TRANSACTION MANAGEMENT

CS 564- Fall 2015

EXAMPLE

```
Read(A);
Check (A > $50);
Pay($25);
A := A - 25;
Write(A);
```

- Start with \$100
- What happens if the DBMS crashes right after we pay?
- What can happen if we interleave the execution of two such programs?

TRANSACTION MANAGEMENT

- Inconsistency can occur when:
 - interleaving actions of different user programs
 - system crash, user abort, ...
- Provide the users an illusion of a single-user system
 - Why not admit only one query into the system at any time?
 - lower utilization: CPU/IO overlap
 - long running queries starve other queries

TRANSACTION

 A collection of operations that form a single atomic logical unit

```
BEGIN TRANSACTION
{SQL}
END TRANSACTION
```

- Operations:
 - READ(X), WRITE(X): X is a tuple
 - Special actions: COMMIT, ABORT
- Transactions must leave the database in a consistent state

Atomicity: All actions in the transaction happen, or none happen

```
Begin
  Read(A);
  A := A - 25;
  Write(A);
  Read(B);
  B := B + 25;
  Write(B);
Commit
```

 Example: if the system crashes after Write(A), we undo the actions of the transactions

Consistency: a database in a consistent state will remain in a consistent state after the transaction

```
Begin
  Read(A);
  A := A - 25;
  Write(A);
  Read(B);
  B := B + 25;
  Write(B);
Commit
```

 Example: A+B must remain the same after the transaction is executed

Isolation: the execution of one transaction is isolated from other (possibly interleaved) transactions

 if T1, T2 are interleaved, the result should be the same as executing first T1 then T2, or first T2 then T1

<u>Durability</u>: if a transaction <u>commits</u>, its effects must persist

- for example, if the system crashes after a commit, the effects must remain
- what happens if the modified data is not written on disk?

SCHEDULES

- Schedule: An interleaving of actions from a set of transactions, where the actions of any one transaction are in the original order
 - complete schedule: each transaction ends in commit or abort
 - serial schedule: no interleaving of actions from different transactions

WHAT IS A GOOD SCHEDULE?

Serializable schedule:

- final state is what some complete serial schedule of committed transactions would have produced
- Can different serial schedules have different final states?
 - Yes, there is no specific ordering
- Aborted transactions?
 - ignore them for a little while (can be made to 'disappear' using logging)

SERIALIZABILITY VIOLATIONS

When execution of transactions is interleaved, we can have 3 different violations:

- Write-Read conflict (dirty read)
- Read-Write conflict (unrepeatable read)
- Write-Write conflict (overwriting uncommitted data)

DIRTY READ

$$@$$
Start (A,B) = (1000, 100)

- Interleaved execution:
 - -(990, 210)
- T1 \rightarrow T2:
 - $-(900, 200) \rightarrow (990, 220)$
- T2 \rightarrow T1:
 - $-(1100, 110) \rightarrow (1000, 210)$

T1 : Transfer \$100 from A to B	T2: Add 10% interest to A & B	
begin		
	begin	
R(A); A -= 100		
W(A)		
	R(A) ; A *= 1.1	
	W(A)	
	R(B); B*=1.1	
	W(B)	
	commit	
R(B); B += 100		
W(B)		
commit		

UNREPEATABLE READ

- T1 reads value A: R_{T1} (A)
- T2 interleaves and overwrites the value: W_{T2} (A)
- T1 reads again: R_{T1} (A) but sees a different value!

OVERWRITING UNCOMMITTED DATA

- T2 overwrites what T1 wrote!
- Example:
 - suppose that students in the same group must get the same project grade
 - T1: W (X=A), W (Y=A)
 - T2: W (X=B), W (Y=B)
 - $W_{T1}(X=A) \rightarrow W_{T2}(X=B) \rightarrow W_{T2}(Y=B) \rightarrow W_{T1}(Y=A)$

ABORTED TRANSACTIONS

- A serializable schedule is equivalent to a serial schedule of committed transactions
 - as if aborted transactions never happened!
- Two issues:
 - How does one undo the effects of a transaction?
 - by logging/recovery
 - What if another transaction sees these effects??
 - Must undo that transaction as well!

CASCADING ABORTS

- *cascading abort*: when abort of T1 requires an abort of T2
- What happens if T2 has already committed?
- recoverable schedule: Commit only after all tranactions that supply dirty data have committed
- ACA (avoids cascading abort) schedule:
 - transaction only reads committed data
 - no cascading aborts can arise!

Locking

- Locking is a technique for concurrency control
- Lock information maintained by a lock manager:
 - stores (TID, RID, Mode) triples
 - Mode is either Shared (S) or Exclusive (X)

		S	X
	√	√	√
S	√	√	
X	√		

If a transaction cannot get a lock, it has to wait in a queue

STRICT 2 PHASE LOCKING

- Each transaction must obtain a S lock on object before reading, and an X lock on object before writing
- All locks held by a transaction are released only when the transaction completes
- If a transaction holds an X lock on an object, no other transaction can get a lock (S or X) on that object

Strict 2PL guarantees serializability and ACA!

Non-Strict 2 Phase Locking

- Each transaction must obtain a S lock on object before reading, and an X lock on object before writing
- If the transaction releases any lock, it can not acquire any additional locks

Non-Strict 2PL guarantees serializability (but not ACA)

EXAMPLE

Blackboard!

DEADLOCKS

Example:

$$X_{T1}(B), X_{T2}(A), S_{T1}(A), S_{T2}(B)$$

- Deadlocks can cause the system to wait forever
- We need to detect deadlocks and break, or prevent deadlocks
- Simple mechanism: timeout and abort
- More sophisticated methods exist

PERFORMANCE OF LOCKING

- Locks have a performance penalty:
 - blocked actions
 - aborted transactions
- Because of blocking, we can not increase forever the throughput of transactions
- At the point where the throughput cannot increase, we say that the system thrashes

TRANSACTIONS IN SQL

- Transaction boundary
 - begins implicitly when a statement is executed
 - ends by COMMIT or ROLLBACK
- For long running transactions, we can use SAVEPOINT
 - we can then roll back to any previous savepoint

TRANSACTIONS IN SQL

What object should we lock?

```
SELECT COUNT(*)
FROM Employee
WHERE age = 20;
```

- We can apply locking at different granularities:
 - lock the whole table Employee
 - lock only the rows with age = 20

THE PHANTOM PROBLEM

- So far we have assumed the database to be a static collection of elements (=tuples)
- If tuples are inserted/deleted then the phantom problem appears
- Example: blackboard!

TRANSACTIONS IN SQL

Transaction characteristics:

- Access mode: READ ONLY, READ WRITE
- Isolation level
 - Serializable: default (Strict 2PL)
 - Repeatable reads: (R/W locks, but phantom can occur)
 - Read only committed records
 - Between two reads by the same transaction, no updates by another transaction
 - Read committed (W locks longterm, R locks shortterm)
 - Read only committed records
 - Read uncommitted (only reads, no locks)

CRASH RECOVERY

Motivation:

- Atomicity: transactions may abort (rollback)
- Durability: the DBMS may crash

Buffer pool strategies:

- Force: every write goes to disk once committed
 - poor response time
 - provides durability
- **Steal:** buffer pool frames write to disk before commit

STEAL AND FORCE

STEAL (why enforcing Atomicity is hard)

- *To steal frame F,* current page in F (say P) is written to disk; some transaction holds lock on P
 - What if the transaction with the lock on P aborts?
 - Must remember the old value of P at steal time (to support UNDOing the write to page P)

NO FORCE (why enforcing Durability is hard)

- what if we crash before a modified page is written to disk?
- write as little as possible, in a convenient place, at commit time, to support REDOing modifications.

LOGGING

- Record REDO and UNDO information for every update in a log
- Log: An ordered list of REDO/UNDO actions
- The Write-Ahead Logging (WAL) protocol:
 - force the log record for an update before the corresponding data page gets to disk (guarantees atomicity)
 - write all log records for a transaction before commit (guarantees durability)

ARIES

- ARIES is a recovery algorithm that works with a steal, no-force approach
- Three phases:
 - Analysis
 - UNDO
 - REDO

For more on crashes and recovery, take CS 764!