

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.

The same as operating systems, which *support* interaction of processes, a DMBS needs to keep processes from troublesome interactions.

Example: Bad Interaction

You and your partner each take \$100 from different ATM's at roughly the same time.

- The DBMS better make sure one account deduction doesn't get lost...(At least the bank hopes!)

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. (*all-or-nothing*)
- *Consistent* : Database constraints are 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.

- It's 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 (Query 1) and lowest (Query2) price Joe charges.

Joe decides to stop selling Bud and Miller (Query 3), but to sell only Heineken at \$3.50 (Query 4).

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)**.

What is the result of Query 1 and Query 2?

Example: Strange Interleaving

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

Joe's Prices:

Statement:

Result:

{2.50,3.00} {2.50,3.00} {3.50}

Sally sees MAX < MIN!

(max)	(del)	(ins)	(min)
3.00			3.50

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 an X-act 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 Frequents, Sells
  WHERE Frequents.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

Pick one copy of each attribute

```
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;
```

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 (as price is not an element of the view).

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: Class Mailing List

Eg., the class mailing list `cs-students` can be a materialized view of the class enrollment.

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 usually a balanced search tree with giant nodes (a full disk page) called a *B+ tree*.

Declaring Indexes

Note: not fully specified in the standards...

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 at a given bar of a given beer (90%).

Then **SellInd** on Sells(bar, beer) would be wonderful, but **BeerInd** on Beers(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.