



Transactions

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Lecture 18
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David Eccles

- Why we need user-defined transactions
- Properties of transactions
- How to use transactions
- Concurrent access to data
- Locking and deadlocking
- Database recovery

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What is a (database) Transaction?

- A logical unit of work that must either be entirely completed or aborted (indivisible, atomic)
- DML statements are already atomic
- RDBMS also allows for *user-defined* transactions
- These are a sequence of DML statements, such as
 - a series of UPDATE statements to change values
 - a series of INSERT statements to add rows to tables
 - DELETE statements to remove rows
- Transactions will be treated as atomic
- A successful transaction changes the database from one consistent state to another
 - All data integrity constraints are satisfied

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Why do we need Transactions?

- Transactions solve TWO problems:
 1. users need the ability to define a unit of work
 2. concurrent access to data by >1 user or program
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Problem 1: Unit of work

- Single DML or DDL command (implicit transaction)
 - e.g. Update 700 records,
but database crashes after 200 records processed
 - Restart server: you will find no changes to any records
 - Changes are “all or none”
- Multiple statements (user-defined transaction)
 - START TRANSACTION; (or, ‘BEGIN’)
 - SQL statement;
 - SQL statement;
 - SQL statement;
 - ...
 - COMMIT; (commits the whole transaction)
 - Or ROLLBACK (to undo everything)
- SQL keywords: **begin, commit, rollback**

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- Each transaction consists of several SQL statements, embedded within a larger application program
- Transaction needs to be treated as an **indivisible** unit of work
- “Indivisible” means that either the whole job gets done, or none gets done. If an error occurs, we don’t leave the database with the job half done, in an inconsistent state

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In the case of an error:

- Any SQL statements already completed must be reversed
- Show an error message to the user
- When ready, the user can try the transaction again
- This is briefly annoying – but inconsistent data is disastrous

- Demonstrate Transactions
 - CRE_ACCOUNT TXN_ACCOUNT on LMS resources

```
1  /* bank account transfer example */
2
3  /* check what is now in accounts*/
4  select * from Account;
5  select sum(balance) from Account;
6
7  start transaction;
8
9  /* transfer money from one account to another */
10 set @amount = 100;
11 update Account set balance = balance - @amount where id = 1;
12 update Account set balance = balance + @amount where id = 2;
13
14 commit;
15
16 /* check what is now in accounts*/
17 select * from Account;
18 select sum(balance) from Account;
19
20
```

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Id	AccountType	Balance
1	savings	5000.00
2	credit	1000.00
NULL	NULL	NULL

- Atomicity
 - A transaction is treated as a single, indivisible, logical unit of work. All operations in a transaction must be completed; if not, then the transaction is aborted
- Consistency **Assignment Project Exam Help**
 - Constraints that hold before a transaction must also hold after it
 - (multiple users accessing the same data see the same value)
- Isolation **Add WeChat powcoder**
 - Changes made during execution of a transaction cannot be seen by other transactions until this one is completed
- Durability
 - When a transaction is complete, the changes made to the database are permanent, even if the system fails

Problem 2: Concurrent access

- What happens if we have multiple users accessing the database at the same time...
- Concurrent execution of DML against a shared database
- Note that the sharing of data among multiple users is where much of the benefit of databases derives – users communicate and collaborate via shared data
- But what could go wrong?
 - lost updates
 - uncommitted data
 - inconsistent retrievals

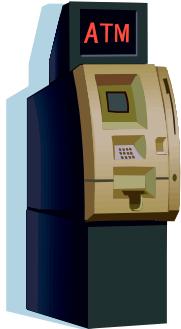
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The Lost Update problem

Alice



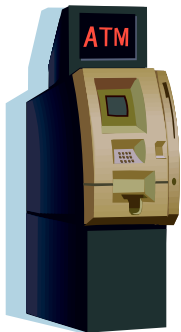
Read account
balance
(balance = \$1000)

Withdraw \$100
(balance = \$900)

Write balance
balance = \$900



Bob



Read account
balance
(balance = \$1000)

Withdraw \$800
(balance = \$200)

Write balance
balance = \$200

Balance should be \$100

The Uncommitted Data problem

- Uncommitted data occurs when two transactions execute concurrently and the first is rolled back after the second has already accessed the uncommitted data

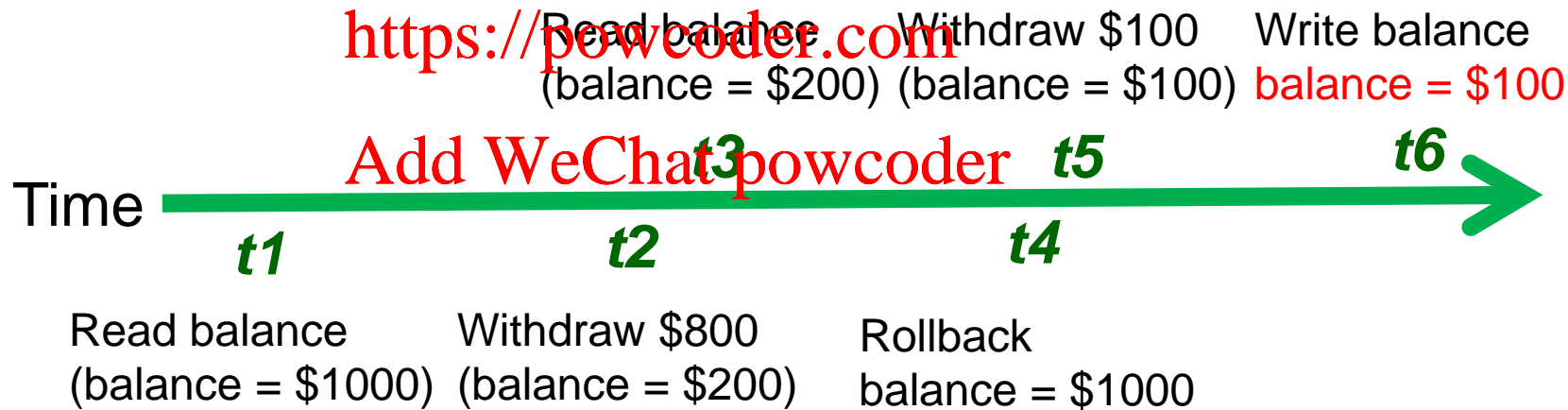
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Alice



Balance should be \$900

The Inconsistent Retrieval problem

- Occurs when one transaction calculates some aggregate functions over a set of data, while other transactions are updating the data
 - Some data may be read after they are changed and some before they are changed, yielding inconsistent results

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Alice	Bob
SELECT SUM(Salary) FROM Employee;	UPDATE Employee SET Salary = Salary * 1.01 WHERE EmpID = 33;
	UPDATE Employee SET Salary = Salary * 1.01 WHERE EmpID = 44;
(finishes calculating sum)	COMMIT;

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Example: Inconsistent Retrieval

Time	Trans- action	Action	Value	T1 SUM	Comment
1	T1	Read Salary for EmpID 11	10,000	10,000	
2	T1	Read Salary for EmpID 22	20,000	30,000	
3	T2	Read Salary for EmpID 33	30,000		
4	T2	Salary = Salary * 1.01			
5	T2	Write Salary for EmpID 33	30,300		
6	T1	Read Salary for EmpID 33	30,300	60,300	<i>after update</i>
7	T1	Read Salary for EmpID 44	40,000	100,300	<i>before update</i>
8	T2	Read Salary for EmpID 44	40,000		
9	T2	Salary = Salary * 1.01			
10	T2	Write Salary for EmpID 44	40,400		
11	T2	COMMIT			
12	T1	Read Salary for EmpID 55	50,000	150,300	
13	T1	Read Salary for EmpID 66	60,000	210,300	

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we want either
before \$210,000 or
after \$210,700



- Transactions ideally are “serializable”
 - Multiple, concurrent transactions *appear as if* they were executed one after another
 - Ensures that the concurrent execution of several transactions yields consistent results

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Reality:
concurrent
execution



Appearance:
serial
execution



but true serial execution (i.e. no concurrency) is very expensive!

- To achieve efficient execution of transactions, the DBMS creates a schedule of read and write operations for concurrent transactions
- Interleaves the execution of operations, based on concurrency control algorithms such as locking and time stamping
- Several methods of concurrency control
 - *Locking* is the main method used
 - Alternate methods
 - Time Stamping
 - Optimistic Methods

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- Lock
 - Guarantees exclusive use of a data item to a current transaction
 - T1 acquires a lock prior to data access; the lock is released when the transaction is complete
 - T2 does not have access to data item currently being used by T1
 - T2 has to wait until T1 releases the lock
 - Required to prevent another transaction from reading inconsistent data
- Lock manager
 - Responsible for assigning and policing the locks used by the transactions
- Question: at what granularity should we apply locks?

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- Database-level lock
 - Entire database is locked
 - Good for batch processing but unsuitable for multi-user DBMSs
 - T1 and T2 can not access the same database concurrently even if they use different tables
 - (SQLite, Access)
- Table-level lock
 - Entire table is locked - as above but not quite as bad
 - T1 and T2 can access the same database concurrently as long as they use different tables
 - Can cause bottlenecks, even if transactions want to access different parts of the table and would not interfere with each other
 - Not suitable for highly multi-user DBMSs

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- Page-level lock
 - An entire disk page is locked (a table can span several pages and each page can contain several rows of one or more tables)
 - Not commonly used now
- Row-level lock
 - Allows concurrent transactions to access different rows of the same table, even if the rows are located on the same page
 - Improves data availability but with high overhead (each row has a lock that must be read and written to)
 - Currently the most popular approach (MySQL, Oracle)
- Field-level lock
 - Allows concurrent transactions to access the same row, as long as they access different attributes within that row
 - Most flexible lock but requires an extremely high level of overhead
 - Not commonly used

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- Binary Locks
 - has only two states: locked (1) or unlocked (0)
 - eliminates “Lost Update” problem
 - the lock is not released until the statement is completed
 - considered too restrictive to yield optimal concurrency, as it locks even for two READs (when no update is being done)
- The alternative is to allow both Exclusive and Shared locks
 - often called Read and Write locks

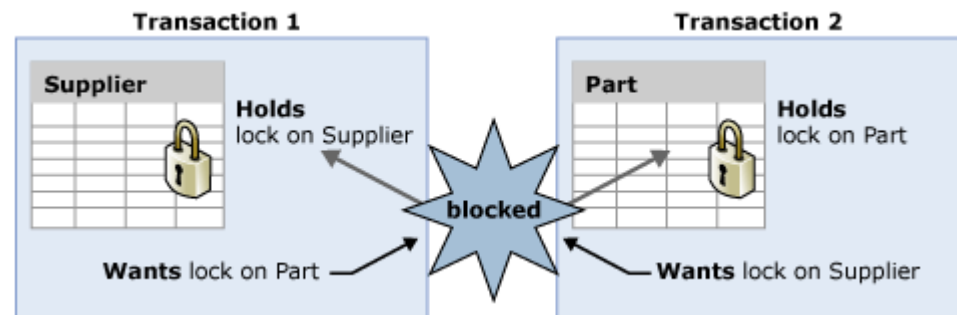
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- Exclusive lock
 - access is reserved for the transaction that locked the object
 - must be used when transaction intends to WRITE
 - granted if and only if no other locks are held on the data item
 - in MySQL: “select ... for update”
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- Shared lock
 - other transactions are also granted Read access
 - issued when a transaction wants to READ data, and no Exclusive lock is held on that data item
 - multiple transactions can each have a shared lock on the same data item if they are all just reading it
 - in MySQL: “select ... lock in share mode”

- Condition that occurs when two transactions wait for each other to unlock data
 - T1 locks data item X, then wants Y
 - T2 locks data item Y, then wants X
 - each waits to get a data item which the other transaction is already holding
 - could wait forever if not dealt with
- Only happens with exclusive locks
- Deadlocks are dealt with by:
 - prevention
 - detection
 - (we won't go into the details of how in this course)



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- Timestamp

- Assigns a global unique timestamp to each transaction
- Each data item accessed by the transaction gets the timestamp
- Thus for every data item, the DBMS knows which transaction performed the last read or write on it
- When a transaction wants to read or write, the DBMS compares its timestamp with the timestamps already attached to the item and decides whether to allow access

- Optimistic

- Based on the assumption that the majority of database operations *do not* conflict
- Transaction is executed without restrictions or checking
- Then when it is ready to commit, the DBMS checks whether it any of the data it read has been altered – if so, rollback

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- Want to restore database to a previous consistent state
- If transaction cannot be completed, it must be aborted and any changes rolled back
- To enable this, DBMS tracks all updates to data
- This *transaction log* contains:
 - a record for the beginning of the transaction
 - for each SQL statement
 - operation being performed (update, delete, insert)
 - objects affected by the transaction
 - “before” and “after” values for updated fields
 - pointers to previous and next transaction log entries
 - the ending (COMMIT) of the transaction

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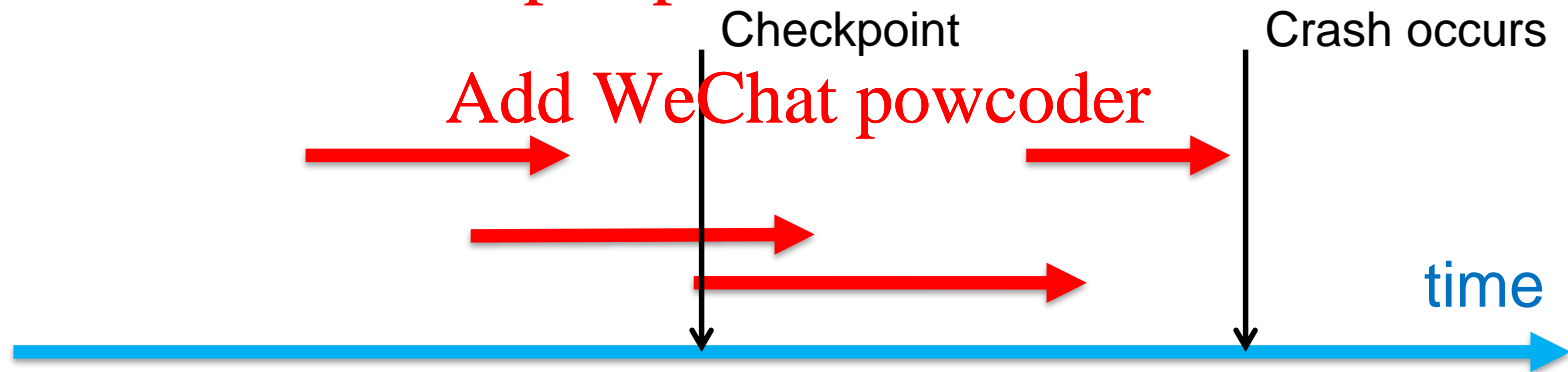
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Transaction log

- Also provides the ability to restore a corrupted database
- If a system failure occurs, the DBMS will examine the log for all uncommitted or incomplete transactions and it will restore the database to a previous state

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Example transaction log

TRL ID	TRX NUM	PREV PTR	NEXT PTR	OPERATION	TABLE	ROW ID	ATTRIBUTE	BEFORE VALUE	AFTER VALUE
341	101	Null	352	START	****Start Transaction				
352	101	341	363	UPDATE	PRODUCT	54778-2T	PROD_QOH	45	43
363	101	352	365	UPDATE	CUSTOMER	10011	CUST_BALANCE	615.73	675.62
365	101	363	Null	COMMIT	**** End of Transaction				
397	106	Null	405	START	****Start Transaction				
405	106	397	415	INSERT	INVOICE	1009			1009,10016, ...
415	106	405	419	INSERT	LINE	1009,1			1009,1, 89-WRE-Q,1, ...
419	106	415	427	UPDATE	PRODUCT	89-WRE-Q	PROD_QOH	12	11
423	CHECKPOINT								
427	106	419	431	UPDATE	CUSTOMER	10016	CUST_BALANCE	0.00	277.55
431	106	427	457	INSERT	ACCT_TRANSACTION	10007			1007,18-JAN-2004, ...
457	106	431	Null	COMMIT	**** End of Transaction				
521	155	Null	525	START	****Start Transaction				
525	155	521	528	UPDATE	PRODUCT	2232/QWE	PROD_QOH	6	26
528	155	525	Null	COMMIT	**** End of Transaction				
***** C *R*A* S* H *****									

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- Why do we need transactions?
- What is a transaction?
- ACID
- Locking levels & types including Deadlock scenario
- Concurrency
- Concurrency Issues
 - (Lost update, uncommitted changes, inconsistent retrieval)
- Deadlocks

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