

## Oracle 8 Nested Tables

Another structuring tool provided in Oracle 8 is the ability to have a relation with an attribute whose value is not just an object, but a (multi)set of objects, i.e., a relation.

- Keyword `THE` allows us to treat a nested relation as a regular relation, e.g., in `FROM` clauses.
- Keywords `CAST(MULTISET(...))` let us turn the result of a query into a nested relation.

## Defining Table Types

If we have an object type, we can create a new type that is a bag of that type by `AS TABLE OF`.

## Example

Suppose we have a more complicated beer type:

```
CREATE TYPE BeerType AS OBJECT (  
    name CHAR(20),  
    kind CHAR(5),  
    color CHAR(5)  
);  
/
```

We may create a type that is a (nested) table of objects of this type by:

```
CREATE TYPE BeerTableType AS  
    TABLE OF BeerType;  
/
```

Now, we can define a relation of manufacturers that will nest their beers inside.

- In a sense, we normalize an unnormalized relation, since other data about the manufacturer appears only once no matter how many beers they produce.

```
CREATE TABLE Manfs (  
    name CHAR(30),  
    addr CHAR(50),  
    beers BeerTableType  
)
```

- However, to tell the system how to store the little `beers` tables, we must follow this statement, prior to the semicolon, by a statement

```
    NESTED TABLE beers STORE AS  
        BeerTable;
```

- The name of the table that stores the tuples for the nested `beers` relations is arbitrary; here we used `BeerTable`.

## Querying With Nested Tables

An attribute that is a nested table can be printed like any other attribute.

- The value has two type constructors, one for the table, one for the type of its tuples.

### Example

List the beers made by Anheuser-Busch.

```
SELECT beers
FROM Manfs
WHERE name = 'Anheuser Busch';
```

- A single value will be printed, looking something like:

```
BeerTableType(
  BeerType('Bud', 'lager', 'yello'),
  BeerType('Lite', 'malt', 'pale'),...
)
```

## Operating on Nested Tables

Use **THE** to get the nested table itself, then treat it like any other relation.

### Example

Find the ales made by Anheuser-Busch.

```
SELECT bb.name
FROM THE(
    SELECT beers
    FROM Manfs
    WHERE name = 'Anheuser Busch'
) bb
WHERE bb.kind = 'ale';
```

## Casting to Create Nested Tables

Create a value for a nested table by using a select-from-where query and “casting” it to the table type.

### Example

- Suppose we have a relation `Beers(beer, manf)`, where `beer` is a `BeerType` object and `manf` its manufacturer.
- We want to insert into `Manfs` a tuple for Pete’s Brewing Co., with all the beers brewed by Pete’s (according to `Beers`) in one nested table.

```
INSERT INTO Manfs VALUES(  
    'Pete''s', 'Palo Alto',  
    CAST(  
        MULTISET(  
            SELECT bb.beer  
            FROM Beers bb  
            WHERE bb.manf = 'Pete''s'  
        ) AS BeerType  
    )  
);
```

## Transactions

= units of work that must be:

1. *Isolated* = appear to have been executed when no other DB operations were being performed.
  - ❖ Often called *serializable* behavior.
2. *Atomic* = either all work is done, or none of it.

## Commit/Abort Decision

Each transaction ends with either:

1. *Commit* = the work of the transaction is installed in the database; previously its changes may be invisible to other transactions.
  2. *Abort* = no changes by the transaction appear in the database; it is as if the transaction never occurred.
    - ❖ `ROLLBACK` is the term used in SQL and the Oracle system.
- In the ad-hoc query interface (e.g., Oracle's SQLplus), transactions are single queries or modification statements.
    - ❖ Oracle allows `SET TRANSACTION READ ONLY` to begin a multistatement transaction that doesn't change any data, but needs to see a consistent "snapshot" of the data.
  - In program interfaces (e.g., Pro\*C or PL/SQL), transactions begin whenever the database is accessed, and end when either a `COMMIT` or *ROLLBACK* statement is executed.



## Example

Sells(bar, beer, price)

- Joe's Bar sells Bud for \$2.50 and Miller for \$3.00.
- Sally is querying the database for the highest and lowest price Joe charges:
  - (1) SELECT MAX(price) FROM Sells  
WHERE bar = 'Joe''s Bar';
  - (2) SELECT MIN(price) FROM Sells  
WHERE bar = 'Joe''s Bar';
- At the same time, Joe has decided to replace Miller and Bud by Heineken at \$3.50:
  - (3) DELETE FROM Sells  
WHERE bar = 'Joe''s Bar' AND  
(beer = 'Miller' OR beer = 'Bud');
  - (4) INSERT INTO Sells  
VALUES('Joe''s bar', 'Heineken',  
3.50);
- If the order of statements is 1, 3, 4, 2, then it appears to Sally that Joe's minimum price is

greater than his maximum price.

- Fix the problem by grouping Sally's two statements into one transaction, e.g. with one PL/SQL statement.

## Example: Problem With Rollback

Suppose Joe executes statement 4 (insert Heineken), but then, during the transaction thinks better of it and issues a ROLLBACK statement.

- If Sally is allowed to execute her statement 1 (find max) just before the rollback, she gets the answer \$3.50, even though Joe doesn't sell any beer for \$3.50.
- Fix by making statement 4 a transaction, or part of a transaction, so its effects cannot be seen by Sally unless there is a COMMIT action.

## SQL2 Isolation Levels

*isolation levels* determine what a transaction is allowed to see. The declaration, valid for one transaction, is:

```
SET TRANSACTION ISOLATION LEVEL X;
```

where:

- $X = \text{SERIALIZABLE}$ : this transaction must execute as if at a point in time, where all other transactions occurred either completely before or completely after.
  - ❖ Example: Suppose Sally's statements 1 and 2 are one transaction and Joe's statements 3 and 4 are another transaction. If Sally's transaction runs at isolation level `SERIALIZABLE`, she would see the `Sells` relation either before or after statements 3 and 4 ran, but not in the middle.
- $X = \text{READ COMMITTED}$ : this transaction can only read committed data.
  - ❖ Example: if transactions are as above, Sally could see the original `Sells` for

statement 1 and the completely changed `Sells` for statement 2.

- $X = \text{REPEATABLE READ}$ : if a transaction reads data twice, then what it saw the first time, it will see the second time (it may see more the second time).
  - ❖ Example: If 1 is executed before 3, then 2 must see the Bud and Miller tuples when it computes the min, even if it executes after 3. But if 1 executes between 3 and 4, then 2 may see the Heineken tuple.
- $X = \text{READ UNCOMMITTED}$ : essentially no constraint, even on reading data written and then removed by a rollback.
  - ❖ Example: 1 and 2 could see Heineken, even if Joe rolled back his transaction.

## Authorization in SQL2

- File systems identify certain access privileges on files, e.g., read, write, execute.
- In partial analogy, SQL2 identifies six access privileges on relations, of which the most important are:
  1. `SELECT` = the right to query the relation.
  2. `INSERT` = the right to insert tuples into the relation — may refer to one attribute, in which case the privilege is to specify only one column of the inserted tuple.
  3. `DELETE` = the right to delete tuples from the relation.
  4. `UPDATE` = the right to update tuples of the relation — may refer to one attribute.

## Granting Privileges

- You have all possible privileges to the relations you create.
- You may grant privileges to any user if you have those privileges “with grant option.”
  - ❖ You have this option to your own relations.

### Example

1. Here, Sally can query `Sells` and can change prices, but cannot pass on this power:

```
GRANT SELECT ON Sells,  
        UPDATE(price) ON Sells  
TO sally;
```

2. Here, Sally can also pass these privileges to whom she chooses:

```
GRANT SELECT ON Sells,  
        UPDATE(price) ON Sells  
TO sally  
WITH GRANT OPTION;
```

## Revoking Privileges

- Your privileges can be revoked.
- Syntax is like granting, but `REVOKE . . . FROM` instead of `GRANT . . . TO`.
- Determining whether or not you have a privilege is tricky, involving “grant diagrams” as in text. However, the basic principles are:
  - a) If you have been given a privilege by several different people, then all of them have to revoke in order for you to lose the privilege.
  - b) Revocation is transitive. if  $A$  granted  $P$  to  $B$ , who granted  $P$  to  $C$ , and then  $A$  revokes  $P$  from  $B$ , it is as if  $B$  also revoked  $P$  from  $C$ .