

Chapter 9: Crash Recovery

Database System Concepts

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Chapter 9: Crash Recovery

- Failure Classification
- Storage Structure
- Recovery and Atomicity
- Log-Based Recovery
- Shadow Paging
- Remote Backup Systems





Failure Classification

Transaction failure :

- Logical errors: transaction cannot complete due to some internal error condition
- System errors: the database system must terminate an active transaction due to an error condition (e.g., deadlock)
- System crash: a power failure or other hardware or software failure causes the system to crash.
 - Fail-stop assumption: non-volatile storage contents are assumed to not be corrupted by system crash
 - Database systems have numerous integrity checks to prevent corruption of disk data
- **Disk failure**: a head crash or similar disk failure destroys all or part of disk storage
 - Destruction is assumed to be detectable: disk drives use checksums to detect failures





Recovery Algorithms

- Recovery algorithms are techniques to ensure database consistency and transaction atomicity and durability despite failures
 - Focus of this chapter
- Recovery algorithms have two parts
 - Actions taken during normal transaction processing to ensure enough information exists to recover from failures
 - 2. Actions taken after a failure to recover the database contents to a state that ensures atomicity, consistency and durability



Storage Structure

■ Volatile storage:

- does not survive system crashes
- examples: main memory, cache memory

Nonvolatile storage:

- survives system crashes
- examples: disk, tape, flash memory,
 non-volatile (battery backed up) RAM

Stable storage:

- a mythical form of storage that survives all failures
- approximated by maintaining multiple copies on distinct nonvolatile media



Data Access

- Physical blocks are those blocks residing on the disk.
- Buffer blocks are the blocks residing temporarily in main memory.
- Block movements between disk and main memory are initiated through the following two operations:
 - input(B) transfers the physical block B to main memory.
 - output(B) transfers the buffer block B to the disk, and replaces the appropriate physical block there.
- Each transaction T_i has its private work-area in which local copies of all data items accessed and updated by it are kept.
 - T_i 's local copy of a data item X is called x_i .
- We assume, for simplicity, that each data item fits in, and is stored inside, a single block.

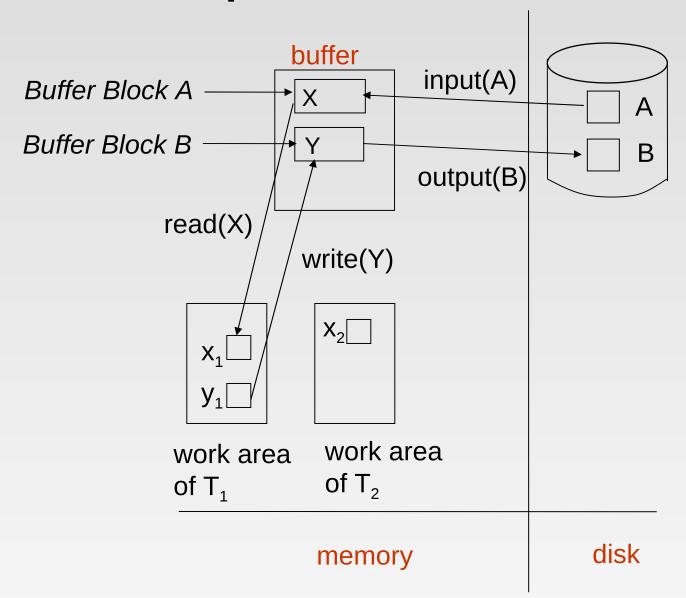


Data Access (Cont.)

- Transaction transfers data items between system buffer blocks and its private work-area using the following operations:
 - read(X) assigns the value of data item X to the local variable x_i .
 - write(X) assigns the value of local variable x_i to data item {X} in the buffer block.
 - both these commands may necessitate the issue of an $input(B_x)$ instruction before the assignment, if the block B_x in which X resides is not already in memory.
- Transactions
 - Perform read(X) while accessing X for the first time;
 - All subsequent accesses are to the local copy.
 - After last access, transaction executes write(X).
- **output**(B_X) need not immediately follow **write**(X). System can perform the **output** operation when it deems fit.



Example of Data Access





Recovery and Atomicity

- Modifying the database without ensuring that the transaction will commit may leave the database in an inconsistent state.
- Consider transaction T_i that transfers \$50 from account A to account B; goal is either to perform all database modifications made by T_i or none at all.
- Several output operations may be required for T_i (to output A and B). A failure may occur after one of these modifications have been made but before all of them are made.



Recovery and Atomicity (Cont.)

- To ensure atomicity despite failures, we first output information describing the modifications to stable storage without modifying the database itself.
- We study two approaches:
 - log-based recovery, and
 - shadow-paging
- We assume (initially) that transactions run serially, that is, one after the other.



Log-Based Recovery

- A log is kept on stable storage.
 - The log is a <u>sequence of log records</u>, and maintains <u>a record of</u> update activities on the database.
- When transaction T_i starts, it registers itself by writing a $< T_i$ start>log record
- Before T_i executes **write**(X), a log record $< T_i$, X_i , V_1 , V_2 is written, where V_1 is the value of X before the write, and V_2 is the value to be written to X.
 - Log record notes that T_i has performed a write on data item X_j X_j had value V_1 before the write, and will have value V_2 after the write.
- When T_i finishes it last statement, the log record $\langle T_i \rangle$ commit is written.
- We assume for now that log records are written directly to stable storage (that is, they are not buffered)
- Two approaches using logs
 - Deferred database modification
 - Immediate database modification





Deferred Database Modification

- The deferred database modification scheme records all modifications to the log, but defers all the writes to after partial commit.
- Assume that transactions execute serially
- **Transaction starts by writing** $< T_i$ **start**> record to log.
- A **write**(X) operation results in a log record $< T_i$, X, V> being written, where V is the new value for X
 - Note: old value is not needed for this scheme
- The write is not performed on X at this time, but is deferred.
- When T_i partially commits, $< T_i$ commit> is written to the log
- Finally, the log records are read and used to actually execute the previously deferred writes.





Deferred Database Modification (Cont.)

- During recovery after a crash, a transaction needs to be redone if and only if both $\langle T_i \rangle$ start and $\langle T_i \rangle$ are there in the log.
- Redoing a transaction T_i (**redo** T_i) sets the value of all data items updated by the transaction to the new values.
- Crashes can occur while
 - the transaction is executing the original updates, or
 - while recovery action is being taken
- example transactions T_0 and T_1 (T_0 executes before T_1):

```
      T_0: read (A)
      T_1: read (C)

      A: - A - 50
      C:- C- 100

      Write (A)
      write (C)

      read (B)
      B:- B + 50

      write (B)
```



Deferred Database Modification (Cont.)

Below we show the log as it appears at three instances of time.

- If log on stable storage at time of crash is as in case:
 - (a) No redo actions need to be taken
 - (b) redo(T_0) must be performed since T_0 commit is present
 - (c) **redo**(T_0) must be performed followed by redo(T_1) since T_0 commit and T_0 commit are present

es ma redo matra gare pugyo... undo garna parena.



Immediate Database Modification

- The immediate database modification scheme allows database updates of an uncommitted transaction to be made as the writes are issued
 - since <u>undoing may be needed, update logs must have both old</u> value and new value
- Update log record must be written before database item is written
 - We assume that the log record is output directly to stable storage
 - Can be extended to postpone log record output, so long as prior to execution of an output(B) operation for a data block B, all log records corresponding to items B must be flushed to stable storage
- Output of updated blocks can take place at any time before or after transaction commit
- Order in which blocks are output can be different from the order in which they are written.





Immediate Database Modification Example

Log

Database

 $< T_0$ start> $< T_0$, A, 1000, 950>

*T*₀, B, 2000, 2050

A = 950B = 2050

 $< T_0$ commit>

<*T*₁ start>

 $< T_1$, C, 700, $^{X}600>$

C = 600

< T_1 commit>



Immediate Database Modification (Cont.)

- Recovery procedure has two operations instead of one:
 - **undo**(T_i) restores the value of all data items updated by T_i to their old values, going backwards from the last log record for T_i
 - $redo(T_i)$ sets the value of all data items updated by T_i to the new values, going forward from the first log record for T_i
- Both operations must be <u>idempotent</u>
 - That is, even if the operation is executed multiple times the effect is
 the same as if it is executed once undo(undo (T)) is same as undo (T)
 - Needed since operations may get re-executed during recovery
- When recovering after failure:
 - Transaction T_i needs to be undone if the log contains the record $< T_i$ start>, but does not contain the record $< T_i$ commit>.
 - Transaction T_i needs to be redone if the log contains both the record $< T_i$ start> and the record $< T_i$ commit>.
- Undo operations are performed first, then redo operations.





Immediate DB Modification Recovery Example

Below we show the log as it appears at three instances of time.

Recovery actions in each case above are:

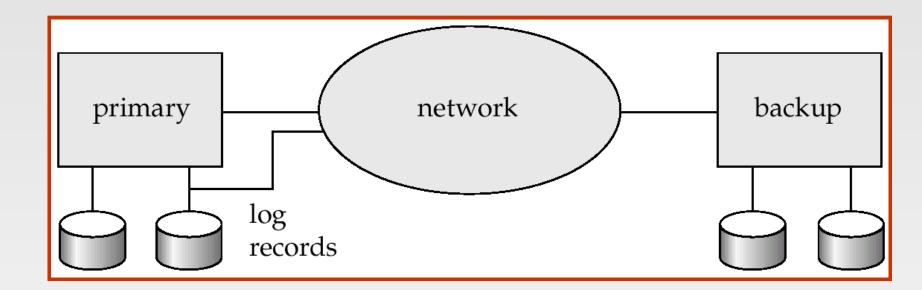
- (a) undo (T_0) : B is restored to 2000 and A to 1000.
- (b) undo (T_1) and redo (T_0) : C is restored to 700, and then A and B are set to 950 and 2050 respectively.
- (c) redo (T_0) and redo (T_1): A and B are set to 950 and 2050 respectively. Then C is set to 600





Remote Backup Systems

Remote backup systems provide <u>high availability</u> by <u>allowing transaction</u> processing to continue even if the primary site is destroyed.





Remote Backup Systems (Cont.)

- Detection of failure: Backup site must detect when primary site has failed
 - to distinguish primary site failure from link failure maintain several communication links between the primary and the remote backup.
 - Heart-beat messages

Transfer of control:

- To take over control backup site first perform recovery using its copy of the database and all the long records it has received from the primary.
 - Thus, completed transactions are redone and incomplete transactions are rolled back.
- When the backup site takes over processing it becomes the new primary
- To transfer control back to old primary when it recovers, old primary must receive redo logs from the old backup and apply all updates locally.



Remote Backup Systems (Cont.)

- **Time to recover**: To reduce delay in takeover, backup site periodically proceses the redo log records (in effect, performing recovery from previous database state), performs a checkpoint, and can then delete earlier parts of the log.
- Hot-Spare configuration permits very fast takeover:
 - Backup continually processes redo log record as they arrive, applying the updates locally.
 - When failure of the primary is detected the backup rolls back incomplete transactions, and is ready to process new transactions.
- Alternative to remote backup: distributed database with replicated data
 - Remote backup is faster and cheaper, but less tolerant to failure
 - more on this in Chapter 19





Remote Backup Systems (Cont.)

- Ensure durability of updates by delaying transaction commit until update is logged at backup; avoid this delay by permitting lower degrees of durability.
- One-safe: commit as soon as transaction's commit log record is written at primary
 - Problem: <u>updates may not arrive at backup before it takes over.</u>
- Two-very-safe: commit when transaction's commit log record is written at primary and backup
 - Reduces availability since transactions cannot commit if either site fails.
- Two-safe: proceed as in two-very-safe if both primary and backup are active. If only the primary is active, the transaction commits as soon as is commit log record is written at the primary.
 - Better availability than two-very-safe; avoids problem of lost transactions in one-safe.





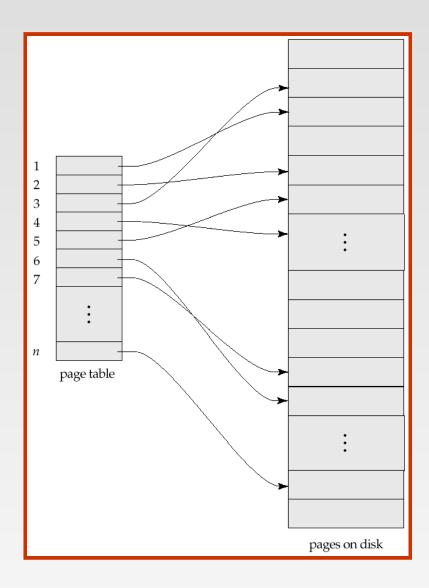
Shadow Paging

- Shadow paging is an alternative to log-based recovery; this scheme is useful if transactions execute serially
- Idea: maintain two page tables during the lifetime of a transaction –the current page table, and the shadow page table
- Store the shadow page table in nonvolatile storage, such that state of the database prior to transaction execution may be recovered.
 - Shadow page table is never modified during execution
- To <u>start with</u>, both the <u>page tables are identical</u>. Only current page table is used for data item accesses during execution of the transaction.
- Whenever any page is about to be written for the first time
 - A copy of this page is made onto an unused page.
 - The current page table is then made to point to the copy
 - The update is performed on the copy





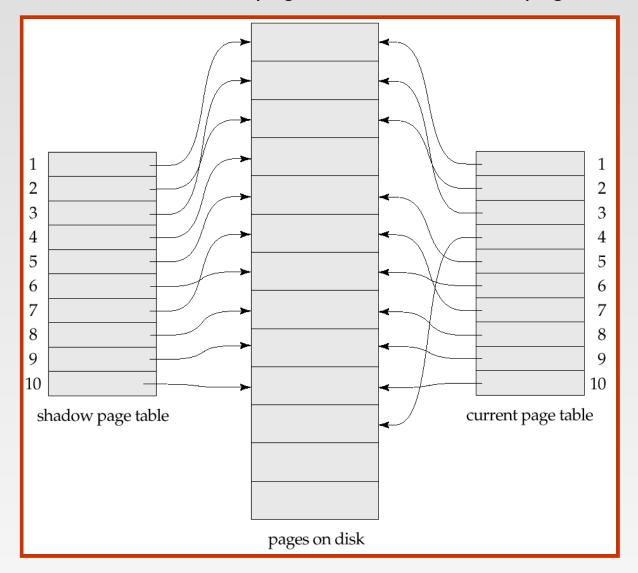
Sample Page Table





Example of Shadow Paging

Shadow and current page tables after write to page 4







Shadow Paging (Cont.)

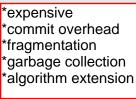
- To commit a transaction :
 - 1. Flush all modified pages in main memory to disk
 - 2. Output current page table to disk
 - 3. Make the current page table the new shadow page table, as follows:
 - keep a pointer to the shadow page table at a fixed (known) location on disk.
 - to make the current page table the new shadow page table, simply update the pointer to point to current page table on disk
- Once pointer to shadow page table has been written, transaction is committed.
- No recovery is needed after a crash new transactions can start right away, using the shadow page table.
- Pages not pointed to from current/shadow page table should be freed (garbage collected).





Show Paging (Cont.)

- Advantages of shadow-paging over log-based schemes
 - no overhead of writing log records
 - recovery is trivial
- Disadvantages :
 - Copying the entire page table is very expensive
 - Can be reduced by using a page table structured like a B+-tree
 - No need to copy entire tree, only need to copy paths in the tree that lead to updated leaf nodes
 - Commit overhead is high even with above extension
 - Need to flush every updated page, and page table
 - Data gets fragmented (related pages get separated on disk)
 - After every transaction completion, the database pages containing old versions of modified data need to be garbage collected
 - Hard to extend algorithm to allow transactions to run concurrently
 - Easier to extend log based schemes





Block Storage Operations

