

#### **Chapter 14: Transactions**

#### Database System Concepts, 6<sup>th</sup> Ed.

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- Transaction Concept
- Transaction State
- Concurrent Executions
- Serializability
- Recoverability
- Implementation of Isolation
- Transaction Definition in SQL
- Testing for Serializability.



# **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.



# **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.

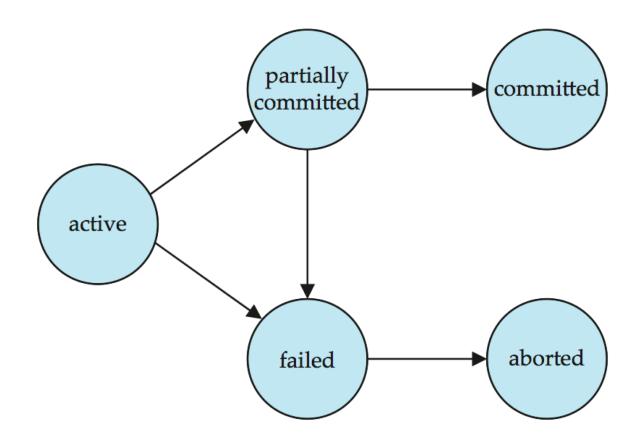


### **Transaction State**

- 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.)**





#### **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
    - We will focus on that later, after studying notion of correctness of concurrent executions.



#### **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 ( <i>A</i> ) <i>A</i> := <i>A</i> – 50 write ( <i>A</i> ) read ( <i>B</i> ) <i>B</i> := <i>B</i> + 50 write ( <i>B</i> ) 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  $T_1$ :

$T_1$	<i>T</i> <sub>2</sub>
read ( $A$ ) A := A - 50 write ( $A$ ) read ( $B$ ) B := B + 50 write ( $B$ ) commit	read ( <i>A</i> ) <i>temp</i> := <i>A</i> * 0.1 <i>A</i> := <i>A</i> - <i>temp</i> write ( <i>A</i> ) read ( <i>B</i> ) <i>B</i> := <i>B</i> + <i>temp</i> write ( <i>B</i> ) 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 ( <i>B</i> )	
commit	
	read (B)
	B := B + temp
	write ( <i>B</i> )
	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 ( <i>A</i> ) <i>A</i> := <i>A</i> – 50	read ( <i>A</i> ) <i>temp</i> := <i>A</i> * 0.1 <i>A</i> := <i>A</i> - <i>temp</i> write ( <i>A</i> )
write $(A)$ read $(B)$ B := B + 50 write $(B)$ commit	read ( <i>B</i> ) <i>B</i> := <i>B</i> + <i>temp</i> write ( <i>B</i> ) commit



### **Serializability**

- 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:
  - 1. conflict serializability
  - 2. view serializability



# **Simplified view 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  $I_i$  and  $I_j$  be two instructions of transactions  $T_i$  and  $T_j$  respectively. Instructions  $I_i$  and  $I_j$  **conflict** if and only if there exists some item Q accessed by both  $I_i$  and  $I_j$ , and at least one of these instructions wrote Q.

1.  $l_i = \operatorname{read}(Q)$ ,  $l_j = \operatorname{read}(Q)$ .  $l_i$  and  $l_j$  don't conflict. 2.  $l_i = \operatorname{read}(Q)$ ,  $l_j = \operatorname{write}(Q)$ . They conflict. 3.  $l_i = \operatorname{write}(Q)$ ,  $l_j = \operatorname{read}(Q)$ . They conflict 4.  $l_i = \operatorname{write}(Q)$ ,  $l_j = \operatorname{write}(Q)$ . They conflict

- Intuitively, a conflict between  $I_i$  and  $I_j$  forces a (logical) temporal order between them.
  - If *I<sub>i</sub>* and *I<sub>j</sub>* 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**.
- We say that 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 a series of swaps of non-conflicting instructions. Therefore, Schedule 3 is conflict serializable.

$T_1$	<i>T</i> <sub>2</sub>	$T_1$	T <sub>2</sub>
read (A) write (A)	read (A) write (A)	read (A) write (A) read (B) write (B)	
read ( <i>B</i> ) write ( <i>B</i> )	read ( <i>B</i> ) write ( <i>B</i> )		read (A) write (A) read (B) write (B)
Sch	nedule 3	S	Schedule 6



# **Conflict Serializability (Cont.)**

Example of a schedule that is not conflict serializable:

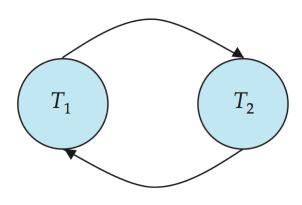
$T_3$	$T_4$
read (Q)	write (Q)
write ( <i>Q</i> )	write (Q)

We are unable to swap instructions in the above schedule to obtain either the serial schedule  $< T_3$ ,  $T_4 >$ , or the serial schedule  $< T_4$ ,  $T_3 >$ .



#### **Precedence Graph**

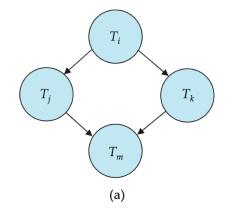
- Consider some schedule of a set of transactions  $T_1$ ,  $T_2$ , ...,  $T_n$
- Precedence graph a direct graph where the vertices are the transactions (names).
- We draw an arc from  $T_i$  to  $T_j$  if the two transaction conflict, and  $T_i$  accessed the data item on which the conflict arose earlier.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

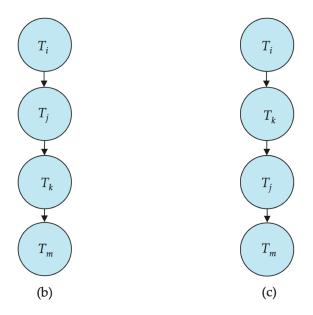




# **Testing for Conflict Serializability**

- A schedule is conflict serializable if and only if its precedence graph is acyclic.
- Cycle-detection algorithms exist which take order n<sup>2</sup> 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)

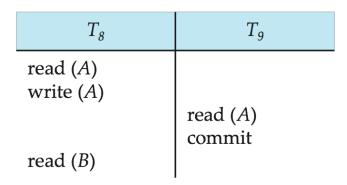






#### **Recoverable Schedules**

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



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 <sub>10</sub>	T <sub>11</sub>	T <sub>12</sub>
read ( <i>A</i> ) read ( <i>B</i> ) write ( <i>A</i> ) abort	read (A) write (A)	read (A)

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 <sub>10</sub>	T <sub>11</sub>	T <sub>12</sub>
read (A) read (B) write (A) abort	read (A) write (A)	read (A)



# **Concurrency Control**

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
- Testing a schedule for serializability *after* it has executed is a little too late!
  - Tests for serializability help us understand why a concurrency control protocol is correct
- Goal to develop concurrency control protocols that will assure serializability.



# **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
- E.g., database statistics computed for query optimization can be approximate (why?)
- Such transactions need not be serializable with respect to other transactions
- Tradeoff accuracy for performance



# **Levels of Consistency in SQL-92**

#### Serializable — default

- Repeatable read only committed records to be read, repeated reads of same record must return same value. However, a transaction may not be serializable – it may find some records inserted by a transaction but not find others.
- Read committed only committed records can be read, but successive reads of record may return different (but committed) values.
- **Read uncommitted** even uncommitted records may be read.
- Lower degrees of consistency useful for gathering approximate information about the database
- Warning: some database systems do not ensure serializable schedules by default
  - E.g., Oracle and PostgreSQL by default support a level of consistency called snapshot isolation (not part of the SQL standard)



### **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.
- A transaction in SQL ends by:
  - **Commit work** commits current transaction and begins a new one.
  - **Rollback work** causes current transaction to abort.
- In almost all database systems, by default, every SQL statement also commits implicitly if it executes successfully
  - Implicit commit can be turned off by a database directive
    - E.g. in JDBC, connection.setAutoCommit(false);



### **Other Notions of Serializability**



### **View Serializability**

- Let S and S' be two schedules with the same set of transactions. S and S' are **view equivalent** if the following three conditions are met, for each data item Q,
  - 1. If in schedule S, transaction  $T_i$  reads the initial value of Q, then in schedule S' also transaction  $T_i$  must read the initial value of Q.
  - 2. If in schedule S transaction  $T_i$  executes **read**(Q), and that value was produced by transaction  $T_j$  (if any), then in schedule S' also transaction  $T_i$  must read the value of Q that was produced by the same **write**(Q) operation of transaction  $T_j$ .
  - 3. The transaction (if any) that performs the final write(Q) operation in schedule *S* must also perform the final write(Q) operation in schedule *S'*.
- As can be seen, view equivalence is also based purely on **reads** and **writes** alone.



# View Serializability (Cont.)

- A schedule *S* is **view serializable** if it is view equivalent to a serial schedule.
- Every conflict serializable schedule is also view serializable.
- Below is a schedule which is view-serializable but *not* conflict serializable.

T <sub>27</sub>	T <sub>28</sub>	$T_{29}$
read (Q)	$\mathbf{x}$	
write (Q)	write (Q)	
		write (Q)

- What serial schedule is above equivalent to?
- Every view serializable schedule that is not conflict serializable has blind writes.



# **Test for View Serializability**

- The precedence graph test for conflict serializability cannot be used directly to test for view serializability.
  - Extension to test for view serializability has cost exponential in the size of the precedence graph.
- The problem of checking if a schedule is view serializable falls in the class of NP-complete problems.
  - Thus, existence of an efficient algorithm is *extremely* unlikely.
- However, practical algorithms that just check some sufficient conditions for view serializability can still be used.

# **More Complex Notions of Serializability**

The schedule below produces the same outcome as the serial schedule  $< T_1, T_5 >$ , yet is not conflict equivalent or view equivalent to it.

$T_1$	$T_5$
read ( <i>A</i> ) <i>A</i> := <i>A</i> – 50 write ( <i>A</i> )	read ( <i>B</i> ) <i>B</i> := <i>B</i> - 10
read ( <i>B</i> ) <i>B</i> := <i>B</i> + 50 write ( <i>B</i> )	B := B - 10 write (B) read (A) A := A + 10 write (A)

- If we start with A = 1000 and B = 2000, the final result is 960 and 2040
- Determining such an equivalence requires analysis of operations other than read and write.



#### **End of Chapter 14**

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