleaving (max)(del)(ins)(min) is allowed, as long as Joe commits.
  - ◆ Sally sees MAX < MIN.

# Repeatable-Read Transactions

- ◆ Requirement is like read-committed, plus: if data is read again, then everything seen the first time will be seen the second time.
  - ◆ But the second and subsequent reads may see *more* tuples as well.

## Example: Repeatable Read

- ◆ Suppose Sally runs under REPEATABLE READ, and the order of execution is (max)(del)(ins)(min).
  - ◆ (max) sees prices 2.50 and 3.00.
  - ◆ (min) can see 3.50, but must also see 2.50 and 3.00, because they were seen on the earlier read by (max).

# Read Uncommitted

- ◆ A transaction running under READ UNCOMMITTED can see data in the database, even if it was written by a transaction that has not committed (and may never).
- ◆ **Example:** If Sally runs under READ UNCOMMITTED, she could see a price 3.50 even if Joe later aborts.

# Views

- ◆ A *view* is a relation defined in terms of stored tables (called *base tables*) and other views.
- ◆ Two kinds:
  1. *Virtual* = not stored in the database; just a query for constructing the relation.
  2. *Materialized* = actually constructed and stored.

# Declaring Views

- ◆ Declare by:

```
CREATE [MATERIALIZED] VIEW  
    <name> AS <query>;
```

- ◆ Default is virtual.

# Example: View Definition

- ◆ **CanDrink(drinker, beer)** is a view “containing” the drinker-beer pairs such that the drinker frequents at least one bar that serves the beer:

```
CREATE VIEW CanDrink AS  
    SELECT drinker, beer  
    FROM Frequent, Sells  
    WHERE Frequent.bar = Sells.bar;
```

# Example: Accessing a View

- ◆ Query a view as if it were a base table.
  - ◆ Also: a limited ability to modify views if it makes sense as a modification of one underlying base table.
- ◆ Example query:

```
SELECT beer FROM CanDrink  
WHERE drinker = 'Sally';
```

# Triggers on Views

- ◆ Generally, it is impossible to modify a virtual view, because it doesn't exist.
- ◆ But an INSTEAD OF trigger lets us interpret view modifications in a way that makes sense.
- ◆ Example: View Synergy has (drinker, beer, bar) triples such that the bar serves the beer, the drinker frequents the bar and likes the beer.

# Example: The View

CREATE VIEW Synergy AS

```
SELECT Likes.drinker, Likes.beer, Sells.bar  
FROM Likes, Sells, Frequents  
WHERE Likes.drinker = Frequents.drinker  
AND Likes.beer = Sells.beer  
AND Sells.bar = Frequents.bar;
```

Pick one copy of each attribute

Natural join of Likes,  
Sells, and Frequents

# Interpreting a View Insertion

- ◆ We cannot insert into Synergy --- it is a virtual view.
- ◆ But we can use an INSTEAD OF trigger to turn a (drinker, beer, bar) triple into three insertions of projected pairs, one for each of Likes, Sells, and Frequents.
  - ◆ Sells.price will have to be NULL.

# The Trigger

```
CREATE TRIGGER ViewTrig
INSTEAD OF INSERT ON Synergy
REFERENCING NEW ROW AS n
FOR EACH ROW
BEGIN
    INSERT INTO LIKES VALUES(n.drinker, n.beer);
    INSERT INTO SELLS(bar, beer) VALUES(n.bar, n.beer);
    INSERT INTO FREQUENTS VALUES(n.drinker, n.bar);
END;
```

# Materialized Views

- ◆ **Problem:** each time a base table changes, the materialized view may change.
  - ◆ Cannot afford to recompute the view with each change.
- ◆ **Solution:** Periodic reconstruction of the materialized view, which is otherwise “out of date.”

# Example: Axess/Class Mailing List

- ◆ The class mailing list `cs145-aut0708-students` is in effect a materialized view of the class enrollment in Axess.
- ◆ Actually updated four times/day.
  - ◆ You can enroll and miss an email sent out after you enroll.

# Example: A Data Warehouse

- ◆ Wal-Mart stores every sale at every store in a database.
- ◆ Overnight, the sales for the day are used to update a *data warehouse* = materialized views of the sales.
- ◆ The warehouse is used by analysts to predict trends and move goods to where they are selling best.

# Indexes

- ◆ *Index* = data structure used to speed access to tuples of a relation, given values of one or more attributes.
- ◆ Could be a hash table, but in a DBMS it is always a balanced search tree with giant nodes (a full disk page) called a *B-tree*.

# Declaring Indexes

- ◆ No standard!
- ◆ Typical syntax:

```
CREATE INDEX BeerInd ON  
    Beers(manf);
```

```
CREATE INDEX SellInd ON  
    Sells(bar, beer);
```

# Using Indexes

- ◆ Given a value  $v$ , the index takes us to only those tuples that have  $v$  in the attribute(s) of the index.
- ◆ **Example:** use BeerInd and SellInd to find the prices of beers manufactured by Pete's and sold by Joe. (next slide)

# Using Indexes --- (2)

```
SELECT price FROM Beers, Sells  
WHERE manf = 'Pete''s' AND  
Beers.name = Sells.beer AND  
bar = 'Joe''s Bar';
```

1. Use BeerInd to get all the beers made by Pete's.
2. Then use SellInd to get prices of those beers, with bar = 'Joe's Bar'

# Database Tuning

- ◆ A major problem in making a database run fast is deciding which indexes to create.
- ◆ **Pro:** An index speeds up queries that can use it.
- ◆ **Con:** An index slows down all modifications on its relation because the index must be modified too.

# Example: Tuning

- ◆ Suppose the only things we did with our beers database was:
  1. Insert new facts into a relation (10%).
  2. Find the price of a given beer at a given bar (90%).
- ◆ Then **SellInd** on  $\text{Sells}(\text{bar}, \text{beer})$  would be wonderful, but **BeerInd** on  $\text{Beers}(\text{manf})$  would be harmful.

# Tuning Advisors

- ◆ A major research thrust.
  - ◆ Because hand tuning is so hard.
- ◆ An advisor gets a *query load*, e.g.:
  1. Choose random queries from the history of queries run on the database, or
  2. Designer provides a sample workload.

# Tuning Advisors --- (2)

- ◆ The advisor generates candidate indexes and evaluates each on the workload.
  - ◆ Feed each sample query to the query optimizer, which assumes only this one index is available.
  - ◆ Measure the improvement/degradation in the average running time of the queries.