

Transactions and Indexes

Agenda

- Transactions
 - ACID Properties
 - Concurrency issues
 - Isolation levels
- Indexes
 - Sparse and dense indexes
 - Primary, clustered, and secondary indexes

Key Terms

Transactions

A set of logically related operation. A transaction is an action or series of actions. It is performed by a single user to perform operations for accessing the contents of the database.

ACID properties

ACID (atomicity, consistency, isolation, durability) is a set of properties of database transactions intended to guarantee data validity despite errors, power failures, and other mishaps

Index

a data structure that improves the speed of data retrieval operations on a database table at the cost of additional writes and storage space to maintain the index data structure

Transactions

A database transaction symbolizes a unit of work performed against a database, and treated in a coherent and reliable way independent of other transactions.

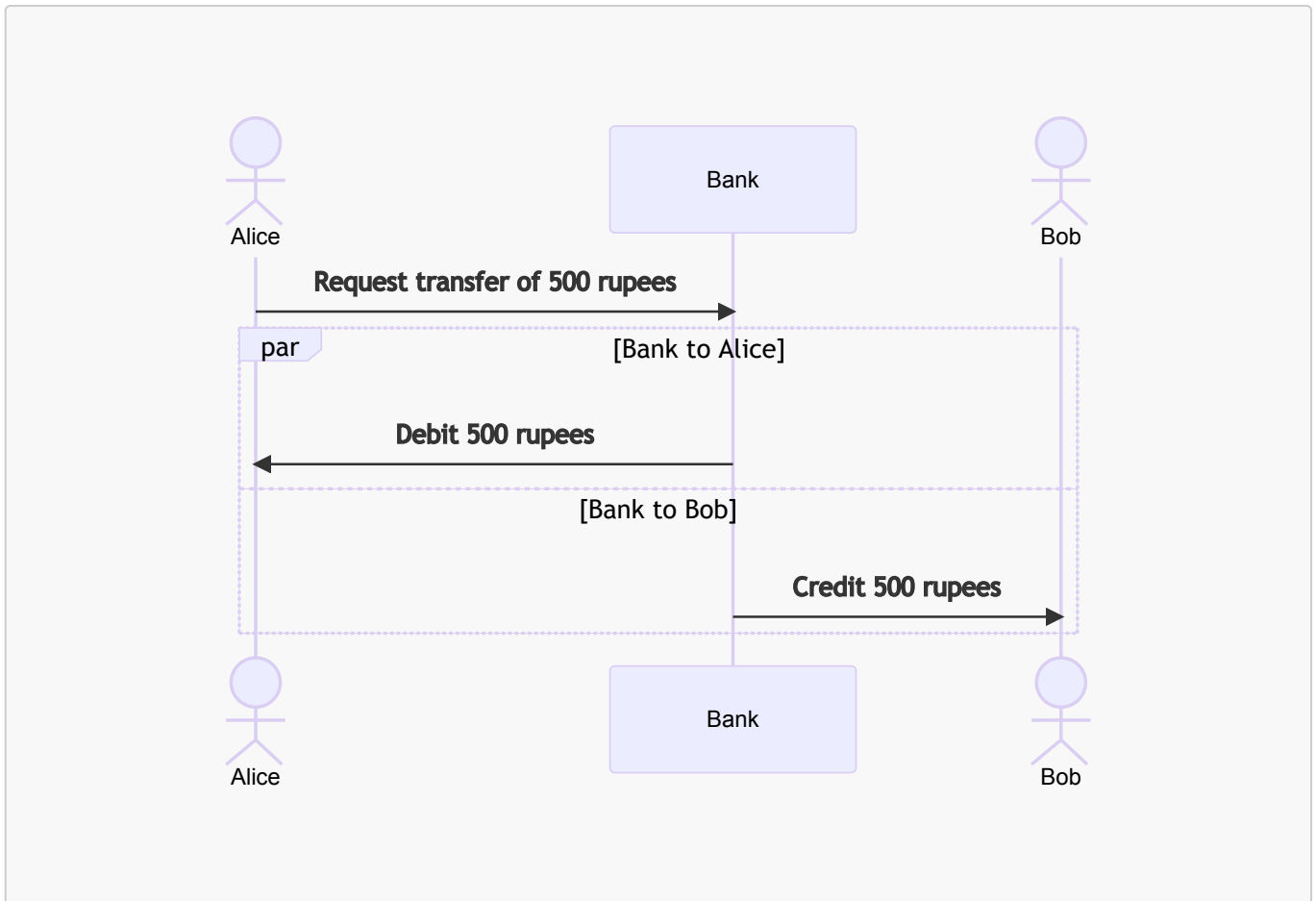
Transactions in a database environment have two main purposes:

- To provide reliable units of work that allow correct recovery from failures and keep a database consistent even in cases of system failure.
- To provide isolation between programs accessing a database concurrently. If this isolation is not provided, the programs' outcomes are possibly erroneous.

Imagine a scenario where Alice has pay Bob 500 rupees. Instead of paying each other directly, they use a bank.

Alice requests a payment to be made to Bob. The bank has to do two operations:

1. Deduce the amount to be paid to Bob from Alice's account.
2. Add the amount to be paid to Bob's account.



The above set of operations need to be performed in a single transaction else, in case of failure, the bank will be left in an inconsistent state. For example, the debit operation succeeds but the credit operation fails. Now Alice has 500 rupees less but Bob does not have 500 rupees more.

Some problems that can occur in the above set of operations are:

- The bank deducts money from Alice's account but the operation to Bob's account fails.
- Once the money is deducted from Alice's account, other processes will see the updated balance even if the credit operation fails.
- All the operations are successful, but the operation to write the data to the disk fails.

ACID properties

A sequence of database operations that satisfies the ACID properties (which can be perceived as a single logical operation on the data) is called a transaction.

Atomicity

means either all successful or none.

Consistency

ensures bringing the database from one consistent state to another consistent state.
ensures bringing the database from one consistent state to another consistent state.

Isolation

ensures that transaction is isolated from other transaction.

Durability

means once a transaction has been committed, it will remain so, even in the event of errors, power loss etc.

Atomicity

Atomicity is the guarantee that series of database operations in an atomic transaction will either all occur (a successful operation), or none will occur (an unsuccessful operation)

If the logical transaction consists of transferring funds from Alice to Bob, this may be composed of

- first removing the amount from account A,
- then depositing the same amount in account B.

We would not want to see the amount removed from Alice before we are sure it has also been transferred into Bob. Then, until both transactions have happened, and the amount has been transferred to Bob, the logical transfer has not occurred.

Atomicity is maintained by databases using various features such as

- **COMMIT** and **ROLLBACK** statements
- **auto-commit** mode

COMMIT and ROLLBACK

- To start a transaction, you can use the **START TRANSACTION** statement in MySQL. Other databases use similar statements like **BEGIN** and **BEGIN WORK**.
- Once you are done with your operations, you can use the **COMMIT** statement to store the changes in the database permanently.
- If you face an error or invalid state, you can use the **ROLLBACK** statement to cancel any changes you have made and return the database to its previous state.

Example transaction

```
-- Begin transaction
START TRANSACTION;

-- CHECK ALICE'S BALANCE
ALICE_BALANCE := READ(ALICE);
IF ALICE_BALANCE < 500 THEN
    ROLLBACK;
END IF;

-- DEBIT ALICE'S BALANCE
ALICE_BALANCE := ALICE_BALANCE - 500;
WRITE(ALICE, ALICE_BALANCE);

-- CREDIT BOB'S BALANCE
BOB_BALANCE := READ(BOB);
BOB_BALANCE := BOB_BALANCE + 500;
WRITE(BOB, BOB_BALANCE);

-- Commit transaction
COMMIT;
```

Atomicity is implemented in databases using the following two techniques:

- **Write-ahead logging (WAL)** - All updates are written to a log file before they are committed to the database.
- **Shadow paging** - During a transaction, the database keeps a copy of the database (pages). If the transaction is successful, the database will point to the copy (shadow page) as the current page. If the transaction fails, the database will point to the original page.

Consistency

- The integrity constraints are maintained so that the database is consistent before and after the transaction.
- The execution of a transaction will leave a database in either its prior stable state or a new stable state.

- The new state still maintains data integrity.

In the banking example of Alice and Bob, the total value of the accounts is 2000, split equally. Now if Alice transfers 500 rupees to Bob, the total value of the accounts should still be the same.

But in case of credit failure, the total value will now be 1500 and hence the system will be left in an inconsistent state.

Other examples where consistency is not maintained are:

- Storing the balance as a negative number in the database.
- Storing the balance as a string in the database.
- Referencing a non-existent tuple in the database.

Databases ensure that the updated values are consistent with the structure of the table i.e. constraints, triggers and cascades but the correctness of the transaction must be ensured by the application.

Isolation

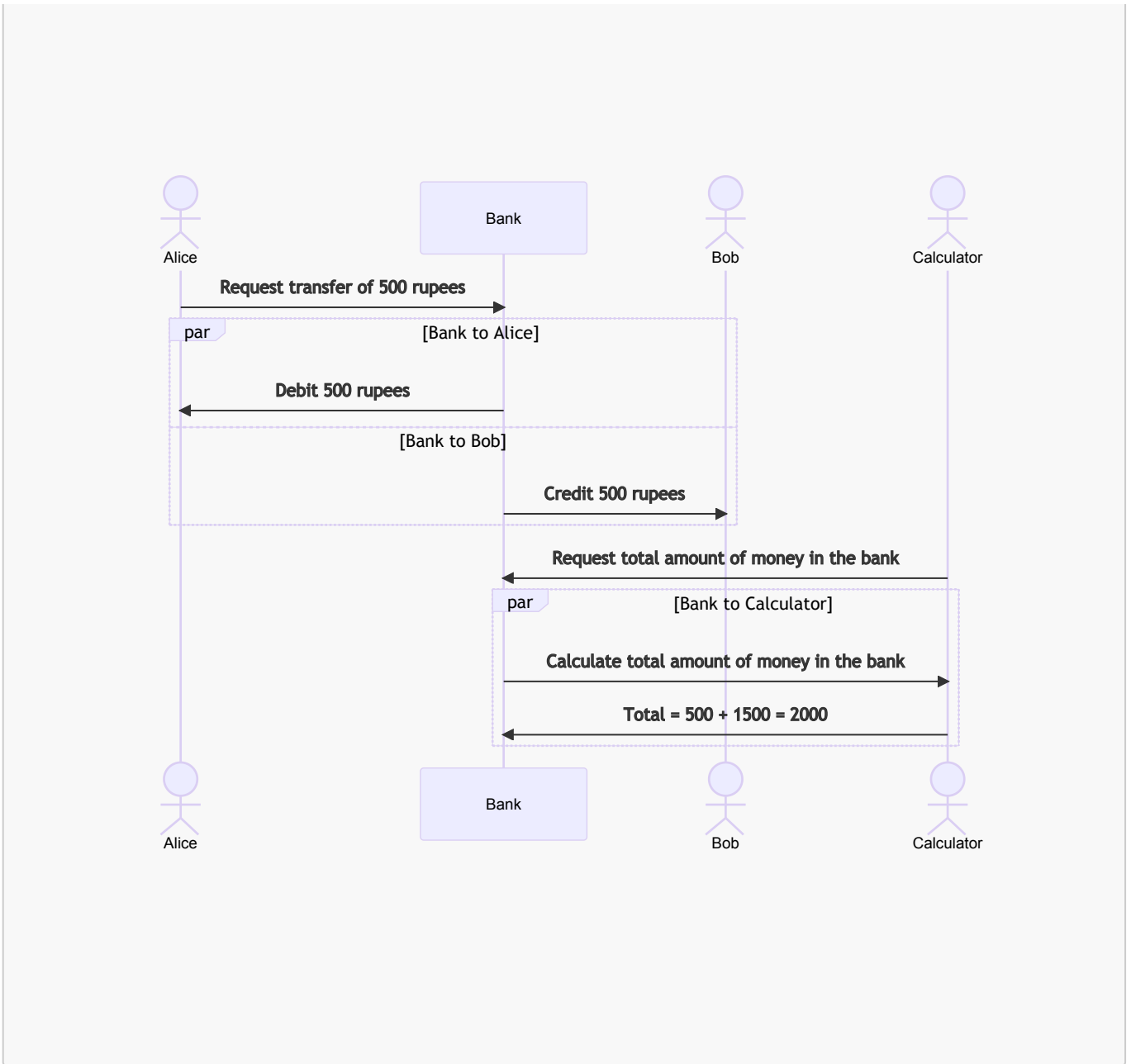
Ensuring that the transaction will not be changed by any other concurrent transaction.

Ensures that concurrent execution of transactions leaves the database in the same state that would have been obtained if the transactions were executed sequentially

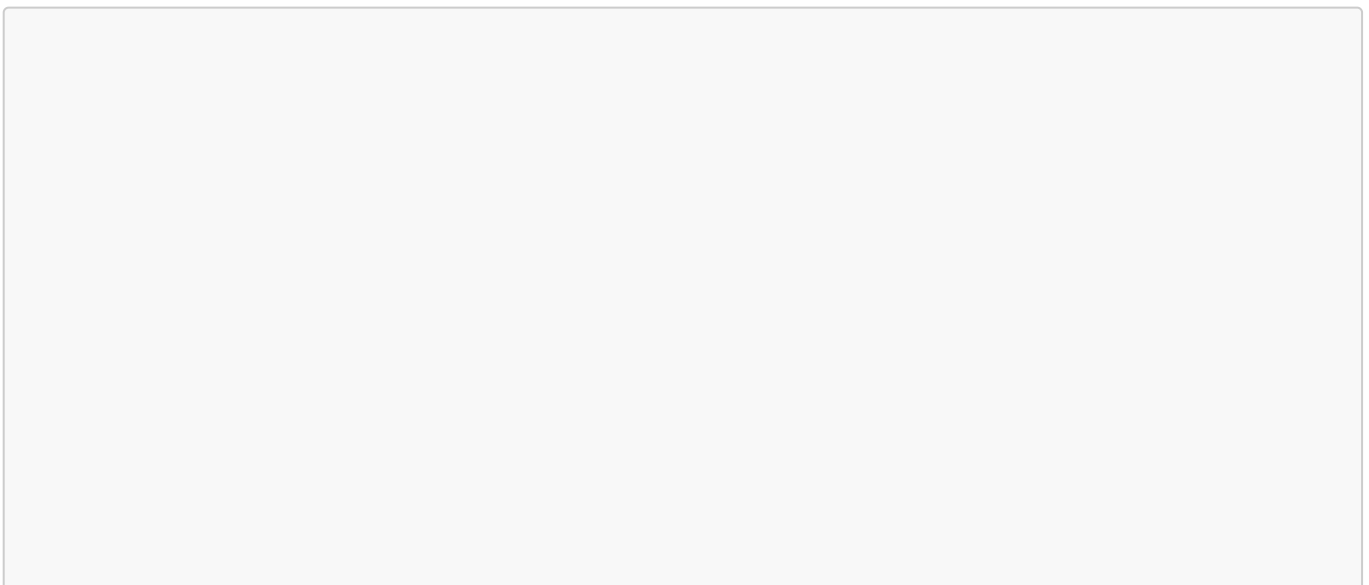
All the transactions will be carried out and executed as if it is the only transaction in the system

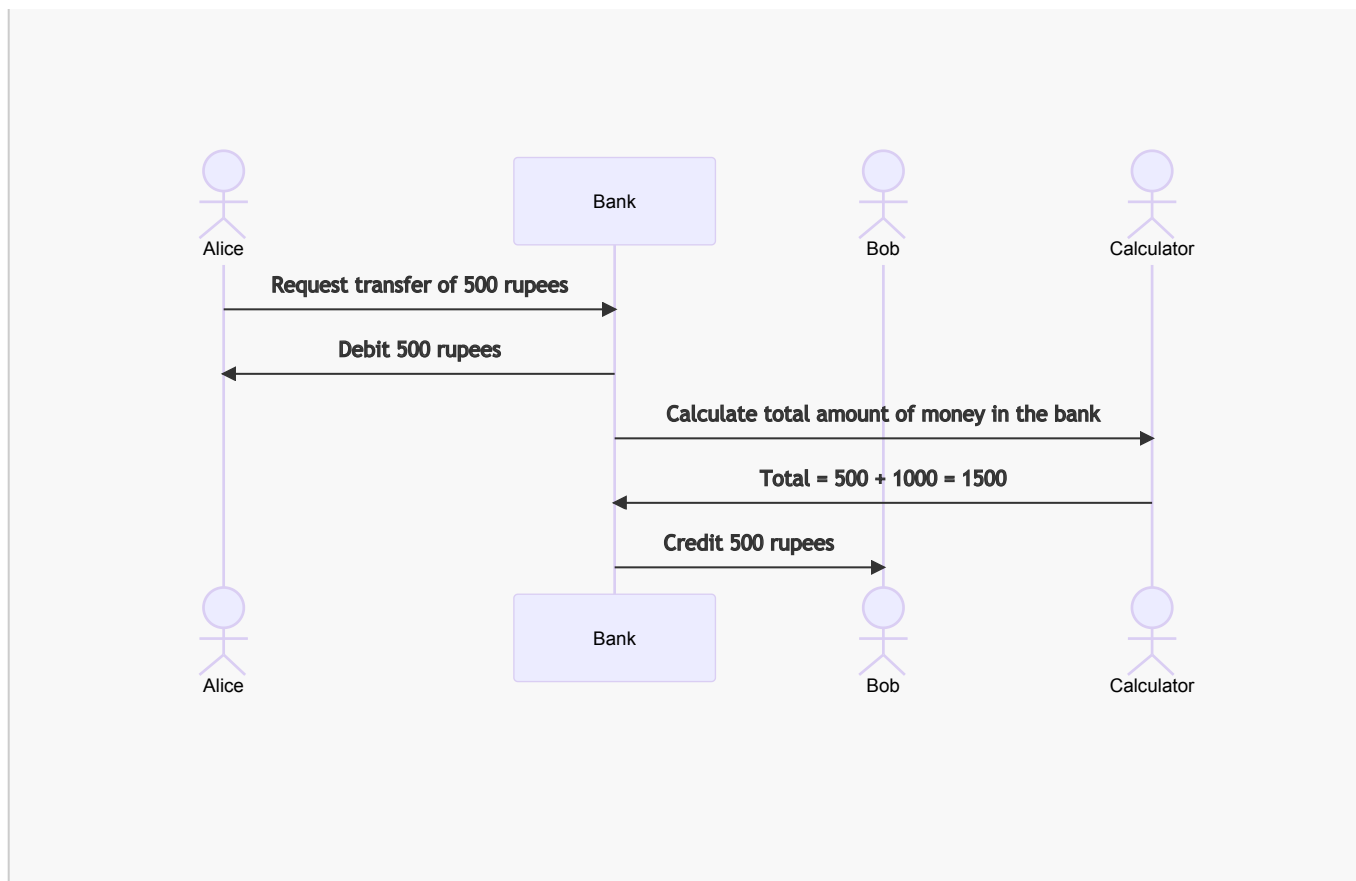
Let us consider two transactions.

1. **T1** - Alice transfers 500 rupees to Bob. Alice and Bob both have 1000 rupees in their accounts.
2. **T2** - Calculate total amount of money in the bank.



If the two transactions execute sequentially, the calculator gets the correct amount i.e. Rs. 2000. But what happens if the two transactions execute concurrently? Let us say the calculation happens after the money has been debited from Alice's account but not yet credited to Bob's account.



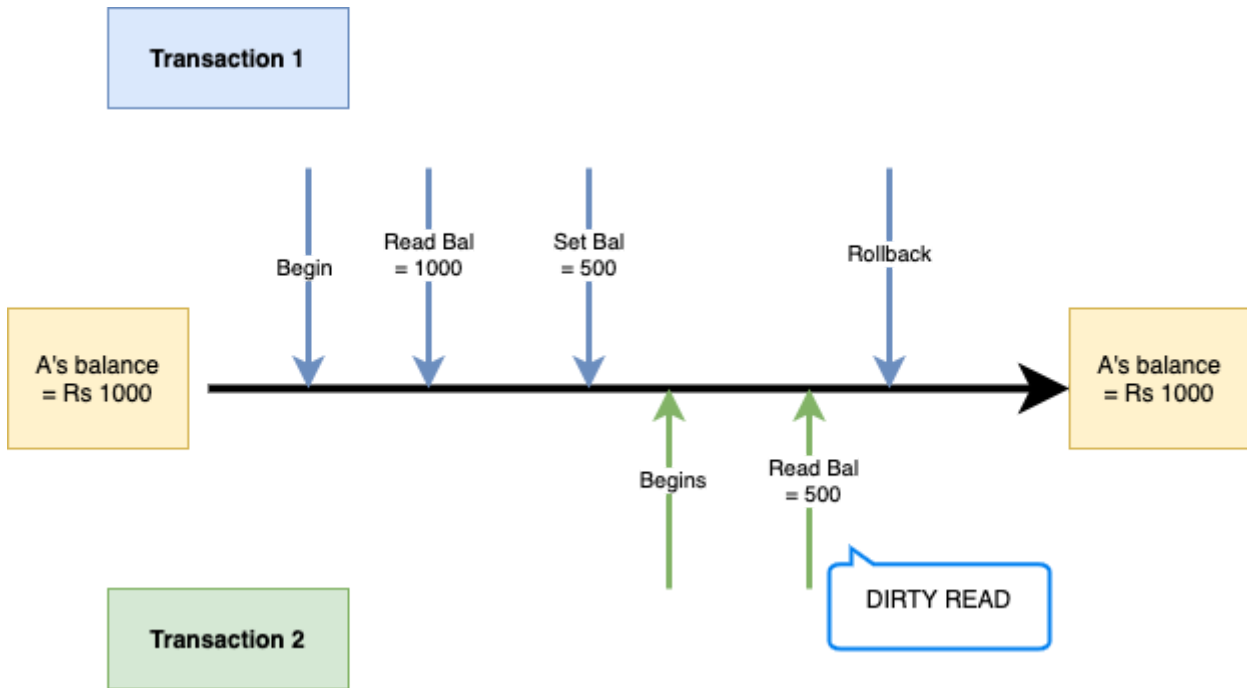


Due to the concurrent execution, the calculator gets the wrong amount i.e. Rs. 1500 instead of Rs. 2000. Isolation property guards us against such inconsistent states by executing transactions in serial order. It guarantees that when multiple transactions execute concurrently, the end system state could be either of the states that could be achieved by executing transactions in some serial order.

Issues in concurrent transactions

Dirty Read

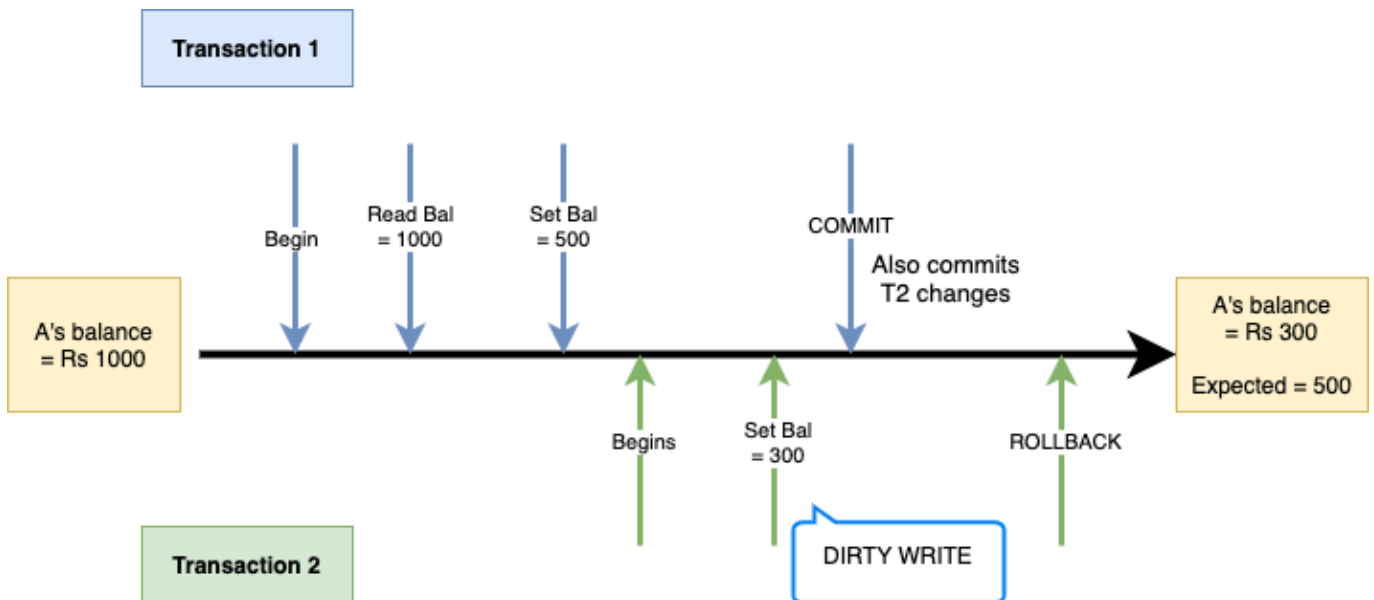
In a dirty read, a transaction reads uncommitted data from a concurrent transaction. This data might be reverted due to rollback of the transaction.



- T1 - Reads the data from the database.
- T1 - Writes the data to the database.
- T2 - Reads the data from the database. **Dirty Read**
- T1 - Rolls back the transaction.

Dirty Write

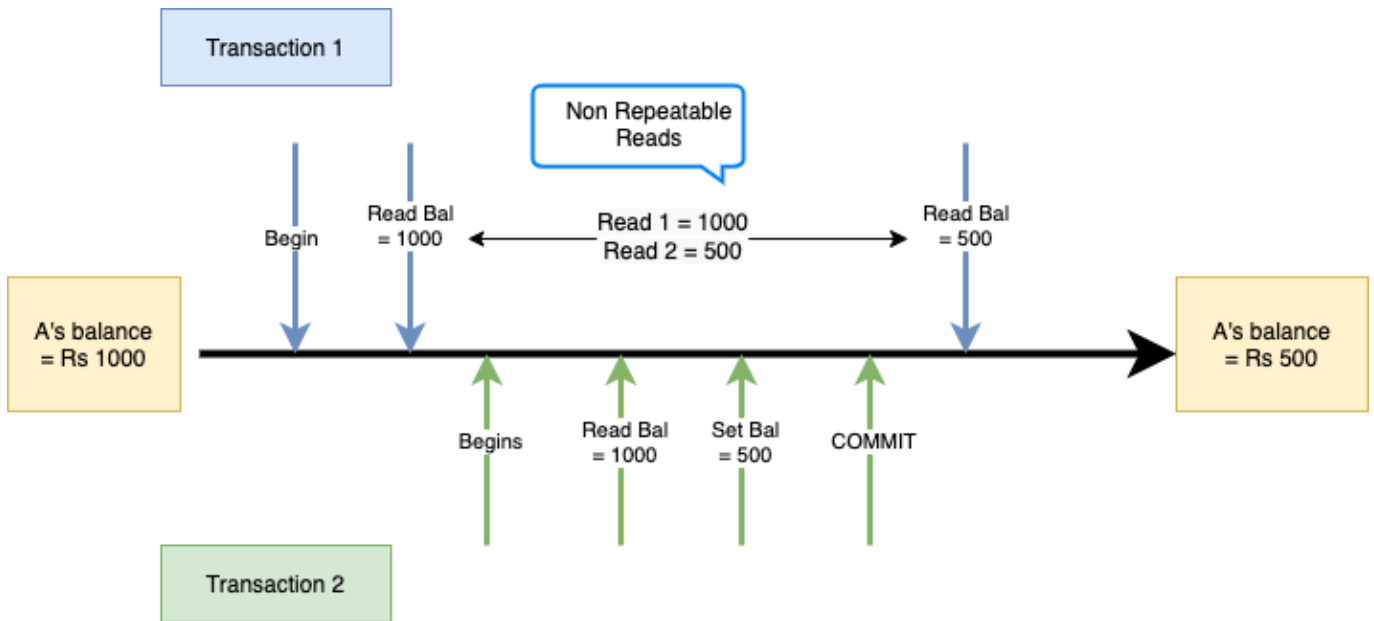
Similar to Dirty Read, but in this case, the uncommitted data is written to the database by the concurrent transaction.



- T1 - Reads the data from the database.
- T1 - Writes the data to the database.
- T2 - Reads the data from the database.
- T2 - Writes the data to the database. **Dirty Write**
- T1 - Commits the transaction.
- T2 - Rolls back the transaction.

Non-repeatable Read

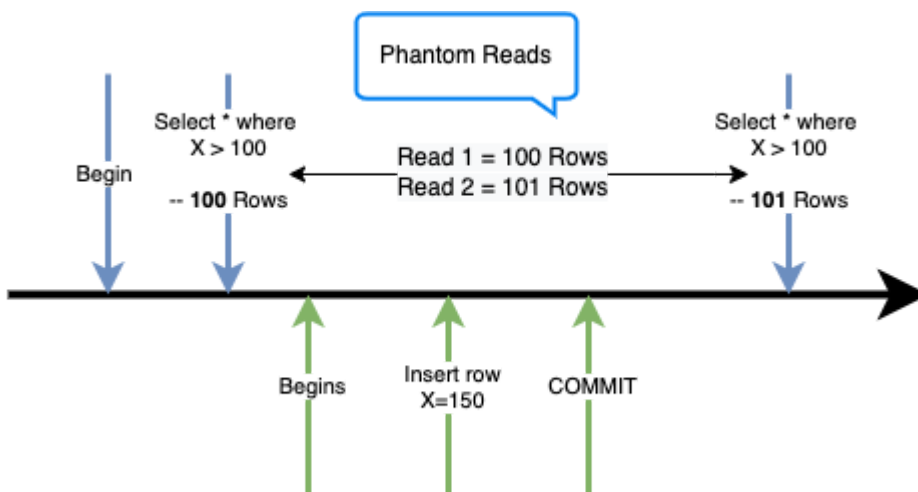
A transaction tries to read uncommitted data from a concurrent transaction and gets different values for the same data each time.



- T1 - Reads the data from the database.
- T2 - Reads the data from the database.
- T2 - Writes the data to the database.
- T1 - Reads the data from the database. **Non-repeatable Read**

Phantom Read

A phantom read occurs when, in the course of a transaction, new rows are added or removed by another transaction to the records being read.



- T1 - Reads the data from the database. (Gets 100 rows)
- T2 - Reads the data from the database. (Gets 100 rows)
- T2 - Adds a row to the database.
- T1 - Reads the data from the database. (Gets 101 rows) **Phantom Read**

Isolation levels

Isolation is typically defined at database level as a property that defines how or when the changes made by one operation become visible to others.

A lower isolation level increases the ability of many users to access the same data at the same time, but increases the number of concurrency effects (such as dirty reads or lost updates) users might encounter. Conversely, a higher isolation level reduces the types of concurrency effects that users may encounter, but requires more system resources and increases the chances that one transaction will block another.

Read Uncommitted

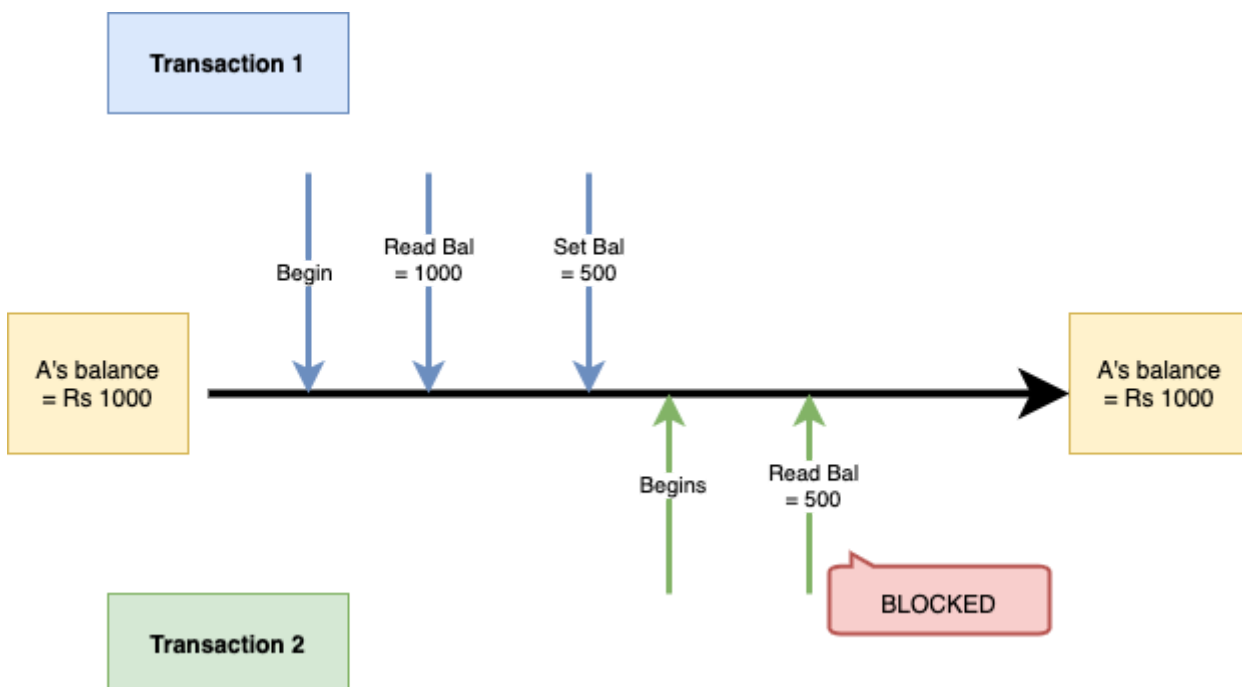
During a transaction uncommitted changes to an item in other transaction become visible immediately. Hence, all the concurrent transactions will see the same data and the concurrency issues listed above will still exist.

This is the lowest isolation level and consequently, many side effects are present. Reads are not blocked by exclusive locks and do not need to take shared locks; in essence they can do whatever they want.

Read Committed

Transactions can only see committed data, or they are stopped from reading data that has been modified by other transactions but not yet committed. This is the default isolation level for **SQL Server**.

It prevents P0 and P1 issues i.e. dirty writes and reads.

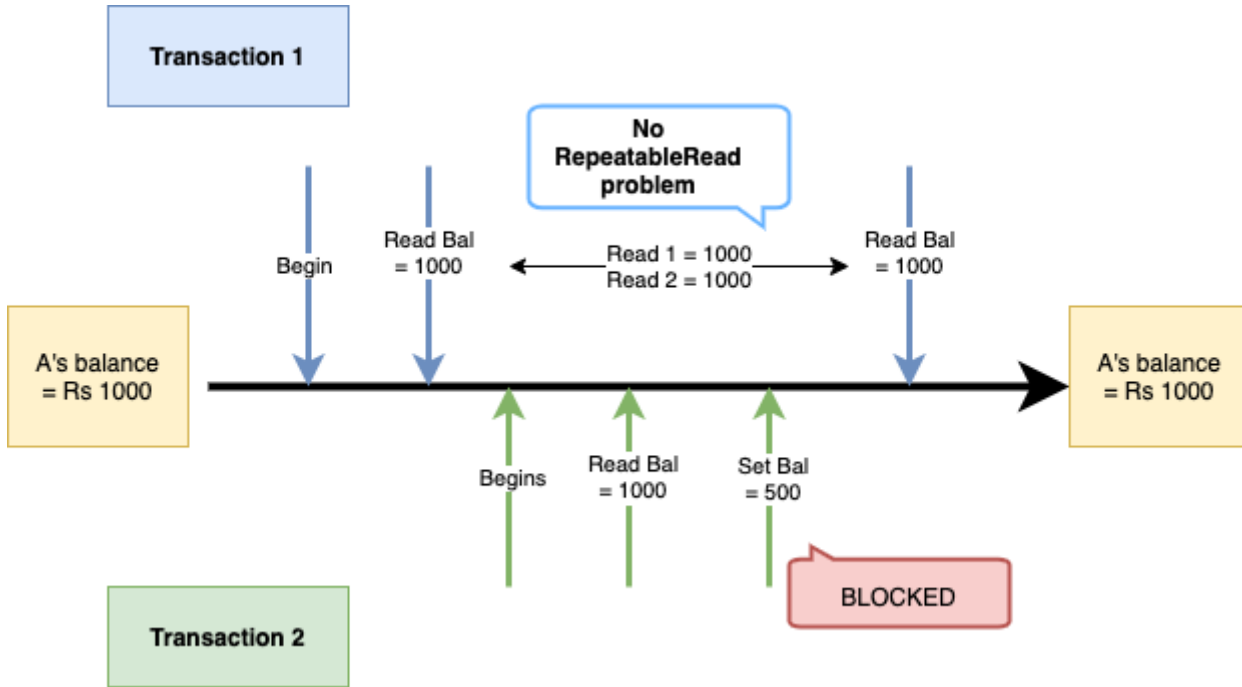


- T1 - Reads the data from the database.
- T1 - Writes the data to the database.
- T2 - Reads the data from the database. **BLOCKED**
- T1 - Commits the transaction.
- T2 - **UNBLOCKED**

Repeatable Read

This isolation levels prevents the following operations:

- reading data that has been modified but not yet committed by other transactions.
- modifying data that has been read by the current transaction until it has completed.



- T1 - Reads the data from the database.
- T2 - Reads the data from the database. (Allowed since read lock)
- T2 - Writes the data to the database. **BLOCKED**
- T1 - Reads the data from the database. (Same result)

Repeatable Read prevents the following issues:

- Dirty Write and Read (P0 and P1)
- Non-repeatable Read (P2)

Serializable

The Serializable isolation level provides the strictest transaction isolation. This level emulates serial transaction execution for all committed transactions; as if transactions had been executed one after another, serially, rather than concurrently.

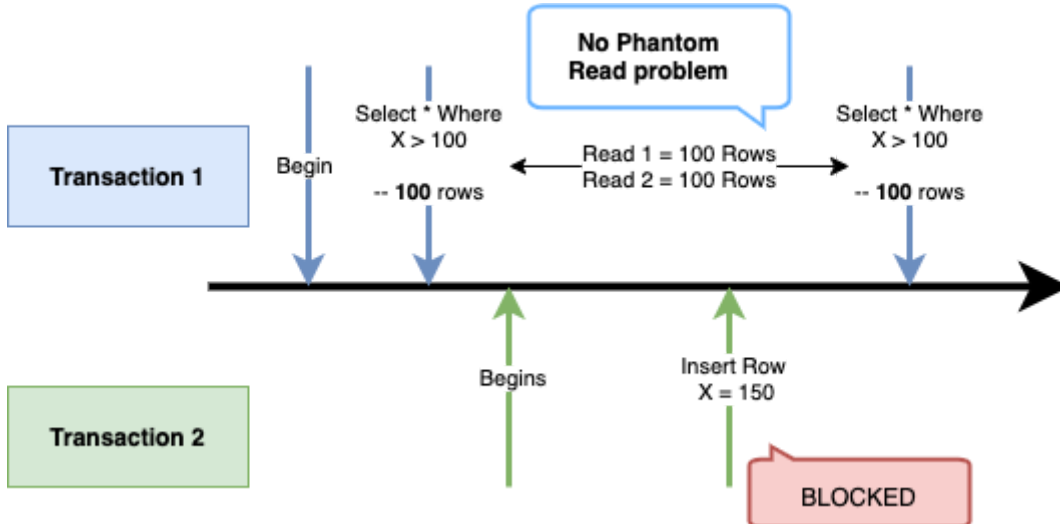
Basically, the transaction acquires a lock over the tables and hence other transactions cannot write to the tables until the transaction has committed.

Internally, this is implemented using Range locks.

- Statements are prevented from reading data that has been modified but not yet committed by other transactions.
- Transactions cannot modify data that has been read by the current transaction until the current transaction completes.

- Other transactions aren't allowed to insert new rows into a table read by the current transaction, if their key values fall in the range of keys read by any statements in the current transaction. So they are blocked until the current transaction completes.
- Range locks are placed on the range of key values that match the search conditions of each statement executed in a transaction.

Serializable prevents phantom reads from happening.



- T1 - Reads the data from the database. (100 rows)
- T2 - Reads the data from the database. (Allowed due to shared lock)
- T2 - Writes the data to the database. **BLOCKED**
- T1 - Reads the data from the database. (100 rows)

Cheat Sheet

| Isolation Level | Dirty Read/Write | Non-Repeatable Reads | Phantom Reads |
|-----------------------------------|------------------|----------------------|---------------|
| Read un-committed Isolation level | EXISTS | EXISTS | EXISTS |
| Read Committed isolation level | SOLVED | EXISTS | EXISTS |
| Repeatable Reads Isolation level | SOLVED | SOLVED | EXISTS |
| Serializable Isolation level | SOLVED | SOLVED | SOLVED |

Durability

Durability in databases is the property that ensures transactions are saved permanently and do not accidentally disappear or get erased, even during a database crash.

Guarantees that once a transaction has been committed, it will remain committed even in the case of a system failure (e.g., power outage or crash). This usually means that completed transactions (or their effects) are recorded in non-volatile memory.

Durability can be achieved by flushing the transaction's log records to non-volatile storage before acknowledging commitment.

Many DBMSs implement durability by writing transactions into a transaction log that can be reprocessed to recreate the system state right before any later failure. A transaction is deemed committed only after it is entered in the log

Database Indexes

Data stored in a database is persisted to disk. This means that the data is stored in a file on the disk. To fetch a single row of the data, the database needs to know the address of the row (or the block). A basic way to do this is to iterate over all the blocks and find the one that matches the key. This has two issues:

- The database has to iterate over all the blocks. Worst case complexity is $O(n)$ where n is the number of blocks in the database.
- Large number of I/O operations are required to read the data. I/O operations are much slower than accessing data in memory.

In order to reduce I/O operations, the database can use indexes to speed up the lookup process. An index is a data structure that stores the address of the block that contains the data. Thus, to fetch a single row of data, the database only needs to look up the index and then read the data from the block.

You have 10 minutes to find information about an author in a 300-page book; unless you are The Flash, you cannot read the entire book

| | |
|---------------------------------|---------------------------------------|
| A | Eyre, Jane, 88 |
| Airey, Dawn, XIII–XIV, 248 | F |
| Angelou, Maya, 71 | Fiennes, Ralph, 72 |
| Armstrong, Neil, 71 | Fitzgerald, F. Scott, 120–121, 197 |
| B | Fleming, Alexander, 87 |
| Bannister, Roger, 38, 41 | Francis, Saint, 1 |
| Belfort, Jordan Ross, 214 | G |
| Bhutto, Benazir, 72 | Godwin, Gail, 32 |
| Binder, Steve, 44 | Green, Kevin, XIV |
| Blake, William, 146 | Greff, Myriam, 150 |
| BLOOM, GUY, III–IV, VII, 220 | Griffin, Shaquem, 41 |
| Bon, Roger, 92, 284 | H |
| Boone, Louis E., 258 | Hamilton, Lewis, 72 |
| Brontë, Charlotte, 88 | Hargreaves, James, 91 |
| Buffet, Warren, 40, 83 | Hawthorne, Nathaniel, 118 |
| C | Hemingway, Ernest, 53 |
| Churchill, Winston, 71 | Herbert, Frank, 82, 283 |
| Collins, Tim, 133, 162, 285 | Hood, Robin, 71 |
| Colvin, Claudette, 42, 96–97 | J |
| Crund, Matt, XIV | Jantzen, Marc, XIV, 1 |
| Curtis, Tyrone, 40 | Jefferson, Thomas, 71 |

At the very end of the book, the Index section has an ordered list of important words where you can easily find what you are looking for (in our scenario, author names). Next to each topic, there are some numbers that tell you in which pages of the book the author is mentioned

Types of indexes

| | Unique | Non-unique |
|------------------|-----------------|-----------------|
| Ordered | Primary Index | Clustered Index |
| Unordered | Secondary Index | Secondary Index |

Primary Index

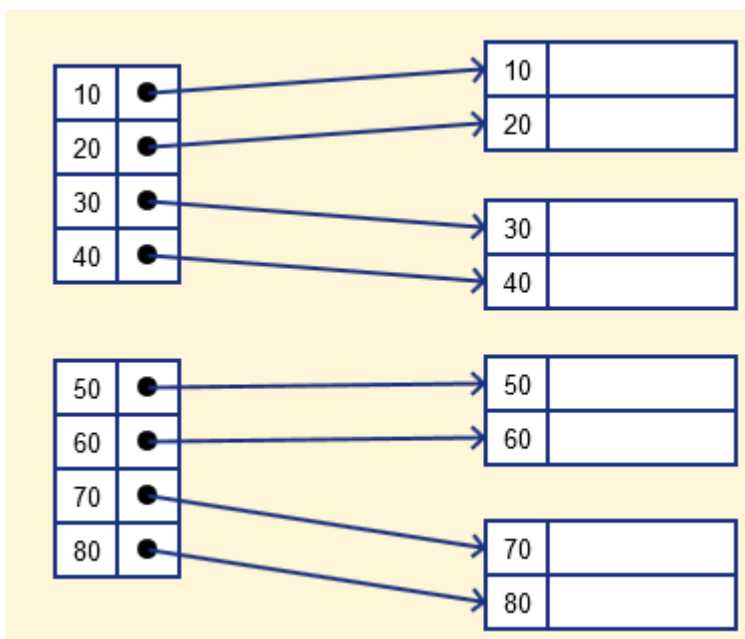
Primary Index is an ordered file which is fixed length size with two fields. The first field is the same a primary key and second, filed is pointed to that specific data block. In the primary Index, there is always one to one relationship between the entries in the index table.

A primary key of a table always has a primary index created.

A primary index can be of two types

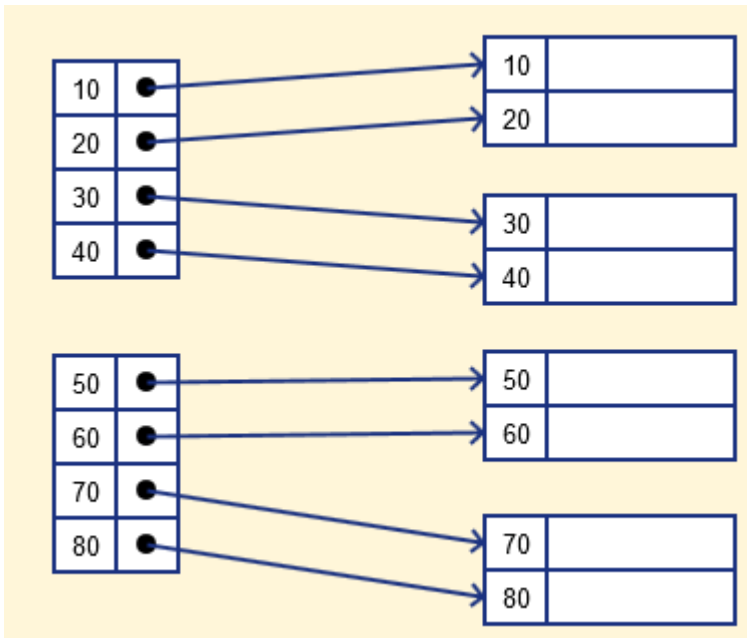
- Dense - a record is created for every search key valued in the database
- Sparse - an index record that appears for only some values

Dense Index In a dense index, a record is created for every search key valued in the database. This helps you to search faster but needs more space to store index records. In this Indexing, method records contain search key value and points to the real record on the disk.



Sparse Index It is an index record that appears for only some of the values in the file. Sparse Index helps you to resolve the issues of dense Indexing in DBMS. In this method of indexing technique, a range of index columns stores the same data block address, and when data needs to be retrieved, the block address will be fetched.

However, sparse Index stores index records for only some search-key values. It needs less space, less maintenance overhead for insertion, and deletions but It is slower compared to the dense Index for locating records.

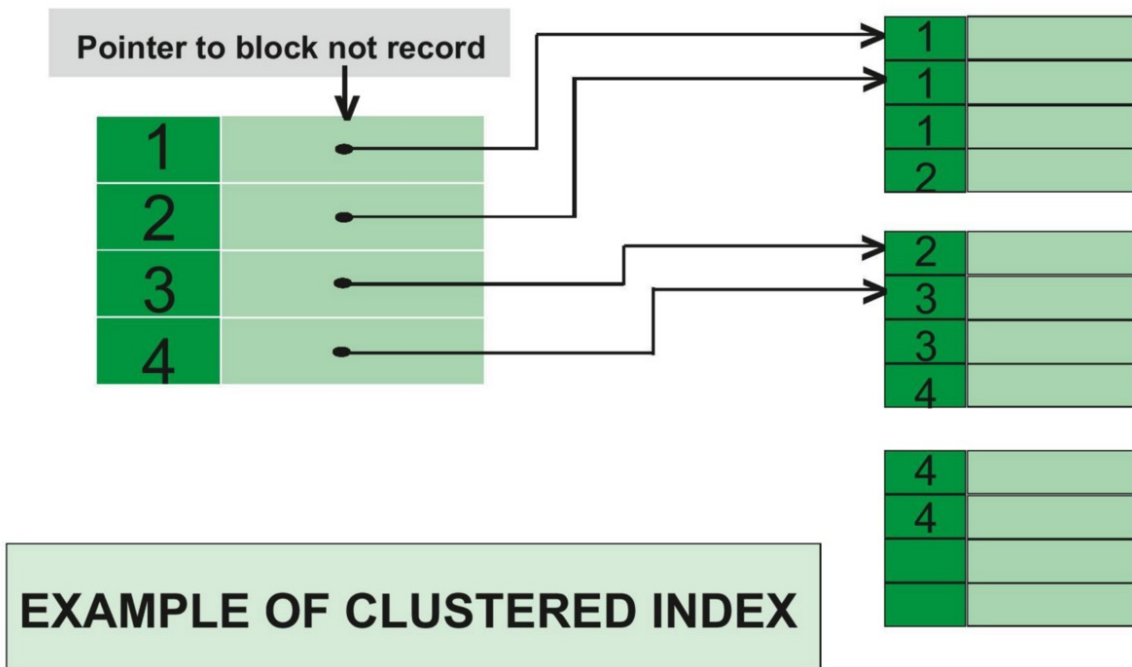


Clustered Index

Cluster index is a type of index which sorts the data rows in the table on their key values.

A clustered index is used when the data is sorted but might contain duplicate values.

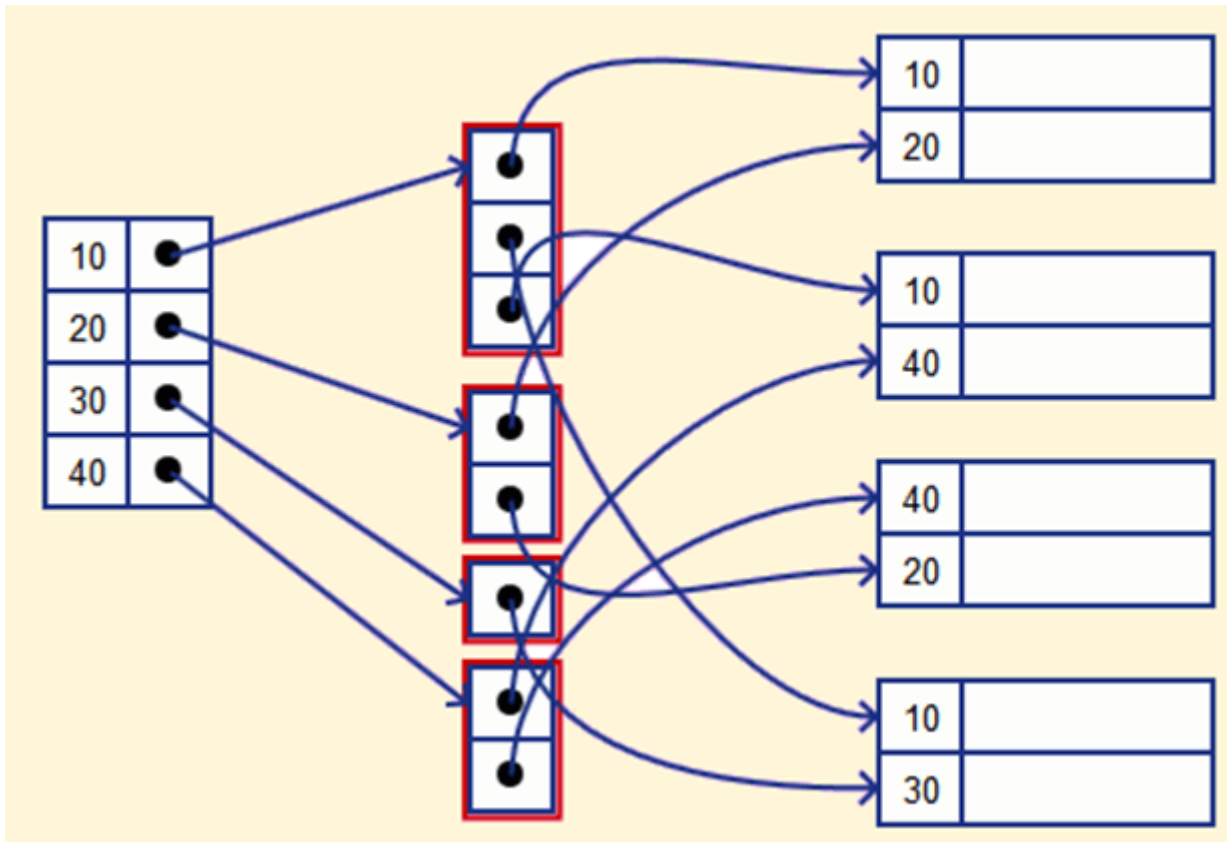
Clustered indexes work similar to the primary index expect they maintain a flag in each page to indicate whether the next block contains the same value or not due to non-unique keys.



Secondary Index

The secondary Index in DBMS is an indexing method whose search key specifies an order different from the sequential order of the file

You might have several use cases in your application where you don't query the database with a primary key. In our example phone_no is the primary key but we may need to query the database with pan_no, or name. In such cases you need secondary indices on these columns if the frequency of such queries is very high.

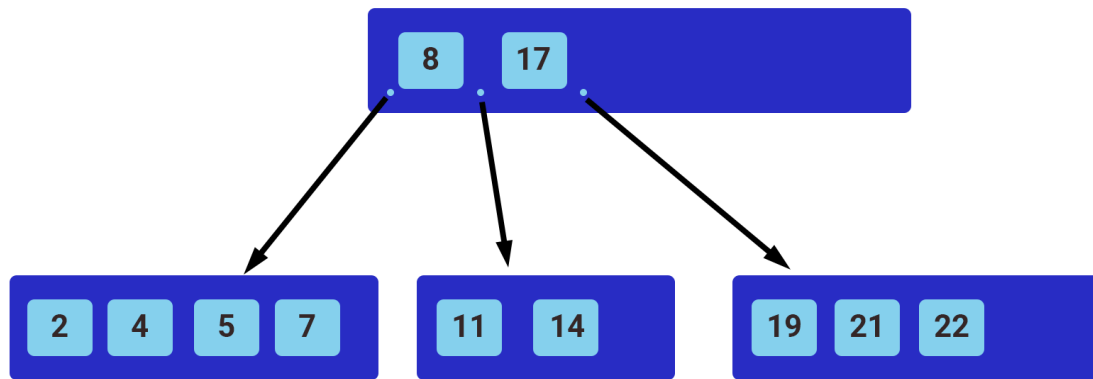


Since the values are not ordered and unique, maintaining a lookup table like clustered index is not possible. Secondary indexes create an intermediate table where the data is sorted, and it contains the address of the data block where it is stored. This is an example of a dense lookup table.

Now, similar to clustered indexes, a primary lookup table is created as a sparse table which contains the addresses of the intermediate table.

Implementation

The most common indexes use a BALANCED TREE behind the scenes to speed up queries. Most database engines use either a balanced tree or a variation of a balanced tree like a B+ TREE. The structure of a general balanced tree is shown below



The top node is the root, and those below it are either child nodes or leaf nodes. We always start searching for our row from the root node and compare if the value we're searching for is less than or greater than the value in the node at hand. The result of the comparison tells us which way to go, left or right, depending on the result of our comparison. In the example above, all values lower than 8 take us to the left, while values greater than 8 take us to the right, and so on.

The B+ Tree is the most common index data structure in database systems. It has several important properties:

- Perfectly balanced search tree (all leaf nodes are the same depth)
- It generalizes the binary search tree from two children to M children Where M is a fixed constant for any particular B+ Tree
- Every inner node other than the root must be at least half capacity (has m children where $\lceil M/2 \rceil \leq m \leq M$)
- Every inner node with m children has $m-1$ keys
- Every leaf node must be at least half full (holds k keys where $\lceil (M-1)/2 \rceil \leq k \leq M-1$)
- Insert and delete operations will rebalance the tree to maintain these properties

When to use indexes?

- To find the rows matching a WHERE clause quickly.
- To eliminate rows from consideration.
- To retrieve rows from other tables when performing joins.
- To find the MIN() or MAX() value for a specific indexed column.
- To sort or group a table (under certain conditions).
- To optimize queries using only indexes without consulting the data rows.

When Should Indexes Be Avoided?

- Indexes should not be used on small tables.

- Indexes should not be used on columns that return a high percentage of data rows when used as a filter condition in a query's WHERE clause.
- Tables that have frequent, large batch update jobs run can be indexed. However, the batch job's performance is slowed considerably by the index.
- Indexes should not be used on columns that contain a high number of NULL values.
- Columns that are frequently manipulated should not be indexed. Maintenance on the index can become excessive.

Some queries to get you started

Create the students relation with an index on phone number

```
CREATE TABLE `students` (  
  `id` int NOT NULL AUTO_INCREMENT,  
  `name` varchar(255) NOT NULL,  
  `age` int DEFAULT NULL,  
  `phone` int DEFAULT NULL,  
  `email` varchar(255) NOT NULL,  
  `address` varchar(255) DEFAULT NULL,  
  PRIMARY KEY (`id`),  
  INDEX `phone` (`phone`)  
)
```

Or modify the students relation to have an index on phone number

```
ALTER TABLE `students` ADD INDEX `phone` (`phone`)
```

References

- [Isolation Levels](#)
- [Indexes](#)

Further reading

- [Critique of isolation levels](#)
- [Indexes](#)
- [Indexes Data Structure](#)
- [Write-ahead logging and MySQL](#)