UNIT V

Transaction processing- Concurrency control techniques

Course Learning Rationale CLR - 6

- Understand the practical problems of concurrency control and gain knowledge about failures and recovery

Course learning Outcomes CLO-6

- Appreciate the fundamental concepts of transaction processing ,concurrency control techniques and recovery procedures

Contents

Transactions

Concurrency control

Phase Control Protocol

Log Based Recovery

Deadlock

Two phase Locking Protocol

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

Required Properties of a Transaction

- Consider a 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*)
- **Atomicity requirement**
  – If the transaction fails after step 3 and before step 6, money will be “lost” leading to an inconsistent database state
    - Failure could be due to software or hardware
  – The system should ensure that updates of a partially executed transaction are not reflected in the database
- **Durability requirement** — once the user has been notified that the transaction has completed (i.e., the transfer of the $50 has taken place), the updates to the database by the transaction must persist even if there are software or hardware failures.

Required Properties of a Transaction (Cont.)

- **Consistency requirement** in above example:
  - The sum of A and B is unchanged by the execution of the transaction
- In general, consistency requirements include
  - Explicitly specified integrity constraints such as primary keys and foreign keys
  - Implicit integrity constraints
    - e.g., sum of balances of all accounts, minus sum of loan amounts must equal value of cash-in-hand
- A transaction, when starting to execute, must see a consistent database.
- During transaction execution the database may be temporarily inconsistent.
- When the transaction completes successfully the database must be consistent
  - Erroneous transaction logic can lead to inconsistency

Required Properties of a Transaction (Cont.)

- **Isolation requirement** — if between steps 3 and 6 (of the fund transfer transaction) , another transaction **T2** is allowed to access the partially updated database, it will see an inconsistent database (the sum $A + B$ will be less than it should be).

T1	T2
1. **read**(A)	
2. $A := A - 50$	
3. **write**(A)	
	read(A), read(B), print(A+B)
4. **read**(B)	
5. $B := B + 50$	
6. **write**(B)	

- Isolation can be ensured trivially by running transactions **serially**
  - That is, one after the other.
- However, executing multiple transactions concurrently has significant benefits, as we will see later.

Required Properties of a Transaction (Cont.)

- **Isolation requirement**

- Let **X**= 500, **Y** = 500.

  Consider two transactions **T** and **T".** Suppose **T** has been executed till **Read (Y)** and then **T''** starts. As a result , interleaving of operations takes place due to which **T''** reads correct value of **X** but incorrect value of **Y** and sum computed by

  T'': (X+Y = 50, 000+500=50, 500)

  is thus not consistent with the sum at end of transaction:

  T: (X+Y = 50, 000 + 450 = 50, 450).

  This results in database inconsistency, due to a loss of 50 units. Hence, transactions must take place in isolation and changes should be visible only after they have been made to the main memory.

T	T''
Read (X) X: = X*100 Write (X) Read (Y) Y: = Y − 50 Write (Y)	Read (X) Read (Y) Z: = X + Y Write (Z)

ACID Properties

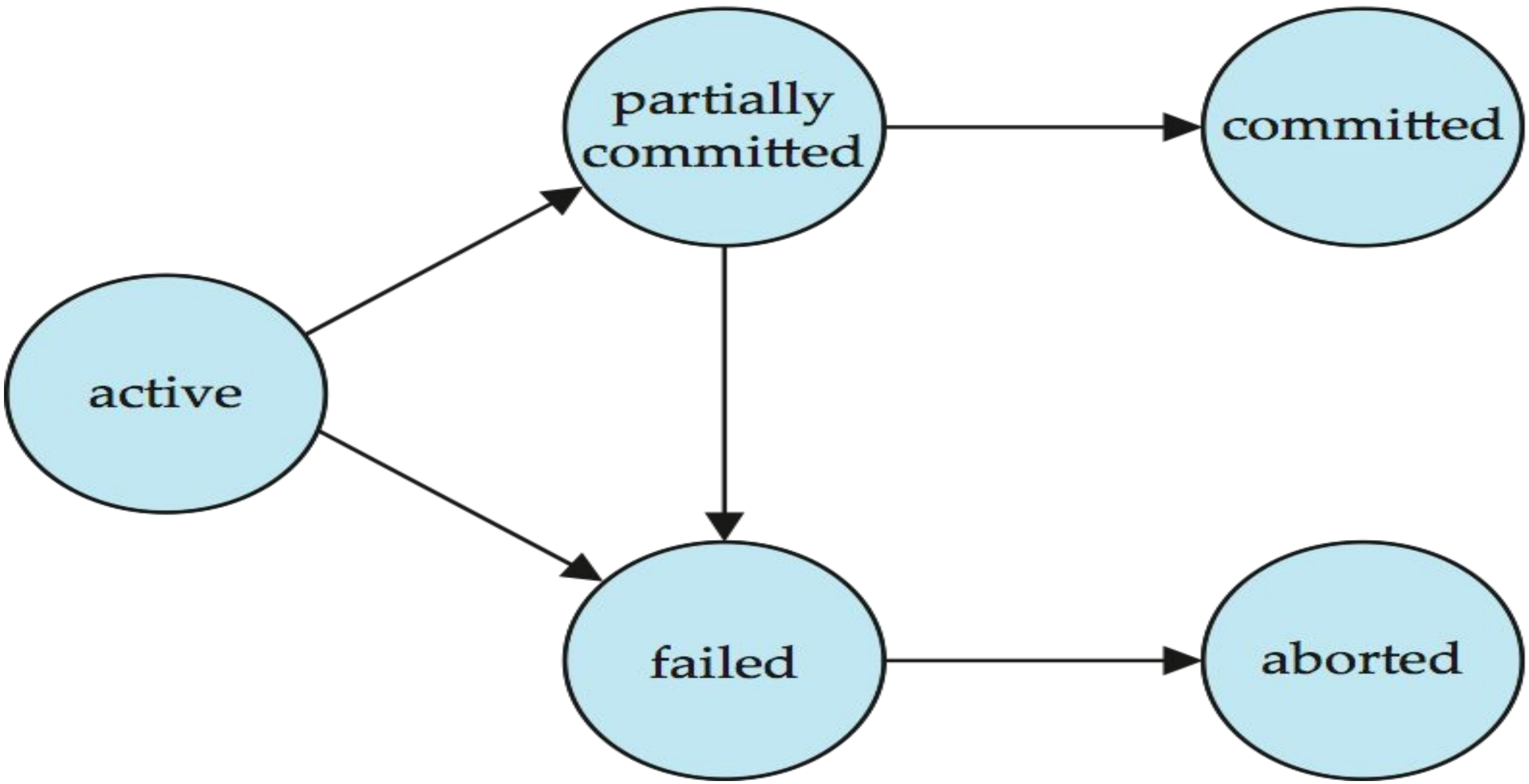
A **transaction** is a unit of program execution that accesses and possibly updates various data items. To preserve the integrity of data the database system must ensure:

- **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.

Transaction State

- **Active** – the initial state; the transaction stays in this state while it is executing
- **Partially committed** – after the final statement has been executed.
- **Failed** -- after the discovery that normal execution can no longer proceed.
- **Aborted** – after the transaction has been rolled back and the database restored to its state prior to the start of the transaction. Two options after it has been aborted:
  - Restart the transaction
    - can be done only if no internal logical error
  - Kill the transaction
- **Committed** – after successful completion.

Transaction State (Cont.)



- Serializability of Transactions

- Testing for serializability

- System recovery

Concurrent Executions

- Multiple transactions are allowed to run concurrently in the system. Advantages are:
  - Increased processor and disk utilization, leading to better transaction throughput
    - E.g., one transaction can be using the CPU while another is reading from or writing to the disk
  - Reduced average response time for transactions: short transactions need not wait behind long ones.

Schedule

- Schedule – sequences of instructions that specify the 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

Schedule 1

- Let T1 transfer $50 from A to B, and T2 transfer 10% of the balance from A to B.
- A serial schedule in which T1 is followed by T2 :

T_1	T_2
read (*A*)	
$A := A - 50$	
write (*A*)	
read (*B*)	
$B := B + 50$	
write (*B*)	
commit	
	read (*A*)
	$temp := A * 0.1$
	$A := A - temp$
	write (*A*)
	read (*B*)
	$B := B + temp$
	write (*B*)
	commit

Schedule 2

- A serial schedule where T2 is follo

T_1	T_2
	read (A)
	$temp := A * 0.1$
	$A := A - temp$
	write (A)
	read (B)
	$B := B + temp$
	write (B)
	commit
read (A)	
$A := A - 50$	
write (A)	
read (B)	
$B := B + 50$	
write (B)	
commit	

Schedule 3

- Let T1 and T2 be the transactions defined previously.
- The following schedule is not a serial schedule, but it is equivalent to Schedule 1

T_1	T_2
read (A)	
$A := A - 50$	
write (A)	
	read (A)
	$temp := A * 0.1$
	$A := A - temp$
	write (A)
read (B)	
$B := B + 50$	
write (B)	
commit	
	read (B)
	$B := B + temp$
	write (B)
	commit

In Schedules 1, 2 and 3, the sum A + B is preserved.

Schedule 4

- **The following concurrent schedule does not preserve the value of (A + B).**

T_1	T_2
read (A)	
$A := A - 50$	
	read (A)
	$temp := A * 0.1$
	$A := A - temp$
	write (A)
	read (B)
write (A)	
read (B)	
$B := B + 50$	
write (B)	
commit	
	$B := B + temp$
	write (B)
	commit

Serializability

- 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**

Serializability

- Schedule - is a bundle (set) of transactions.
- Serializability is a property of a transaction schedule.
- It relates to the isolation property of a database transaction.
- Serializability of a schedule means equivalence to a serial schedule.
- Conflict Serializable can occur on Non-Serializable Schedule on following 3 conditions:

Conflicting Instructions

- Instructions li and lj of transactions Ti and Tj respectively, conflict if and only if there exists some item Q accessed by both li and lj, and at least one of these instructions wrote Q.
  1. li = read(Q), lj = read(Q). li and lj don't conflict.
  2. li = read(Q), lj = write(Q). They conflict.
  3. li = write(Q), lj = read(Q). They conflict
  4. li = write(Q), lj = write(Q). They conflict
- Intuitively, a conflict between li and lj forces a (logical) temporal order between them.
- If li and lj 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.
- A schedule S is conflict serializable if it is conflict equivalent to a serial schedule

Conflict Serializability (Cont.)

- Schedule 3 can be transformed into Schedule 6, a serial schedule where T_2 follows T_1, by series of swaps of non-conflicting instructions.
- Ther con

T_1	T_2
read (A)	
write (A)	
	read (A)
	write (A)
read (B)	
write (B)	
	read (B)
	write (B)

Schedule 3

T_1	T_2
read (A)	
write (A)	
read (B)	
write (B)	
	read (A)
	write (A)
	read (B)
	write (B)

Schedule 6

Conflict Serializability (Cont.)

- Example of a schedule that is not conflict serializable:

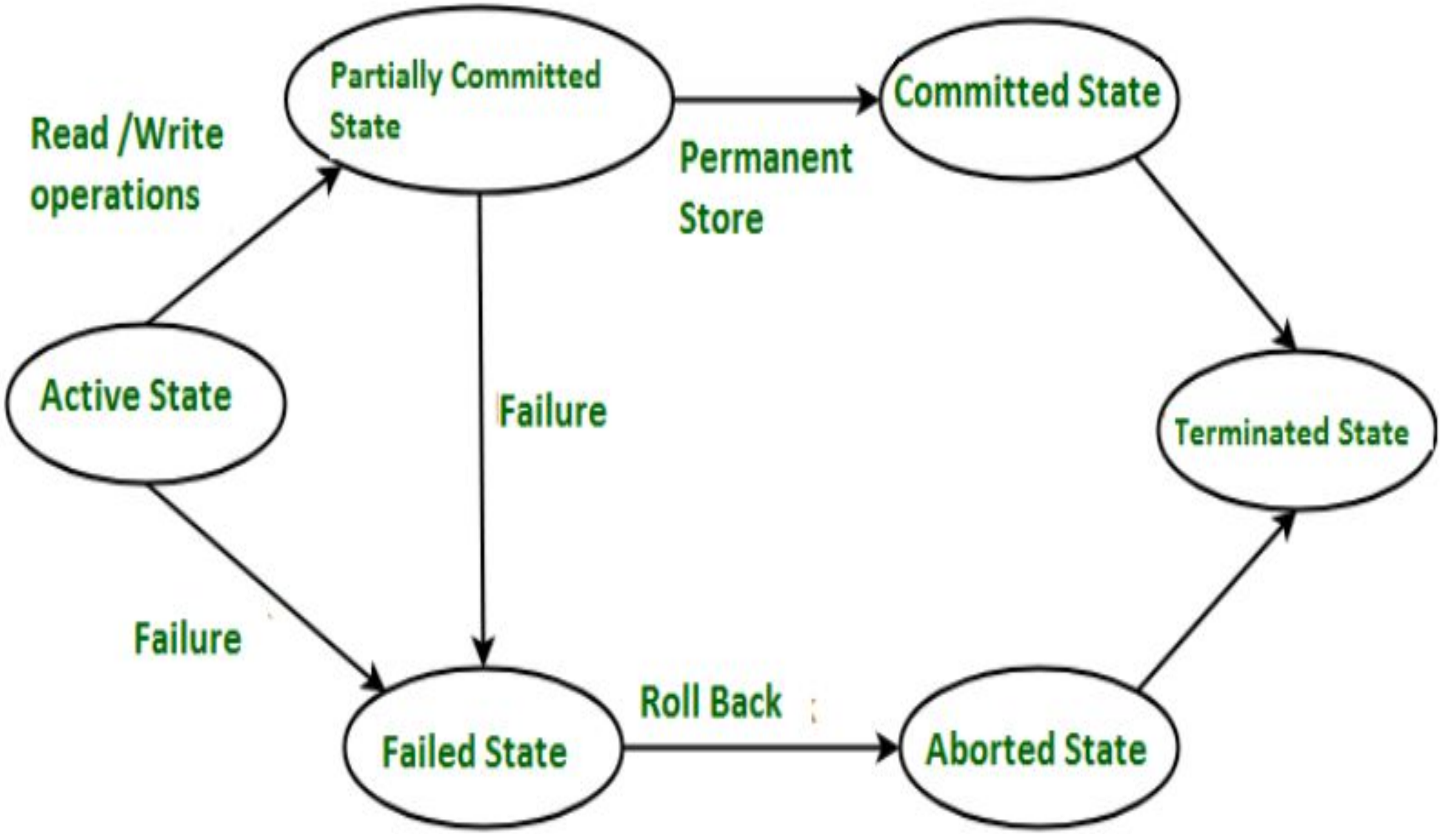
T_3	T_4
read (Q)	
	write (Q)
write (Q)	

We are unable to swap instructions in the above schedule to obtain

either the serial schedule < T3, T4 >, or the serial schedule < T4, T3

>.

Transaction States



Summary

- Transaction Concepts
- Properties of Transaction
- Transaction States

Concurrent Executions

- Multiple transactions are allowed to run concurrently in the system. Advantages are:
  - **Increased processor and disk utilization**, leading to better transaction *throughput*
    - E.g. one transaction can be using the CPU while another is reading from or writing to the disk
  - **Reduced average response time** for transactions: short transactions need not wait behind long ones.
- **Concurrency control schemes** – mechanisms to achieve isolation
  - That is, to control the interaction among the concurrent transactions in order to prevent them from destroying the consistency of the database

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

Schedule 1

- Let T_1 transfer \$50 from A to B, and T_2 transfer 10% of the balance from A to B.
- An example of a **serial** schedule in which T_1 is followed by T_2 :

T_1	T_2
read (A)	
$A := A - 50$	
write (A)	
read (B)	
$B := B + 50$	
write (B)	
commit	
	read (A)
	$temp := A * 0.1$
	$A := A - temp$
	write (A)
	read (B)
	$B := B + temp$
	write (B)
	commit

Schedule 2

- A **serial** schedule in which T_2 is followed by T_1 :

T_1	T_2
	read (A) $temp := A * 0.1$ $A := A - temp$ write (A) read (B) $B := B + temp$ write (B) commit
read (A) $A := A - 50$ write (A) read (B) $B := B + 50$ write (B) commit	

Schedule 3

- Let T_1 and T_2 be the transactions defined previously. The following schedule is not a serial schedule, but it is **equivalent** to Schedule 1.

T_1	T_2
read (A) $A := A - 50$ write (A)	
	read (A) $temp := A * 0.1$ $A := A - temp$ write (A)
read (B) $B := B + 50$ write (B) commit	
	read (B) $B := B + temp$ write (B) commit

Note -- In schedules 1, 2 and 3, the sum "A + B" is preserved.

Schedule 4

- The following concurrent schedule does not preserve the sum of *“A + B “*

T_1	T_2
read (A)	
A := A – 50	
	read (A)
	$temp$:= A * 0.1
	A := A – $temp$
	write (A)
	read (B)
write (A)	
read (B)	
B := B + 50	
write (B)	
commit	
	B := B + $temp$
	write (B)
	commit

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 spreaded in the log.

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.

<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>
(a)	(b)	(c)

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

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).

The Two-Phase Locking Protocol (Cont.)

- There can be conflict serializable schedules that cannot be obtained if two-phase locking is used.
- However, in the absence of extra information (e.g., ordering of access to data), two-phase locking is needed for conflict serializability in the following sense:
  - Given a transaction T_i that does not follow two-phase locking, we can find a transaction T_j that uses two-phase locking, and a schedule for T_i and T_j that is not conflict serializable.

Lock Conversions

- Two-phase locking with lock conversions:
  - First Phase:
    - can acquire a lock-S on item
    - can acquire a lock-X on item
    - can convert a lock-S to a lock-X (upgrade)
  - Second Phase:
    - can release a lock-S
    - can release a lock-X
    - can convert a lock-X to a lock-S (downgrade)
- This protocol assures serializability. But still relies on the programmer to insert the various locking instructions.

Automatic Acquisition of Locks

- A transaction T_i issues the standard read/write instruction, without explicit locking calls.
- The operation **read**(D) is processed as:

if T_i has a lock on D
then
read(D)
else begin
if necessary wait until no other
transaction has a **lock-X** on D
grant T_i a **lock-S** on D;
read(D)
end

Automatic Acquisition of Locks (Cont.)

- **write**(*D*) is processed as:

if T_i has a **lock-X** on *D*
  then
    write(*D*)
  else begin
    if necessary wait until no other transaction has any lock on *D*,
    if T_i has a **lock-S** on *D*
      then
        upgrade lock on *D* to **lock-X**
      else
        grant T_i a **lock-X** on *D*
      write(*D*)
  end;

- All locks are released after commit or abort

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.

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.

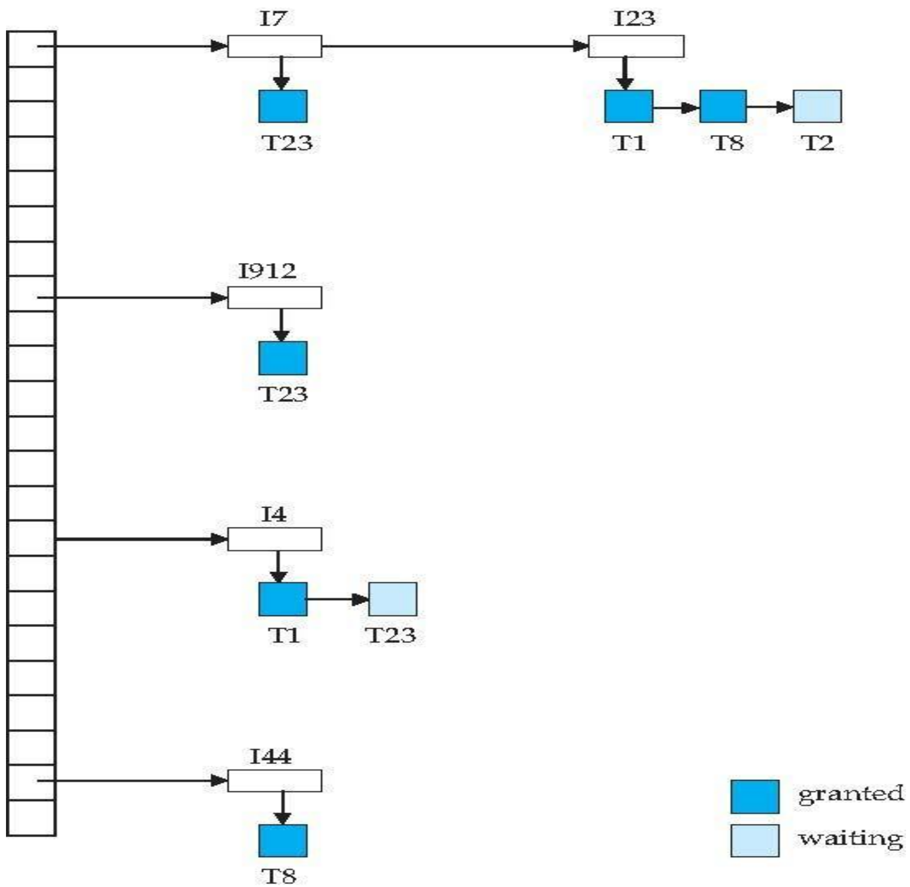
Deadlocks (Cont.)

- 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.

Implementation of Locking

- A **lock manager** can be implemented as a separate process to which transactions send lock and unlock requests
- The lock manager replies to a lock request by sending a lock grant messages (or a message asking the transaction to roll back, in case of a deadlock)
- The requesting transaction waits until its request is answered
- The lock manager maintains a data-structure called a **lock table** to record granted locks and pending requests
- The lock table is usually implemented as an in-memory hash table indexed on the name of the data item being locked

Lock Table



- Dark blue rectangles indicate granted locks; light blue indicate waiting requests
- Lock table also records the type of lock granted or requested
- New request is added to the end of the queue of requests for the data item, and granted if it is compatible with all earlier locks
- Unlock requests result in the request being deleted, and later requests are checked to see if they can now be granted
- If transaction aborts, all waiting or granted requests of the transaction are deleted
  - lock manager may keep a list of locks held by each transaction, to implement this efficiently

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.

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 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.

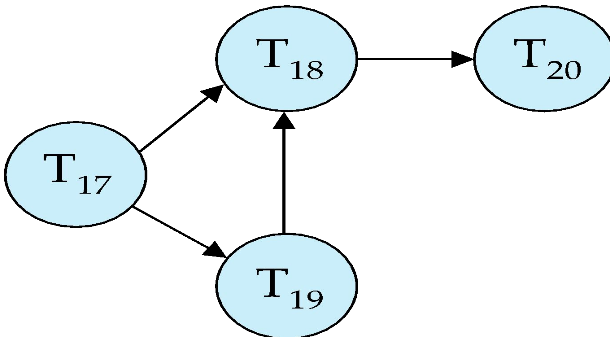
Deadlock prevention (Cont.)

- 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.

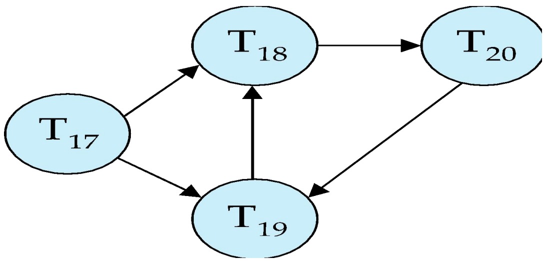
Deadlock Detection

- 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

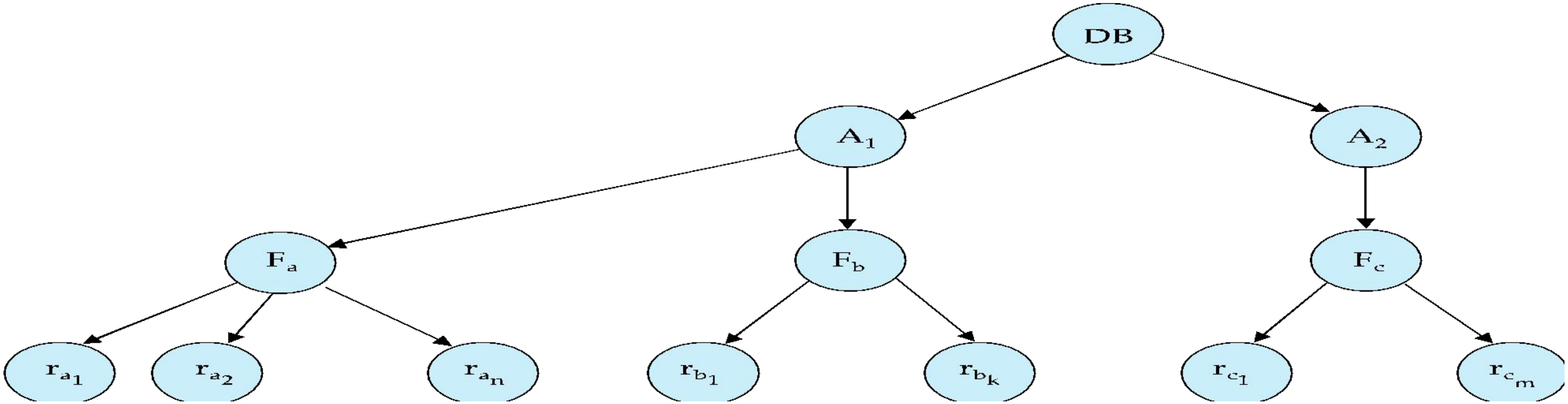
Deadlock Recovery

- 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*

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 sub-tree 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

Recovery System

Recovery System

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

Failure Classification

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

Recovery Algorithms

- Consider transaction T_i that transfers \$50 from account *A* to account *B*
  - Two updates: subtract 50 from A and add 50 to B
- Transaction T_i requires updates to A and B to be output to the database.
  - A failure may occur after one of these modifications have been made but before both of them are made.
  - Modifying the database without ensuring that the transaction will commit may leave the database in an inconsistent state
  - Not modifying the database may result in lost updates if failure occurs just after transaction commits
- Recovery algorithms have two parts
  1. Actions taken during normal transaction processing to ensure enough information exists to recover from failures
  2. Actions taken after a failure to recover the database contents to a state that ensures atomicity, consistency and durability

Storage Structure

- **Volatile storage**:
  - does not survive system crashes
  - examples: main memory, cache memory
- **Nonvolatile storage**:
  - survives system crashes
  - examples: disk, tape, flash memory,
    non-volatile (battery backed up) RAM
  - but may still fail, losing data
- **Stable storage**:
  - a mythical form of storage that survives all failures
  - approximated by maintaining multiple copies on distinct nonvolatile media
  - See book for more details on how to implement stable storage

Stable-Storage Implementation

- Maintain multiple copies of each block on separate disks
  - copies can be at remote sites to protect against disasters such as fire or flooding.
- Failure during data transfer can still result in inconsistent copies: Block transfer can result in
  - Successful completion
  - Partial failure: destination block has incorrect information
  - Total failure: destination block was never updated
- Protecting storage media from failure during data transfer (one solution):
  - Execute output operation as follows (assuming two copies of each block):
    1. Write the information onto the first physical block.
    2. When the first write successfully completes, write the same information onto the second physical block.
    3. The output is completed only after the second write successfully completes.

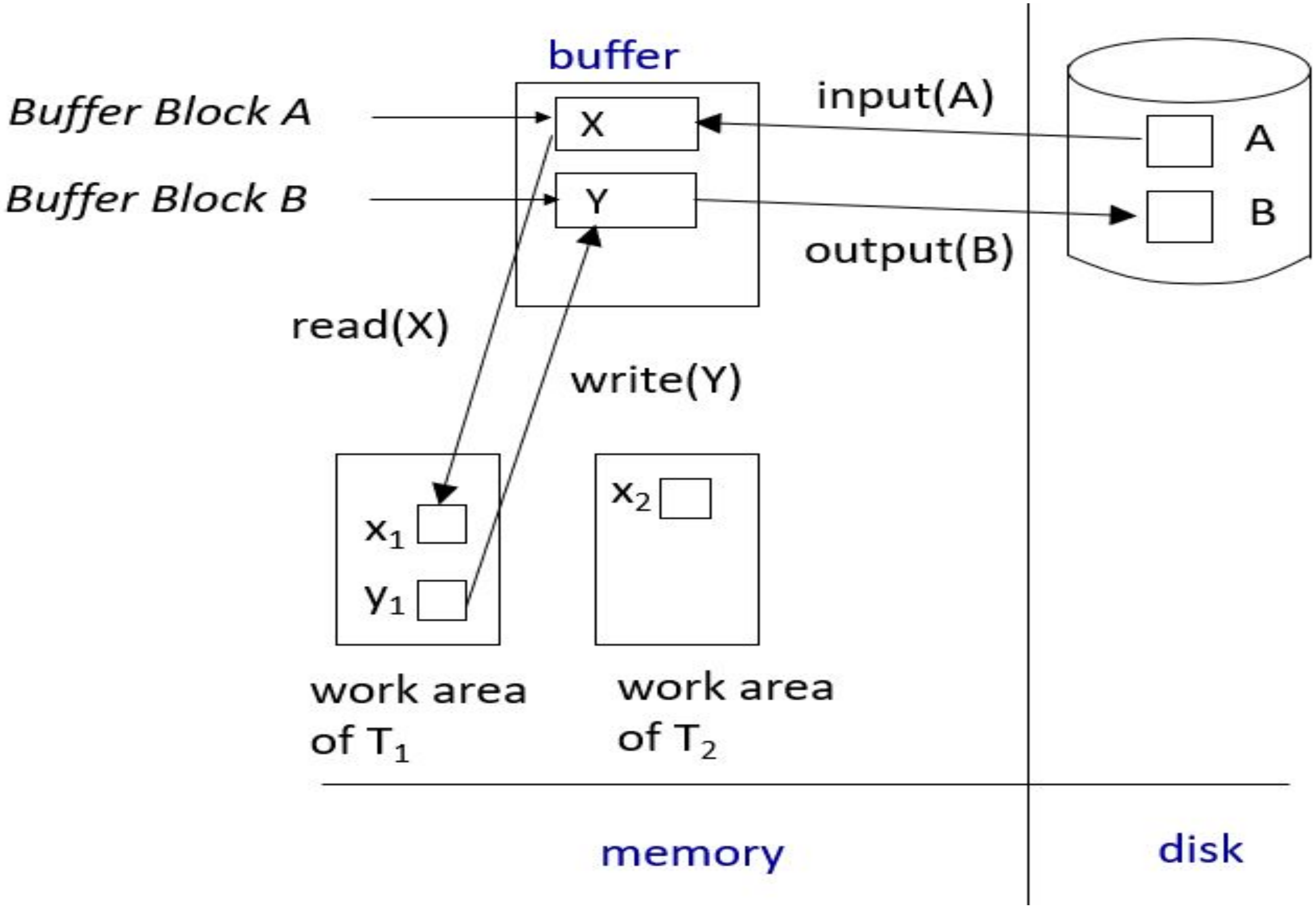
Stable-Storage Implementation (Cont.)

- Protecting storage media from failure during data transfer (cont.):
- Copies of a block may differ due to failure during output operation. To recover from failure:
  1. First find inconsistent blocks:
     1. *Expensive solution*: Compare the two copies of every disk block.
     2. *Better solution*:
        - Record in-progress disk writes on non-volatile storage (Non-volatile RAM or special area of disk).
        - Use this information during recovery to find blocks that may be inconsistent, and only compare copies of these.
        - Used in hardware RAID systems
  2. If either copy of an inconsistent block is detected to have an error (bad checksum), overwrite it by the other copy. If both have no error, but are different, overwrite the second block by the first block.

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



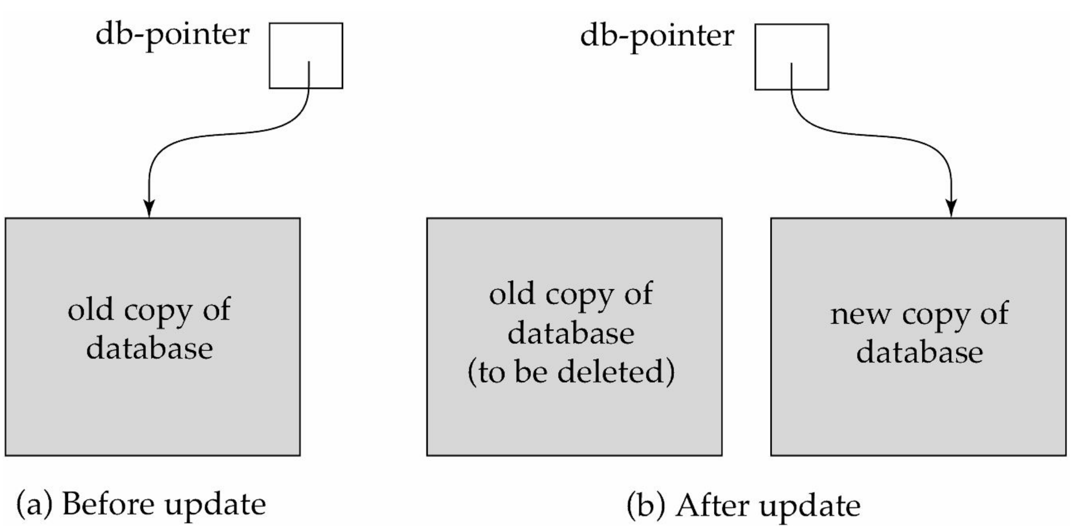
Data Access (Cont.)

- 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
- Less used alternative: **shadow-copy** and **shadow-paging**

shadow-copy



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 **commi**t> 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
  - (Will see later that how to postpone log record output to some extent)
- 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

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_0, 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.

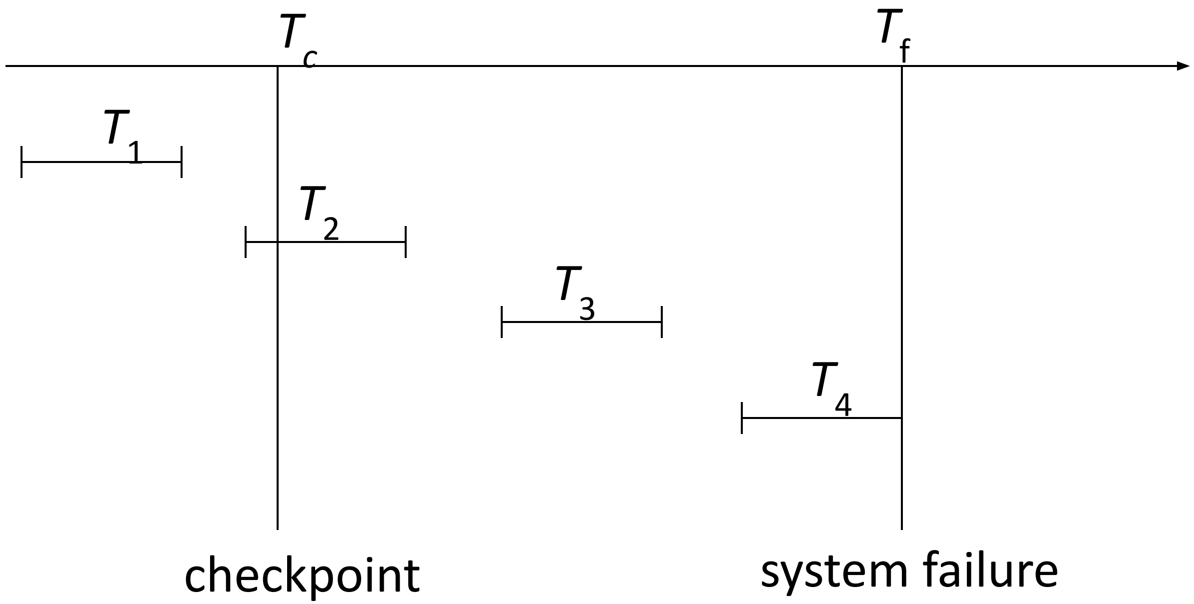
Checkpoints

- 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.

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

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**>

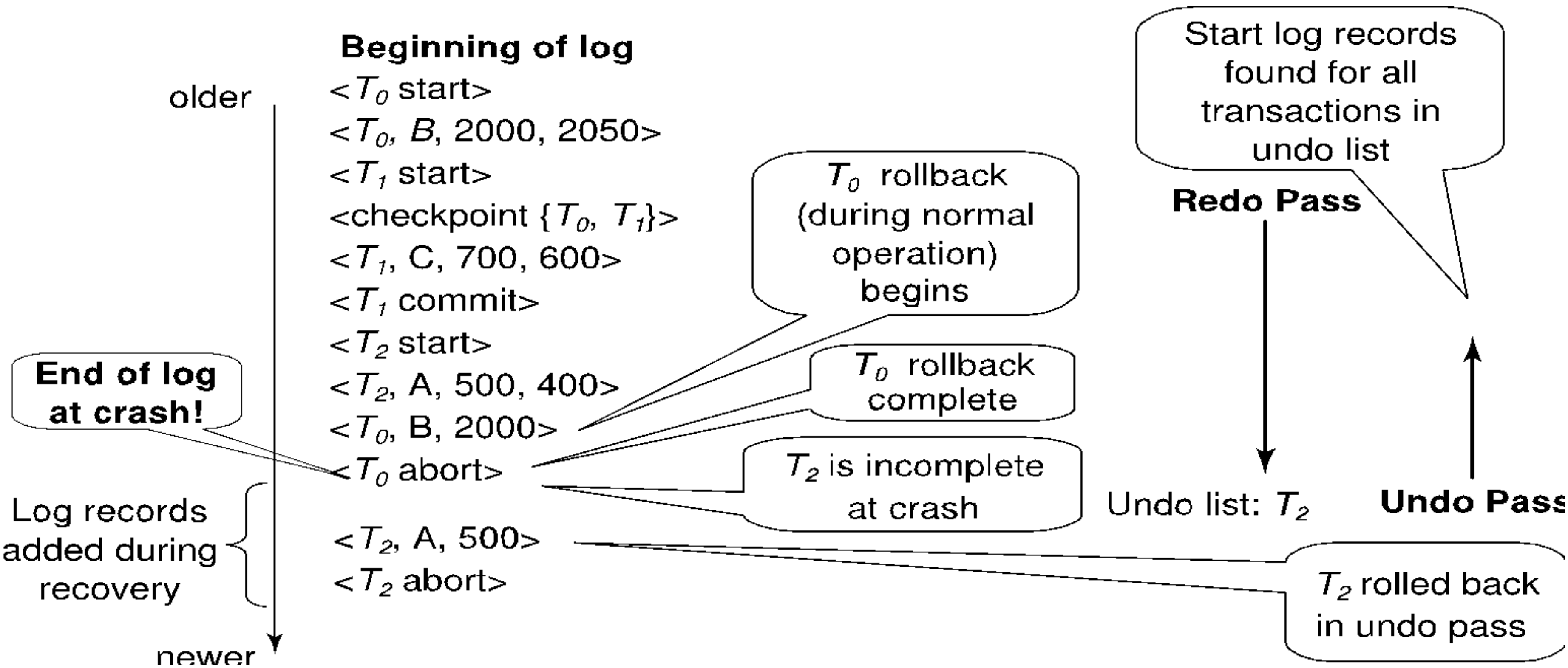
Recovery Algorithm (Cont.)

- **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



Log Record Buffering

- **Log record buffering**: log records are buffered in main memory, instead of of being output directly to stable storage.
  - Log records are output to stable storage when a block of log records in the buffer is full, or a **log force** operation is executed.
- Log force is performed to commit a transaction by forcing all its log records (including the commit record) to stable storage.
- Several log records can thus be output using a single output operation, reducing the I/O cost.

Log Record Buffering (Cont.)

- The rules below must be followed if log records are buffered:
  - Log records are output to stable storage in the order in which they are created.
  - Transaction T_i enters the commit state only when the log record <T_i **commit**> has been output to stable storage.
  - Before a block of data in main memory is output to the database, all log records pertaining to data in that block must have been output to stable storage.
    - This rule is called the **write-ahead logging** or **WAL** rule
      - Strictly speaking WAL only requires undo information to be output