CSC7072: Databases, fall 2015

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transactions

definition

what is a transaction?

it is a unit of execution that accesses and/or modifies data

for example, transferring money from A to B is a transaction:

- $\mathbf{1}$ read(A)
- 2 A = A 50
- 3 write(A)
- 4 read(B)
- $\mathbf{5} B = B + 50$
- 6 write(B)

requires all 6 steps!

two issues to deal with

failures, e.g. hardware crash concurrency, e.g. other transfer from B

essential properties

what is ACID?

a transaction should satisfy the ACID properties



atomicity

either all changes are correctly reflected in the DB, or none are

- 1 read(A)
- **2** A = A 50 **5** B = B + 50
- 3 write(A)

- 4 read(B)
- 6 write(B)

if only steps 1–3 are executed, then money would be lost!

essential properties

what is ACID?

consistency

consistency constraints (e.g. allowable values, FK consistency, ...) must be guaranteed before, and after a transaction executes.

- 1 read(A)
- 2 A = A 50
- write(A)
- 4 read(B)
- **6** B = B + 50
- 6 write(B)

example: before and after execution of the transaction we have that the sum of A and B is unchanged

i.e. no money disappears

during a transaction the database may be temporarily inconsistent!

essential properties

what is ACID?



isolation

each transaction is unaware and unaffected by any other transactions that is executed *concurrently*

- 1 read(A)
- 2 A = A 50
- 3 write(A)
- 4 read(B)
- B = B + 50
- 6 write(B)

1 print(A+B)

hint: DB is inconsistent at this stage

yet big speed gains can be achieved through (careful!) concurrent execution

essential properties

what is ACID?

(I

durability

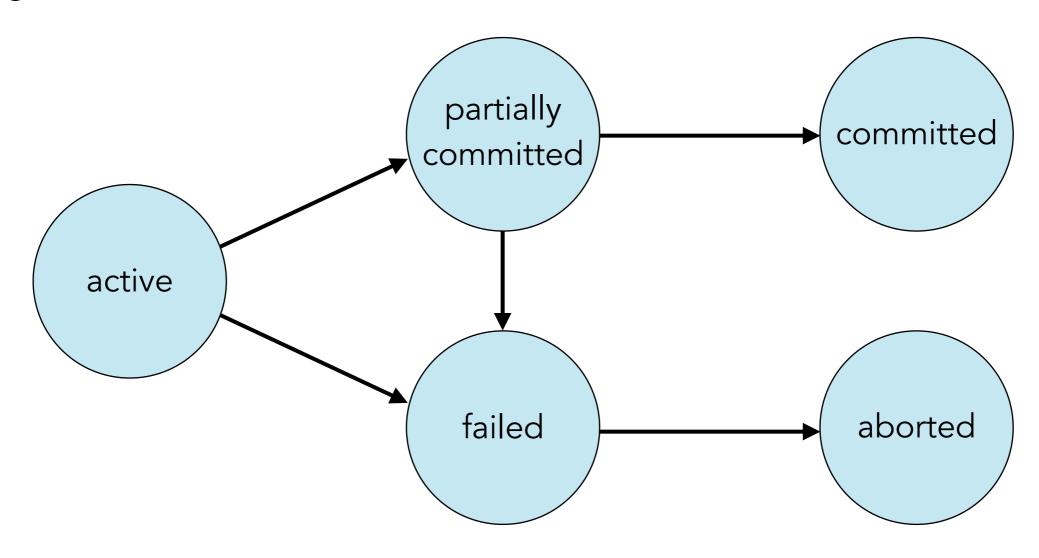
once a transaction has been committed, the changes must persist even if the system crashes afterwards

when transactions satisfy the ACID properties, then we have a guarantee that database transaction are processed reliably

these properties are widespread, and found in various places for example, your file system (NTFS, EXT#, HFS+) behaves as a DB!

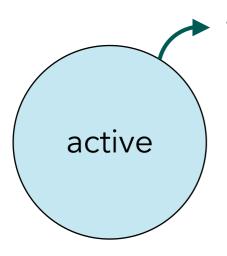
states of a transaction

stages of a transaction



states of a transaction

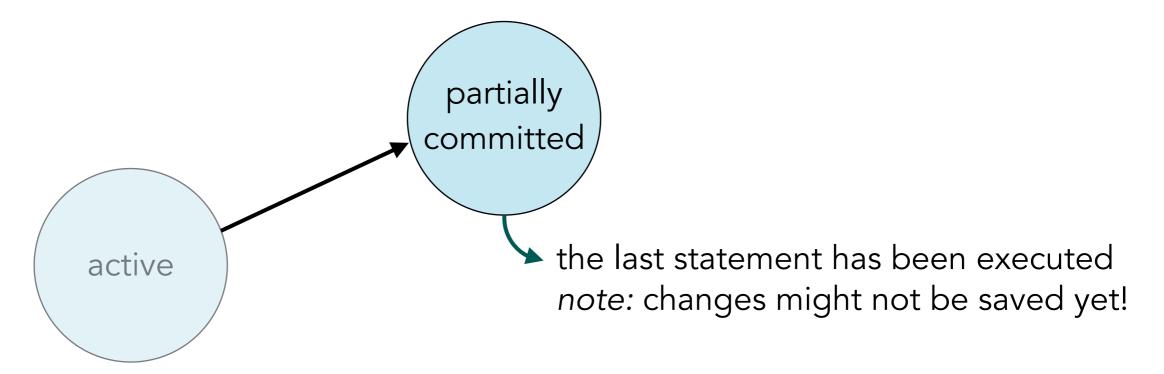
stages of a transaction



this is the initial state a transaction stays in this state while executing

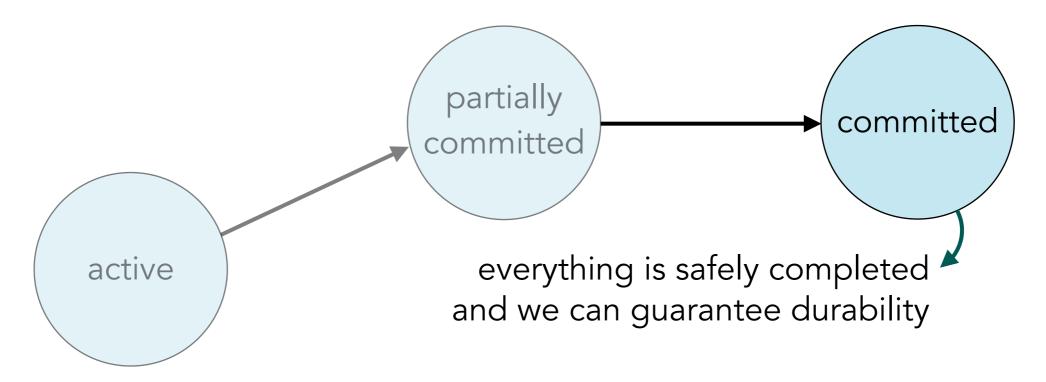
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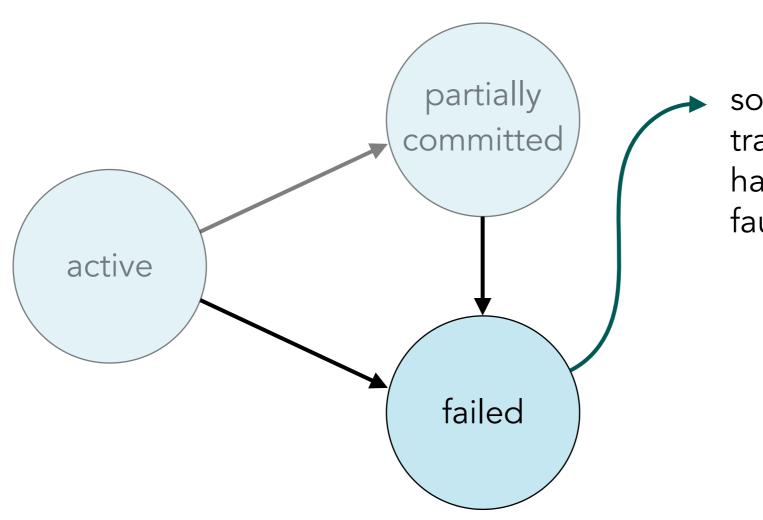
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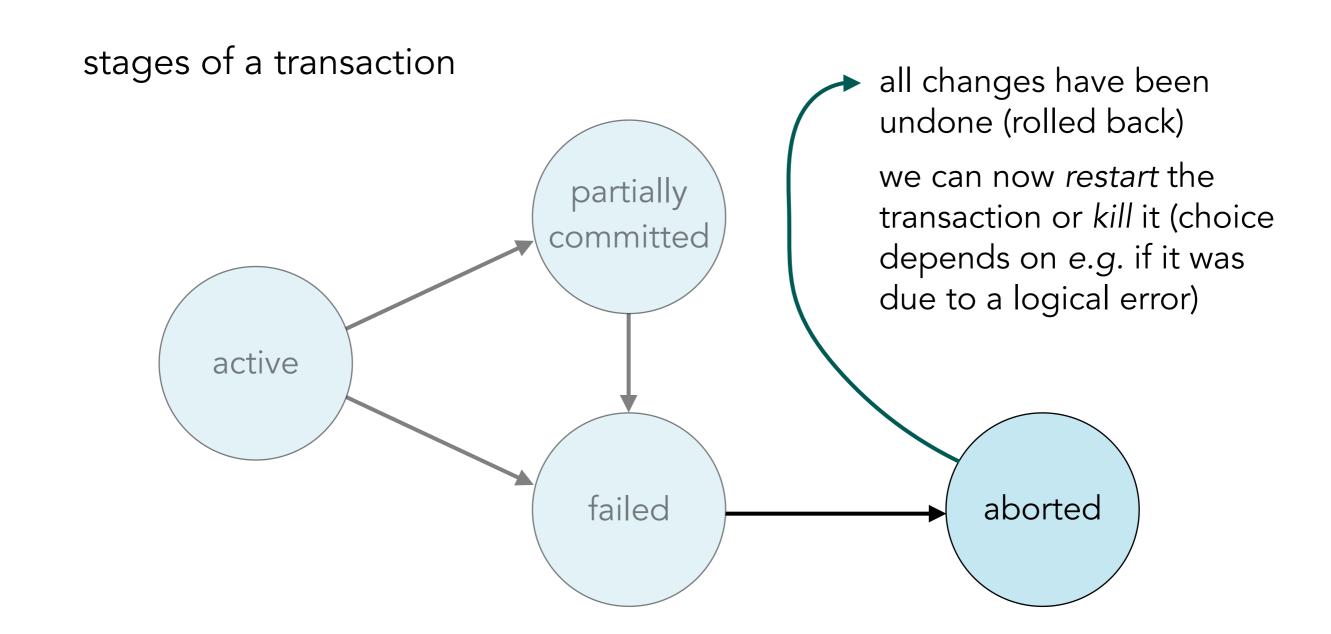
states of a transaction

stages of a transaction



something caused the transaction to fail, e.g. a hardware error, a logical fault ...

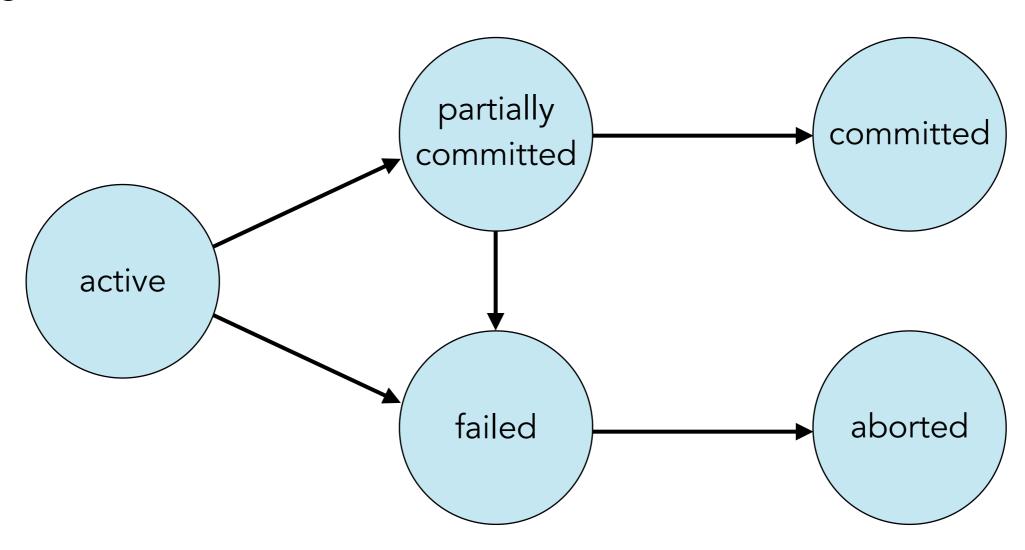
states of a transaction



(I)

states of a transaction

stages of a transaction



concurrency: the need for speed

isolation: why even allow concurrency?

- better CPU/memory/storage utilisation
 e.g. if one transaction is CPU intensive, another is memory intensive, then running them both maximally uses capabilities
- reduced average response time
 i.e. short transactions need not wait behing long ones

concurrency control schemes are used to guarantee isolation achieved by controlling the interaction between transactions in order to prevent them from destroying the consistency

concurrency: schedules

key notion is the idea of a schedule

represents the chronological order in which instructions are handled

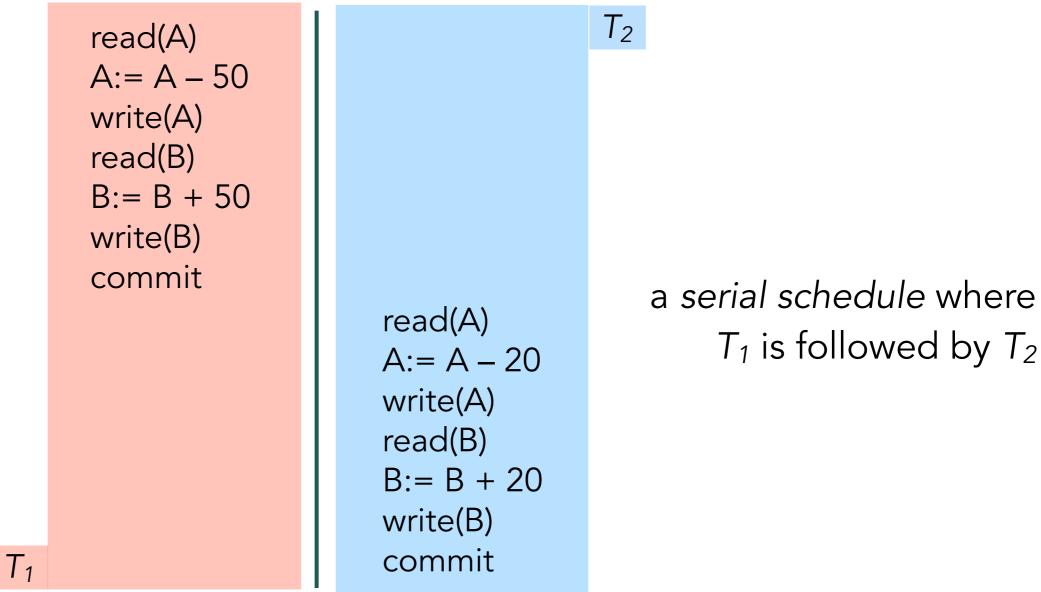
- clearly, it must consist of all the instructions for all transactions
- must preserve order of instructions as found in a transaction

hence, a schedule is only interweaves transactions!

for clarity, we henceforth explicitly write commit to move to committed state

schedules: example

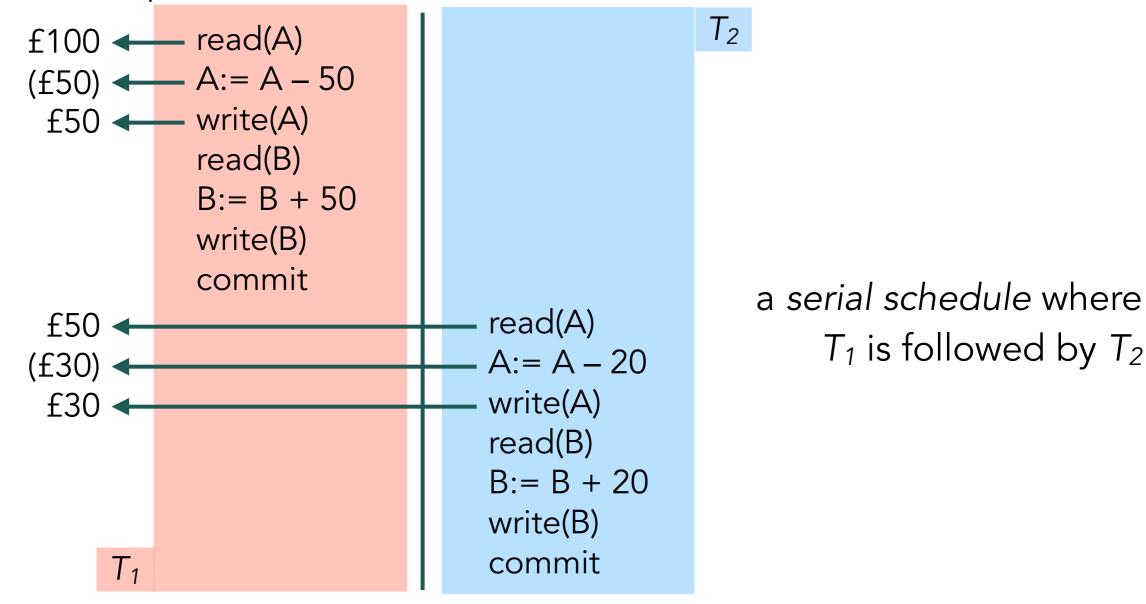
simple example: A transfers £50 to B (T_1); A transfers £20 to B (T_2)



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schedules: example

simple example: A transfers £50 to B (T_1); A transfers £20 to B (T_2)



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schedules: alternative example

alternative serial schedule:

read(A)
A:= A - 50
write(A)
read(B)
B:= B + 50
write(B)
commit

read(A)
A:= A - 20
write(A)
read(B)
B:= B + 20
write(B)
commit

 T_2

a serial schedule where T_2 is followed by T_1

 T_1

schedules: concurrent example

a working concurrent scheme:

read(A) A:=A-50write(A)

read(B)
B:= B + 50
write(B)
commit

 T_1

read(A) A:=A-20write(A)

read(B)
B:= B + 20
write(B)
commit

 T_2

a serial schedule where T_1 is followed by T_2

schedules: problematic example

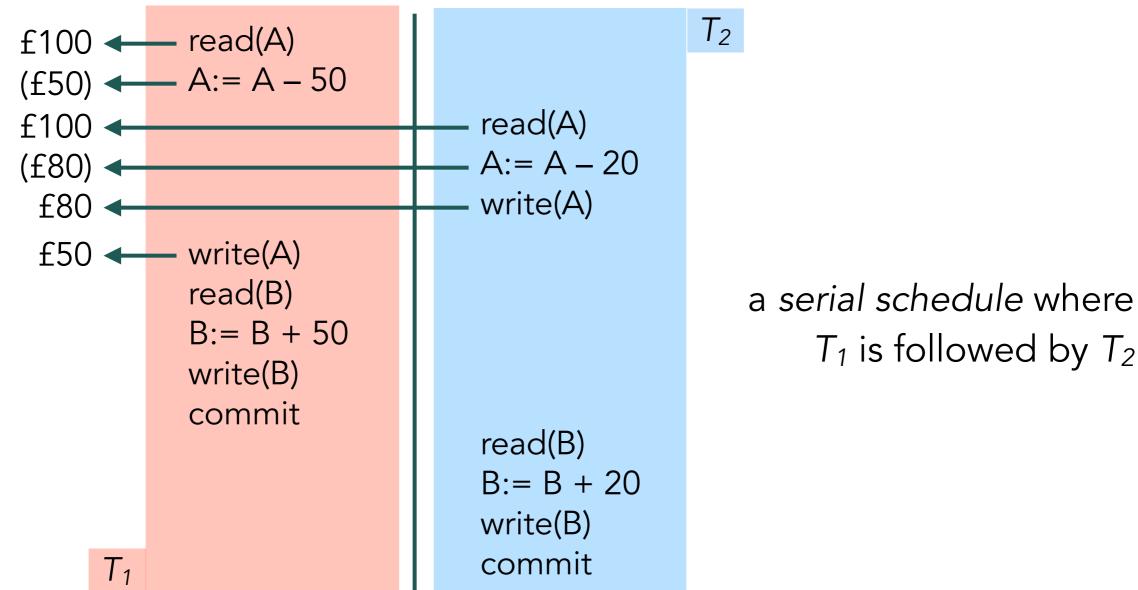
a problematic concurrent scheme:

 T_2 read(A) A := A - 50read(A) A := A - 20write(A) write(A) read(B) a serial schedule where B := B + 50 T_1 is followed by T_2 write(B) commit read(B) B := B + 20write(B) commit T_1

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schedules: problematic example

a problematic concurrent scheme:



safe concurrency

what is correct concurrent execution?

core idea: any correct schedule has the same effect as a schedule without concurrent execution, i.e. a serial schedule

main question: when is a schedule serialisable? or: which schedules can be turned into equivalent serial schedules?

some simplifying assumptions:

- we only consider operations open and write
- transactions can perform arbitrary computations in between

safe concurrency: conflict

the problem with *conflict* assume we have value A, and two transactions, T_1 and T_2 where T_1 has the instruction IN_1 , and T_2 has the instruction IN_2

 $IN_1 = read(A)$ $IN_2 = read(A)$ the order does not matter; IN_1 or IN_2 can both be first

safe concurrency: conflict

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- $IN_1 = read(A)$ $IN_2 = read(A)$ the order does not matter; IN_1 or IN_2 can both be first
- IN_1 = read(A) IN_2 = write(A) the order **does** matter; if IN_1 goes first it does not read the result of IN_2 if IN_2 goes first, then IN_1 it reads result of IN_2
- $IN_1 = write(A)$ $IN_2 = read(A)$ the order **does** matter; similar as above

safe concurrency: conflict

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- IN_1 = read(A) IN_2 = write(A) the order **does** matter; if IN_1 goes first it does not read the result of IN_2 if IN_2 goes first, then IN_1 it reads result of IN_2
- $N_1 = write(A)$ $N_2 = read(A)$ the order **does** matter; similar as above
- IN_1 = write(A) IN_2 = write(A) the order **does** matter; only last value of A actually stored in DB!

safe concurrency: conflict serialisability

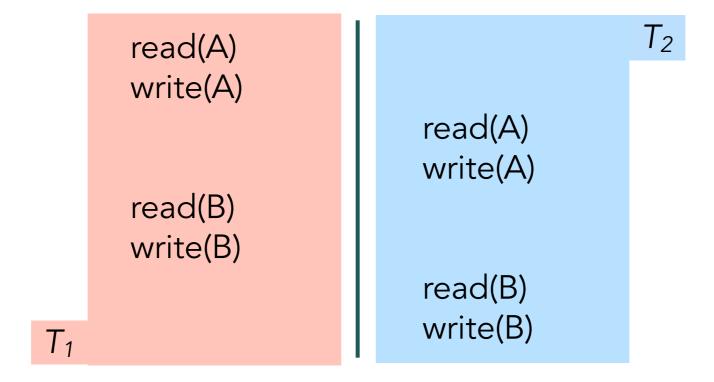
the problem with conflict, cont.

when working on the same data, **1** and at least one of the instructions is write(...), **2** then we say that the instructions are in conflict

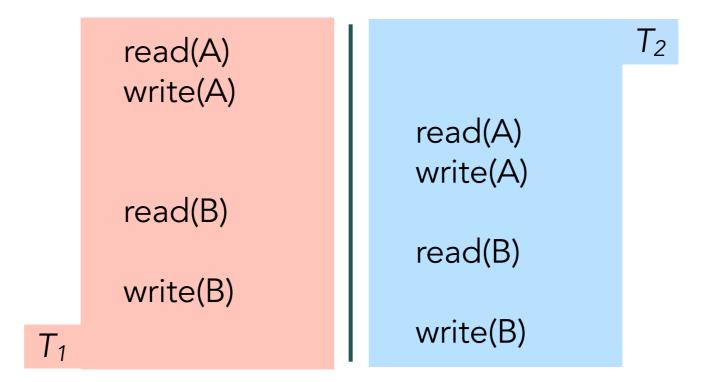
leads us to conflict serialisability:

if we can turn a schedule into a serial one, only by swapping instructions that do not have any conflict, then the original schedule is said to be conflict serialisable

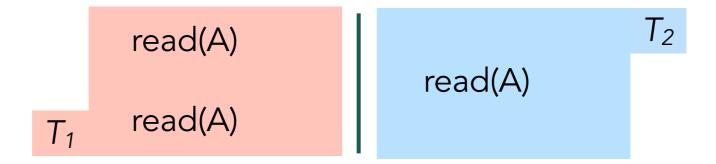
your turn



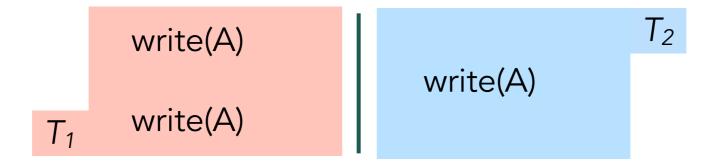
your turn



your turn



your turn



when things go wrong

if things go wrong: the failed state

remember atomicity:

either all changes are correctly reflected in the DB, or none are

what happens if a transaction fails midway?

- 1 read(A)
- 4 read(B)
- 2 A = A 50 5 B = B + 50

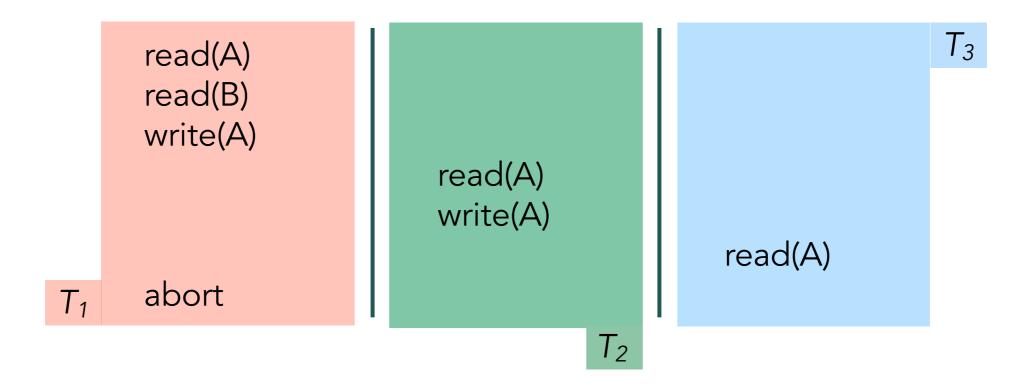
- 3 write(A)
- 6 write(B)

a rollback is initiated to undo all changes so far

care must be taken to avoid steps that cannot be turned back! e.g. sending out emails, displaying partial results on screen ...

when things go wrong ... and cause a torrent

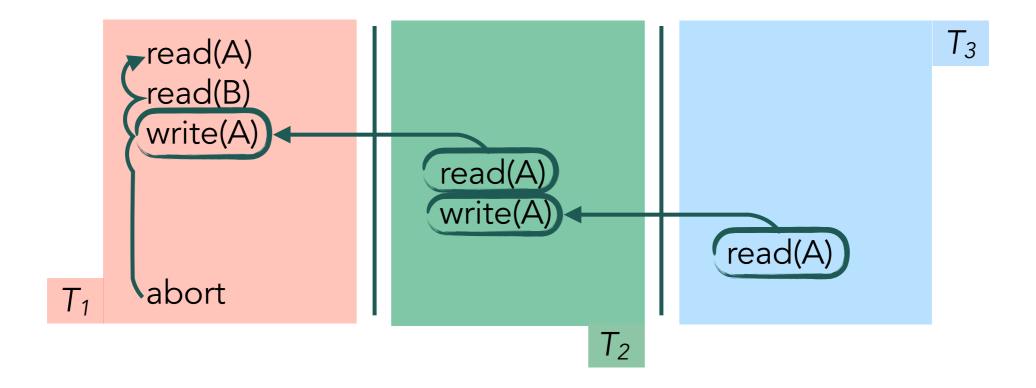
when things get worse: nested *failed* states sometimes, a *cascading rollback* is triggered:



can lead to the undoing of significant amounts of work

when things go wrong ... and cause a torrent

when things get worse: nested *failed* states sometimes, a *cascading rollback* is triggered:



can lead to the undoing of significant amounts of work

mid summary

before we continue: transactions concepts

- transactions need to satisfy the ACID properties
- isolation plays a role when we allow concurrency we want concurrency as it can add a lot of performance
- conflict-serialisability is one approach to guarantee isolation
- transactions can be in one of 5 states
- failed transactions require a rollback, due to atomicity some things cannot be undone; we try to do those after a commit
- cascading rollbacks are costly, and can undo a lot of work often we restrict ourselves to cascadeless schedules

why do we need recovery?

why again did we need transactions/recovery?

a lot can go wrong:

- transaction error
 something went wrong with the transaction; this can be e.g. an explicit abort, or a system error such as a deadlock (A waits for B, B waits for A)
- system crash
 power failure or software failure causes the system to go down
- disk failure
 a disk head crashes, memory becomes corrupt ...

idea: make a copy?

log-based recovery

log-based recovery: overview

every DBMS has support for transactions, SQL assumes COMMITS implicitly after each statement

log-based recovery is complete to allow successful recovery but also light enough to not have too much overhead

log-based recovery is very common in DBMS (and file systems, ...)

idea: keep track in log of all changes (not a full copy of original)

log-based recovery

log-based recovery: overview

a *log* consists of *log records*; maintains record of updates to DB log record created when:

- a transaction T_k starts, to register it: $< T_k$ start>
- **before** T_k executes write(X), to track the update: $< T_k$, X, V_{before} , $V_{after}>$ where V_{before} and V_{after} are *resp.* the value of X as it is now in the DB (*i.e.* before), and the value to change X into
- when transaction T_k finishes: \leftarrow transaction is committed here $< T_k$ commit>

log-based recovery: example

example: transfer (T_1) and withdrawal transaction (T_2)

log records	DB writes	storage writes
<T ₁ start $>$		
<t<sub>1, A, 1000, 950></t<sub>		
	A = 950	
<t<sub>2 start></t<sub>		
<t<sub>1, B, 775, 825></t<sub>		
	B = 825	
<t<sub>1 commit></t<sub>		BL _B
<t<sub>2, C, 700, 600></t<sub>		
	C = 600	BL_A , BL_C
<t<sub>2 commit></t<sub>		

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storage in a computer

storage writes? a primer on storage

a computer has different types of storage:

- volatile storage
 storage that disappears as the result of system crashes
 e.g. main memory, cache memory (think of copy-paste)
- non-volatile storage
 storage that survives system crashes, e.g. hard disk, SSD but it can still fail in other ways, such as a disk crash
- permanent storage
 mythical form of storage that survives all crashes
 mimicked in clever ways using various backups

storage in a computer: where DB sits

storage writes? a primer on storage

a computer has different types of storage:

volatile storage

 storage that disappears as the result of system crashes e.g. main memory, cache memory (think of copy-paste)

non-volatile storage

 storage that survives system crashes, e.g. hard disk, SSD but it can still fail in other ways, such as a disk crash

permanent storage

log — mythical form of storage that survives all crashes mimicked in clever ways using various (networked) backups

storage in a computer: where DB sits

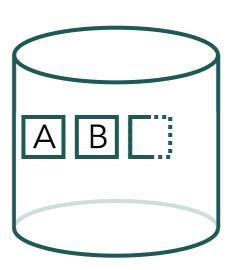
storage writes? a primer on storage

too volatile (remember durability?)

too slow (remember efficiency?)

work area T_k

volatile storage



non-volatile storage

storage in a computer: where DB sits

storage writes? a primer on storage

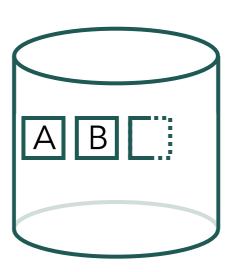
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work area T_k

volatile storage

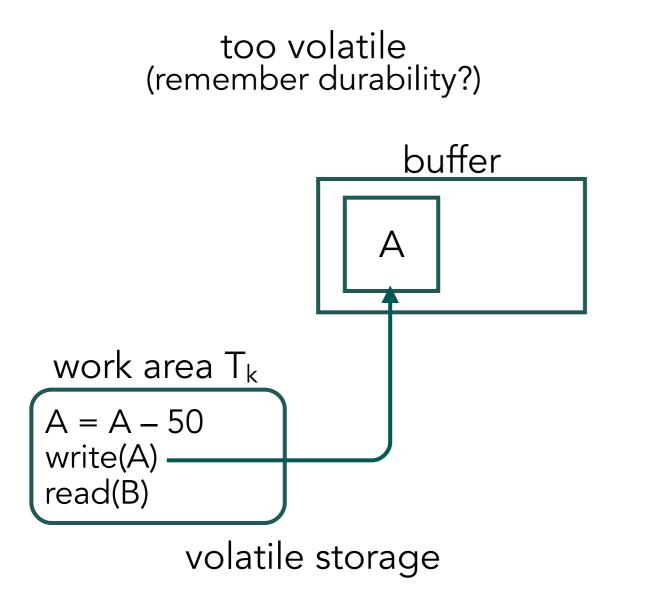
too slow (remember efficiency?)



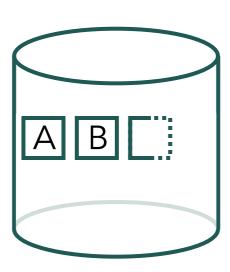
non-volatile storage

storage in a computer: where DB sits

storage writes? a primer on storage



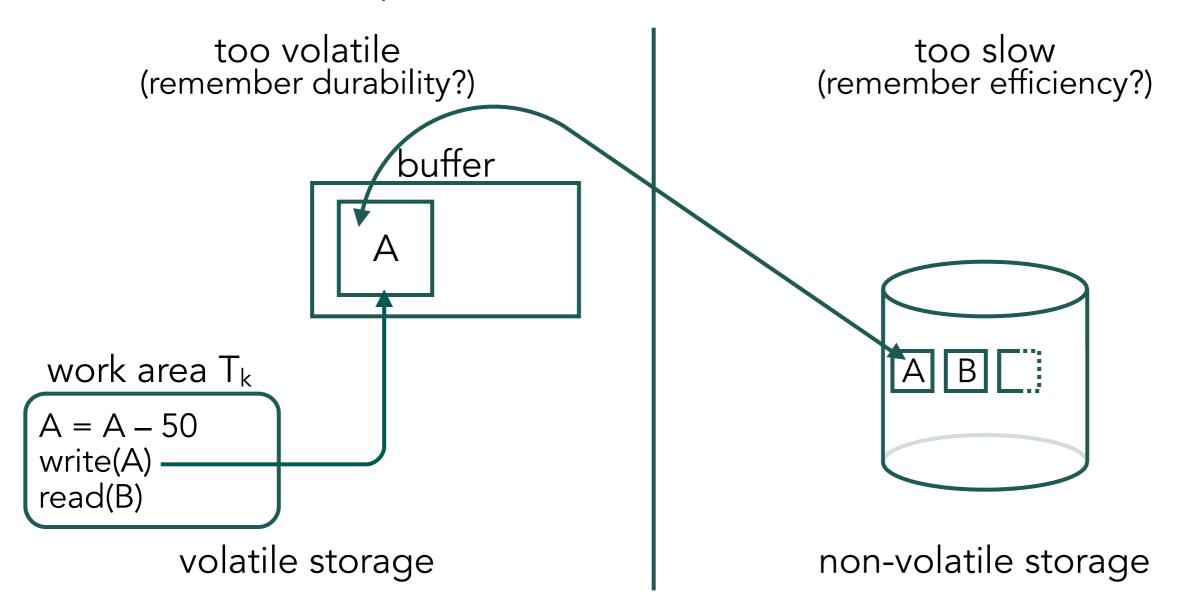
too slow (remember efficiency?)



non-volatile storage

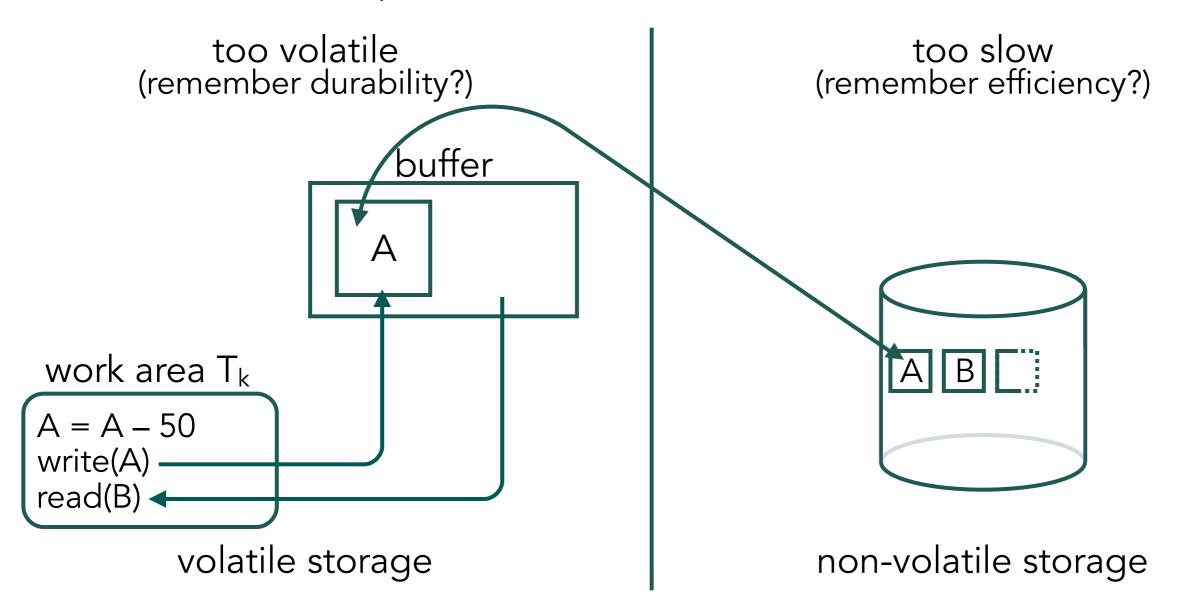
storage in a computer: where DB sits

storage writes? a primer on storage



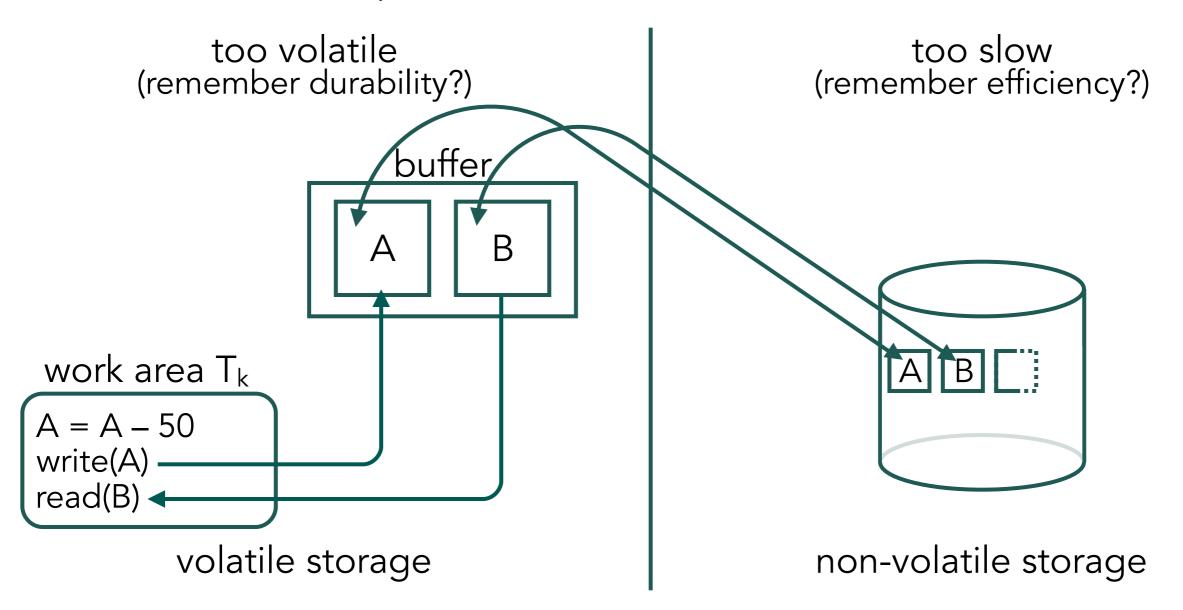
storage in a computer: where DB sits

storage writes? a primer on storage



storage in a computer: where DB sits

storage writes? a primer on storage





log-based recovery: recovery strategy

recovering from a fault in log-based recovery

we have two options to choose from:

- 1 undo changes: write old value of $\langle T_k, X, V_{before}, V_{after} \rangle$
- 2 redo changes: write new value of $\langle T_k, X, V_{before}, V_{after} \rangle$

idea: undo all uncommited, then redo all committed transactions

how does undo work?

move **backward** over the log file and change to V_{before} each time, add a log record $<T_k$, X, $V_{before}>$ to record the change when T_k is fully undone (we reach $<T_k$ start>), write $<T_k$ abort>



log-based recovery: recovery strategy

recovering from a fault in log-based recovery

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- 2 redo changes: write new value of $\langle T_k, X, V_{before}, V_{after} \rangle$

idea: undo all uncommited, then redo all committed transactions

how does redo work?

move **forward** over the log file and change to V_{after} no log record is created (it's all there already)

log-based recovery: recovery strategy

example: log based recovery

<T₁ start>

<T₁, A, 1000, 950>

<T₂ start>

<T₁, B, 775, 825>

<T₁ commit>

<T₂, C, 700, 600>

DB writes

A = 950

B = 825

storage writes

 BL_B

$$BL_{B} = 825$$

$$BL_{A} = 1000$$

$$BL_C = 700$$

 $BL_A = 1000$ $BL_C = 700$ inconsistent/lost update!

log-based recovery: recovery strategy

example: log based recovery

log records

<T₁ start>

 $<T_1$, A, 1000, 950>

<T₂ start>

 $<T_1$, B, 775, 825>

<T₁ commit>

 $<T_2$, C, 700, 600>

$$BL_{B} = 825$$

$$BL_A = 1000 \quad BL_C = 700$$

log-based recovery: recovery strategy

example: log based recovery

log records

<T₁ start>

 $<T_1$, A, 1000, 950>

<T₂ start>

 $<T_1$, B, 775, 825>

<T₁ commit>

 \longrightarrow <T₂, C, 700, 600>

$$BL_{B} = 825$$

$$BL_A = 1000 \quad BL_C = 700$$

log-based recovery: recovery strategy

example: log based recovery

log records

<T₁ start>

 $<T_1$, A, 1000, 950>

<T₂ start>

 $<T_1$, B, 775, 825>

<T₁ commit>

→ <T₂, C, 700, 600>

 $<T_2, C, 700>$

$$BL_{C} = 700$$

$$BL_{B} = 825$$

$$BL_A = 1000 \quad BL_C = 700$$

log-based recovery: recovery strategy

example: log based recovery

log records

<T₁ start>

 $<T_1$, A, 1000, 950>

<T₂ start>

 $<T_1$, B, 775, 825>

 \longrightarrow <T₁ commit>

<T₂, C, 700, 600>

 $<T_2, C, 700>$

recovery

 $BL_{C} = 700$

$$BL_{B} = 825$$

$$BL_A = 1000 \quad BL_C = 700$$

log-based recovery: recovery strategy

example: log based recovery

log records

 $<T_1 start>$

 $<T_1$, A, 1000, 950>

<T₂ start>

 \longrightarrow <T₁, B, 775, 825>

<T₁ commit>

<T₂, C, 700, 600>

 $<T_2, C, 700>$

recovery

 $BL_C = 700$

$$BL_{B} = 825$$

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log-based recovery: recovery strategy

example: log based recovery

log records

 $<T_1 start>$

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 $<T_1$, B, 775, 825>

<T₁ commit>

 $<T_2$, C, 700, 600>

 $<T_2, C, 700>$

recovery

 $BL_{C} = 700$

$$BL_{B} = 825$$

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log-based recovery: recovery strategy

example: log based recovery

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 \longrightarrow <T₂ start>

 $<T_1$, B, 775, 825>

<T₁ commit>

<T₂, C, 700, 600>

 $<T_2, C, 700>$

<T₂ abort>

recovery

 $BL_{C} = 700$

$$BL_{B} = 825$$

$$BL_A = 1000 \quad BL_C = 700$$

log-based recovery: recovery strategy

example: log based recovery

log records

 \rightarrow <T₁ start>

 $<T_1$, A, 1000, 950>

<T₂ start>

 $<T_1$, B, 775, 825>

<T₁ commit>

<T₂, C, 700, 600>

 $<T_2, C, 700>$

<T₂ abort>

$$BL_{C} = 700$$

$$BL_{B} = 825$$

$$BL_A = 1000 \quad BL_C = 700$$

$$BL_C = 700$$

log-based recovery: recovery strategy

example: log based recovery

log records

<T₁ start>

→ <T₁, A, 1000, 950>

<T₂ start>

 $<T_1$, B, 775, 825>

<T₁ commit>

<T₂, C, 700, 600>

 $<T_2, C, 700>$

<T₂ abort>

$$BL_{C} = 700$$

$$BL_{B} = 825$$

$$BL_A = 1000 \quad BL_C = 700$$

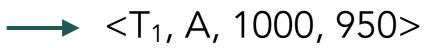
$$BL_C = 700$$

log-based recovery: recovery strategy

example: log based recovery

log records

<T₁ start>



<T₂ start>

 $<T_1$, B, 775, 825>

<T₁ commit>

<T₂, C, 700, 600>

 $<T_2, C, 700>$

<T₂ abort>

$$BL_A = 950$$

$$BL_C = 700$$

$$BL_{B} = 825$$

$$BL_A = 950$$
 $BL_C = 700$

$$BL_C = 700$$

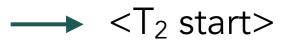
log-based recovery: recovery strategy

example: log based recovery

log records

<T₁ start>

 $<T_1$, A, 1000, 950>



 $<T_1$, B, 775, 825>

<T₁ commit>

<T₂, C, 700, 600>

 $<T_2, C, 700>$

<T₂ abort>

recovery

 $BL_{A} = 950$

$$BL_{C} = 700$$

$$BL_{B} = 825$$

$$BL_A = 950$$
 $BL_C = 700$

$$BL_C = 700$$

log-based recovery: recovery strategy

example: log based recovery

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 $<T_1$, A, 1000, 950>

<T₂ start>

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<T₁ commit>

<T₂, C, 700, 600>

 $<T_2, C, 700>$

<T₂ abort>

recovery

 $BL_{A} = 950$

 $BL_{C} = 700$

$$BL_{B} = 825$$

$$BL_A = 950$$
 $BL_C = 700$

$$BL_C = 700$$

log-based recovery: recovery strategy

example: log based recovery

log records

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 $<T_1$, A, 1000, 950>

<T₂ start>

→ <T₁, B, 775, 825>

<T₁ commit>

<T₂, C, 700, 600>

 $<T_2, C, 700>$

<T₂ abort>

recovery

 $BL_{A} = 950$

$$BL_B = 825$$

$$BL_C = 700$$

$$BL_B = 825$$
 $BL_A = 950$ $BL_C = 700$

log-based recovery: recovery strategy

example: log based recovery

log records

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 $<T_2, C, 700>$

<T₂ abort>

recovery

 $BL_{A} = 950$

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log-based recovery: recovery strategy

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 $<T_1$, A, 1000, 950>

<T₂ start>

 $<T_1$, B, 775, 825>

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<T₂, C, 700, 600>

 $<T_2, C, 700>$

<T₂ abort>

$$BL_{A} = 950$$

$$BL_B = 825$$

$$BL_{C} = 700$$

$$BL_{B} = 825$$

$$BL_A = 950$$
 $BL_C = 700$

$$BL_{C} = 700$$

log-based recovery: checkpoints

checkpoints: making our approach more efficient going over an entire log file can be *very* time consuming:

- system might have been running for a long time; and
- we may redo a lot of changes that are already in DB

this can be streamlined by periodic checkpoints

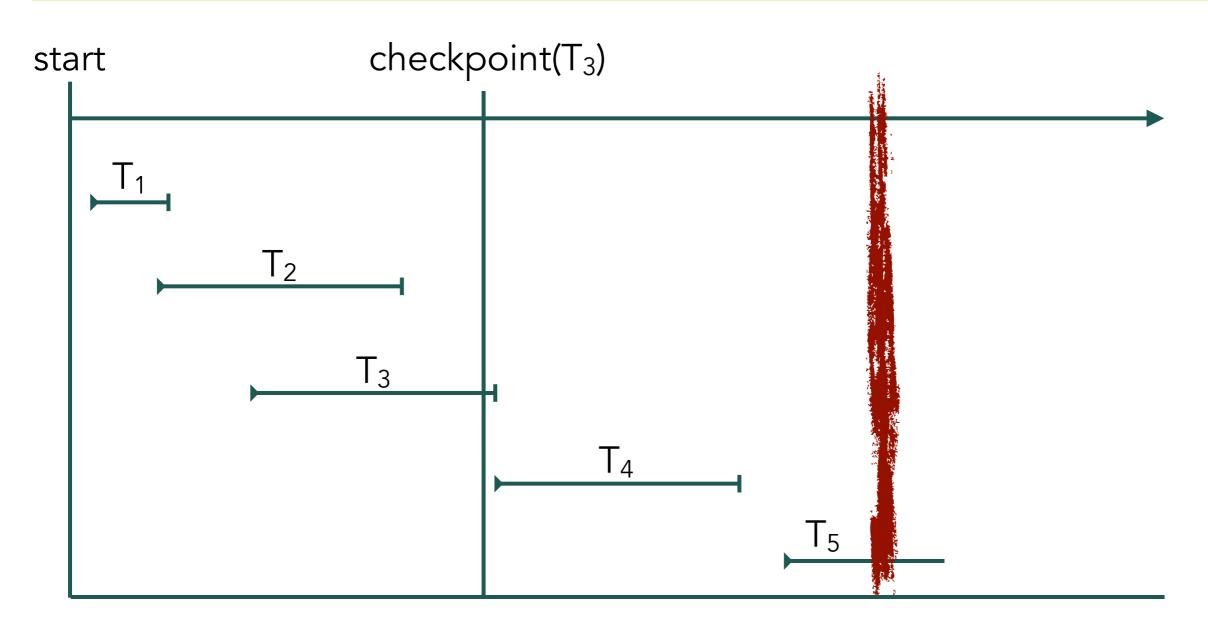
- output all modified buffer blocks to non-volatile blocks
- write a log record <checkpoint L> with L a list of all transactions active at the time of the checkpoint

log-based recovery: checkpoints

 $checkpoint(T_3)$ start T_1 T_2

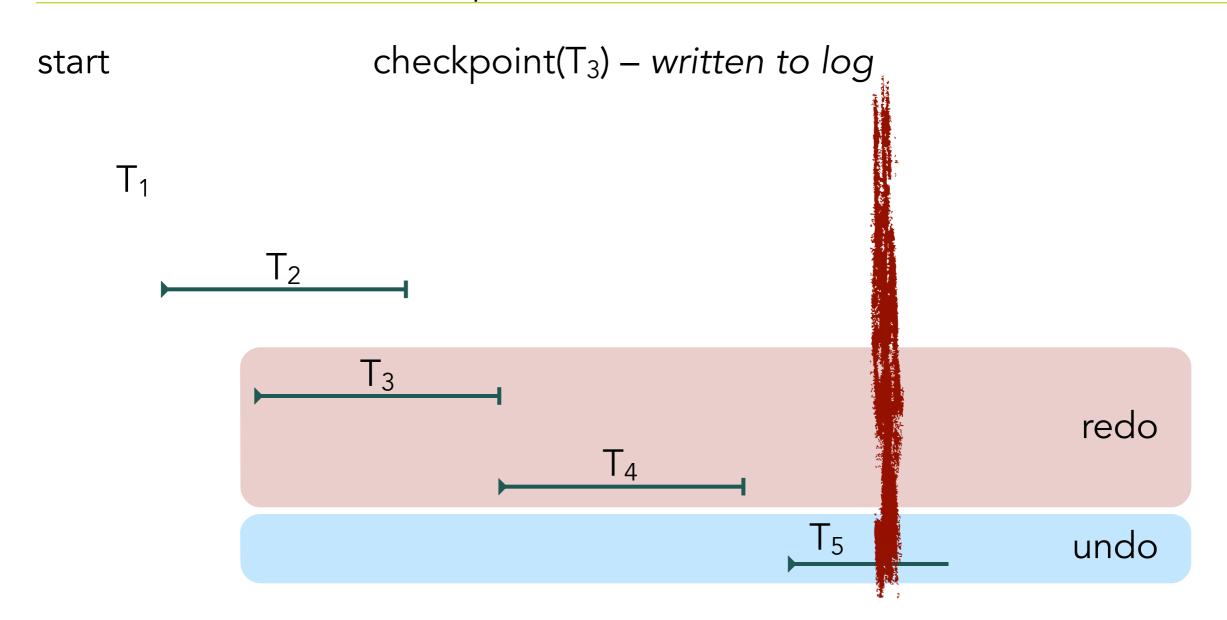
thanks to checkpoint, we don't need to worry about T_1 and T_2

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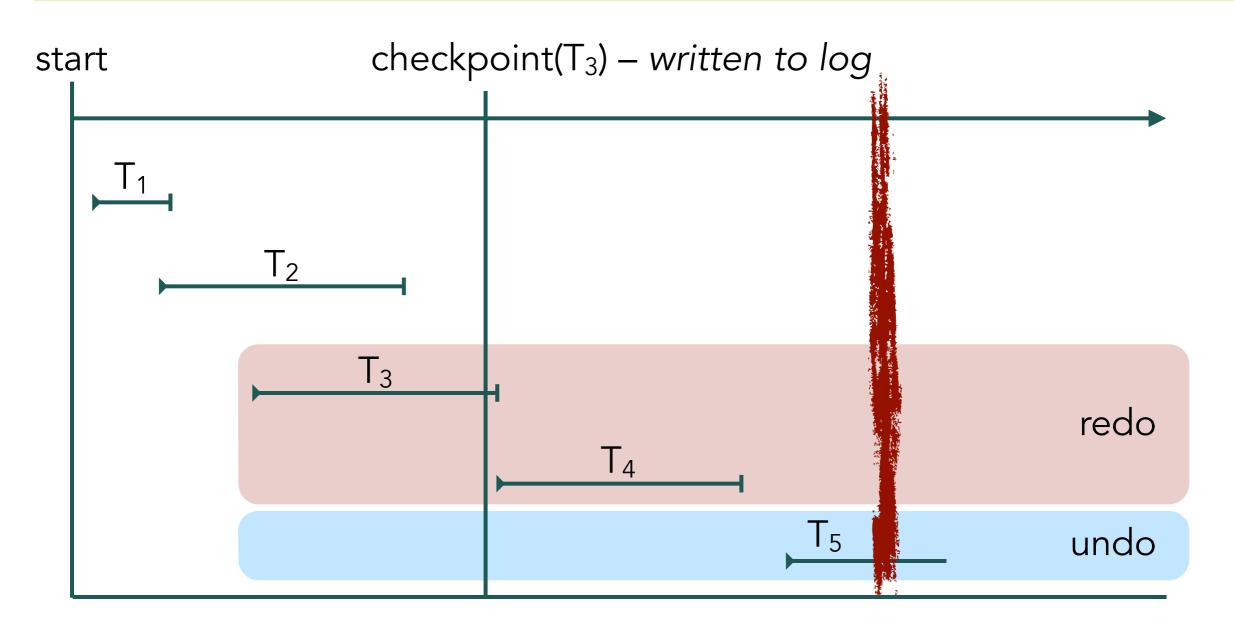
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log-based recovery: checkpoints

undo/redo with checkpoints

similar as before, but:

- undo all until checkpoint is reached
- then only further undo transactions stated in checkpoint
- \odot undo until last <T $_k$ start> mentioned in checkpoint is reached
- 4 from there, redo as normal all T_k in checkpoint and later

summary

transactions: summary

- must adhere to ACID properties
- concurrency offers increased performance
- conflict serialisability tells us if schedule is OK
- cascading rollbacks are bad!
- log-based recovery is very common, lightweight
- 1st part is to keep track of changes using log records
- 2nd part is to recover from errors using undo/redo strategy
- checkpoints offer increased performance