

Advanced Databases

Transactions

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Adapted from slides for textbook “Database System Concepts”
by Silberschatz, Korth, Sudarshan

<http://codex.cs.yale.edu/avi/db-book/db6/slide-dir/index.html>

Outline

- 1 Transaction Concept
- 2 Concurrent Executions
- 3 Serializability
- 4 Recoverability
- 5 Implementation of Isolation / SQL

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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/1

- 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)
- **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/2

- 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/3

- **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**.
- However, executing multiple transactions **concurrently** has significant benefits.

ACID Properties

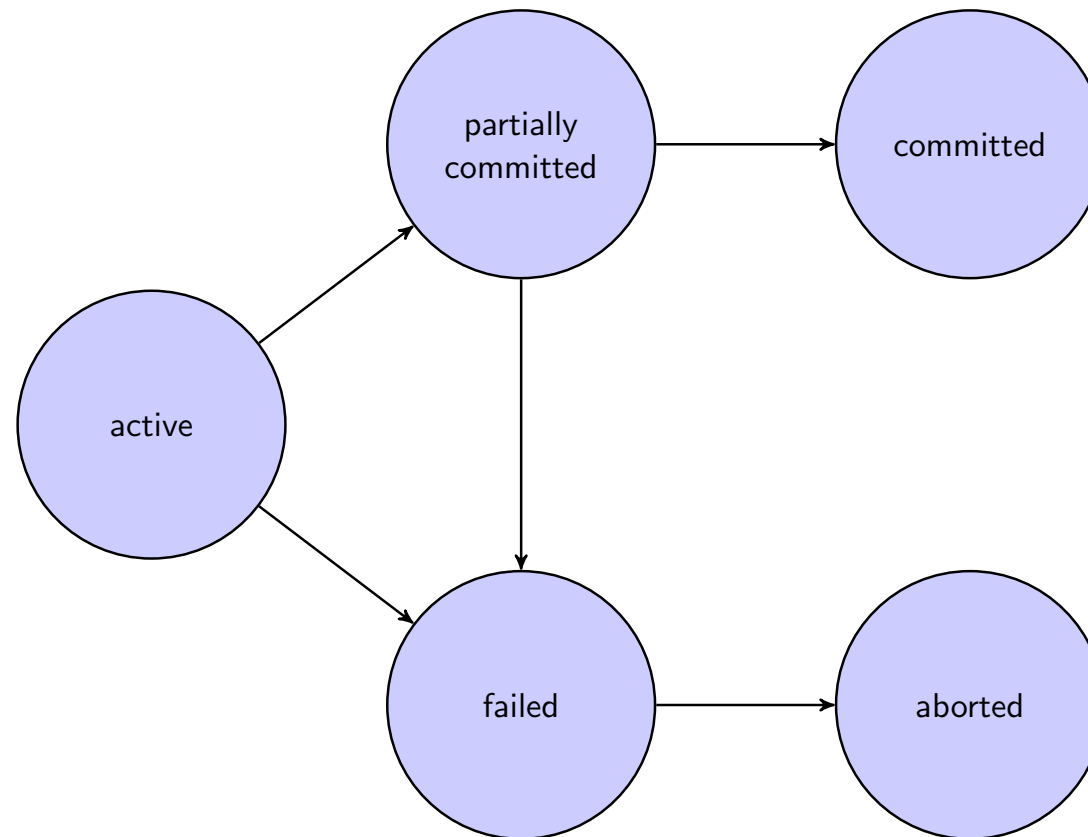
A **transaction** is a unit of program execution that accesses and possibly updates various data items. **To preserve the integrity** of data the database system must ensure:

- **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/1

- **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/2



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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**
 - **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
<i>read(A)</i>	
<i>A := A - 50</i>	
<i>write(A)</i>	
<i>read(B)</i>	
<i>B := B + 50</i>	
<i>write(B)</i>	
<i>commit</i>	
	<i>read(A)</i>
	<i>temp := A * 0.1</i>
	<i>A := A - temp</i>
	<i>write(A)</i>
	<i>read(B)</i>
	<i>B := B + temp</i>
	<i>write(B)</i>
	<i>commit</i>

Schedule 2

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

T_1	T_2
	<i>read(A)</i>
	<i>temp := A * 0.1</i>
	<i>A := A - temp</i>
	<i>write(A)</i>
	<i>read(B)</i>
	<i>B := B + temp</i>
	<i>write(B)</i>
	<i>commit</i>
<i>read(A)</i>	
<i>A := A - 50</i>	
<i>write(A)</i>	
<i>read(B)</i>	
<i>B := B + 50</i>	
<i>write(B)</i>	
<i>commit</i>	

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
<i>read(A)</i>	
$A := A - 50$	
<i>write(A)</i>	
	<i>read(A)</i>
	$temp := A * 0.1$
	$A := A - temp$
	<i>write(A)</i>
<i>read(B)</i>	
$B := B + 50$	
<i>write(B)</i>	
<i>commit</i>	
	<i>read(B)</i>
	$B := B + temp$
	<i>write(B)</i>
	<i>commit</i>

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
<i>read(A)</i>	
$A := A - 50$	
	<i>read(A)</i>
	$temp := A * 0.1$
	$A := A - temp$
	<i>write(A)</i>
	<i>read(B)</i>
<i>write(A)</i>	
<i>read(B)</i>	
$B := B + 50$	
<i>write(B)</i>	
<i>commit</i>	
	$B := B + temp$
	<i>write(B)</i>
	<i>commit</i>

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Concurrent Executions

- **Basic Assumption** — 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:
 - **conflict serializability**
 - **view serializability**

Simplified model of transactions

- We ignore **operations** other than **read** and **write** instructions
- We assume that transactions may perform **arbitrary computations** on data in **local buffers** in between reads and writes.
- Our simplified **schedules consist of only read** and **write** instructions.

Conflicting Instructions

- Let l_i and l_j be two Instructions of transactions T_i and T_j respectively. Instructions l_i and l_j **conflict** if and only if there exists some **item Q accessed by both l_i and l_j , and at least one of these instructions wrote Q .**
 1. $l_i = \text{read}(Q)$, $l_j = \text{read}(Q)$. l_i and l_j don't conflict.
 2. $l_i = \text{read}(Q)$, $l_j = \text{write}(Q)$. They conflict.
 3. $l_i = \text{write}(Q)$, $l_j = \text{read}(Q)$. They conflict.
 4. $l_i = \text{write}(Q)$, $l_j = \text{write}(Q)$. They conflict.
- Intuitively, a conflict between l_i and l_j **forces a (logical) temporal order** between them.
- If l_i and l_j 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/1

- If a schedule S can be transformed into a schedule S' by a series of swaps of non-conflicting instructions, then S and S' are **conflict equivalent**.
- A schedule S is conflict serializable if it is **conflict equivalent** to a serial schedule.

Conflict Serializability/2

- Schedule 3 and (serial) Schedule 6 are conflict equivalent, therefore Schedule 3 is serializable.

T_1	T_2
<i>read(A)</i>	
<i>write(A)</i>	
	<i>read(A)</i>
	<i>write(A)</i>
<i>read(B)</i>	
<i>write(B)</i>	
	<i>read(B)</i>
	<i>write(B)</i>

Table: Schedule 3

T_1	T_2
<i>read(A)</i>	
<i>write(A)</i>	
<i>read(B)</i>	
<i>write(B)</i>	
	<i>read(A)</i>
	<i>write(A)</i>
	<i>read(B)</i>
	<i>write(B)</i>

Table: Schedule 6

Conflict Serializability/3

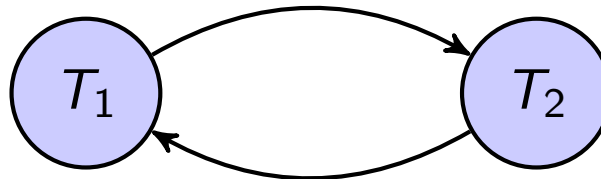
- Example of a schedule that is **not conflict serializable**:

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

- We are **unable to swap instructions** in the above schedule to obtain either the serial schedule $\langle T_3, T_4 \rangle$, or the serial schedule $\langle T_4, T_3 \rangle$.

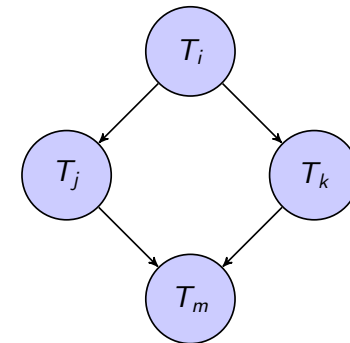
Precedence Graph

- Consider some **schedule** of a set of transactions T_1, T_2, \dots, T_n
- **Precedence graph** — a direct graph where the vertices are the transactions (names).
- We draw an **arc** from T_i to T_j if the two transaction conflict, and T_i accessed the data item on which the conflict arose earlier.
- We may **label the arc by the item** that was accessed.
- **Example**

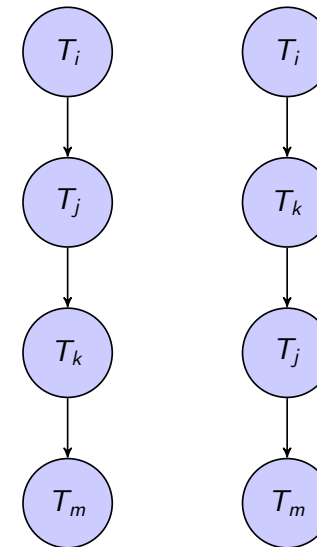


Testing for Conflict Serializability

- A schedule is **conflict serializable** if and only if its **precedence graph** is **acyclic**.
- **Cycle-detection algorithms** exist which take order n^2 time, where n is the number of vertices in the graph.
 - (Better algorithms take order $n + e$ where e is the number of edges.)
- If precedence graph is acyclic, the serializability order can be obtained by a **topological sorting** of the graph.
 - That is, a **linear order consistent with the partial order** of the graph.
 - For example, a serializability order for the schedule (a) would be one of either (b) or (c)



(a)



(b)

(c)

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Recoverable Schedules

- **Recoverable schedule** — if a transaction T_j reads a data item previously written by a transaction T_i , then the commit operation of T_i **must** appear before the commit operation of T_j .
- The **following schedule is not recoverable** if T_9 commits immediately after the $read(A)$ operation.

T_8	T_9
$read(A)$	
$write(A)$	
	$read(A)$
	$commit$
$read(B)$	

- If T_8 should abort, T_9 would have read (and possibly shown to the user) an **inconsistent database state**. Hence, database must ensure that schedules are recoverable.

Cascading Rollbacks

- **Cascading rollback** — a single transaction failure leads to a **series of transaction rollbacks**.
- Consider the following schedule where none of the transactions has yet committed (so the schedule is recoverable):

T_{10}	T_{11}	T_{12}
<i>read(A)</i>		
<i>read(B)</i>		
<i>write(A)</i>		
	<i>read(A)</i>	
	<i>write(A)</i>	
		<i>read(A)</i>
<i>abort</i>		

If T_{10} fails, T_{11} and T_{12} must also be rolled back.

- Can lead to the **undoing of a significant amount of work**.

Cascadeless Schedules

- **Cascadeless schedules** — for each pair of transactions T_i and T_j such that T_j reads a data item previously written by T_i , the commit operation of T_i appears before the read operation of T_j .
- Every cascadeless schedule is **also recoverable**.
- It is desirable to restrict the schedules to those that are cascadeless.
- Example of a schedule that is NOT cascadeless:

T_{10}	T_{11}	T_{12}
<i>read(A)</i>		
<i>read(B)</i>		
<i>write(A)</i>		
	<i>read(A)</i>	
	<i>write(A)</i>	
		<i>read(A)</i>
<i>abort</i>		

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Concurrency Control and Recoverability

- A database must provide a mechanism that will **ensure** that **all possible schedules** are both:
 - **conflict serializable**
 - **recoverable** and **preferably cascadeless**
- A policy in which only one transaction can execute at a time generates **serial schedules**, but provides a poor degree of concurrency.
- Concurrency-control schemes **tradeoff** between the amount of **concurrency** they allow and the amount of **overhead** that they incur.
- **Protocols** that assure serializability and recoverability are required:
 - testing a schedule for serializability after it has executed (e.g., cycle detection in precedence graphs) is too late!
 - tests for serializability help us understand why a concurrency control protocol is correct

Weak Levels of Consistency

- Some applications are willing to live with weak levels of consistency, allowing schedules that are not serializable, e.g.,
 - a read-only transaction that wants to get an approximate total balance of all accounts
 - database statistics computed for query optimization can be approximate
- Such transactions need not be serializable with respect to other transactions.
- Tradeoff accuracy for performance

Undesirable Phenomena of Concurrent Transactions

- Dirty read

- transaction reads data written by concurrent uncommitted transaction
- problem: read may return a value that was never in the database because the writing transaction aborted

- Non-repeatable read

- different reads on the same item within a single transaction give different results (caused by other transactions)
- e.g., concurrent transactions $T_1: x = R(A), y = R(A), z = y - x$ and $T_2: W(A = 2 * A)$, then z can be either zero or the initial value of A (should be zero!)

- Phantom read

- repeating the same query later in the transaction gives a different set of result tuples
- other transactions can insert new tuples during a scan
- e.g., “Q: get accounts with *balance* > 1000” gives two tuples the first time, then a new account with *balance* > 1000 is inserted by an other transaction; the second time Q gives three tuples

Isolation Guarantees (SQL Standard)

- **Read uncommitted**: dirty, non-repeatable, phantom
 - reads may access uncommitted data
 - writes do not overwrite uncommitted data
- **Read committed**: non-repeatable, phantom
 - reads can access only committed data
 - **cursor stability**: in addition, read is repeatable within single SELECT
- **Repeatable read**: phantom
 - phantom reads possible
- **Serializable**:
 - none of the undesired phenomenas can happen

Transaction Definition in SQL

- Data manipulation language must include a construct for specifying the set of **actions that comprise a transaction**.
- In SQL, a transaction begins implicitly.
 - **BEGIN [TRANSACTION ISOLATION LEVEL ...]**
 - **Isolation levels**: read committed, read uncommitted, repeatable read, serializable
- A transaction in SQL ends by:
 - **COMMIT** commits current transaction and begins a new one.
 - **ROLLBACK** causes current transaction to abort.
- Typically, an SQL statement **commits implicitly** if it executes successfully
 - Implicit commit can be turned off by a database directive, e.g. in JDBC, `connection.setAutoCommit(false)`;