

Outline

- Introduction to Transaction Processing
- Transaction and System Concepts
- Desirable Properties of Transactions
- Characterizing Schedules based on Serializability
- Characterizing Schedules based on Recoverability
- Transaction Support in SQL

Single-User System:

- At *most one user* at a time can use the database management system.
 - Eg. Personal computer system.

Multiuser System:

- * Many users can access the *DBMS* concurrently.
- Eg. Air line reservation, Bank and the like system are operated by *many users* who submit transaction concurrently to the system.
- This is achieved by *multiprogramming*, which allows the OS of the computer to *execute multiple programs/processes* at the same time.

Concurrency

Interleaved processing:

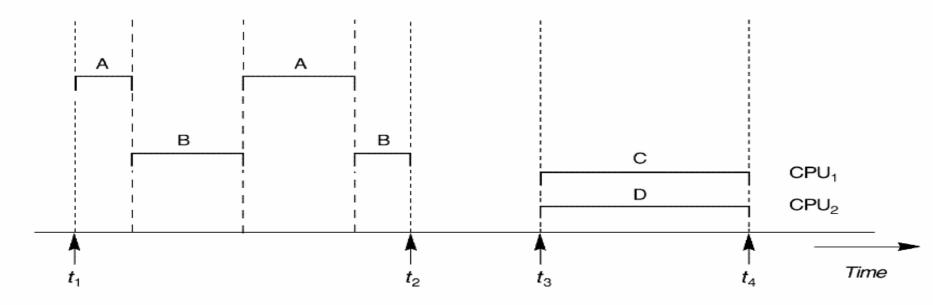
* Concurrent execution of processes is interleaved in a *single CPU* using for example, *round robin algorithm*.

Advantages:

- * Keeps the CPU busy when the process requires I/O by switching to *execute another process rather than remaining idle* during I/O time and hence this will increase system *throughput* (average no. of transactions completed within a given time)
- Prevents long process from delaying other processes (minimize unpredictable delay in the response time).

Parallel processing:

• If Processes are concurrently executed in *multiple CPUs*.



Interleaved processing versus parallel processing of concurrent transactions.

* A Transaction

- Logical unit of database processing that includes *one or more access operations* (read -retrieval, write insert or update, delete).
- Examples include ATM transactions, credit card approvals, flight reservations, hotel check-in, phone calls, supermarket scanning, academic registration and billing.

Transaction boundaries

- Any *single transaction* in an application program is bounded with Begin and End statements.
- An *application program* may contain several transactions separated by the *Begin* and *End* transaction boundaries.

- Simple Model of A Database
 - *A database is a collection of named data items.
 - *Granularity of data a field, a record, or a whole disk block that measure the size of the data item.
 - *Basic operations that a transaction can perform 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. Basic unit of data transfer from the disk to the computer main memory is *one block*.

- read_item(X) command includes the following steps:
 - Find the *address* of the *disk block* that contains item X.
 - * Copy that *disk block* into a *buffer in main memory* (if that disk block is not already in some main memory buffer).
 - Copy item X from the *buffer* to the *program variable* named X.
- write_item(X) command includes the following steps:
 - \clubsuit Find the *address* of the *disk block* that contains item X.
 - * Copy that *disk block* into a *buffer in main memory* (if that disk block is not already in some main memory buffer).
 - * Copy item X from the *program variable* named X into its correct location in the buffer.

- * Store the *updated* block from the buffer back to disk (either immediately or at some later point in time).
- The DBMS maintains a number of buffers in the *main memory* that holds *database disk blocks* which contains the database items being processed.
 - When this buffers are occupied and
 - ❖ If there is a need for additional database block to be copied to the main memory
- Some *buffer management policy* is used to choose for replacement but if the chosen buffer has been modified, it must be *written back to disk* before it is used.

- Two sample transactions:
 - (a) Transaction T1
 - (b) Transaction T2

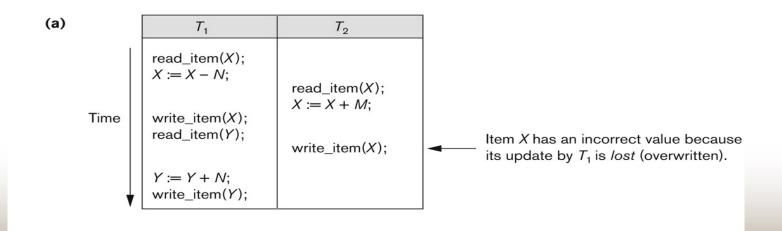
read_item
$$(X)$$
;
 $X:=X-N$;
write_item (X) ;
read_item (Y) ;
 $Y:=Y+N$;
write_item (Y) ;

(b) T_2 read_item (X); X:=X+M;

write_item (X);

- **Why Concurrency Control is needed: Three cases**
- i. The Lost Update Problem
 - This occurs when *two transactions* that access the *same database items* have their operations interleaved in a way that makes the value of some database item incorrect.

Figure 1 .3Some problems that occur when concurrent execution is uncontrolled.



i. The Lost Update Problem

E.g. Account with balance A=100.

- T1 reads the account A
- ❖ T1 withdraws 10 from A
- T1 makes the update in the Database
- T2 reads the account A
- **T**2 adds 100 on A
- T2 makes the update in the Database
- *If the above case is done one after the other (serially), there is no problem.
 - ❖ If the execution is T1 followed by T2 then A=190
 - ❖ If the execution is T2 followed by T1 then A=190 07/06/22

i. The Lost Update Problem

But if they start at the same time in the following sequence:

*	T1 reads the account A=100
*	T1 withdraws 10 making the balance
*	T2 reads the account A=100
*	T2 adds 100 making A=200

T1 makes the update in the Database.

❖ T2 makes the update in the Database A=200

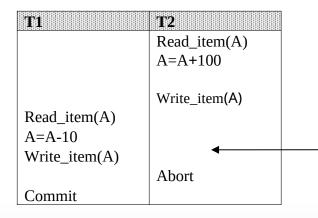
	T1	T2
0	Read_item(A)	
	A=A-10	
		Read_item(A)
\Longrightarrow		A=A+100
)	Write_item(A)	
		Write_item(A)

After the successful completion of the operation the final value of A will be 200 which override the update made by the first transaction that changed the value from 100 to 90.

ii. The Temporary Update (or Dirty Read) Problem

- This occurs when one transaction updates a database item and then the transaction fails for some reason.
- The updated item is accessed by another transaction before it is changed back to its original value. Based on the above scenario:

Fig 2: Temporal update problem



Transaction T2 fails and must change the values of A back to its old value; Meanwhile T1 has read the temporary incorrect value of A

T2 increases **A** making it 200 but then aborts the transaction before it is committed. T1 gets 200, subtracts 10 and make it 190. But the actual balance should be 90

iii. The Incorrect Summary Problem

If one transaction is calculating an aggregate summary function on a number of records while other transactions are updating some of these records, the aggregate function may calculate some values before they are updated and others after they are updated.

Example: T1 would like to add the values of A=10, B=20 and C=30. after the values are read by T1 and before its completion, T2 updates the value of B to be 50. at the end of the execution of the two transactions T1 will come up with the sum of 60 while it should be 90

since B is updated to 50

T1	T2
Sum= 0;	
Read_item(A)	
Sum=Sum+A	
Read_item(B)	
Sum=Sum+B	
	Read_item(B)
	B=50
Read_item(C)	
Sum=Sum+C	

Why recovery is needed?

- Whenever a transaction is submitted to the DBMS for execution, the system is responsible for making sure that either
 - all operations in the transaction to be completed successfully or
 - *the transaction has no effect on the database or any other transaction.
 - The DBMS may permit some operations of a transaction T to be applied to the database but a transaction may fail after executing some of its operations

What causes a Transaction to fail?

- **A** computer failure (system crash)
 - A hardware or software error occurs in the computer system during transaction execution.
 - If the hardware crashes, the contents of the computer's internal memory may be lost.

❖A transaction or system error

- Some operation in the transaction may cause it to fail, such as integer overflow or division by zero.
- Transaction failure may also occur because of erroneous parameter values or because of a logical programming error.
- In addition, the user may interrupt the transaction during its execution.

- **Exception conditions detected by the transaction**
 - Certain conditions forces cancellation of the transaction.
 - For example, data for the transaction may not be found. such as insufficient account balance in a banking database, may cause a transaction, such as a fund withdrawal from that account, to be canceled.
- Concurrency control enforcement
 - The concurrency control method may decide to abort the transaction, to be restarted later, because it violates serializability or because several transactions are in a state of deadlock

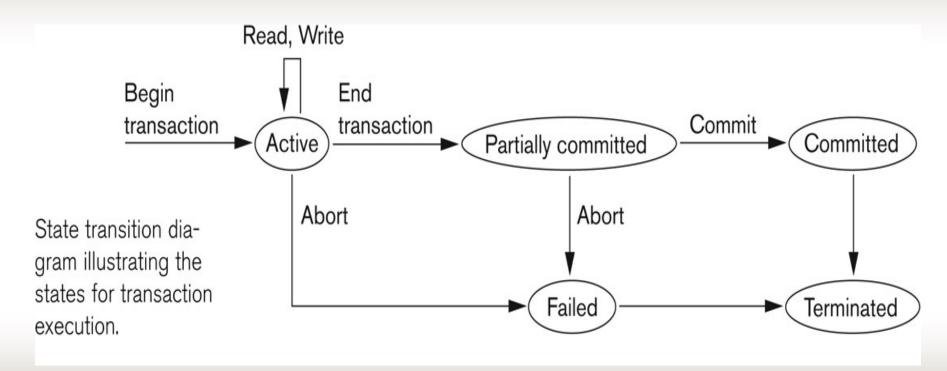
Disk failure

- Some disk blocks may lose their data because of a read or write malfunction or because of a disk read/write head crash.
- This may happen during a read or a write operation of the transaction.
- Physical problems and catastrophes
 - This refers to an endless list of problems that includes power or air-conditioning failure, fire, theft, overwriting disks or tapes by mistake

- * 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 -indicates the beginning of a transaction execution
 - * Partially committed state shows the end of read/write operation but this will not ensure permanent modification on the data base

- Committed state -ensures that all the changes done on a record by a transition were done persistently
- *Failed state happens when a transaction is aborted during its active state or if one of the rechecking fails
- Terminated State -corresponds to the transaction leaving the system

State transition diagram illustrating the states for transaction execution



- T in the following discussion refers to a unique **transaction-id** that is generated automatically by the system and is used to identify each transaction:
- Types of log record:
 - **!** [start_transaction,T]: Records that transaction T has started execution.
 - * [write_item,T,X,old_value,new_value]: Records that transaction T has changed the value of database item X from old_value to new_value.
 - * [read_item,T,X]: Records that transaction T has read the value of database item X.
 - * [commit,T]: Records that transaction T has completed successfully, and affirms that its effect can be committed (recorded permanently) to the database.
 - * [abort,T]: Records that transaction T has been aborted.

Desirable Properties of Transactions

- To ensure data integrity, DBMS should maintain the following **ACID** properties:
 - **Atomicity**: A transaction is an atomic unit of processing; it is either performed in its entirety or not performed at all.
 - **Consistency preservation**: A correct execution of the transaction must take the database from one consistent state to another.
 - ❖ **Isolation:** A transaction should not make its updates visible to other transactions until it is committed; this property, when enforced strictly, solves the temporary update problem and makes cascading rollbacks of transactions unnecessary
 - **Durability or permanency**: Once a transaction changes the database and the changes are committed, these changes must never be lost because of subsequent failure.

Desirable Properties of Transactions

Example:

- Suppose that Ti is a transaction that transfer 200 birr from account CA2090(which is 5,000 Birr) to SB2359(which is 3,500 birr) as follows
 - * Read(CA2090)
 - **CA2090= CA2090-200**
 - Write(CA2090)
 - **Read(SB2359)**
 - **SB2359= SB2359+200**
 - ***** Write(SB2359)
- *Atomicity- either all or none of the above operation will be done this is materialized by **transaction management** component of DBMS

Desirable Properties of Transactions

- Consistency-the sum of CA2090 and SB2359 be unchanged by the execution of Ti i.e 8500- this is the responsibility of application programmer who codes the transaction.
- ❖ **Isolation-** when several transaction are being processed concurrently on a data item they may create many inconsistent problems. So handling such case is the responsibility of **Concurrency control** component of the DBMS.
- Durability once Ti writes its update this will remain there when the database restarted from failure . This is the responsibility of recovery management components of the DBMS.

Characterizing Schedules

Transaction schedule or history:

- * When transactions are executing concurrently in an interleaved fashion, the order of execution of operations from the various transactions forms what is known as a transaction schedule (or history).
- ❖ A **schedule** S of n transactions T1, T2, ..., Tn:
 - It is an ordering of the operations of the transactions subject to the constraint that, for each transaction Ti that participates in S, the operations of T1 in S must appear in the same order in which they occur in Ti.

Note, however, that operations from other transactions Tj can be interleaved with the operations of Ti in S. Eg. Consider the following example:

$$S_a$$
: r2(A);w2(A);r1(A);w1(A);a2;

Schedule: A sequence of the operations by a set of concurrent transactions that preserves the order of the operations in each of the individual transactions.

T1	T2
	Read_item(A)
	A=A+100
	Write_item(A)
Read_item(A)	
A=A-10	
Write_item(A)	
	Abort

Characterizing Schedules

- Two operations in a schedule are side to be in conflict if they satisfy one of the following conditions.
 - They belongs to different transaction
 - They access the same data item X
 - * At least one of the operation is a write_Item(X)

E.g. Sa: r1(X); r2(x); w1(X); r1(Y); w2(X); w1(Y);

- r1(X) and w2(X)
- r2(X) and w1(X); \rightarrow operations
- **⋄** W1(X) and w2(X)

Conflicting

r1(X) and r2(X) r1(X) and r2(X)

Non-serial schedule:

•A schedule where the operations from set of concurrent *transactions* schedule are interleaved.

Serial Schedule:

•A schedule where the operations of each transaction executed are consecutively without any interleaved *operations* from other transactions.

- Recoverable schedule:
 - One where no *committed transaction* needs to be *rolled back*.
 - A schedule S is recoverable if no transaction T in S commits until all transactions T' that have written an item that T reads have committed.
 - ***** Examples:

```
*Sc: r1(X); w1(X); r2(X); r1(Y); w2(x); c2; a1; not recoverable

*Sd: r1(X); w1(X); r2(X); r1(Y); w2(X); w1(Y); c1; c2;
```

Se: r1(X); w1(X); r2(X); r1(Y); w2(x); w1(Y); a1; a2;

Where:

a→abort,

c→commit

Cascadeless schedule:

- One where every transaction *reads* only the items that are *written* by *committed* transactions.
- Examples
 - \$ Sf: r1(X); w1(X); r1(Y); c1; r2(X); w2(X); w1(Y); c2;

Strict Schedules:

- A schedule in which a transaction can *neither read or write an item X* until the last transaction that wrote X has *committed/aborted*.
- ***** Examples:

```
Sg: w1(X,5); c1; w2(x,8);
```

The concept of *Serializable of schedule* is used to identify which schedules are correct when concurrent transactions executions have interleaving of their operations in the schedule.

Serial schedule:

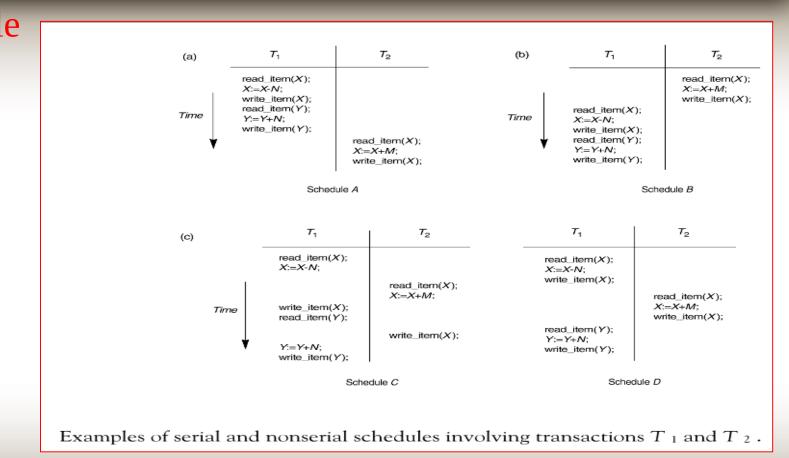
- A schedule S is serial if, for every transaction T participating in the schedule, all the operations of T are *executed consecutively* in the schedule.
- Otherwise, the schedule is called *nonserial schedule*.
- For example, in the banking example suppose there are two transaction where one transaction *calculate the interest* on the account and another *deposit some money* into the account.

*Hence the *order of execution* is important for the *final result*.

Serializable schedule

- A schedule whose effect on any consistent database instance is identical to that of some complete **serial schedule** over the set of *committed* transactions in *S*.
- A nonserial schedule S is serializable, is equivalent to say that it is **correct** with the result of one of the serial schedule.





* Result equivalent

- Two schedules are called result equivalent if they produce the same final state of the database
- Two types of equivalent schedule: **Conflict and view**

Conflict equivalent

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

Examples

```
    $1: r1(x); w2(x) & $2: w2(x); r1(x)
    $1:w1(x); w2(x); & $2: w2(x); w1(x);
    Not conflict equivalent
```

Equivalent schedules: (a) nonserial schedule S1; (b) nonserial schedule S2 equivalent to S1; (c) serial schedule S3, equivalent to S1 and S2.

T_7	T_8	T ₇	T_8		T_7	T_8
begin_transa	ction	begin_tran	nsaction	beg	in_transaction	ı
read(bal _x)		read(ba	l _x)	r	ead(bal_x)	
write(bal _x)		write(ba	al _x)	w	vrite(bal_x)	
	begin_transaction		begin_transaction	r	ead(bal_y)	
	read(bal_x)		read(bal_x)	W	vrite(bal _y)	
	write(bal_x)	read(ba	$I_{\mathbf{y}}$)	con	nmit	
read(bal_y)			$write(bal_x)$			begin_transaction
write(bal_y)	write(ba	al _y)			$\operatorname{read}(\mathbf{bal_x})$
commit		commit				$write(\mathbf{bal_x})$
	read(bal_y)		read(bal_y)			read(bal_y)
	write(bal_y)		write(bal _y)			write(bal_y)
	commit		commit			commit
((a)		(b)			(c)

Conflict Serializable:

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

- If you can transform an interleaved schedule by swapping <u>consecutive non-conflicting</u> operations of <u>different transactions</u> into a serial schedule, then the original schedule is <u>conflict serializable</u>.
- Example:

s1: R(A) W(A) R(B) W(B)

R(A) W(A) R(B) W(B)

ii. Two schedules are said to be view equivalent if the following three conditions hold:

- The same set of transactions participates in S and S', and S and S' include the same operations of those transactions.
- $\mbox{\ensuremath{\bigstar}}$ If Ti reads a value A written by Tj in S1 , it must also read the value of A written by Tj in S2
- for each data object A, the transaction that perform the final write on A in S1 must also perform the final write on A in S2

S'

T1: R(A) W(A)
T2: W(A)
T3: W(A)
W(A)

S

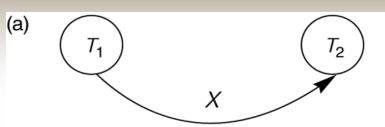
T1: R(A), W(A)
T2: W(A)
T3: W(A)

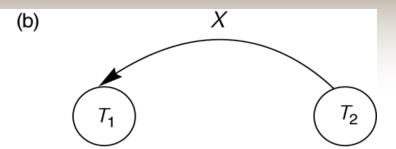
Testing for conflict serializable Algorithm

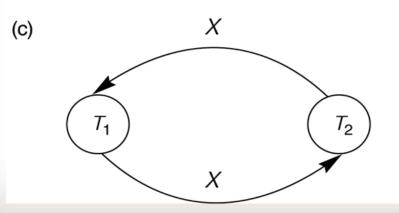
- Looks at only read_Item (X) & write_Item (X) operations
- Constructs a precedence graph (serialization graph) a graph with directed edges
- An edge is created from **Ti** to **Tj** if one of the operations in Ti appears before a conflicting operation in Tj
- The schedule is serializable if and only if the precedence graph has no cycles.

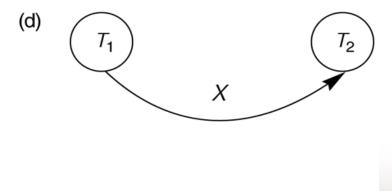
Constructing the Precedence Graphs

- **Example:** Constructing the precedence graphs for schedules A to D from the previous Figure (Slide No. 33) to test for conflict serializability.
 - (a) Precedence graph for serial schedule A.
 - (b) Precedence graph for serial schedule B.
 - (c) Precedence graph for schedule C (not serializable).
 - (d) Precedence graph for schedule D (serializable, equivalent to schedule A).









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Another example of serializability Testing

(a)

Another example of serializability testing.

(a) The read and write operations of three transactions T_1 , T_2 , and T_3 . (b) Schedule E. (c) Schedule F.

Transaction T₁

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);

Another example of serializability testing. (a) The read and write operations of three transactions T_1 , T_2 , and T_3 . (b) Schedule E. (c) Schedule F.

(b)

Time

Transaction T_1	Transaction T_2	Transaction T_3
read_item(X); write_item(X); read_item(Y); write_item(Y);	read_item(Z); read_item(Y); write_item(Y); read_item(X);	read_item(Y); read_item(Z); write_item(Y); write_item(Z);

Schodule E

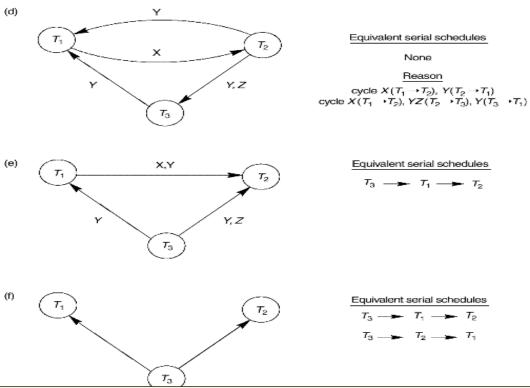
Another example of serializability testing. (a) The read and write operations of three transactions T_1 , T_2 , and T_3 . (b) Schedule E. (c) Schedule F.

(c)

Time

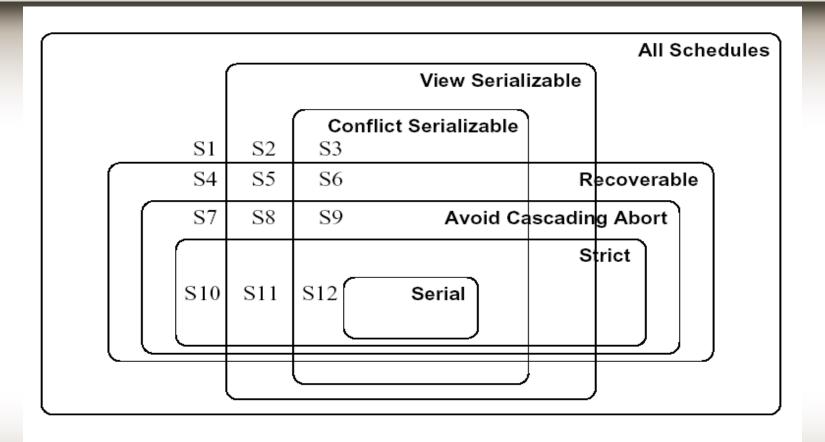
Transaction T_1 Transaction T_2	
Transaction 7 ₁ Transaction 7 ₂	Transaction T ₃
read_item(X); write_item(X); read_item(Z); read_item(Z); write_item(Y); write_item(Y); read_item(Y); write_item(X);	read_item(Y); read_item(Z); write_item(Y); write_item(Z);

Schedule F



Another example of serializability testing. (d) Precedence graph for schedule E. (e) Precedence graph for schedule F. (f) Precedence graph with two equivalent serial schedules.

Summery of Schedule types



Venn Diagram for Classes of Schedules

- * A **single** SQL statement is always considered to be **atomic**.
 - *Either the statement completes execution without error or it fails and leaves the database unchanged.
- **Every transaction has three characteristics: Access mode, Diagnostic size and isolation**
 - i. Access mode:
 - READ ONLY or READ WRITE
 - If the access mode is Read ONLY, INSERT, DELET, UPDATE & CREATE commands cannot be executed on the data base

- The default is READ WRITE unless the isolation level of READ UNCOMITTED is specified, in which case READ ONLY is assumed.
- i. Diagnostic size n, specifies an integer value n, indicating the number of error conditions that can be held simultaneously in the diagnostic area.
- ii. **Isolation level** can be
 - » READ UNCOMMITTED,
 - » READ COMMITTED,
 - » REPEATABLE READ or
 - » **SERIALIZABLE**. The default is **SERIALIZABLE**.

```
Sample SQL transaction:
     EXEC SQL whenever sqlerror go to UNDO;
     EXEC SQL SET TRANSACTION
           READ WRITE
           DIAGNOSTICS SIZE 5
           ISOLATION LEVEL SERIALIZABLE;
     EXEC SQL INSERT
           INTO EMPLOYEE (FNAME, LNAME, SSN, DNO, SALARY)
           VALUES ('Robert', 'Smith', '991004321', 2,35000);
    EXEC SQL UPDATE EMPLOYEE
           SET SALARY = SALARY * 1.1
          WHERE DNO = 2;
    EXEC SQL COMMIT;
          GOTO THE_END;
    UNDO: EXEC SQL ROLLBACK;
     THE END: ...
```

- With SERIALIZABLE: the interleaved execution of transactions will adhere to the notion of serializability.
- However, if any transaction executes at a lower level, then serializability may be violated.

Potential problem with lower isolation levels: Four types

i.Non repeatable Reads/unrepeatable Read: RW Conflicts

•A transaction T2 could change the value of an object A that has been read by a transaction T1, while T1 is still in progress.

•If <u>T1 tries to read the value a again it will get a different value</u>

T1: R(A), R(A), W(A), C

T2: R(A), W(A), C

ii. Reading Uncommitted Data ("dirty reads"): WR Conflicts

•A transaction T2 could read a database object A that has been modified by another transaction T1, which has not yet committed.

T1: R(A), W(A), R(B), W(B), Abort

T2: R(A), W(A), C

iii. Overwriting Uncommitted Data: WW Conflicts

 \clubsuit A transaction T2 could overwrite the value of an object A, which has already been modified by a transaction T1, while T1 is still in progress.

T1: W(A), W(B), C T2: W(A), W(B), C

iv. Phantoms:

- New rows being read using the same read with a condition.
 - A transaction T1 may read a set of rows from a table, perhaps based on some condition specified in the SQL WHERE clause.

- Now suppose that a transaction T2 inserts a new row that also satisfies the WHERE clause condition of T1, into the table used by T1.
- ❖ If T1 is repeated, then T1 will see a row that previously did not exist, called a phantom. Consider the following example code:

Transaction A begins.

•SELECT * FROM employee WHERE salary > 30000

Transaction B begins.

•INSERT INTO employee (empno, firstnme, midinit, lastname, job, salary) VALUES ('000350', 'NICK', 'A','GREEN','LEGAL COUNSEL',35000)

Transaction B inserts a row that would satisfy the query in Transaction A if it were issued again.

Possible violation of serializabilty

Read Phenomena	Dirty Reads	Lost Updates (Inconsistent)	Non-Repeatable Reads	Phantom
Isolation Level				
Read Uncommitted	d yes	yes	yes	yes
Read Committed	No	Yes	yes	yes
Repeatable Read	No	No	No	Yes
Seriazable	No	No	No	No

Exercise One

- 1. Give an example schedule, with lower isolation level, with actions of transactions T1 and T2 on objects X and Y that results in a write-read conflict
- 2. Give an example schedule ,with lower isolation level, with with actions of transactions T1 and T2 on objects X and Y that results in a read-write conflict
- 3. Give an example schedule ,with lower isolation level , with with actions of transactions *T1* and *T2* on objects *X* and *Y* that results in a write-write conflict.

Exercise Two

- Consider the following transaction schedule.
- Is it Conflict Serializability?

T1	T2	Т3
	R(X)	
		R(X)
W(Y)	
	W(X)	
		R(Y)
	W(Y)	
	**(1)	

 Consider the following transaction schedule and test it for View Serializability.

```
T1 T2 T3

R(A)

W(A)

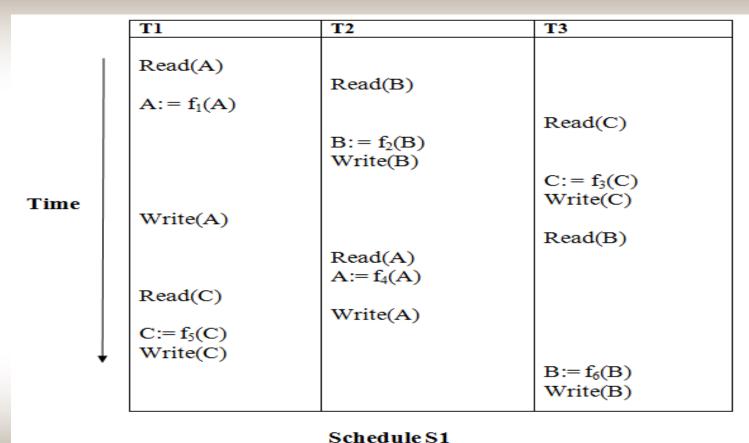
R(A)

W(A)

W(A)
```

Exercise Three

Determine whether the following schedule is serializable



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Question & Answer





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