Final Review Discussion Session

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Schedule

- **E-R Diagrams**
- **Functional Dependency & Normal Forms**
- **Transactions**
- **Concurrency Control**
- **Recovery**

Note that we only have limited time so some contents are left in extra slides, also please check the lecture notes for other missing contents.

E-R Diagrams

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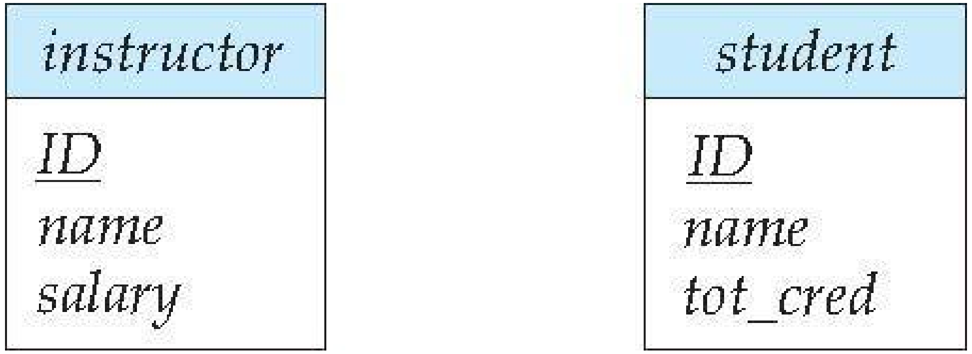
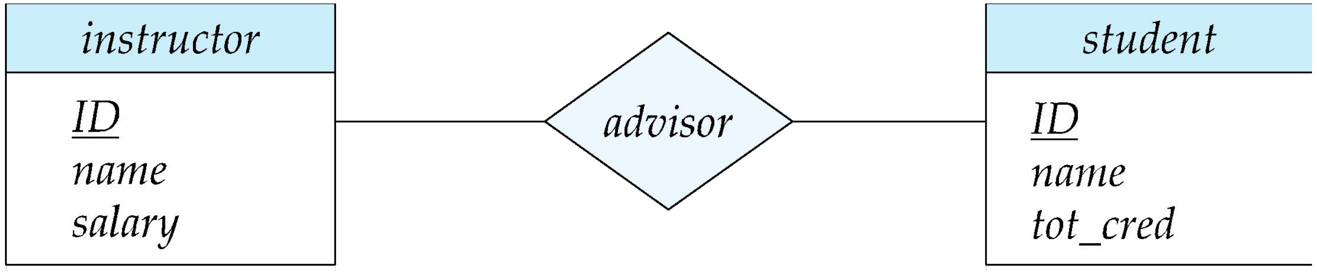
Entity Sets

- Entities can be represented graphically as follows:
  - Rectangles represent entity sets.
  - Attributes listed inside entity rectangle
  - Underline indicates primary key attributes

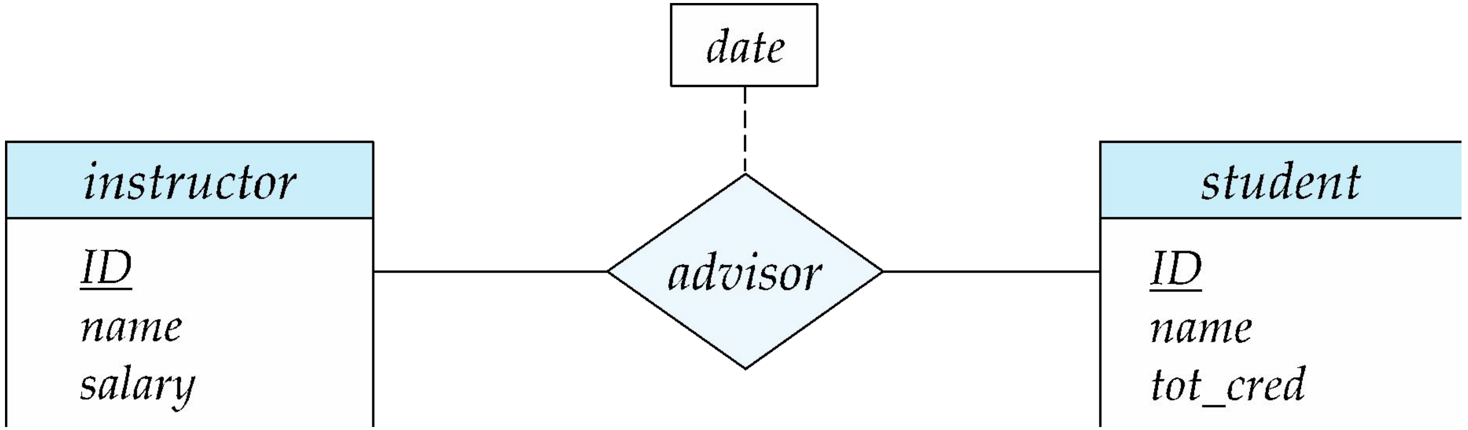


Relationship Sets

- Diamonds represent relationship sets.

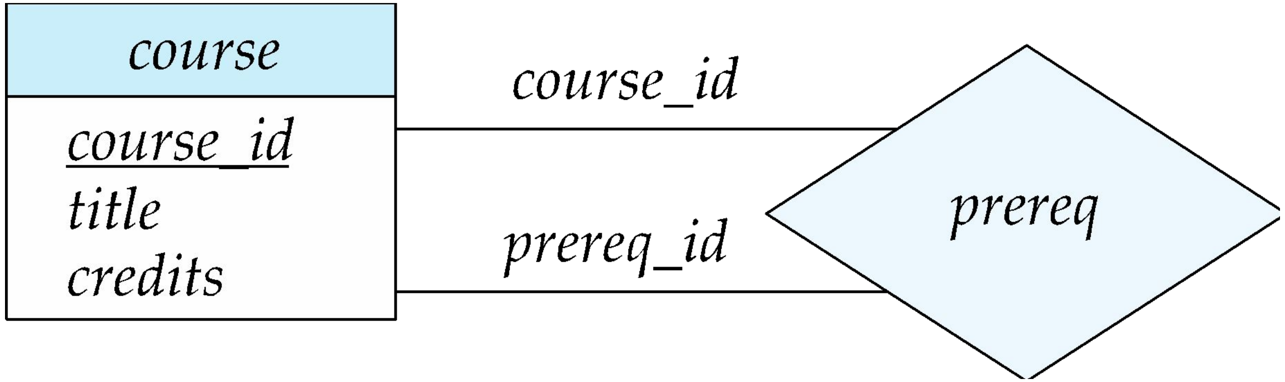


Relationship Sets with Attributes



Roles

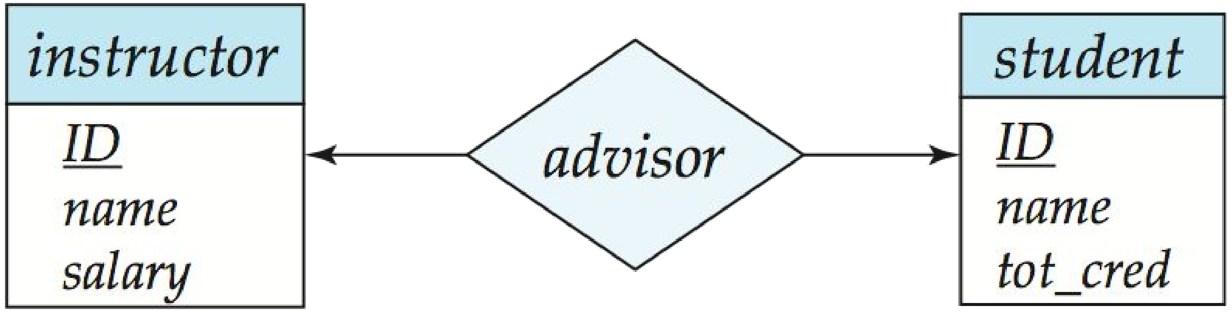
- Entity sets of a relationship need not be distinct
  - Each occurrence of an entity set plays a "role" in the relationship
- The labels "*course_id*" and "*prereq_id*" are called **roles**.



Cardinality Constraints

- We express cardinality constraints by drawing either a directed line (→), signifying "one," or an undirected line (—), signifying "many," between the relationship set and the entity set.

- One-to-one relationship between an *instructor* and a *student* :
  - A student is associated with at most one *instructor* via the relationship *advisor*
  - A *student* is associated with at most one *department* via *stud_dept*



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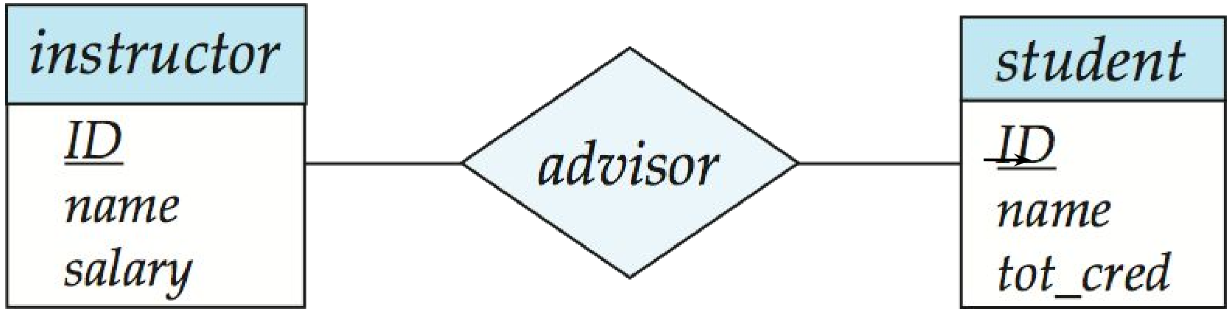
One-to-Many Relationship

- one-to-many relationship between an *instructor* and a *student*
  - an instructor is associated with several (including 0) students via *advisor*
  - a student is associated with at most one instructor via advisor,

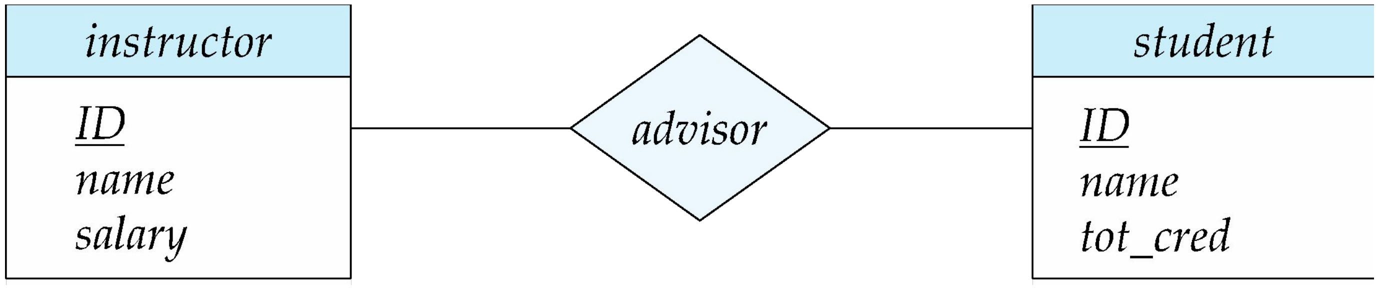
Many-to-One Relationships

- In a many-to-one relationship between an *instructor* and a *student,*
  - an instructor is associated with at most one student via *advisor*,
  - and a student is associated with several (including 0) instructors via *advisor*



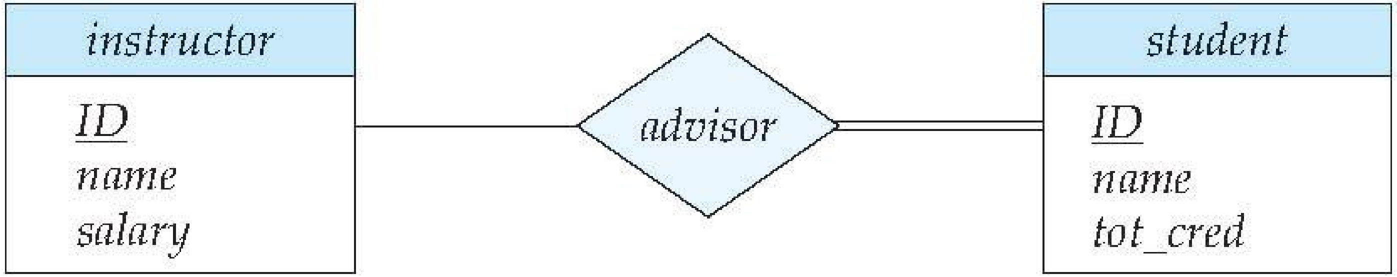
Many-to-Many Relationship

- An instructor is associated with several (possibly 0) students via *advisor*
- A student is associated with several (possibly 0) instructors via *advisor*



Total and Partial Participation

- Total participation (indicated by double line): every entity in the entity set participates in at least one relationship in the relationship set



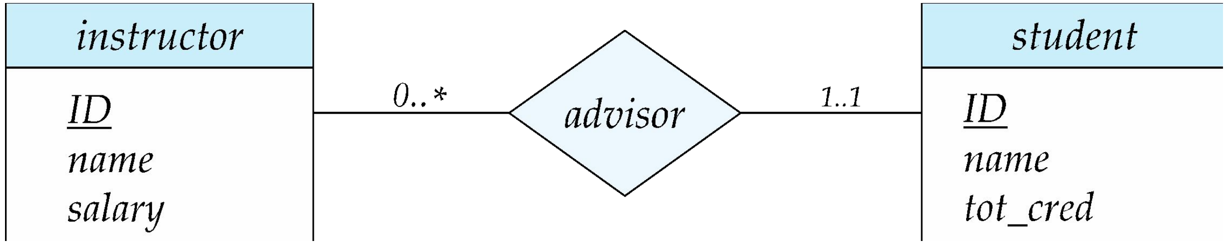
participation of *student* in *advisor* relation is total

4 every *student* must have an associated instructor

- Partial participation: some entities may not participate in any relationship in the relationship set
  - Example: participation of *instructor* in *advisor* is partial

Notation for Expressing More Complex Constraints

- A line may have an associated minimum and maximum cardinality, shown in the form *l..h*, where *l* is the minimum and *h* the maximum cardinality
  - A minimum value of 1 indicates total participation.
  - A maximum value of 1 indicates that the entity participates in at most one relationship
  - A maximum value of * indicates no limit.



Instructor can advise 0 or more students. A student must have 1 advisor; cannot have multiple advisors

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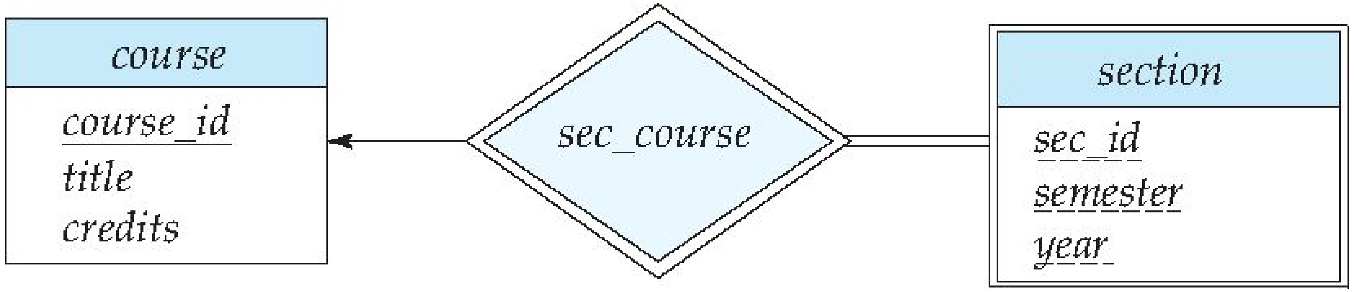
Expressing Weak Entity Sets

- In E-R diagrams, a weak entity set is depicted via a double rectangle.
- We underline the discriminator of a weak entity set with a dashed line.
- The relationship set connecting the weak entity set to the identifying strong entity set is depicted by a double diamond.
- Primary key for *section* – (*course_id, sec_id, semester, year*)



Review by yourself

- Reduction to Relation Schemas

These are also important concepts and may be tested in the final, but we have run out of time thus skip them. (In Extra Slides)

Normal Forms

Functional Dependencies (Cont.)

- Let R be a relation schema

  $\alpha \subseteq R$ *and* $\beta \subseteq R$

- The **functional dependency**

  $\boldsymbol{\alpha \rightarrow \beta}$

  holds on R if and only if for any legal relations r(R), whenever any two tuples t_1 and t_2 of r agree on the attributes α, they also agree on the attributes β. That is,

  $$t_1[\alpha] = t_2[\alpha] \Rightarrow t_1[\beta] = t_2[\beta]$$

- Example: Consider r(A,B) with the following instance of r.

1	4
1	5
3	7

- On this instance, $A \rightarrow B$ does **NOT** hold, but $B \rightarrow A$ does hold.

Functional Dependencies (Cont.)

- K is a superkey for relation schema R if and only if $K \rightarrow R$
- K is a candidate key for R if and only if
  - $K \rightarrow R$, and
  - for no $\alpha \subset K$, $\alpha \rightarrow R$
- Functional dependencies allow us to express constraints that cannot be expressed using superkeys. Consider the schema:

  inst_dept (*ID, name, salary, dept_name, building, budget*).

  We expect these functional dependencies to hold:

  $$dept\_name \rightarrow building$$

  and $$ID \rightarrow building$$

  but would not expect the following to hold:

  $$dept\_name \rightarrow salary$$

Functional Dependencies (Cont.)

- *A* functional dependency is **trivial** if it is satisfied by all instances of a relation
  - Example*:*
    - 4 *ID, name* → *ID*
    - 4 *name* → *name*
  - In general, α → *β* is trivial if *β* ⊆ α

Boyce-Codd Normal Form

A relation schema *R* is in BCNF with respect to a set *F* of functional dependencies if for all functional dependencies in F^+ of the form

$$\alpha \rightarrow \beta$$

where $\alpha \subseteq R$ and $\beta \subseteq R$, at least one of the following holds:

- $\alpha \rightarrow \beta$ is trivial (i.e., $\beta \subseteq \alpha$)
- α is a superkey for *R*

Example schema *not* in BCNF:

instr_dept (<u>*ID,*</u> *name, salary,* <u>*dept_name,*</u> *building, budget*)

because *dept_name* → *building, budget*
holds on *instr_dept,* but *dept_name* is not a superkey

Decomposing a Schema into BCNF

- Suppose we have a schema R and a non-trivial dependency $\alpha \rightarrow \beta$ causes a violation of BCNF.

  We decompose R into:

  - $(\alpha \cup \beta)$
  - $(R - (\beta - \alpha))$
- In our example,
  - α = *dept_name*
  - β = *building, budget*

  and *inst_dept* is replaced by

  - $(\alpha \cup \beta)$ = (*dept_name, building, budget*)
  - $(R - (\beta - \alpha))$ = (*ID, name, salary, dept_name*)

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Third Normal Form

- A relation schema R is in **third normal form (3NF)** if for all:

  $\alpha \rightarrow \beta$ in F^+

  at least one of the following holds:
  - $\alpha \rightarrow \beta$ is trivial (i.e., $\beta \in \alpha$)
  - α is a superkey for R
  - Each attribute A in $\beta - \alpha$ is contained in a candidate key for R.

  (**NOTE***:* each attribute may be in a different candidate key)
- If a relation is in BCNF it is in 3NF (since in BCNF one of the first two conditions above must hold).
- Third condition is a minimal relaxation of BCNF to ensure dependency preservation (will see why later).

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3NF Example

- Relation *dept_advisor*:
  - *dept_advisor (s_ID, i_ID, dept_name)*
    $F = \{s\_ID,\ dept\_name \rightarrow i\_ID,\ \ i\_ID \rightarrow dept\_name\}$
  - Two candidate keys: *s_ID, dept_name,* and *i_ID, s_ID*
  - *R* is in 3NF
    - 4 $s\_ID,\ dept\_name \rightarrow i\_ID \quad s\_ID$
      - *dept_name* is a superkey
    - 4 $i\_ID \rightarrow dept\_name$
      - *dept_name* is contained in a candidate key

Lossless-join Decomposition

- For the case of $R = (R_1, R_2)$, we require that for all possible relations r on schema R

  $$r = \Pi_{R1}(r) \bowtie \Pi_{R2}(r)$$

- In other words, the decomposed relations can be joined to form the original table *exactly*
- A decomposition of R into R_1 and R_2 is lossless join if at least one of the following dependencies is in F^+:
  - $R_1 \cap R_2 \rightarrow R_1$
  - $R_1 \cap R_2 \rightarrow R_2$
- The above functional dependencies are a sufficient condition for lossless join decomposition; the dependencies are a necessary condition only if all constraints are functional dependencies

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Dependency Preservation

- Let F_i be the set of dependencies F^+ that include only attributes in R_i.
  - A decomposition is **dependency preserving**, if

    $$(F_1 \cup F_2 \cup \ldots \cup F_n)^+ = F^+$$

  - If it is not, then checking updates for violation of functional dependencies may require computing joins, which is expensive.

- Lossless Decomposition vs Functional Dependency Preservation
  - Not the same concept!
  - Check Piazza @291

Example

- $R = (A, B, C)$
  $F = \{A \rightarrow B, B \rightarrow C\}$
  - Can be decomposed in two different ways
- $R_1 = (A, B), \quad R_2 = (B, C)$
  - Lossless-join decomposition:

    $$R_1 \cap R_2 = \{B\} \text{ and } B \rightarrow BC$$

  - Dependency preserving
- $R_1 = (A, B), \quad R_2 = (A, C)$
  - Lossless-join decomposition:

    $$R_1 \cap R_2 = \{A\} \text{ and } A \rightarrow AB$$

  - Not dependency preserving
    (cannot check $B \rightarrow C$ without computing R_1 join R_2)

Testing for BCNF

- To check if a non-trivial dependency $\alpha \rightarrow \beta$ causes a violation of BCNF
  1. compute α^+ (the attribute closure of α), and
  2. verify that it includes all attributes of R, that is, it is a superkey of R.
- **Simplified test**: To check if a relation schema R is in BCNF, it suffices to check only the dependencies in the given set F for violation of BCNF, rather than checking all dependencies in F^+.
  - If none of the dependencies in F causes a violation of BCNF, then none of the dependencies in F^+ will cause a violation of BCNF either.
- However, **simplified test using only *F* is incorrect when testing a relation in a decomposition of R**
  - Consider $R = (A, B, C, D, E)$, with $F = \{ A \rightarrow B, BC \rightarrow D\}$
    - Decompose R into $R_1 = (A,B)$ and $R_2 = (A,C,D, E)$
    - Neither of the dependencies in F contain only attributes from (A,C,D,E) so we might be mislead into thinking R_2 satisfies BCNF.
    - In fact, dependency $AC \rightarrow D$ in F^+ shows R_2 is not in BCNF.

Testing Decomposition for BCNF

- To check if a relation R_i in a decomposition of R is in BCNF,
  - Either test R_i for BCNF with respect to the **restriction** of F to R_i (that is, all FDs in F^+ that contain only attributes from R_i)
  - or use the original set of dependencies F that hold on R, but with the following test:
    - for every set of attributes $\alpha \subseteq R_i$, check that α^+ (the attribute closure of α) either includes no attribute of $R_i - \alpha$, or includes all attributes of R_i.

    4 If the condition is violated by some $\alpha \rightarrow \beta$ in F, the dependency

    $$\alpha \rightarrow (\alpha^+ - \alpha) \cap R_i$$

    can be shown to hold on R_i, and R_i violates BCNF.

    4 We use above dependency to decompose R_i

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BCNF Decomposition Algorithm

result := {*R* };
done := false;
compute F^+;
while (not *done*) **do**
if (there is a schema R_i in *result* that is not in BCNF)
then begin
let $\alpha \rightarrow \beta$ be a nontrivial functional dependency that
holds on R_i such that $\alpha \rightarrow R_i$ is not in F^+,
and $\alpha \cap \beta = \varnothing$;
$result := (result - R_i) \cup (R_i - \beta) \cup (\alpha, \beta);$
end
else *done* := **true;**

Note: each R_i is in BCNF, and decomposition is lossless-join.

Transactions

Transaction Concept

- A **transaction** is a *unit* of program execution that accesses and possibly updates various data items.
- E.g., transaction to transfer $50 from account A to account B:
  1. **read**(*A*)
  2. *A* := *A* – 50
  3. **write**(*A*)
  4. **read**(*B*)
  5. *B* := *B* + 50
  6. **write**(*B*)
- Two main issues to deal with:
  - Failures of various kinds, such as hardware failures and system crashes
  - Concurrent execution of multiple transactions

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ACID Properties

A **transaction** is a unit of program execution that accesses and possibly updates various data items. To preserve the integrity of data the database system must ensure:

- **Atomicity.** Either all operations of the transaction are properly reflected in the database or none are.
- **Consistency.** Execution of a transaction in isolation preserves the consistency of the database.
- **Isolation.** Although multiple transactions may execute concurrently, each transaction must be unaware of other concurrently executing transactions. Intermediate transaction results must be hidden from other concurrently executed transactions.
  - That is, for every pair of transactions T_i and T_j, it appears to T_i that either T_j, finished execution before T_i started, or T_j started execution after T_i finished.
- **Durability.** After a transaction completes successfully, the changes it has made to the database persist, even if there are system failures.

Schedules

- **Schedule** – a sequences of instructions that specify the chronological order in which instructions of concurrent transactions are executed
  - A schedule for a set of transactions must consist of all instructions of those transactions
  - Must preserve the order in which the instructions appear in each individual transaction.
- A transaction that successfully completes its execution will have a **commit** instructions as the last statement
  - By default transaction assumed to execute commit instruction as its last step
- A transaction that fails to successfully complete its execution will have an **abort** instruction as the last statement

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Serializability

- **Basic Assumption** – Each transaction preserves database consistency.
- Thus, serial execution of a set of transactions preserves database consistency.
- A (possibly concurrent) schedule is serializable if it is equivalent to a serial schedule. Different forms of schedule equivalence give rise to the notions of:
  1. **conflict serializability**
  2. **view serializability**

Conflicting Instructions

- Let I_i and I_j be two Instructions of transactions T_i and T_j respectively. Instructions I_i and I_j **conflict** if and only if there exists some item Q accessed by both I_i and I_j, and at least one of these instructions wrote Q.

   1. I_i = **read**(Q), I_j = **read**(Q). I_i and I_j don't conflict.
   2. I_i = **read**(Q), I_j = **write**(Q). They conflict.
   3. I_i = **write**(Q), I_j = **read**(Q). They conflict
   4. I_i = **write**(Q), I_j = **write**(Q). They conflict

- Intuitively, a conflict between I_i and I_j forces a (logical) temporal order between them.
  - If I_i and I_j are consecutive in a schedule and they do not conflict, their results would remain the same even if they had been interchanged in the schedule.

Conflict Serializability

- If a schedule *S* can be transformed into a schedule *S´* by a series of swaps of non-conflicting instructions, we say that *S* and *S´* are **conflict equivalent***.*
- We say that a schedule *S* is **conflict serializable** if it is conflict equivalent to a serial schedule

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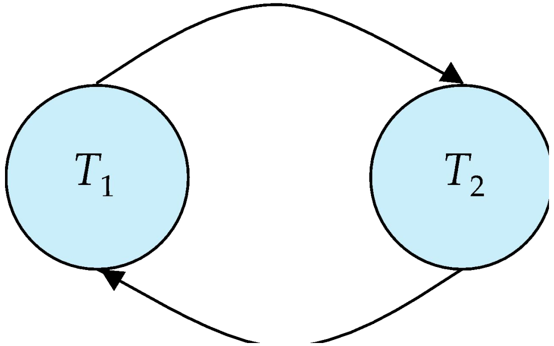
Precedence Graph

- Consider some schedule of a set of transactions T_1, T_2, ..., T_n
- **Precedence graph** — a direct graph where the vertices are the transactions (names).
- We draw an arc from T_i to T_j if the two transaction conflict, and T_i accessed the data item on which the conflict arose earlier.
- A schedule is **conflict serializable** if and only if its precedence graph is **acyclic**.
- Example



Recoverable Schedules

- **Recoverable schedule** — if a transaction T_j reads a data item previously written by a transaction T_i , then the commit operation of T_i **must** appear before the commit operation of T_j.
- The following schedule is not recoverable if T_9 commits immediately after the read(A) operation.

T_8	T_9
read (A)	
write (A)	
	read (A)
	commit
read (B)	

- If T_8 should abort, T_9 would have read (and possibly shown to the user) an inconsistent database state. Hence, database must ensure that schedules are recoverable.

Cascading Rollbacks

- **Cascading rollback** – a single transaction failure leads to a series of transaction rollbacks. Consider the following schedule where none of the transactions has yet committed (so the schedule is recoverable)

T_{10}	T_{11}	T_{12}
read (A)		
read (B)		
write (A)		
	read (A)	
	write (A)	
		read (A)
abort		

  If T_{10} fails, T_{11} and T_{12} must also be rolled back.
- Can lead to the undoing of a significant amount of work

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Cascadeless Schedules

- **Cascadeless schedules** — for each pair of transactions T_i and T_j such that T_j reads a data item previously written by T_i, the commit operation of T_i appears before the read operation of T_j.
- Every cascadeless schedule is also recoverable
- It is desirable to restrict the schedules to those that are cascadeless
- Example of a schedule that is NOT cascadeless

T_{10}	T_{11}	T_{12}
read (A)		
read (B)		
write (A)		
	read (A)	
	write (A)	
		read (A)
abort		

Concurrency Control

Concurrency Control

- A database must provide a mechanism that will ensure that all possible schedules are both:
  - Conflict serializable.
  - Recoverable and preferably cascadeless
- A policy in which only one transaction can execute at a time generates serial schedules, but provides a poor degree of concurrency
- Concurrency-control schemes tradeoff between the amount of concurrency they allow and the amount of overhead that they incur
- Testing a schedule for serializability *after* it has executed is a little too late!
  - Tests for serializability help us understand why a concurrency control protocol is correct
- **Goal** – to develop concurrency control protocols that will assure serializability.

Lock-Based Protocols

- A lock is a mechanism to control concurrent access to a data item
- Data items can be locked in two modes :

  1. *exclusive* (X) *mode*. Data item can be both read as well as written. X-lock is requested using **lock-X** instruction.
  2. *shared* (S) *mode*. Data item can only be read. S-lock is requested using **lock-S** instruction.

- Lock requests are made to the concurrency-control manager by the programmer. Transaction can proceed only after request is granted.

Lock-Based Protocols (Cont.)

- **Lock-compatibility matrix**

	S	X
S	true	false
X	false	false

- A transaction may be granted a lock on an item if the requested lock is compatible with locks already held on the item by other transactions
- Any number of transactions can hold shared locks on an item,
  - But if any transaction holds an exclusive on the item no other transaction may hold any lock on the item.
- If a lock cannot be granted, the requesting transaction is made to wait till all incompatible locks held by other transactions have been released. The lock is then granted.

Lock-Based Protocols (Cont.)

- Example of a transaction performing locking:

  T_2: **lock-S**(*A*);
  read (*A*);
  unlock(*A*);
  lock-S(*B*);
  read (*B*);
  unlock(*B*);
  display(*A*+*B*)

- Locking as above is not sufficient to guarantee serializability — if *A* and *B* get updated in-between the read of *A* and *B*, the displayed sum would be wrong.
- A **locking protocol** is a set of rules followed by all transactions while requesting and releasing locks. Locking protocols restrict the set of possible schedules.

The Two-Phase Locking Protocol

- This protocol ensures conflict-serializable schedules.
- Phase 1: Growing Phase
  - Transaction may obtain locks
  - Transaction may not release locks
- Phase 2: Shrinking Phase
  - Transaction may release locks
  - Transaction may not obtain locks
- The protocol assures serializability. It can be proved that the transactions can be serialized in the order of their **lock points** (i.e., the point where a transaction acquired its final lock).

Deadlocks

- Consider the partial schedule

T_3	T_4
lock-x (B)	
read (B)	
$B := B - 50$	
write (B)	
	lock-s (A)
	read (A)
	lock-s (B)
lock-x (A)	

- Neither T_3 nor T_4 can make progress — executing **lock-S**(*B*) causes T_4 to wait for T_3 to release its lock on *B*, while executing **lock-X**(*A*) causes T_3 to wait for T_4 to release its lock on *A*.
- Such a situation is called a **deadlock**.
  - To handle a deadlock one of T_3 or T_4 must be rolled back and its locks released.

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Deadlocks (Cont.)

- Two-phase locking *does not* ensure freedom from deadlocks.
- In addition to deadlocks**,** there is a possibility of **starvation.**
- **Starvation** occurs if the concurrency control manager is badly designed. For example:
  - A transaction may be waiting for an X-lock on an item, while a sequence of other transactions request and are granted an S-lock on the same item.
  - The same transaction is repeatedly rolled back due to deadlocks.
- Concurrency control manager can be designed to prevent starvation.

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Deadlocks (Cont.)

- The potential for deadlock exists in most locking protocols. Deadlocks are a necessary evil.
- When a deadlock occurs there is a possibility of cascading roll-backs.
- Cascading roll-back is possible under two-phase locking. To avoid this, follow a modified protocol called **strict two-phase locking** -- a transaction must hold all its exclusive locks till it commits/aborts.
- **Rigorous two-phase locking** is even stricter. Here, *all* locks are held till commit/abort. In this protocol transactions can be serialized in the order in which they commit.

Deadlock Handling

- System is deadlocked if there is a set of transactions such that every transaction in the set is waiting for another transaction in the set.
- ***Deadlock prevention*** protocols ensure that the system will *never* enter into a deadlock state. Some prevention strategies :
  - Require that each transaction locks all its data items before it begins execution (predeclaration).
  - Impose partial ordering of all data items and require that a transaction can lock data items only in the order specified by the partial order.

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More Deadlock Prevention Strategies

- Following schemes use transaction timestamps for the sake of deadlock prevention alone.
- **wait-die** scheme — non-preemptive
  - older transaction may wait for younger one to release data item. (older means smaller timestamp) Younger transactions never Younger transactions never wait for older ones; they are rolled back instead.
  - a transaction may die several times before acquiring needed data item
- **wound-wait** scheme — preemptive
  - older transaction *wounds* (forces rollback) of younger transaction instead of waiting for it. Younger transactions may wait for older ones.
  - may be fewer rollbacks than *wait-die* scheme.

Review by yourself

- Deadlock Detection
- Deadlock Recovery
- Timestamp-Based Protocols

These are also important concepts and may be tested in the final, but we have run out of time thus skip them. (In Extra Slides)

Recovery

Log-Based Recovery

- A **log** is kept on stable storage.
  - The log is a sequence of **log records**, and maintains a record of 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
  $<T_i, X, V_1, V_2>$
  is written, where V_1 is the value of X before the write (the **old value**), and V_2 is the value to be written to X (the **new value**).
- When T_i finishes it last statement, the log record $<T_i$ **commit**$>$ is written.
- Two approaches using logs
  - Deferred database modification
  - Immediate database modification

Immediate Database Modification

- The **immediate-modification** scheme allows updates of an uncommitted transaction to be made to the buffer, or the disk itself, before the transaction commits
- Update log record must be written *before* database item is written
  - **We assume that the log record is output directly to stable storage**
- Output of updated blocks to stable storage 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.
- The **deferred-modification** scheme performs updates to buffer/disk only at the time of transaction commit
  - Simplifies some aspects of recovery
  - But has overhead of storing local copy

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Transaction Commit

- A transaction is said to have committed when **its commit log record is output to stable storage**
  - all previous log records of the transaction must have been output already
- Writes performed by a transaction may still be in the buffer when the transaction commits, and may be output later

Immediate Database Modification Example

Log	Write	Output
<T_0 **start**>		
<T_0, A, 1000, 950>		
<T_o, B, 2000, 2050		
	A = 950	
	B = 2050	
<T_0 **commit**>		
<T_1 **start**>		
<T_1, C, 700, 600>		
	C = 600	
		B_B , B_C
<T_1 **commit**>		
		B_A

B_C output before T_1 commits

B_A output after T_0 commits

- Note: B_X denotes block containing X.

Undo and Redo Operations

- **Undo** of a log record $<T_i, X, V_1, V_2>$ writes the **old** value V_1 to X
- **Redo** of a log record $<T_i, X, V_1, V_2>$ writes the **new** value V_2 to X
- **Undo and Redo of Transactions**
  - **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
    - each time a data item X is restored to its old value V a special log record $<T_i , X, V>$ is written out
    - when undo of a transaction is complete, a log record $<T_i$ **abort**$>$ is written out.
  - **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
    - No logging is done in this case

Undo and Redo on Recovering from Failure

- When recovering after failure:
  - Transaction T_i needs to be undone if the log
    - contains the record <T_i **start**>,
    - but does not contain either the record <T_i **commit**> *or* <T_i **abort**>.
  - Transaction T_i needs to be redone if the log
    - contains the records <T_i **start**>
    - and contains the record <T_i **commit**> *or* <T_i **abort**>
- Note that If transaction T_i was undone earlier and the <T_i **abort**> record written to the log, and then a failure occurs, on recovery from failure T_i is redone
  - **such a redo redoes all the original actions *including the steps that restored old values***
    - Known as **repeating history**
    - Seems wasteful, but simplifies recovery greatly

Immediate DB Modification Recovery Example

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

(a)	(b)	(c)
<T_0 start>	<T_0 start>	<T_0 start>
<T_0, A, 1000, 950>	<T_0, A, 1000, 950>	<T_0, A, 1000, 950>
<T_0, B, 2000, 2050>	<T_0, B, 2000, 2050>	<T_0, B, 2000, 2050>
	<T_0 commit>	<T_0 commit>
	<T_1 start>	<T_1 start>
	<T_1, C, 700, 600>	<T_1, C, 700, 600>
		<T_1 commit>

Recovery actions in each case above are:

(a) undo (T_0): B is restored to 2000 and A to 1000, and log records <T_0, B, 2000>, <T_0, A, 1000>, <T_0, **abort**> are written out

(b) redo (T_0) and undo (T_1): *A* and *B* are set to 950 and 2050 and C is restored to 700. Log records <T_1, C, 700>, <T_1, **abort**> are written out.

(c) redo (T_0) and redo (T_1): A and B are set to 950 and 2050 respectively. Then *C* is set to 600

Checkpoints

- Redoing/undoing all transactions recorded in the log can be very slow
  1. processing the entire log is time-consuming if the system has run for a long time
  2. we might unnecessarily redo transactions which have already output their updates to the database.
- Streamline recovery procedure by periodically performing **checkpointing**
  1. Output all log records currently residing in main memory onto stable storage.
  2. Output all modified buffer blocks to the disk.
  3. Write a log record < **checkpoint** *L*> onto stable storage where *L* is a list of all transactions active at the time of checkpoint.
  - All updates are stopped while doing checkpointing

Checkpoints (Cont.)

- During recovery we need to consider only the most recent transaction T_i that started before the checkpoint, and transactions that started after T_i.
  1. Scan backwards from end of log to find the most recent <**checkpoint** *L*> record
  - Only transactions that are in *L* or started after the checkpoint need to be redone or undone
  - Transactions that committed or aborted before the checkpoint already have all their updates output to stable storage.
- Some earlier part of the log may be needed for undo operations
  1. Continue scanning backwards till a record <T_i **start**> is found for every transaction T_i in *L*.
  - Parts of log prior to earliest <T_i **start**> record above are not needed for recovery, and can be erased whenever desired.

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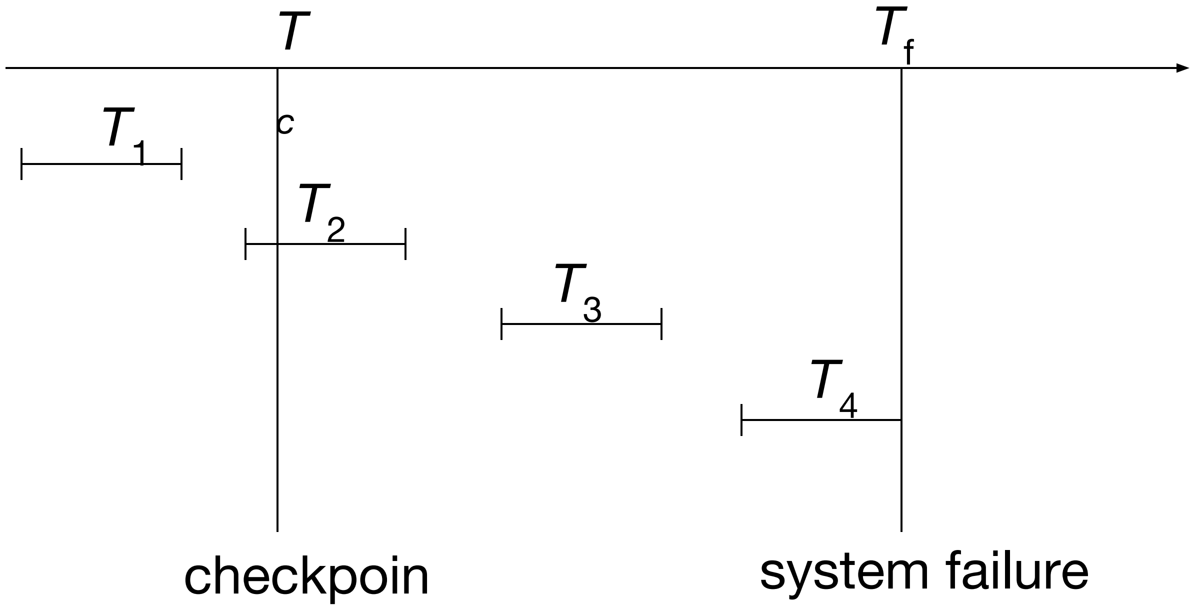
Example of Checkpoints



- T_1 can be ignored (updates already output to disk due to checkpoint)
- T_2 and T_3 redone.
- T_4 undone

Recovery Algorithm

- **Logging** (during normal operation):
  - $<T_i$ **start**$>$ at transaction start
  - $<T_i, X_j, V_1, V_2>$ for each update, and
  - $<T_i$ **commit**$>$ at transaction end
- **Transaction rollback (during normal operation)**
  - Let T_i be the transaction to be rolled back
  - Scan log backwards from the end, and for each log record of T_i of the form $<T_i, X_j, V_1, V_2>$
    - perform the undo by writing V_1 to X_j,
    - write a log record $<T_i, X_j, V_1>$
      - such log records are called **compensation log records**
  - Once the record $<T_i$ **start**$>$ is found stop the scan and write the log record $<T_i$ **abort**$>$

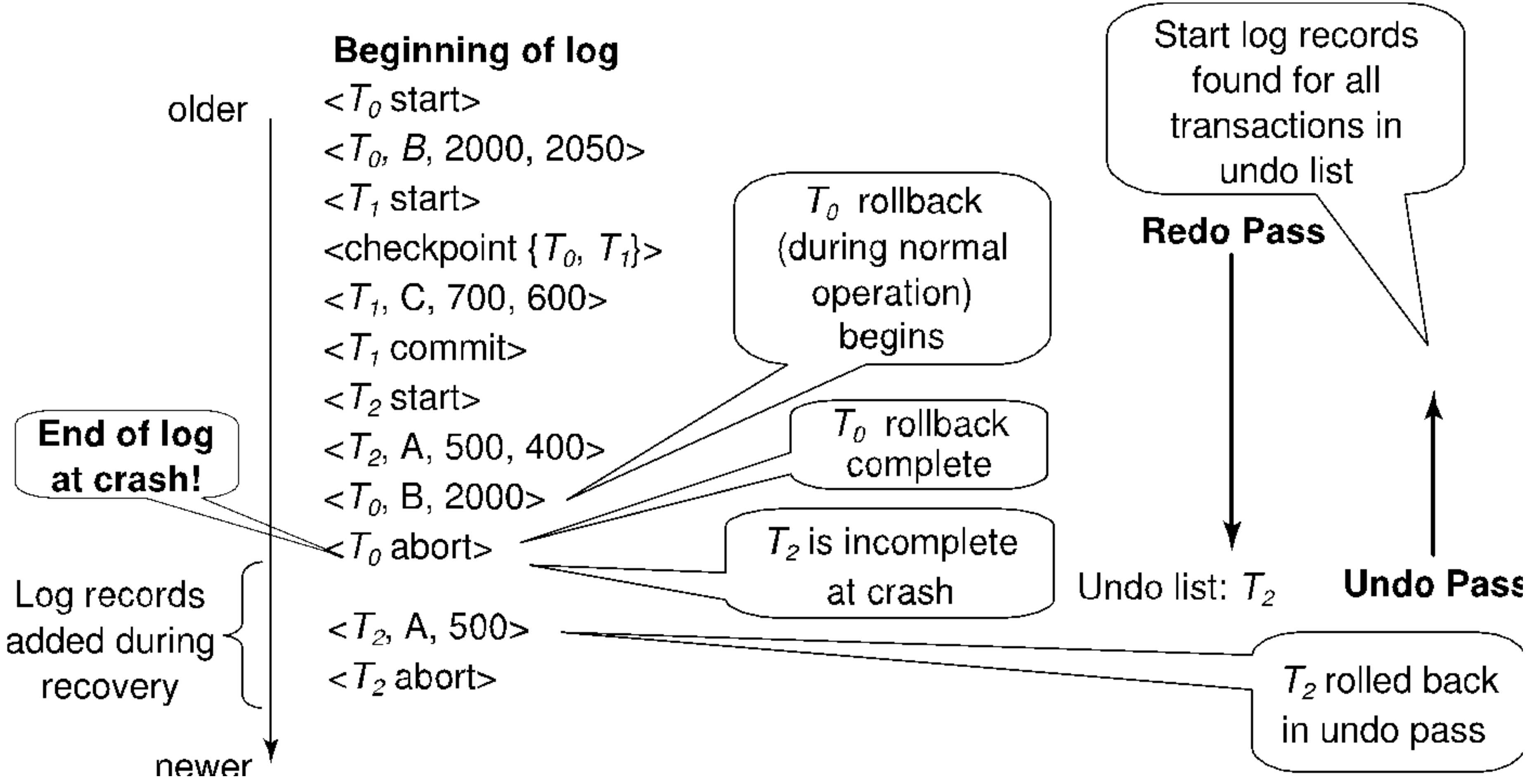
Recovery Algorithm (Cont.)

- **Recovery from failure**: Two phases
  - **Redo phase**: replay updates of **all** transactions, whether they committed, aborted, or are incomplete
  - **Undo phase**: undo all incomplete transactions
- **Redo phase**:
  1. Find last <**checkpoint** *L*> record, and set undo-list to *L*.
  2. Scan forward from above <**checkpoint** *L*> record
     1. Whenever a record $<T_i, X_j, V_1, V_2>$ or $<T_i, X_j, V_2>$ is found, redo it by writing V_2 to X_j
     2. Whenever a log record $<T_i$ **start**> is found, add T_i to undo-list
     3. Whenever a log record $<T_i$ **commit**> *or* $<T_i$ **abort**> is found, remove T_i from undo-list

Recovery Algorithm (Cont.)

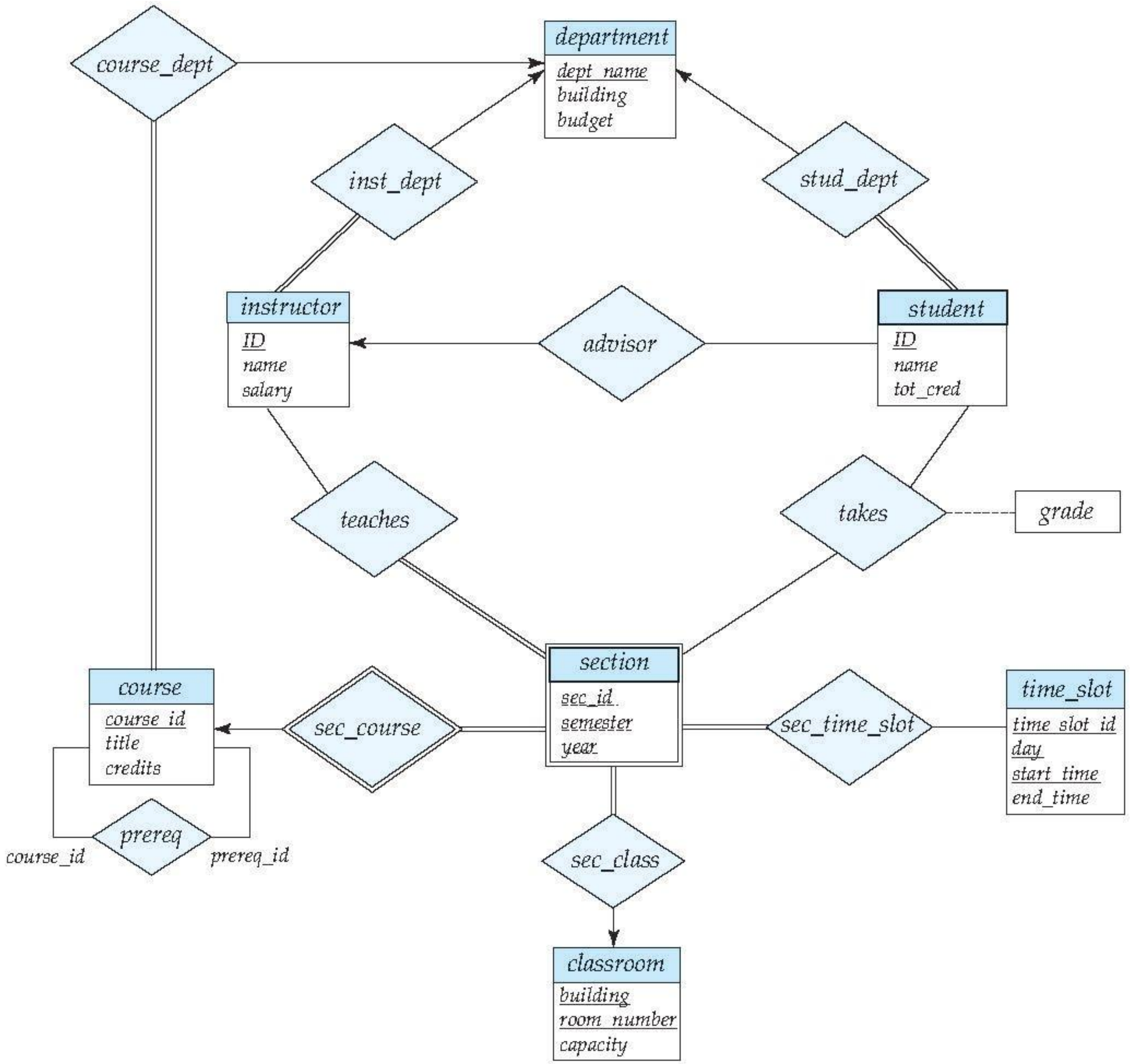
- **Undo phase:**
  1. Scan log backwards from end
     1. Whenever a log record $<T_i, X_j, V_1, V_2>$ is found where T_i is in undo-list perform same actions as for transaction rollback:
        1. perform undo by writing V_1 to X_j.
        2. write a log record $<T_i , X_j, V_1>$
     2. Whenever a log record <T_i **start**> is found where T_i is in undo-list,
        1. Write a log record <T_i **abort**>
        2. Remove T_i from undo-list
     3. Stop when undo-list is empty
        - i.e. <T_i **start**> has been found for every transaction in undo-list
- After undo phase completes, normal transaction processing can commence

Example of Recovery



Extra Slides

E-R Diagram for a University Enterprise



Reduction to Relation Schemas

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Reduction to Relation Schemas

- Entity sets and relationship sets can be expressed uniformly as *relation schemas* that represent the contents of the database.
- A database which conforms to an E-R diagram can be represented by a collection of schemas.
- For each entity set and relationship set there is a unique schema that is assigned the name of the corresponding entity set or relationship set.
- Each schema has a number of columns (generally corresponding to attributes), which have unique names.

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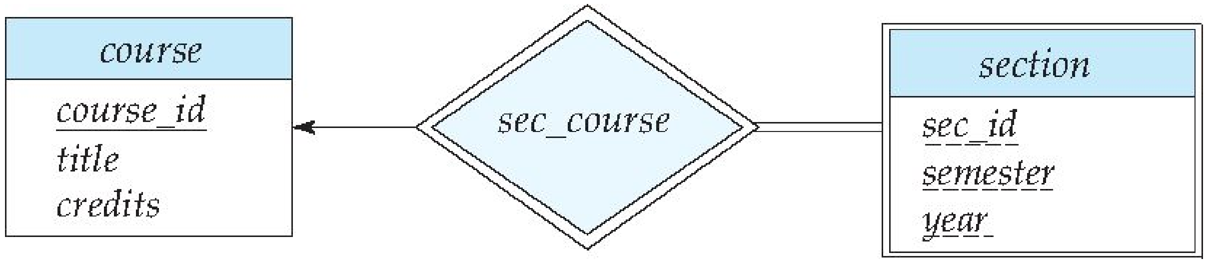
Representing Entity Sets

- A strong entity set reduces to a schema with the same attributes

  student(ID, name, tot_cred)

- A weak entity set becomes a table that includes a column for the primary key of the identifying strong entity set

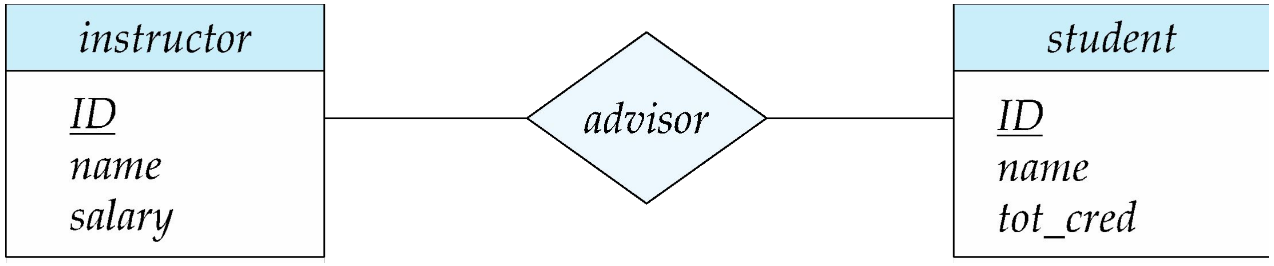
  section (course_id, sec_id, sem, year)



Representing Relationship Sets

- A many-to-many relationship set is represented as a schema with attributes for the primary keys of the two participating entity sets, and any descriptive attributes of the relationship set.
- Example: schema for relationship set *advisor*

$$\mathit{advisor} = (\underline{\mathit{s\_id}, \mathit{i\_id}})$$



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Representation of Entity Sets with Composite Attributes

instructor

<u>*ID*</u>
name
    first_name
    middle_initial
    last_name
address
    street
        street_number
        street_name
        apt_number
    city
    state
    zip
{ phone_number }
date_of_birth
age ( )

- Composite attributes are flattened out by creating a separate attribute for each component attribute
  - Example: given entity set *instructor* with composite attribute *name* with component attributes *first_name* and *last_name* the schema corresponding to the entity set has two attributes *name_first_name* and *name_last_name*
    - Prefix omitted if there is no ambiguity (*name_first_name* could be *first_name)*
- Ignoring multivalued attributes, extended instructor schema is
  - *instructor(ID,*
    first_name, middle_initial, last_name,
    street_number, street_name,
    apt_number, city, state, zip_code,
    date_of_birth)

Representation of Entity Sets with Multivalued Attributes

- A multivalued attribute *M* of an entity *E* is represented by a separate schema *EM*
- Schema *EM* has attributes corresponding to the primary key of *E* and an attribute corresponding to multivalued attribute *M*
- Example: Multivalued attribute *phone_number* of *instructor* is represented by a schema:
  inst_phone= (*ID*, *phone_number*)
- Each value of the multivalued attribute maps to a separate tuple of the relation on schema *EM*
  - For example, an *instructor* entity with primary key 22222 and phone numbers 456-7890 and 123-4567 maps to two tuples:
    (22222, 456-7890) and (22222, 123-4567)

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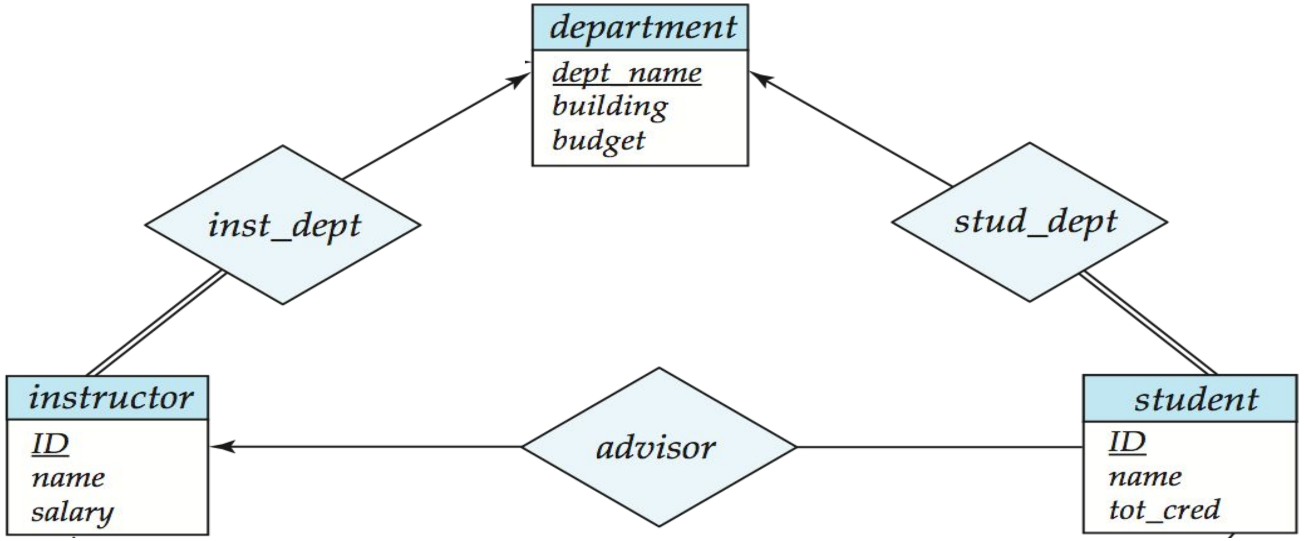
Redundancy of Schemas

- Many-to-one and one-to-many relationship sets that are total on the many-side can be represented by adding an extra attribute to the "many" side, containing the primary key of the "one" side
- Example: Instead of creating a schema for relationship set *inst_dept*, add an attribute *dept_name* to the schema arising from entity set *instructor*



Redundancy of Schemas (Cont.)

- For one-to-one relationship sets, either side can be chosen to act as the “many” side
  - That is, an extra attribute can be added to either of the tables corresponding to the two entity sets
- If participation is *partial* on the “many” side, replacing a schema by an extra attribute in the schema corresponding to the “many” side could result in null values

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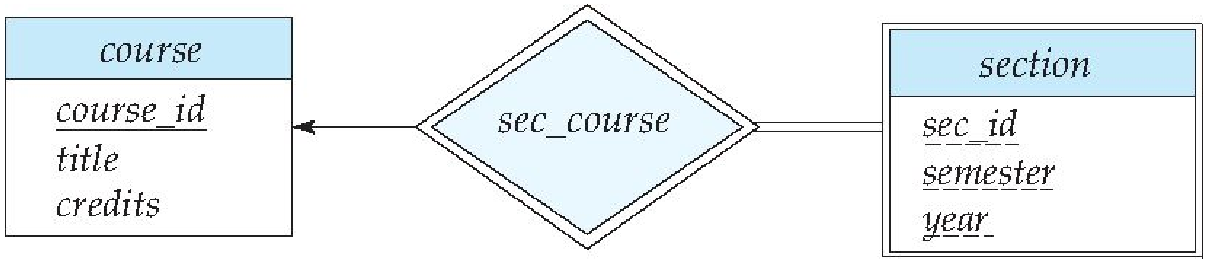
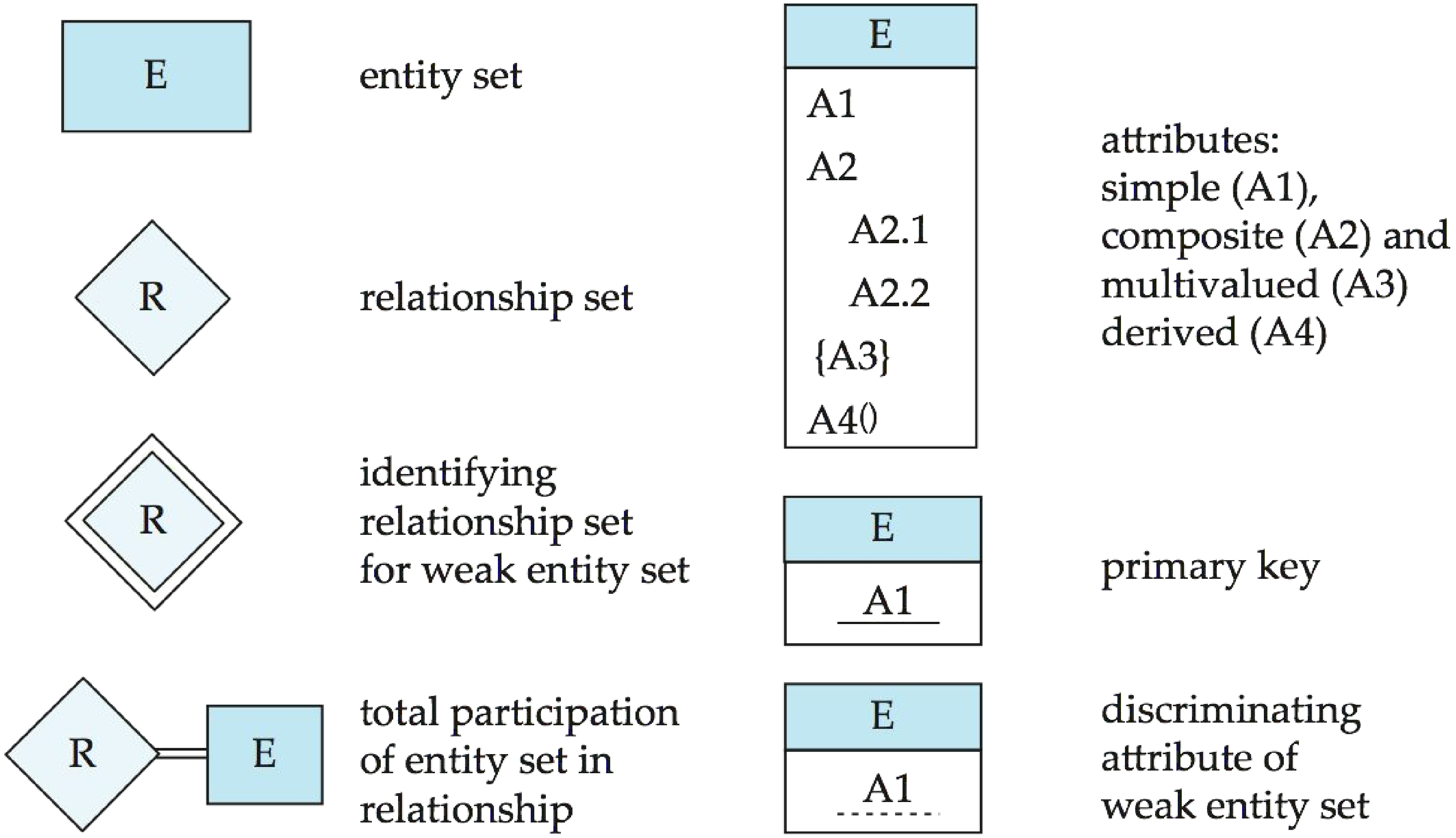
Redundancy of Schemas (Cont.)

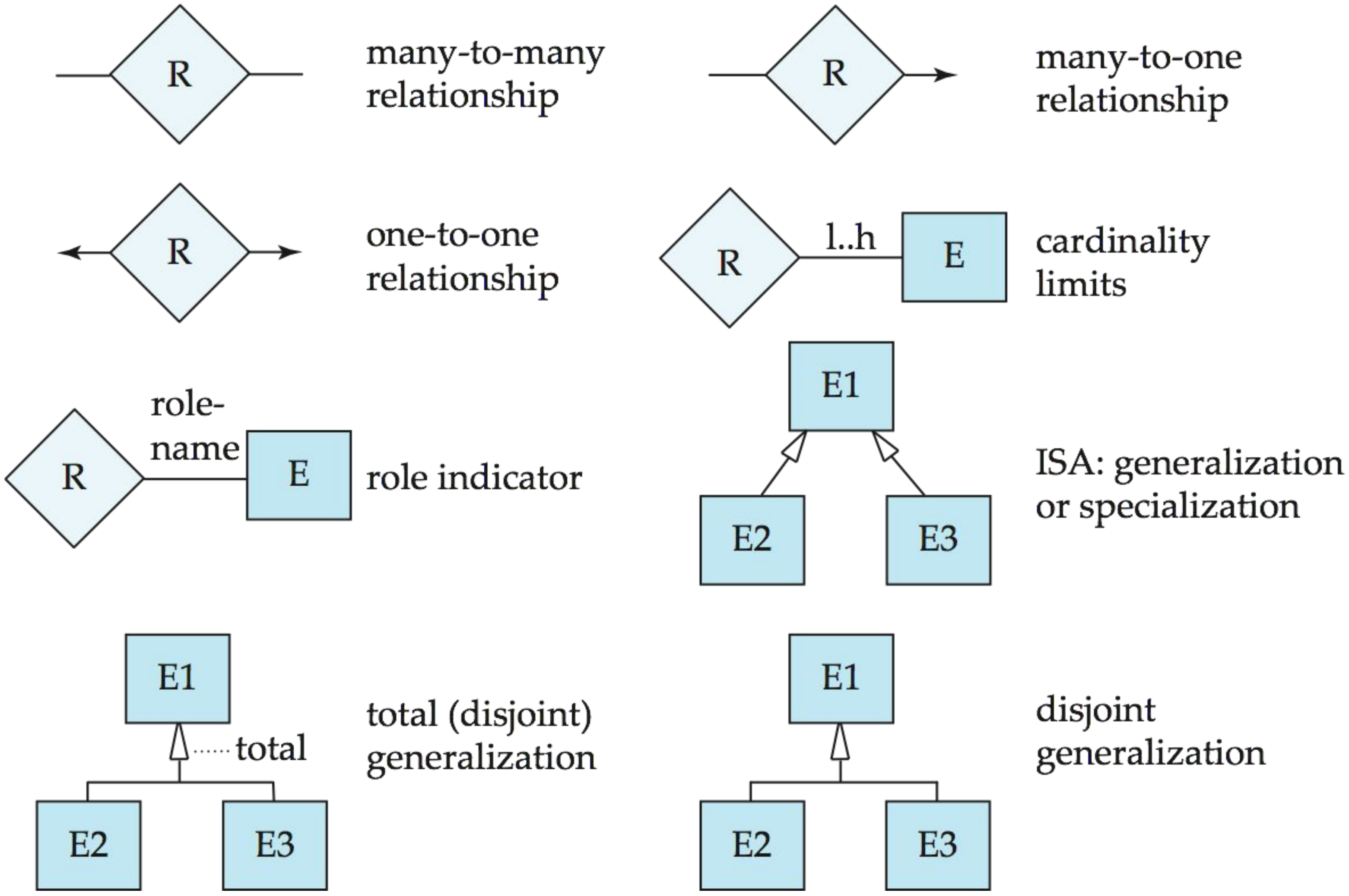
- The schema corresponding to a relationship set linking a weak entity set to its identifying strong entity set is redundant.
- Example: The *section* schema already contains the attributes that would appear in the *sec_course* schema



Summary of Symbols Used in E-R Notation



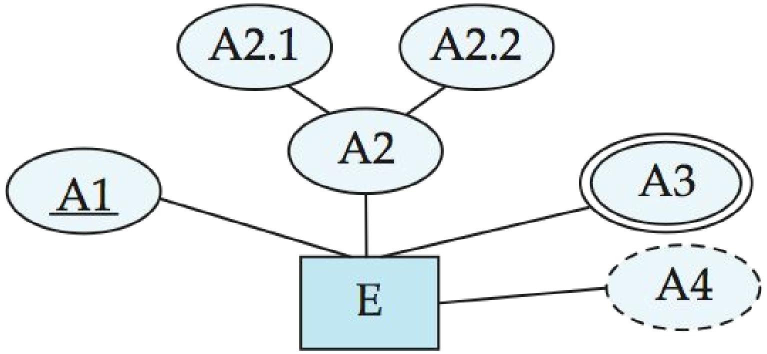
Symbols Used in E-R Notation (Cont.)



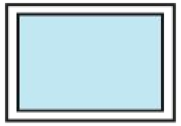
Alternative ER Notations

- Chen, IDE1FX, …

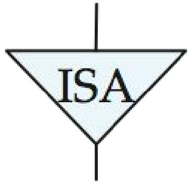
entity set E with
simple attribute A1,
composite attribute A2,
multivalued attribute A3,
derived attribute A4,
and primary key A1



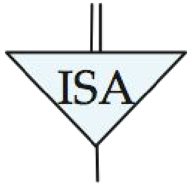
weak entity set



generalization



total
generalization



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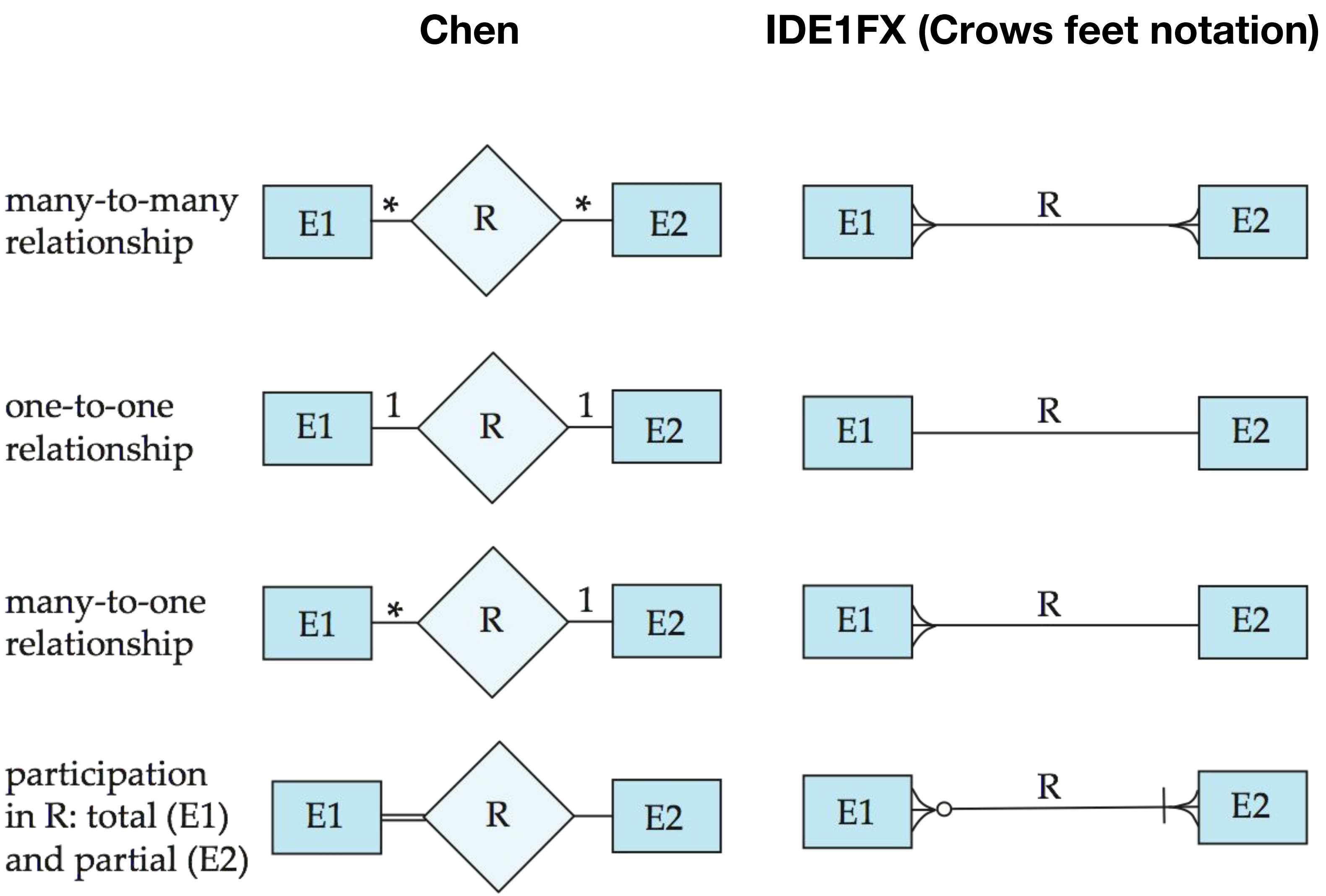
Alternative ER Notations



Example of BCNF Decomposition

- $R = (A, B, C)$
  $F = \{A \rightarrow B$
  $B \rightarrow C\}$
  Key = $\{A\}$
- R is not in BCNF ($B \rightarrow C$ but B is not superkey)
- Decomposition
  - $R_1 = (B, C)$
  - $R_2 = (A,B)$

Example of BCNF Decomposition

- *class* (*course_id*, *title*, *dept_name*, *credits*, *sec_id*, *semester*, *year*, *building*, *room_number*, *capacity*, *time_slot_id*)
- Functional dependencies:
  - *course_id*→ *title*, *dept_name*, *credits*
  - *building*, *room_number*→*capacity*
  - *course_id*, *sec_id*, *semester*, *year*→*building*, *room_number*, *time_slot_id*
- A candidate key {*course_id*, *sec_id*, *semester*, *year*}.
- BCNF Decomposition:
  - *course_id*→ *title*, *dept_name*, *credits* holds
    - but *course_id* is not a superkey.
  - We replace *class* by:
    - *course*(*course_id*, *title*, *dept_name*, *credits*)
    - *class-1* (*course_id*, *sec_id*, *semester*, *year*, *building*, *room_number, capacity*, *time_slot_id*)

BCNF Decomposition (Cont.)

- *course* is in BCNF
  - How do we know this?
- *building*, *room_number*→*capacity* holds on *class-1*
  - but {*building*, *room_number*} is not a superkey for *class-1*.
  - We replace *class-1* by:
    - *classroom* (*building*, *room_number*, *capacity*)
    - *section* (*course_id*, *sec_id*, *semester*, *year*, *building*, *room_number*, *time_slot_id*)
- *classroom* and *section* are in BCNF.

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BCNF and Dependency Preservation

It is not always possible to get a BCNF decomposition that is
dependency preserving

- $R = (J, K, L)$
  $F = \{JK \rightarrow L$
  $L \rightarrow K\}$
  Two candidate keys = JK and JL
- R is not in BCNF
- Any decomposition of R will fail to preserve

$$JK \rightarrow L$$

This implies that testing for $JK \rightarrow L$ requires a join

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Goals of Normalization

- Let R be a relation scheme with a set F of functional dependencies.
- Decide whether a relation scheme R is in "good" form.
- In the case that a relation scheme R is not in "good" form, decompose it into a set of relation scheme $\{R_1, R_2, ..., R_n\}$ such that
  - each relation scheme is in good form
  - the decomposition is a lossless-join decomposition
  - Preferably, the decomposition should be dependency preserving.

Functional-Dependency Theory

- We now consider the formal theory that tells us which functional dependencies are implied logically by a given set of functional dependencies.
- We then develop algorithms to generate lossless decompositions into BCNF and 3NF
- We then develop algorithms to test if a decomposition is dependency-preserving

Functional Dependencies

- Constraints on the set of legal relations.
- Require that the value for a certain set of attributes determines uniquely the value for another set of attributes.
- A functional dependency is a generalization of the notion of a *key.*

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Closure of a Set of Functional Dependencies

- Given a set F set of functional dependencies, there are certain other functional dependencies that are logically implied by F.
  - For e.g.: If $A \rightarrow B$ and $B \rightarrow C$, then we can infer that $A \rightarrow C$
- The set of **all** functional dependencies logically implied by F is the **closure** of F.
- We denote the *closure* of F by $\boldsymbol{F^+}$.

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Closure of a Set of Functional Dependencies

- We can find F^{+}, the closure of F, by repeatedly applying **Armstrong's Axioms:**
  - if $\beta \subseteq \alpha$, then $\alpha \rightarrow \beta$ **(reflexivity)**
  - if $\alpha \rightarrow \beta$, then $\gamma\, \alpha \rightarrow \gamma\, \beta$ **(augmentation)**
  - if $\alpha \rightarrow \beta$, and $\beta \rightarrow \gamma$, then $\alpha \rightarrow \gamma$ **(transitivity)**
- These rules are
  - **sound** (generate only functional dependencies that actually hold), and
  - **complete** (generate all functional dependencies that hold).

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Example

- $R = (A, B, C, G, H, I)$
  $F = \{\ A \rightarrow B$
  $A \rightarrow C$
  $CG \rightarrow H$
  $CG \rightarrow I$
  $B \rightarrow H\}$
- some members of F^+
  - $A \rightarrow H$
    - 4 by transitivity from $A \rightarrow B$ *and* $B \rightarrow H$
  - $AG \rightarrow I$
    - 4 by augmenting $A \rightarrow C$ with G, to get $AG \rightarrow CG$
      and then transitivity with $CG \rightarrow I$
  - $CG \rightarrow HI$
    - 4 by augmenting $CG \rightarrow I$ to infer $CG \rightarrow CGI$,
      and augmenting of $CG \rightarrow H$ to infer $CGI \rightarrow HI$,
      and then transitivity

Procedure for Computing F^+

- To compute the closure of a set of functional dependencies F:

$F^+ = F$
repeat
  for each functional dependency f in F^+
        apply reflexivity and augmentation rules on f
        add the resulting functional dependencies to F^+
  for each pair of functional dependencies f_1 and f_2 in F^+
        if f_1 and f_2 can be combined using transitivity
         then add the resulting functional dependency to F^+
until F^+ does not change any further

NOTE: We shall see an alternative procedure for this task later

Closure of Functional Dependencies (Cont.)

- Additional rules:
  - If $\alpha \rightarrow \beta$ holds *and* $\alpha \rightarrow \gamma$ holds, then $\alpha \rightarrow \beta\gamma$ holds (**union**)
  - If $\alpha \rightarrow \beta\gamma$ holds, then $\alpha \rightarrow \beta$ holds and $\alpha \rightarrow \gamma$ holds (**decomposition**)
  - If $\alpha \rightarrow \beta$ holds *and* $\gamma\beta \rightarrow \delta$ holds, then $\alpha\gamma \rightarrow \delta$ holds (**pseudotransitivity**)

  The above rules can be inferred from Armstrong's axioms.

Closure of Attribute Sets

- Given a set of attributes α, define the ***closure*** of α **under** *F* (denoted by α^+) as the set of attributes that are functionally determined by α under *F*

- Algorithm to compute α^+, the closure of α under *F*

result := α;
while (changes to *result*) **do**
    for each $\beta \rightarrow \gamma$ **in** *F* **do**
        begin
            if $\beta \subseteq$ *result* **then** *result* := *result* $\cup\ \gamma$
        end

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Example of Attribute Set Closure

- $R = (A, B, C, G, H, I)$
- $F = \{A \rightarrow B$
  $A \rightarrow C$
  $CG \rightarrow H$
  $CG \rightarrow I$
  $B \rightarrow H\}$
- $(AG)^+$
  1. $result = AG$
  2. $result = ABCG$ $(A \rightarrow C$ and $A \rightarrow B)$
  3. $result = ABCGH$ $(CG \rightarrow H$ and $CG \subseteq AGBC)$
  4. $result = ABCGHI$ $(CG \rightarrow I$ and $CG \subseteq AGBCH)$
- Is *AG* a candidate key?
  1. Is AG a super key?
     1. Does $AG \rightarrow R$? == Is $(AG)^+ \supseteq R$
  2. Is any subset of AG a superkey?
     1. Does $A \rightarrow R$? == Is $(A)^+ \supseteq R$
     2. Does $G \rightarrow R$? == Is $(G)^+ \supseteq R$

Uses of Attribute Closure

There are several uses of the attribute closure algorithm:

- Testing for superkey:
  - To test if α is a superkey, we compute $\alpha^{+,}$ and check if α^+ contains all attributes of R.
- Testing functional dependencies
  - To check if a functional dependency $\alpha \rightarrow \beta$ holds (or, in other words, is in F^+), just check if $\beta \subseteq \alpha^+$.
  - That is, we compute α^+ by using attribute closure, and then check if it contains β.
  - Is a simple and cheap test, and very useful
- Computing closure of F
  - For each $\gamma \subseteq R$, we find the closure γ^+, and for each $S \subseteq \gamma^+$, we output a functional dependency $\gamma \rightarrow S$.

BCNF and Dependency Preservation

- If it is **sufficient to test only functional dependencies on each individual relation** of a decomposition in order to **ensure that *all* functional dependencies hold**, then that decomposition is *dependency preserving.*
- Because it is not always possible to achieve both BCNF and dependency preservation, we consider a weaker normal form, known as *third normal form.*

Third Normal Form: Motivation

- There are some situations where
  - BCNF is not dependency preserving, and
  - efficient checking for FD violation on updates is important
- Solution: define a weaker normal form, called Third Normal Form (3NF)
  - Allows some redundancy (with resultant problems; we will see examples later)
  - But functional dependencies can be checked on individual relations without computing a join.
  - There is always a lossless-join, dependency-preserving decomposition into 3NF.

Redundancy in 3NF

- There is some redundancy in this schema
- Example of problems due to redundancy in 3NF
  - $R = (J, K, L)$
    $F = \{JK \rightarrow L, L \rightarrow K\}$

J	L	K
j_1	l_1	k_1
j_2	l_1	k_1
j_3	l_1	k_1
null	l_2	k_2

- repetition of information (e.g., the relationship l_1, k_1)
  - (*i_ID, dept_name*)
- need to use null values (e.g., to represent the relationship l_2, k_2 where there is no corresponding value for J).
  - (*i_ID, dept_namel*) if there is no separate relation mapping instructors to departments

Testing for 3NF

- Optimization: Need to check only FDs in F, need not check all FDs in F^+.
- Use attribute closure to check for each dependency $\alpha \rightarrow \beta$, if α is a superkey.
- If α is not a superkey, we have to verify if each attribute in β is contained in a candidate key of R
  - this test is rather more expensive, since it involve finding candidate keys
  - testing for 3NF has been shown to be NP-hard
  - Interestingly, decomposition into third normal form (described shortly) can be done in polynomial time

Testing for Dependency Preservation

- To check if a dependency $\alpha \rightarrow \beta$ is preserved in a decomposition of R into $R_1, R_2, \ldots, R_n$ we apply the following test (with attribute closure done with respect to F)
  - *result* = α
    while (changes to *result*) do
      for each R_i in the decomposition
        $t = (result \cap R_i)^+ \cap R_i$
        $result = result \cup t$
  - If *result* contains all attributes in β, then the functional dependency
    $\alpha \rightarrow \beta$ is preserved.
- We apply the test on all dependencies in F to check if a decomposition is dependency preserving
- This procedure takes polynomial time, instead of the exponential time required to compute F^+ and $(F_1 \cup F_2 \cup \ldots \cup F_n)^+$

Example

- $R = (A, B, C)$
  $F = \{A \rightarrow B$
  $B \rightarrow C\}$
  Key = $\{A\}$
- R is not in BCNF
- Decomposition $R_1 = (A, B)$, $R_2 = (B, C)$
  - R_1 and R_2 in BCNF
  - Lossless-join decomposition
  - Dependency preserving

3NF Decomposition Algorithm

Let F_c be a canonical cover for *F;*
i := 0;
for each functional dependency $\alpha \rightarrow \beta$ in F_c **do**
if none of the schemas R_j, $1 \leq j \leq i$ contains $\alpha\,\beta$
then begin
$i := i + 1;$
$R_i := \alpha\,\beta$
end
if none of the schemas R_j, $1 \leq j \leq i$ contains a candidate key for R
then begin
$i := i + 1;$
R_i := any candidate key for *R;*
end
/* Optionally, remove redundant relations */
repeat
if any schema R_j is contained in another schema R_k
then /* delete R_j ***/**
$R_j = R;;$
$i=i-1;$
return $(R_1, R_2, \ldots, R_i)$

3NF Decomposition Algorithm (Cont.)

- Above algorithm ensures:
  - each relation schema R_i is in 3NF
  - decomposition is dependency preserving and lossless-join
  - Proof of correctness is at end of this presentation (click here)

3NF Decomposition: An Example

- Relation schema:

  cust_banker_branch = (*customer_id, employee_id*, *branch_name, type*)

- The functional dependencies for this relation schema are:
  1. *customer_id, employee_id* → *branch_name, type*
  2. *employee_id* → *branch_name*
  3. *customer_id, branch_name* → *employee_id*
- We first compute a canonical cover
  - *branch_name* is extraneous in the r.h.s. of the 1st dependency
  - No other attribute is extraneous, so we get F_C =

    customer_id, employee_id → *type*
    employee_id → *branch_name*
    customer_id, branch_name → *employee_id*

3NF Decompsition Example (Cont.)

- The **for** loop generates following 3NF schema:

  (*customer_id, employee_id, type*)

  (*employee_id, branch_name*)

  (*customer_id, branch_name, employee_id)*

  - Observe that (*customer_id, employee_id, type*) contains a candidate key of the original schema, so no further relation schema needs be added
- At end of for loop, detect and delete schemas, such as (*employee_id, branch_name*), which are subsets of other schemas
  - result will not depend on the order in which FDs are considered
- The resultant simplified 3NF schema is:

  (*customer_id, employee_id, type*)

  (*customer_id, branch_name, employee_id)*

Comparison of BCNF and 3NF

- It is always possible to decompose a relation into a set of relations that are in 3NF such that:
  - the decomposition is lossless
  - the dependencies are preserved
- It is always possible to decompose a relation into a set of relations that are in BCNF such that:
  - the decomposition is lossless
  - it may not be possible to preserve dependencies.

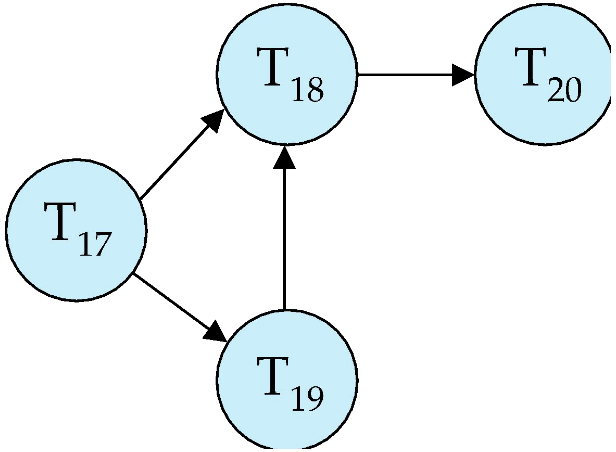
Deadlock prevention (Cont.)

- Both in *wait-die* and in *wound-wait* schemes, a rolled back transactions is restarted with its original timestamp. Older transactions thus have precedence over newer ones, and starvation is hence avoided.
- **Timeout-Based Schemes:**
  - a transaction waits for a lock only for a specified amount of time. If the lock has not been granted within that time, the transaction is rolled back and restarted,
  - Thus, deadlocks are not possible
  - simple to implement; but starvation is possible. Also difficult to determine good value of the timeout interval.

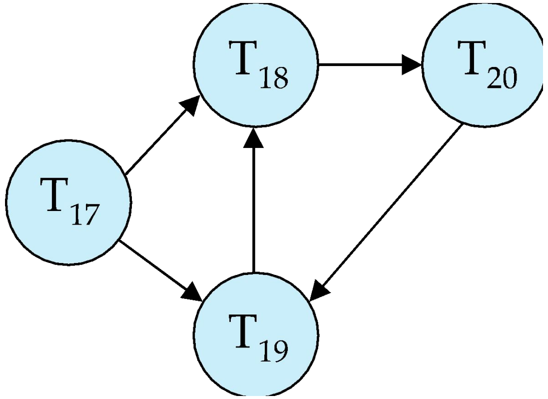
Deadlock Detection

- Deadlocks can be described as a *wait-for graph*, which consists of a pair $G = (V,E)$,
  - V is a set of vertices (all the transactions in the system)
  - E is a set of edges; each element is an ordered pair $T_i \rightarrow T_j$.
- If $T_i \rightarrow T_j$ is in E, then there is a directed edge from T_i to T_j, implying that T_i is waiting for T_j to release a data item.
- When T_i requests a data item currently being held by T_j, then the edge $T_i \rightarrow T_j$ is inserted in the wait-for graph. This edge is removed only when T_j is no longer holding a data item needed by T_i.
- The system is in a deadlock state if and only if the wait-for graph has a cycle. Must invoke a deadlock-detection algorithm periodically to look for cycles.

Deadlock Detection (Cont.)



Wait-for graph without a cycle



Wait-for graph with a cycle

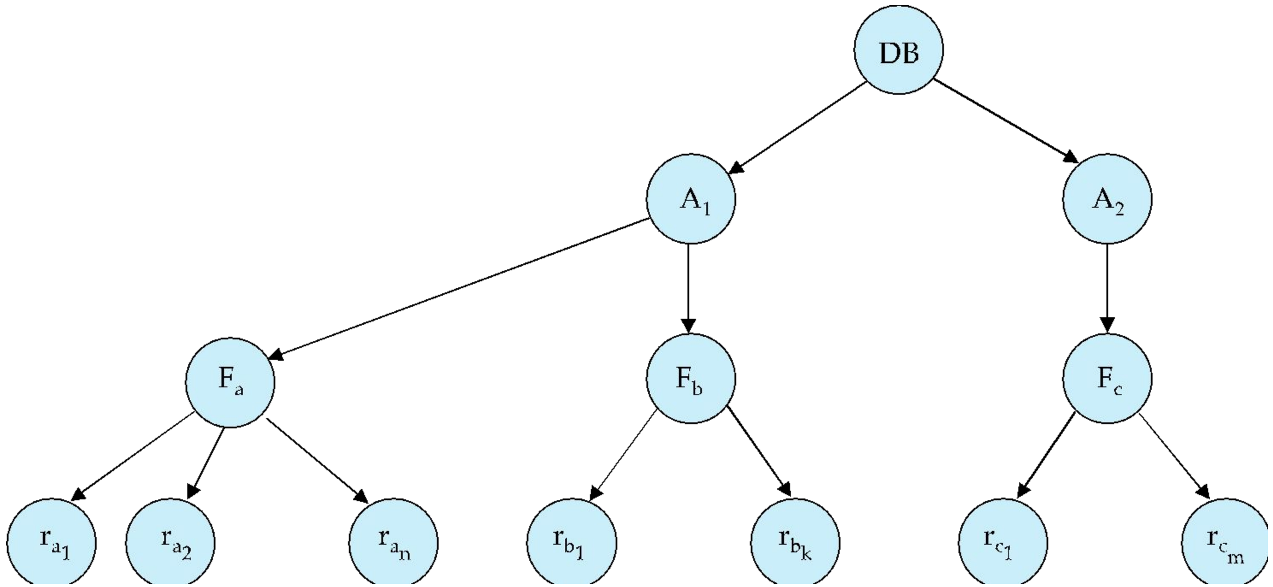
Deadlock Recovery

- When deadlock is detected :
  - Some transaction will have to rolled back (made a victim) to break deadlock. Select that transaction as victim that will incur minimum cost.
  - Rollback -- determine how far to roll back transaction
    - Total rollback: Abort the transaction and then restart it.
    - More effective to roll back transaction only as far as necessary to break deadlock.
  - Starvation happens if same transaction is always chosen as victim. Include the number of rollbacks in the cost factor to avoid starvation

Multiple Granularity

- Allow data items to be of various sizes and define a hierarchy of data granularities, where the small granularities are nested within larger ones
- Can be represented graphically as a tree.
- When a transaction locks a node in the tree *explicitly*, it *implicitly* locks all the node's descendents in the same mode.
- **Granularity of locking** (level in tree where locking is done):
  - fine granularity (lower in tree): high concurrency, high locking overhead
  - coarse granularity (higher in tree): low locking overhead, low concurrency

Example of Granularity Hierarchy



The levels, starting from the coarsest (top) level are

- *database*
- *area*
- *file*
- *record*

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Intention Lock Modes

- In addition to S and X lock modes, there are three additional lock modes with multiple granularity:
  - ***intention-shared*** (IS): indicates explicit locking at a lower level of the tree but only with shared locks.
  - ***intention-exclusive*** (IX): indicates explicit locking at a lower level with exclusive or shared locks
  - ***shared and intention-exclusive*** (SIX): the subtree rooted by that node is locked explicitly in shared mode and explicit locking is being done at a lower level with exclusive-mode locks.
- intention locks allow a higher level node to be locked in S or X mode without having to check all descendent nodes.

Compatibility Matrix with Intention Lock Modes

- The compatibility matrix for all lock modes is:

	IS	IX	S	SIX	X
IS	true	true	true	true	false
IX	true	true	false	false	false
S	true	false	true	false	false
SIX	true	false	false	false	false
X	false	false	false	false	false

Multiple Granularity Locking Scheme

- Transaction T_i can lock a node Q, using the following rules:
  1. The lock compatibility matrix must be observed.
  2. The root of the tree must be locked first, and may be locked in any mode.
  3. A node Q can be locked by T_i in S or IS mode only if the parent of Q is currently locked by T_i in either IX or IS mode.
  4. A node Q can be locked by T_i in X, SIX, or IX mode only if the parent of Q is currently locked by T_i in either IX or SIX mode.
  5. T_i can lock a node only if it has not previously unlocked any node (that is, T_i is two-phase).
  6. T_i can unlock a node Q only if none of the children of Q are currently locked by T_i.
- Observe that locks are acquired in root-to-leaf order, whereas they are released in leaf-to-root order.
- **Lock granularity escalation**: in case there are too many locks at a particular level, switch to higher granularity S or X lock

Timestamp-Based Protocols

- Each transaction is issued a timestamp when it enters the system. If an old transaction T_i has time-stamp TS(T_i), a new transaction T_j is assigned time-stamp TS(T_j) such that TS(T_i) <TS(T_j).
- The protocol manages concurrent execution such that the time-stamps determine the serializability order.
- In order to assure such behavior, the protocol maintains for each data *Q* two timestamp values:
  - **W-timestamp**(*Q*) is the largest time-stamp of any transaction that executed **write**(*Q*) successfully.
  - **R-timestamp**(*Q*) is the largest time-stamp of any transaction that executed **read**(*Q*) successfully.

Timestamp-Based Protocols (Cont.)

- The timestamp ordering protocol ensures that any conflicting **read** and **write** operations are executed in timestamp order.
- Suppose a transaction T_i issues a **read**(Q)
  1. If TS(T_i) ≤ **W**-timestamp(Q), then T_i needs to read a value of Q that was already overwritten.
     - Hence, the **read** operation is rejected, and T_i is rolled back.
  2. If TS(T_i) ≥ **W**-timestamp(Q), then the **read** operation is executed, and R-timestamp(Q) is set to **max**(R-timestamp(Q), TS(T_i)).

Timestamp-Based Protocols (Cont.)

- Suppose that transaction T_i issues **write**(Q).
  1. If TS(T_i) < R-timestamp(Q), then the value of Q that T_i is producing was needed previously, and the system assumed that that value would never be produced.
     - Hence, the **write** operation is rejected, and T_i is rolled back.
  2. If TS(T_i) < W-timestamp(Q), then T_i is attempting to write an obsolete value of Q.
     - Hence, this **write** operation is rejected, and T_i is rolled back.
  3. Otherwise, the **write** operation is executed, and W-timestamp(Q) is set to TS(T_i).

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Example Use of the Protocol

A partial schedule for several data items for transactions with timestamps 1, 2, 3, 4, 5

T_1	T_2	T_3	T_4	T_5
				read (X)
	read (Y)			
read (Y)				
		write (Y)		
		write (Z)		
				read (Z)
	read (Z)			
	abort			
read (X)				
			read (W)	
		write (W)		
		abort		
				write (Y)
				write (Z)

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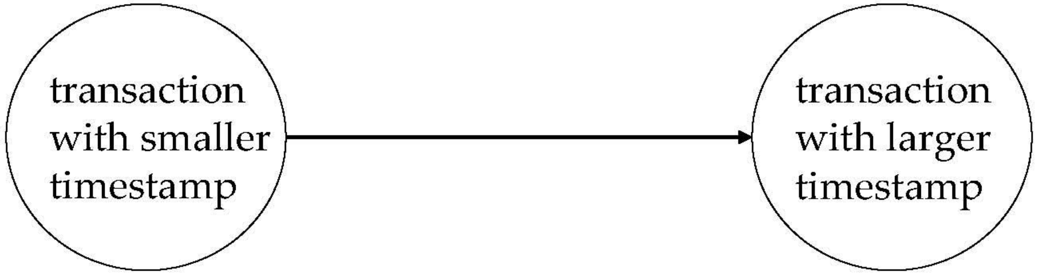
Correctness of Timestamp-Ordering Protocol

- The timestamp-ordering protocol guarantees serializability since all the arcs in the precedence graph are of the form:



Thus, there will be no cycles in the precedence graph

- Timestamp protocol ensures freedom from deadlock as no transaction ever waits.
- But the schedule may not be cascade-free, and may not even be recoverable.

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Recoverability and Cascade Freedom

- Problem with timestamp-ordering protocol:
  - Suppose T_i aborts, but T_j has read a data item written by T_i
  - Then T_j must abort; if T_j had been allowed to commit earlier, the schedule is not recoverable.
  - Further, any transaction that has read a data item written by T_j must abort
  - This can lead to cascading rollback --- that is, a chain of rollbacks
- Solution 1:
  - A transaction is structured such that its writes are all performed at the end of its processing
  - All writes of a transaction form an atomic action; no transaction may execute while a transaction is being written
  - A transaction that aborts is restarted with a new timestamp
- Solution 2: Limited form of locking: wait for data to be committed before reading it
- Solution 3: Use commit dependencies to ensure recoverability

Thomas' Write Rule

- Modified version of the timestamp-ordering protocol in which obsolete **write** operations may be ignored under certain circumstances.
- When T_i attempts to write data item Q, if TS(T_i) < W-timestamp(Q), then T_i is attempting to write an obsolete value of {Q}.
  - Rather than rolling back T_i as the timestamp ordering protocol would have done, this {**write**} operation can be ignored.
- Otherwise this protocol is the same as the timestamp ordering protocol.
- Thomas' Write Rule allows greater potential concurrency.
  - Allows some view-serializable schedules that are not conflict-serializable.

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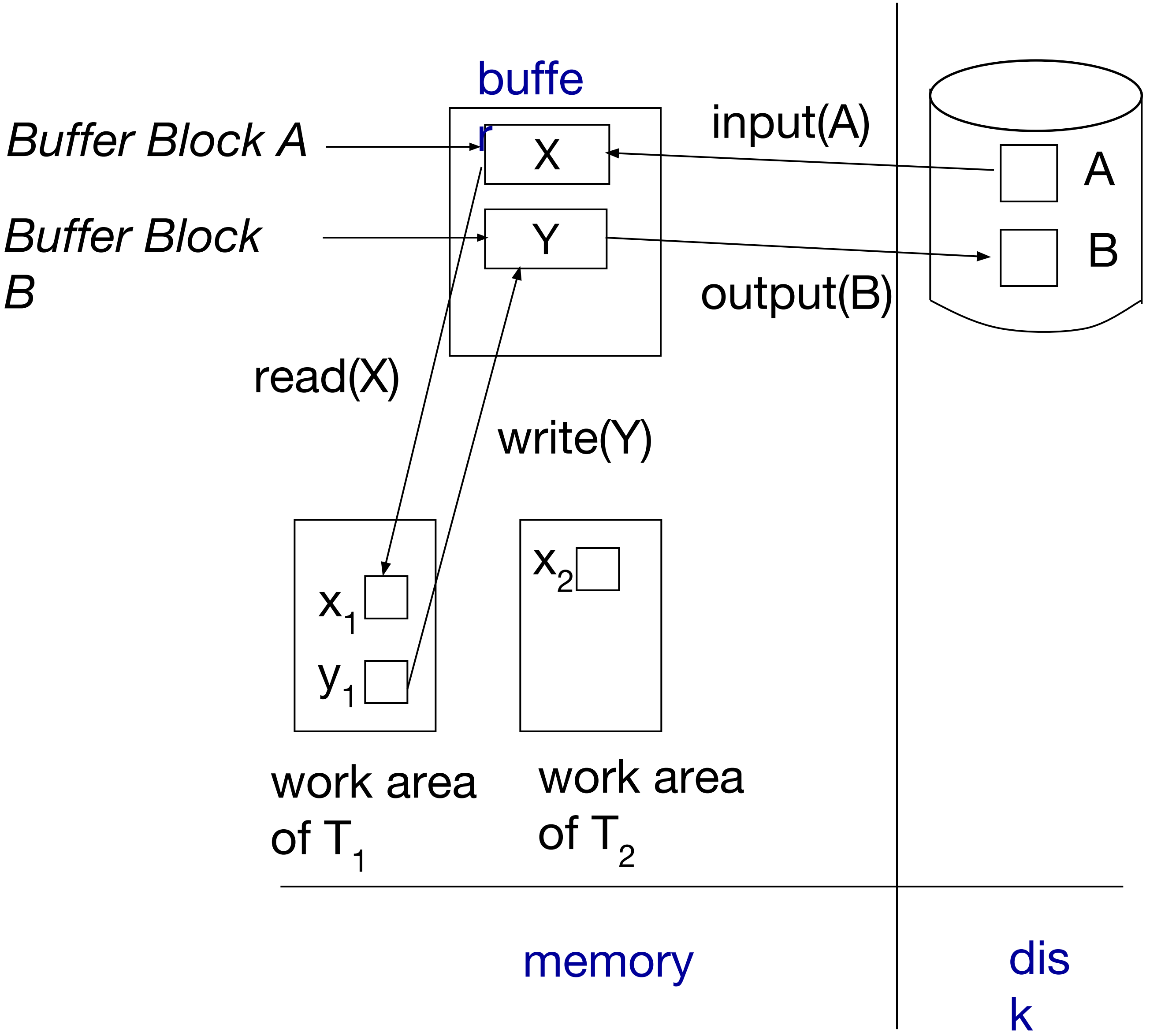
Data Access

- **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.
- We assume, for simplicity, that each data item fits in, and is stored inside, a single block.

Example of Data Access



Data Access (Cont.)

- 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.
- Transferring data items between system buffer blocks and its private work-area done by:
  - **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.
  - **Note: output**(B_X) need not immediately follow **write**(X). System can perform the **output** operation when it deems fit.
- Transactions
  - Must perform **read**(X) before accessing X for the first time (subsequent reads can be from local copy)
  - **write**(X) can be executed at any time before the transaction commits

Recovery and Atomicity

- To ensure atomicity despite failures, **we first output information describing the modifications to stable storage** without modifying the database itself.
- We study **log-based recovery mechanisms** in detail
  - We first present key concepts
  - And then present the actual recovery algorithm

Concurrency Control and Recovery

- With concurrent transactions, all transactions share a single disk buffer and a single log
  - A buffer block can have data items updated by one or more transactions
- We assume that *if a transaction T_i has modified an item, no other transaction can modify the same item until T_i has committed or aborted*
  - i.e. the updates of uncommitted transactions should not be visible to other transactions
    - Otherwise how to perform undo if T1 updates A, then T2 updates A and commits, and finally T1 has to abort?
  - Can be ensured by obtaining exclusive locks on updated items and holding the locks till end of transaction (strict two-phase locking)
- Log records of different transactions may be interspersed in the log.