

#### Introduction to Data Management

Lecture #26 (Transactions: The Final Frontier...!)



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.

#### Announcements





- \* HW wrap-up:
  - HW#8 in flight!
  - Due tomorrow at 5PM!
  - Remember: NoSQL has NoLateDay!
- ❖ Endterm exam:
  - In class on Friday, June 7, 5-5:50 PM
    - Cheat sheet allowed, as per usual
    - Non-cumulative (see Wiki syllabus for official scope)
  - Sample exam available (interpret it appropriately)
  - Will include indexing, physical design, NoSQL, JSON, and even transactions

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#### **Transactions**

- Concurrent execution of user programs is essential for good DBMS performance (and wait times).
  - Disk I/O's are slow, so DBMS's keep the CPU cores busy by running multiple concurrent requests.
- ❖ A program may perform many operations on data from the DB, but the DBMS only cares about what's being read (R) and written (W) from/to the DB.
- ❖ A <u>transaction</u> is the DBMS's view of a user program:
  - It is seen as a sequence of database R's and W's.
  - The targets of the R's and W's are records (or pages).

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# The ACID Properties

- \* Atomicity: Each transaction is all or nothing.
  - No worries about partial effects (if failures) and cleanup!
- Consistency: Each transaction moves the database from one consistent state to another one.
  - This is largely the application builder's responsibility...
- **❖ I**solation: Each transaction can be written as if it's the only transaction in existence.
  - No concurrency worries while building applications!
- \* <u>Durability</u>: Once a transaction has committed, its effects will not be lost.
  - Application code doesn't have to worry about data loss!

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#### Concurrency in a DBMS

- Users run transactions and can think of each one as executing all by itself.
  - Concurrency is handled by the DBMS, which allows the actions (R's & W's) of various transactions to interleave.
  - Each transaction must leave the DB in a consistent state if it was consistent when the transaction started.
    - The DBMS may enforce some ICs, depending on the constraints declared in CREATE TABLE statements. (CHECK, PK, FK, ...)
    - But the DBMS does *not* understand the semantics of the data! (It doesn't know how interest on a bank account is computed.)
- \* <u>Issues</u>: Effects of *interleaving* and of *crashes*.

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# Atomicity of Transactions

- A transaction may *commit* after completing all of its actions, or it might *abort* (or might *be* aborted) after executing some of its actions.
  - Could violate a constraint, encounter some other error, be caught in a crash, or be picked to resolve a deadlock.
- The DBMS guarantees that transactions are <u>atomic.</u>
  A user can think of a Xact as doing <u>all</u> of its actions, in one step, or executing <u>none</u> of its actions.
  - The DBMS *logs* all actions so that it can *undo* the actions of any aborted transactions.

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#### Example

❖ Consider two transactions (*Xacts*):

```
T1: BEGIN A=A+100, B=B-100 END
T2: BEGIN A=1.06*A, B=1.06*B END
```

- ❖ E.g., T1 is transferring \$100 from bank account A to account B, while T2 is crediting both with 6% interest.
- ❖ No guarantee that T1 will execute before T2, or viceversa, if both arrive together. The net effect *must* be *equivalent* to running them serially in some (either!) order.

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#### A Quick Aside on "A" & "B"



❖ What are these two transactions, really?

```
T1: START TRANSACTION; -- needed to couple the statements

UPDATE Acct SET bal = bal + 100 WHERE acct_no = 101;

UPDATE Acct SET bal = bal - 100 WHERE acct_no = 201;

COMMIT;

T2: START TRANSACTION; -- not needed if just one statement

UPDATE Acct SET bal = bal * 1.06 WHERE acct_type = 'SV';

COMMIT;
```

❖ Again, T1 is transferring \$100 from account B (201) to account A (101). T2 is giving all accounts their 6% interest payment.

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## Example (Cont'd.)

\* Consider a possible interleaving (<u>schedule</u>):

```
T1: A=A+100, B=B-100
T2: A=1.06*A, B=1.06*B
```

\* This is OK. But what happens if:

```
T1: A=A+100, B=B-100
T2: A=1.06*A, B=1.06*B \( \bigcup Too much interest! \)
```

❖ The DBMSs view of the second schedule:

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

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# Scheduling Transactions (Defn's.)



- Serial schedule: Any schedule that does not interleave the actions of different transactions.
- \* <u>Equivalent schedules</u>: If for any database state, the effect (on the DB) of executing the first schedule is identical to the effect of the second schedule.
- ❖ <u>Serializable schedule</u>: A schedule that is equivalent to <u>some</u> (any!) serial execution of the transactions.
  - → If each transaction preserves consistency, then *every* serializable schedule preserves consistency!

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#### Anomalies with Interleaved Execution

\* Reading Uncommitted Data ("dirty reads"):

T3: R(A), W(A), R(B), W(B), Abort
T4: R(A), W(A), C

Unrepeatable Reads:

T5: **R(A)**, **R(A)**, **W(A)**, C

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# Anomalies (Continued)



Overwriting Uncommitted Data:

T7: W(A), W(B), C

(Results are a "must have been concurrent!" mix of T7's & T8's writes – B from T7, and A from T8, yet both transactions wrote both A and B.)

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# Lock-Based Concurrency Control



- \* <u>Strict Two-phase Locking (2PL) Protocol</u>:
  - Each Xact acquires an S (shared) lock on an object before reading it, and an X (exclusive) lock on it before writing.
  - All locks held by a transaction are released only when the transaction completes.
  - *Note*: If a Xact holds an X lock on an object, no other Xact can get a lock (S or X) on that object they must wait.
- Strict 2PL allows only serializable schedules.
  - And additionally, it simplifies transaction aborts!

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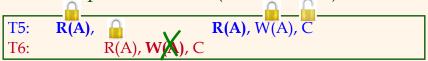
#### 2PL Prevents the Anomalies



Reading Uncommitted Data (WR Conflicts, a.k.a. "dirty reads"):

```
T3: R(A), W(A), R(B), W(B), Abort
T4: R(A), W(A), C
```

Unrepeatable Reads (RW Conflicts):

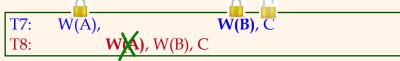


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#### 2PL & Anomalies (Continued)

Overwriting Uncommitted Data (WW Conflicts):



(Now results will no longer be a "must have been concurrent!" intermingling of T1's & T2's writes...)

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# Aborting a Transaction

- ❖ If transaction *Ti* aborts, all its actions must be undone.
  - And, if some *Tj* already read a value last written by *Ti*, *Tj* must also be aborted! ("If I tell you, I'll have to kill you..." )
- Most systems avoid such cascading aborts by releasing a transaction's locks only at commit time.
  - If *Ti* writes an object, *Tj* can read it only after *Ti* commits.
- ❖ In order to *undo* the actions of an aborted transaction, the DBMS keeps a *log* where every write is recorded.
  - Also used to recover from system crashes: active Xacts at crash time are aborted when the DBMS comes back up.

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## The Transaction Log

- \* The following actions are recorded in the log:
  - *Ti writes an object*: record its old and new values.
    - Log record must go to disk <u>before</u> the changed page hence the name write-ahead logging (WAL).
  - *Ti commits/aborts*: write a log record noting the outcome.
- ❖ All log related activities (and all concurrency-related activities, like locking) are *transparently* taken care of by the DBMS.

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#### Reminder: Disks and Files \* DBMSs store all information on disk. This has major implications for DBMS design! • **READ**: transfer data from disk to main memory (RAM). WRITE: transfor deta from RAM to disk. Both are high-co verations, relative to in-memory The considered carefully! operations, so i Read P5 **Query Compiler** File & Index Mgmt Write DBMS code Buffer pool Stored data Database Management Systems 3ed, R. Ramakrishnan and J. Gehrke 18





- ❖ A three-phase recovery algorithm (*Aries*):
  - <u>Analysis</u>: Scan log (starting from most recent *checkpoint*) to identify the Xacts that were active, and the pages that were "dirty" in the buffer pool, when the system crashed.
  - <u>Redo</u>: Redo any updates to dirty pages to ensure that all logged updates were carried out and made it to disk. (*Establishes the state from which to recover*.)
  - <u>Undo</u>: Undo the writes of all Xacts that were <u>active</u> at the crash (restoring the *before value* of each update from its log record), working backwards through the log, to abort any partially-completed transactions.

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# Support for Transactions in SQL-92

- \* A transaction is *automatically* started whenever a statement accesses or modifies the database
  - SELECT, UPDATE, CREATE TABLE, INSERT, ...
  - Multi-statement transactions also supported
- \* A transaction can be terminated by
  - A COMMIT statement
  - A ROLLBACK statement (SQL-speak for abort)
- ❖ Each transaction runs under a combination of an access mode and an isolation level

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#### Transactions in SQL-92 (Cont'd.)

- Access mode controls what the transaction can potentially do to the database:
  - READ ONLY: not permitted to modify the DB
  - READ WRITE (*default*): allowed to modify the DB
- Isolation level controls the transaction's exposure to other (concurrent) transactions:
  - READ UNCOMMITTED
  - READ COMMITTED
  - REPEATABLE READ
  - SERIALIZABLE

Increasing isolation

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# Which Isolation Level is for Me?



- ❖ An application-"controllable" tradeoff:
  - Consistency vs. performance (concurrency)
  - Warning: It <u>will</u> affect your programming model!
- Things to watch out for:
  - Default consistency level is DBMS engine-specific
  - Some engines may not support all levels
  - Default consistency level often not SERIALIZABLE
- ❖ You may also hear about "snapshot isolation"
  - DBMS keeps multiple versions of data
  - Transactions see versions as of when they started

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# Remember the **ACID** Properties!

- **♦ <u>Atomicitv</u>**: Each transaction is *all or nothing*.
  - No worries about partial effects (if failures) and cleanup.
- ◆ **Consistency**: Each transaction moves the database from one *consistent state* to another one.
  - This is largely the application builder's responsibility.
- ◆ **Isolation**: Each transaction can be written as if it's the *only transaction* in existence (*if so desired*).
  - Minimize concurrency worries when building applications.
- ◆ **<u>Durability</u>**: Once a transaction has committed, its *effects will not be lost*.
  - Application code needn't worry about data loss.

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## A Few Quick **NoSQL** Xact Notes



- For transactions, NoSQL systems tend to be limited to record-level transactions (in order to scale on a cluster)
- As a result, one sometimes consider an application's transactional needs when picking a schema (deciding what to "nest") for it





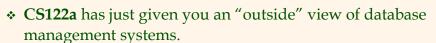
Торіс	Reading
Databases and DB Systems	Ch. 1
Entity-Relationship (E-R) Data Model	Ch. 2.1-2.5, 2.8
Relational Data Model	Ch. 3.1-3.2
E-R to Relational Translation	3.5
Relational Design Theory	Ch. 19.1-19.6, 20.8
Midterm Exam 1	Mon, Apr 29 (in class)
Relational Algebra	Ch. 4.1-4.2
Relational Calculus	Ch. 4.3-4.4
SQL Basics (SPJ and Nested Queries)	Ch. 3.4, 5.1-5.3
SQL Analytics (Aggregation, Nulls, and Outer Joins)	Ch. 5.4-5.6
Advanced SQL Goodies (Constraints, Triggers, Views, and Security)	Ch. 3.3, 3.6, 5.7-5.9, 21.1-21.3, 21.7
Midterm Exam 2	Wed, May 22 (in class)
Tree-Based Indexing	Ch. 9.1, 8.1-8.3, 10.1-10.2
Hash-Based Indexing	Ch. 10.3-10.8, 11.1
Physical DB Design	Ch. 8.5, 20.1-20.7
Semistructured Data Management (a.k.a. NoSQL)	⇒AsterixDB SQL++ Primer, ⇒Couchbase SQL++ Bo
Basics of Transactions	Ch. 16 and Lecture Notes
Endterm Exam	Fri, Jun 7 (in class)

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# "But Wait!... I Need More...!!!"



- ❖ **CS122b** is available to give you a "programmer's" view with an emphasis on data-centric web applications.
- \* CS122c (a.k.a. CS222 lite) is available to give you an "insider's" (engine developer's) view of database systems.
- \* CS223 is available for learning all about transactions.
- CS190 (when offered like Beyond SQL Data Management next Winter quarter: NoSQL, Graph DBs, Spark, ...)
- CS199 (independent project work) is also a possible avenue for gaining further experience.

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