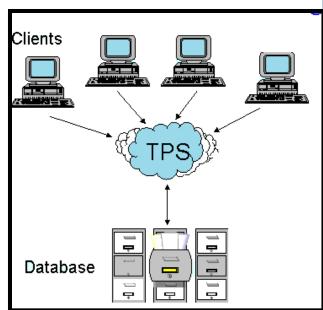
## Transactions

# Why Transactions?

- *Transaction* is a process involving database queries and/or modification.
- Database systems are normally being accessed by many users or processes at the same time.
- Formed in SQL from single statements or explicit programmer control



#### **ACID TRANSACTIONS**

#### Atomic

• Whole transaction or none is done.

### Consistent

• Database constraints preserved.

### Isolated

• It appears to the user as if only one process executes at a time.

#### Durable

• Effects of a process survive a crash.

Optional: weaker forms of transactions are often supported as well.

- Transaction to <u>transfer</u> \$50 from account **A** to account **B**:
  - 1. **read**(*A*)
  - 2.A := A 50
  - $3. \mathbf{write}(A)$
  - 4. read(*B*)
  - 5.B := B + 50
  - 6. **write**(*B*)

#### • Atomicity requirement :

- if the transaction fails after step 3 and before step 6,
  - the **system** should **ensure** that :
    - its **updates** are *not reflected* in the database,
    - <u>else</u> an *inconsistency* will result.

- Transaction to <u>transfer</u> \$50 from account **A** to account **B**:
  - 1. **read**(*A*)
  - 2.A := A 50
  - $3. \mathbf{write}(A)$
  - 4. read(B)
  - 5. B := B + 50
  - 6. **write**(*B*)
- Consistency requirement :
  - the **sum** of **A** and **B** is:
    - o unchanged by the execution of the transaction.

- Transaction to <u>transfer</u> \$50 from account **A** to account **B**:
  - 1. read(A)
  - 2. A := A 50
  - 3.  $\mathbf{write}(A)$
  - 4. **read**(*B*)
  - 5. B := B + 50
  - 6. **write**(*B*)

#### Isolation requirement —

- if <u>between steps 3 and 6</u>, another transaction is allowed to access the <u>partially updated database</u>,
  - it will see an <u>inconsistent database</u> (the sum A + B will be less than it should be).
- Isolation can be ensured trivially by:
  - running transactions **serially**, that is **one** <u>after</u> the **other**.
- However, executing <u>multiple</u> transactions **concurrently** has <u>significant</u> **benefits**.

- Transaction to <u>transfer</u> \$50 from account **A** to account **B**:
  - 1. read(A)
  - 2. A := A 50
  - 3.  $\mathbf{write}(A)$
  - $4. \mathbf{read}(B)$
  - 5. B := B + 50
  - 6. **write**(*B*)

#### o Durability requirement:

- <u>once</u> the user has been notified that the <u>transaction</u> has **completed**:
  - (i.e., the <u>transfer of the \$50</u> has taken place),
  - the updates to the database by the transaction must persist
    - o despite *failures*.

## Example: Interacting Processes

Consider a relation Sells(shop, item, price)

Let Ahmad sells Sprite for Rs 20 and Pizza slice for Rs 100.

Tania is querying Sells for the highest and lowest price Ahmad charges.

Ahmad decides to stop selling Sprite and Pizza, but to sell Biryani at Rs150.00 per plate.

# Customer's Program

• Tania(customer) executes the following two SQL statements called (min) and (max).

(max) SELECT MAX(price) FROM Sells
WHERE shop = `Ahmad''s shop'

(min) SELECT MIN(price) FROM Sells
WHERE shop = `Ahmad"s shop'

# Shop Keeper's Program

• At about the same time, Ahmad executes the following steps: (del) and (ins).

(del) DELETE FROM Sells
WHERE shop = 'Ahmad''s shop'

(ins) INSERT INTO Sells
VALUES('Ahmad''s shop', 'Biryani', 150.00)

## Interleaving of Statements

- The statement (max) must come before (min), and
- The statement (del) must come before (ins),
- There are no other constraints on the order of these statements.
- Unless we group Tania's and/or Ahmad's statements into transactions.

## Example: Strange Interleaving

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

```
Ahmad's Prices: {20,100} {20,100} {150} {150} 
Statement: (max) (del) (ins) (min) 
Result: 100 150
```

• Tania sees MAX < MIN!</p>

### Another Problem: Rollback

- Suppose Ahmad executes (del)(ins), not as a transaction.
- But after executing these statements, he change his mind and issues a ROLLBACK statement.
- If Tania executes her statements after (ins) but before the rollback, she sees a value, 150, that never existed in the database.

## Solution

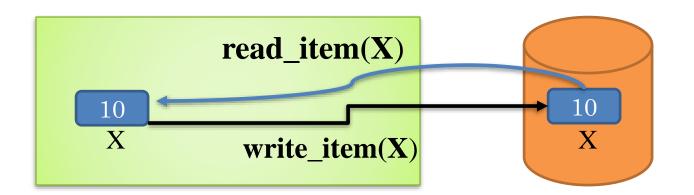
- If Ahmad executes (del)(ins) as a transaction, its effect cannot be seen by others until the transaction executes COMMIT.
  - If the transaction executes ROLLBACK instead, then its effects can *never* be seen.

### Fixing the Problem by Using Transactions

- Solution: Group Tania's statements (max)(min) into one transaction
  - Now, she cannot see this inconsistency.
- She sees Ahmad's prices at some fixed time.
  - Either before or after he changes prices, or in the middle, but the MAX and MIN are computed from the same prices.

# Transaction Processing

- Basic operations in a DB are **read** and **write** 
  - read\_item(X):
    - Reads a database item named X into a program variable.
    - To simplify our notation, we assume that the program variable is also named X.
  - write\_item(X):
    - Writes the value of program variable X into the database item named X.



### Sample Transactions

```
read_item (X);

X:=X-N;

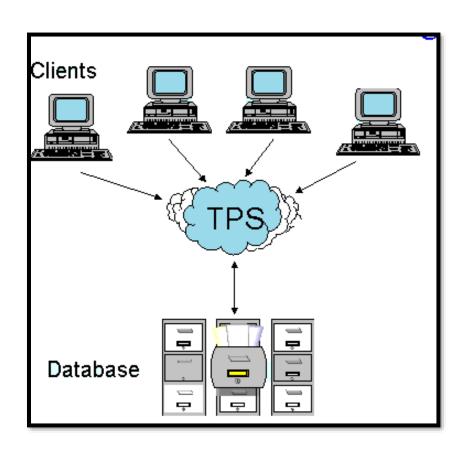
write_item (X);

read_item (Y);

Y:=Y+N;

write_item (Y);
```

read\_item (X); X:=X+M; write\_item (X);



## Issues in Transaction Processing

#### Why Concurrency Control is needed?

- The Lost Update Problem
  - Two transactions (that access the same DB items) have their operations interleaved in a way that makes the value of some database item incorrect.

Time  $\begin{array}{|c|c|c|}\hline T_1 & T_2 \\ \hline read\_item(X); \\ X := X - N; \\ \hline write\_item(X); \\ read\_item(Y); \\ \hline write\_item(Y); \\ \hline \end{array}$   $\begin{array}{|c|c|c|c|}\hline read\_item(X); \\ X := X + M; \\ \hline \hline write\_item(Y); \\ \hline \hline write\_item(Y); \\ \hline \end{array}$ 

Item X has an incorrect value because its update by  $T_1$  is *lost* (overwritten).

## Issues in Transaction Processing

#### Temporary Update (or Dirty Read) Problem

	/1	12
	read_item( $X$ ); X := X - N; write_item( $X$ );	
		read_item( $X$ ); X := X + M; write_item( $X$ );
,	read_item(Y);	

Time

Transaction  $T_1$  fails and must change the value of X back to its old value; meanwhile  $T_2$  has read the *temporary* incorrect value of X.

## Issues in Transaction Processing

#### The Incorrect Summary Problem

$T_1$	<i>T</i> <sub>3</sub>
	<pre>sum := 0; read_item(A); sum := sum + A;</pre>
read_item( $X$ ); X := X - N; write_item( $X$ );	:
	read_item( $X$ ); sum := sum + $X$ ; read_item( $Y$ ); sum := sum + $Y$ ;
read_item( $Y$ ); Y := Y + N; write_item( $Y$ );	

T<sub>3</sub> reads X after N is subtracted and reads
 Y before N is added; a wrong summary is the result (off by N).

## Transaction and System Concepts

A **transaction** is an atomic unit of work that is either completed in its entirety or not done at all.

For recovery purposes, the system needs to keep track of when the transaction starts, terminates, and commits or aborts

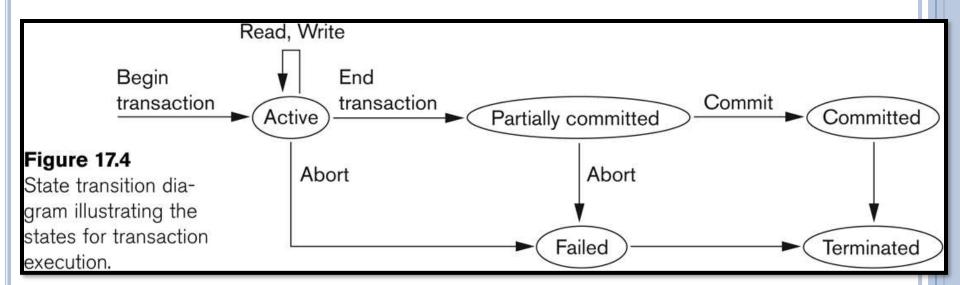
#### **Transaction states:**

- Active state
- Partially committed state
- Committed state
- Failed state
- Terminated State

#### STATE TRANSITION DIAGRAM

#### Recovery manager keeps track of the following operations

- Begin\_transaction
- · Read or Write
- End\_transaction
- · Commit
- Rollback (or abort)
- Undo
- · Redo



### Schedules

- A **schedule** S of n transactions  $T_1, T_2, ..., T_n$  is an ordering of the operations of the transactions.
- Operations from different transactions can be interleaved in *S*.
- The operations of each  $T_i$  in S must appear in the same order in which they occur in  $T_i$ .

	<i>T</i> <sub>1</sub>	<i>T</i> <sub>2</sub>	
Time	read_item( $X$ ); X := X - N; write_item( $X$ ); read_item( $Y$ );	read_item( $X$ ); X := X + M; write_item( $X$ );	
	Y := Y + N; write_item(Y);		

 $S_a$ :  $r_1(X)$ ;  $r_2(X)$ ;  $w_1(X)$ ;  $r_1(Y)$ ;  $w_2(X)$ ;  $w_1(Y)$ ;

# Characterizing Schedules based on Serializability

(b)

#### Serial schedule

• A schedule S is serial if, for every T in S, all the operations of T are executed consecutively in the schedule.

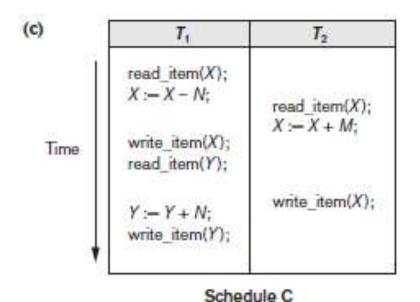
	T <sub>1</sub>	T <sub>2</sub>
Time	read_item(X); X := X - N; write_item(X); read_item(Y); Y := Y + N; write_item(Y);	
ļ		read_item( $X$ ); X := X + M; write_item( $X$ );

Schedule A

Schedule B

# Characterizing Schedules based on Serializability

- Non Serial schedule
  - Which one is correct?



Y:- Y + N; write\_item(Y);

 $T_{\tau}$ 

read item(X);

write item(X);

read item(Y);

X := X - N

T,

read item(X);

X := X + M;write item(X);

Schedule D

Schedule C gives an erroneous result because of the *lost update* problem

Time

Schedule D gives correct results

#### Recoverable Schedules

Need to address the effect of transaction failures on concurrently running transactions

#### Recoverable schedule:

- if a transaction  $T_2$  reads a data item previously written by  $T_1$ .
- then the <u>commit</u> of  $T_1$  should appears **before** the <u>commit</u> of  $T_2$ .
- The following schedule is **not** recoverable **if** 
  - $\circ$   $T_2$  commits immediately after the read

T1	<b>T2</b>
r(X)	
w(X)	
	r(X)
r(Y)	

- $\circ$  If  $T_1$  abort,  $T_2$  have done a dirty read.
- Database must ensure that schedules are recoverable.

In a recoverable schedule, no committed transaction ever needs to be rolled back

T1	<b>T2</b>
r(X)	
	r(X)
w(X)	
r(Y)	
	w(X)
	commit
w(Y)	
commit	

T1	<b>T2</b>
r(X)	
w(X)	
	r(X)
r(Y)	
	w(X)
	commit
abort	

Which one is recoverable?

### Cascading Rollbacks

#### Cascading rollback

- a **single** <u>transaction</u> <u>failure</u> **leads** to a <u>series</u> <u>of transaction</u> <u>rollbacks</u>.
- Consider the following schedule where:
  - none of the transactions has yet committed
  - (so the schedule is **recoverable**)

<b>T1</b>	<b>T2</b>	<b>T</b> 3
r(X)		
r(Y)		
w(X)		
	r(X)	
	w(X)	
		r(X)

- If  $T_1$  fails,  $T_2$  and  $T_3$  must also be rolled back.
- Can lead to the undoing of a significant amount of work

#### Cascadeless schedule

- A schedule where every transaction reads only the items that are written by committed transactions.
- In other words: *No dirty Read*

```
Which schedule avoid cascade rollback
```

```
S1: r1(X) w1(X) r2(X) r1(Y) w2(X) w1(Y) c1 c2
```

S2: r1(X) w1(X) r2(X) r1(Y) w2(X) w1(Y) a1 a2

The  $r_2(X)$  command in schedules S1 and S2 must be postponed until after  $T_1$  has committed (or aborted),

This delays  $T_2$  but ensuring no cascading rollback if  $T_1$  aborts

#### Strict Schedule

A schedule in which a transaction can neither read or write an item X until the last transaction that wrote X has committed.

- Strict schedules simplify the recovery process.
- The process of undoing a **write\_item(***X***)** of an aborted transaction is to restore the **before image** (old\_value) of *X*.

Sf: 
$$w_1(X,5)$$
  $w_2(X,8)$   $a_1$ 

- *Sf* is cascadeless, but it is not a strict schedule,
  - As it permits  $T_2$  to write item X even though  $T_1$  that last wrote X had not yet committed (or aborted).

#### Non-Recoverable schedule

• A transaction  $T_2$  **reads** a data item **X** written by  $T_1$  in S and commit before  $T_1$ 

# Recoverable schedule

• If a transaction  $T_2$  **reads** a data item X written by  $T_1$  in S and commit after  $T_1$ 

# Cascadeless schedule

No dirty read

#### Strict Schedule

• A schedule in which a transaction can neither read or write an item X until the last transaction that wrote X has committed.

Every strict schedule is also cascadeless

Every
cascadeless
schedule is
also
recoverable

It is desirable to restrict the schedules to those that are cascadeless

# Characterizing Schedules based on Serializability

- Serializable schedule: A schedule S is serializable if it is equivalent to some serial schedule of the same n transactions.
  - A nonserial schedule S is serializable means it is correct,

T <sub>1</sub>	T <sub>2</sub>
read_item( $X$ ); X := X - N;	read_item(X);
write_item(X); read_item(Y);	X := X + M;
Y := Y + N; write_item(Y);	write_item(X);

Time

Schedule C

Schedule D

We would like to determine which of the non-serial schedules *always* give a correct result and which do not.

## Schedules-conflict

- Two operations in S are in **conflict** if
  - they belong to *different transactions*
  - they access the same item X and
  - at least one of the operations is a write\_item(X).

S:  $r_1(x)$   $w_1(X)$   $r_2(X)$   $w_2(x)$   $r_1(y)$   $a_1$ 

- Conflicting operations
  - $r_1(X)$  and  $w_2(X)$
  - $r_2(X)$  and  $w_1(X)$
  - $w_1(X)$  and  $w_2(X)$

- Non-conflicting operations
  - $r_1(X)$  and  $r_2(X)$
  - $w_2(X)$  and  $w_1(Y)$
  - $r_1(X)$  and  $w_1(X)$

Intuitively, two operations are conflicting if changing their order can result in a different outcome.

Types of Conflict: read-write conflict and write-write conflict

# Characterizing Schedules based on Serializability

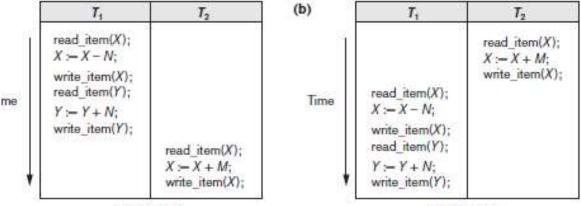
• Conflict equivalent: Two schedules are said to be conflict equivalent if the order of any two conflicting operations is same in both schedules.

Two operations on the same data items conflict if at least one of them is a write

- •r(X) and w(X)
- • $\mathbf{w}(X)$  and  $\mathbf{r}(X)$
- •w(X) and w(X)
- If two conflicting operations are applied in *different* orders in two schedules, the effect can be different

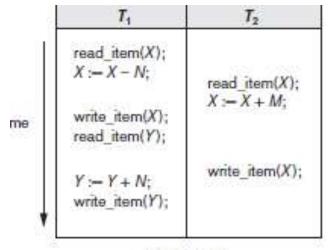
### Serializability

• A schedule S is said to be conflict serializable if it is conflict equivalent to some serial schedule S'.



Schedule A

Schedule B

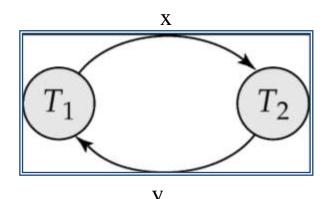


Schedule C

Schedule D

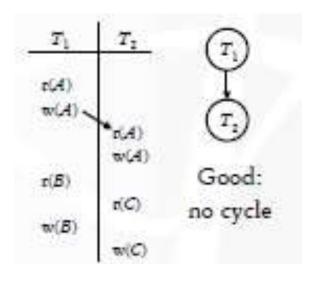
### Testing for Serializability

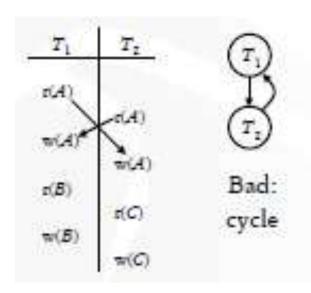
- Consider some schedule of a set of transactions  $T_1, T_2, ..., T_n$
- Precedence graph
  - a *direct graph* where the <u>vertices</u> *are* the <u>transactions</u> (names).
- Draw an <u>arc</u> from  $T_i$  to  $T_j$ 
  - if the two transaction conflict, and
  - $T_i$  accessed the data item on which the conflict arose earlier.
- We may <u>label</u> the <u>arc</u> by the **item** that was **accessed**.



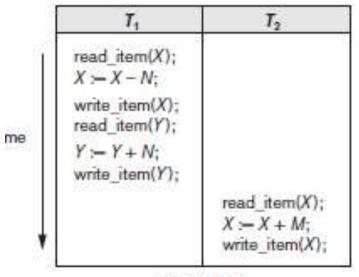
## Precedence Graph

- A node for each transaction
- A directed edge from  $T_i$  to  $T_j$  if an operation of  $T_i$  precedes and conflicts with an operation of  $T_j$  in the schedule

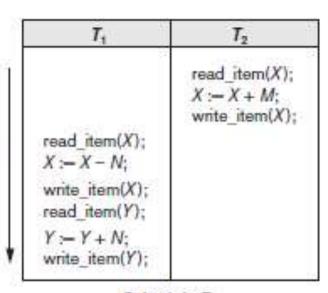




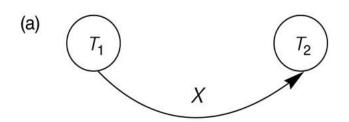
### Constructing the Precedence Graphs



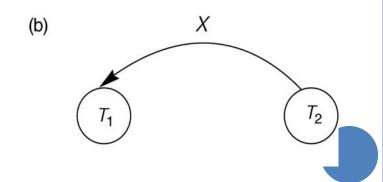
(b)



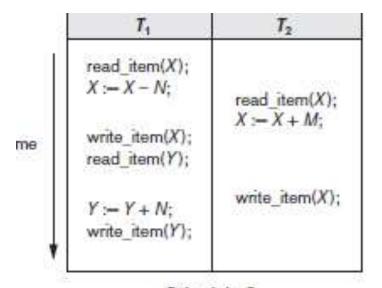
Schedule A



Schedule B



### Constructing the Precedence Graphs



read\_item(X);

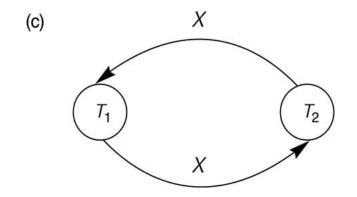
X:= X - N;
write\_item(X);

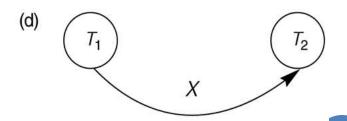
Time

read\_item(Y);
Y:= Y + N;
write\_item(Y);

Schedule D

#### Schedule C





 $T_2$ 

read item(X);

X := X + M;write item(X);

### Example of serializability Testing

#### Transaction T<sub>1</sub>

read\_item(X);

write\_item(X);

read\_item(Y);

write\_item(Y);

#### Transaction $T_2$

read\_item(Z);

read\_item(Y);

write\_item(Y);

read\_item(X);

write\_item(X);

#### Transaction $T_3$

read\_item(Y);

read\_item(Z);

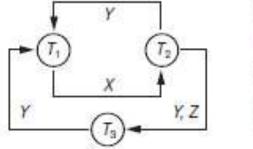
write\_item(Y);

write\_item(Z);

### Example of Serializability Testing

	Transaction T <sub>1</sub>	Transaction T <sub>2</sub>	Transaction T <sub>3</sub>
Time	read_item(X); write_item(X);	read_item(Z); read_item(Y); write_item(Y);	<pre>read_item(Y); read_item(Z); write_item(Y); write_item(Z);</pre>
		read_item(X);	536
*	read_item(Y); write_item(Y);	write_item(X);	

#### Schedule E



#### Equivalent serial schedules

None

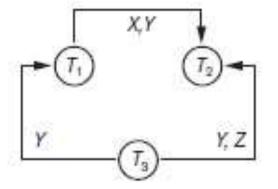
#### Reason

Cycle 
$$X(T_1 \rightarrow T_2), Y(T_2 \rightarrow T_1)$$
  
Cycle  $X(T_1 \rightarrow T_2), YZ(T_2 \rightarrow T_3), Y(T_3 \rightarrow T_1)$ 

### Example of Serializability Testing

Transaction T<sub>1</sub> Transaction  $T_2$ Transaction T<sub>3</sub> read\_item(Y); read\_item(Z); read\_item(X); write\_item(X); write\_item(Y); write\_item(Z); read\_item(Z); read item(Y); write\_item(Y); read\_item(Y); write\_item(Y); read item(X); write item(X);

#### Schedule F



Time

#### Equivalent serial schedules



### Example of Serializability Testing

#### Transaction $T_1$

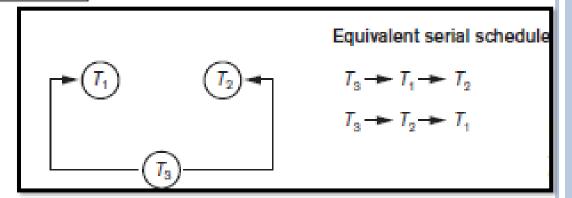
read\_item(X);
write\_item(X);
read\_item(Y);
write\_item(Y);

#### Transaction T<sub>2</sub>

read\_item(Z);
read\_item(Y);
write\_item(Y);
read\_item(X);
write\_item(X);

#### Transaction $T_3$

read\_item(Y); read\_item(Z); write\_item(Y); write\_item(Z);



#### To find an equivalent serial schedule:

- start with a node that does not have any incoming edges, and then
- make sure that the node order for every edge is not violated.

### Test for Conflict Serializability

- A schedule is *conflict serializable* 
  - if and only if its precedence graph is acyclic.
- Cycle-detection algorithm:
  - Use **Depth-first search** to detect cycle
    - DFS for a connected graph produces a tree.
    - There is a cycle in a graph only if there is a back
       edge present in the graph
- If precedence graph is acyclic, the serializability order can be obtained by a topological sorting of the graph.

(a)

A **topological ordering** of a directed graph is a linear ordering of its <u>vertices</u> such that for <u>every directed edge uv</u> from vertex u to vertex v, u comes before v in the ordering.

## T-SQL AND Transactions

SQL has following transaction modes.

- Autocommit transactions
  - Each individual SQL statement = transaction.
- Explicit transactions

**BEGIN TRANSACTION** 

[SQL statements]

COMMIT or ROLLBACK

## Transaction Support in TSQL

Table 21.1 Possible Violations Based on Isolation Levels as Defined in SQL

	Type of Violation		
Isolation Level	Dirty Read	Nonrepeatable Read	Phantom
READ UNCOMMITTED	Yes	Yes	Yes
READ COMMITTED	No	Yes	Yes
REPEATABLE READ	No	No	Yes
SERIALIZABLE	No	No	No

### Transaction Support in SQL

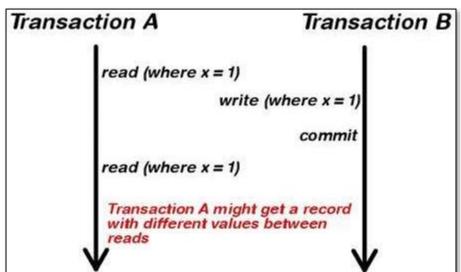
Potential problem with lower isolation levels:

#### Dirty Read

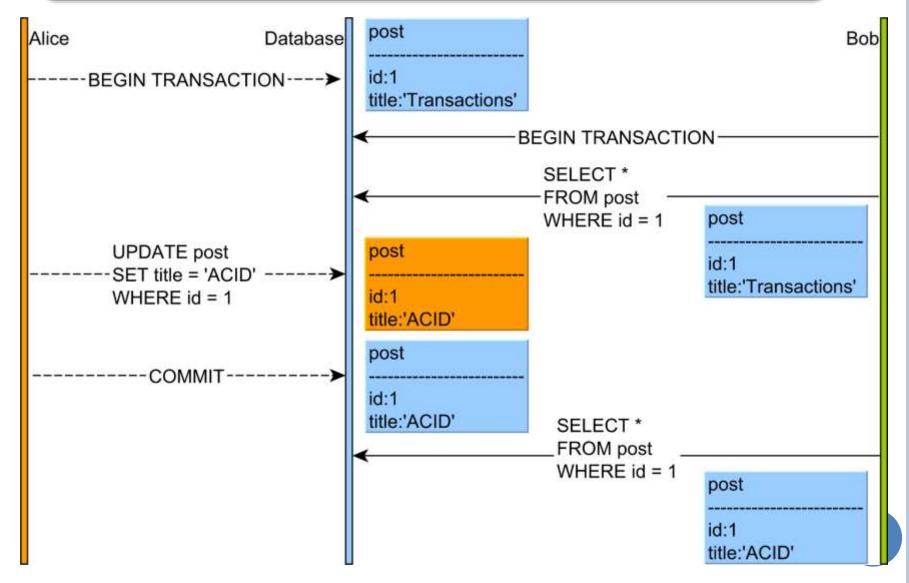
Reading a value that was written by a failed transaction.

#### Nonrepeatable Read

- A transaction  $T_i$  write a new value between multiple reads of transaction  $T_i$ .
  - T<sub>i</sub> reads a given value X from a table.
  - $T_i$  later updates X and  $T_j$  reads that value again,  $T_j$  will see a different value.

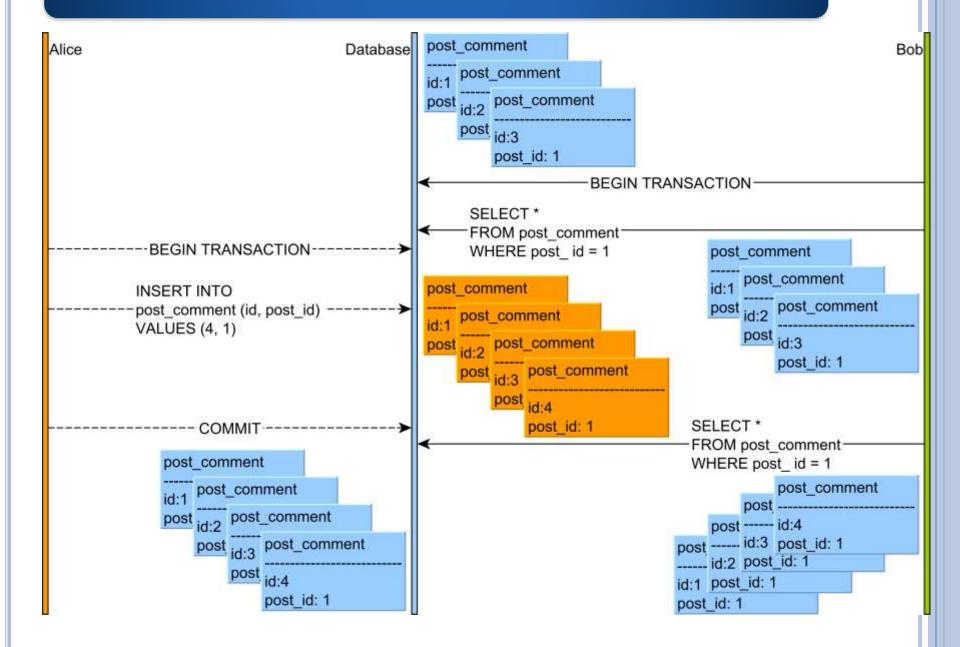


### Nonrepeatable Read



https://vladmihalcea.com/non-repeatable-read/

### Phantom



## Transaction Support in SQL

• Potential problem with lower isolation levels (contd.):

#### Phantoms

• New rows being read using the same read with a condition.

#### • Example:

- $\circ$  T<sub>1</sub> read a set of rows from a table,
  - on some condition specified in the SQL WHERE clause.
- $T_2$  inserts a new row that also satisfies the WHERE clause condition of  $T_1$ , into the table used by  $T_1$ .
- If  $T_1$  is repeated, then  $T_1$  will see a row that previously did not exist, called a **phantom**.

### TRANSACTION SUPPORT IN TSQL

- 1. "Dirty reads"
  SET TRANSACTION ISOLATION LEVEL READ
  UNCOMMITTED
- 2. "Committed reads"
  SET TRANSACTION ISOLATION LEVEL READ
  COMMITTED
- 3. "Repeatable reads"
  SET TRANSACTION ISOLATION LEVEL
  REPEATABLE READ
- 4. Serializable transactions (default): SET TRANSACTION ISOLATION LEVEL SERIALIZABLE

# Characterizing Schedules based on Serializability

- Serializability is hard to check.
  - Interleaving of operations occurs in an operating system through some scheduler
  - Difficult to determine beforehand how the operations in a schedule will be interleaved.
- Current approach used in most DBMSs:
  - Use of locks with Two Phase locking Protocol