CSE 344

MARCH 5TH – TRANSACTIONS

ADMINISTRIVIA

- OQ6 Out
 - 6 questions
 - Due next Wednesday, 11:00pm
- HW7 Shortened
 - Parts 1 and 2 -- other material candidates for short answer, go over in section
- Course evaluations
 - https://uw.iasystem.org/survey/188771
 - As of before class -- 13%

ADMINISTRIVIA

- HW8
 - Due Friday
 - Up to 3 late days on the submission
 - No benefit for keeping late days

CLASS OVERVIEW

- Unit 1: Intro
- Unit 2: Relational Data Models and Query Languages
- **Unit 3: Non-relational data**
- **Unit 4: RDMBS internals and query optimization**
- **Unit 5: Parallel query processing**
- Unit 6: DBMS usability, conceptual design

Unit 7: Transactions

- Locking and schedules
- Writing DB applications

TRANSACTIONS

We use database transactions everyday

- Bank \$\$\$ transfers
- Online shopping
- Signing up for classes

For this class, a transaction is a series of DB queries

- Read / Write / Update / Delete / Insert
- Unit of work issued by a user that is independent from others

CHALLENGES

Want to execute many apps concurrently

• All these apps read and write data to the same DB

Simple solution: only serve one app at a time

• What's the problem?

Want: multiple operations to be executed *atomically* over the same DBMS

WHAT CAN GO WRONG?

Manager: balance budgets among projects

- Remove \$10k from project A
- Add \$7k to project B
- Add \$3k to project C

CEO: check company's total balance

• SELECT SUM(money) FROM budget;

This is called a dirty / inconsistent read aka a WRITE-READ conflict

WHAT CAN GO WRONG?

App 1: SELECT inventory FROM products WHERE pid = 1

App 2: UPDATE products SET inventory = 0 WHERE pid = 1

```
App 1:
SELECT inventory * price FROM products
WHERE pid = 1
```

This is known as an unrepeatable read aka **READ-WRITE** conflict

WHAT CAN GO WRONG? Account 1 = \$100 Account 2 = \$100 Total = \$200

- App 1:
 - Set Account 1 = \$200
 - Set Account 2 = \$0
- App 2:
 - Set Account 2 = \$200
 - Set Account 1 = \$0

- App 1: Set Account 1 = \$200
- App 2: Set Account 2 = \$200
- App 1: Set Account 2 = \$0
- App 2: Set Account 1 = \$0

- At the end:
 - Total = \$200

At the end:
 – Total = \$0

This is called the lost update aka WRITE-WRITE conflict

WHAT CAN GO WRONG?

Paying for Tuition (Underwater Basket Weaving)

- Fill up form with your mailing address
- Put in debit card number (because you don't trust the gov't)
- Click submit
- Screen shows money deducted from your account
- [Your browser crashes]

Lesson: Changes to the database should be ALL or NOTHING

TRANSACTIONS

Collection of statements that are executed atomically (logically speaking)



If BEGIN... missing, then TXN consists of a single instruction

KNOW YOUR TRANSACTIONS: ACID

Atomic

• State shows either all the effects of txn, or none of them

Consistent

- Txn moves from a DBMS state where integrity holds, to another where integrity holds
 - remember integrity constraints?

Isolated

• Effect of txns is the same as txns running one after another (i.e., looks like batch mode)

Durable

• Once a txn has committed, its effects remain in the database

ATOMIC

Definition: A transaction is ATOMIC if all its updates must happen or not at all.

Example: move \$100 from A to B

- UPDATE accounts SET bal = bal 100
 WHERE acct = A;
- UPDATE accounts SET bal = bal + 100
 WHERE acct = B;
- BEGIN TRANSACTION; UPDATE accounts SET bal = bal - 100 WHERE acct = A; UPDATE accounts SET bal = bal + 100 WHERE acct = B; COMMIT;

ISOLATED

• Definition:

 An execution ensures that transactions are isolated, if the effect of each transaction is as if it were the only transaction running on the system.

CONSISTENT

Recall: integrity constraints govern how values in tables are related to each other

• Can be enforced by the DBMS, or ensured by the app

How consistency is achieved by the app:

- App programmer ensures that txns only takes a consistent DB state to another consistent state
- DB makes sure that txns are executed atomically

Can defer checking the validity of constraints until the end of a transaction



A transaction is durable if its effects continue to exist after the transaction and even after the program has terminated

How?

- By writing to disk!
- More in 444

ROLLBACK TRANSACTIONS

If the app gets to a state where it cannot complete the transaction successfully, execute ROLLBACK

The DB returns to the state prior to the transaction

What are examples of such program states?

ACID Atomic Consistent Isolated Durable

Again: by default each statement is its own txn

 Unless auto-commit is off then each statement starts a new txn

SCHEDULES

A schedule is a sequence of interleaved actions from all transactions

SERIAL SCHEDULE

A <u>serial schedule</u> is one in which transactions are executed one after the other, in some sequential order

Fact: nothing can go wrong if the system executes transactions serially

- (up to what we have learned so far)
- But DBMS don't do that because we want better overall system performance

A and B are elements in the database t and s are variables in txn source code

T2 T1 READ(A, s)READ(A, t)t := t+100 s := s*2 WRITE(A, t) WRITE(A,s) READ(B, t) READ(B,s) t := t+100 s := s*2 WRITE(B,t) WRITE(B,s)

EXAMPLE



ANOTHER SERIAL SCHEDULE

Time

T2 **T1** READ(A,s) s := s*2 WRITE(A,s) READ(B,s) s := s*2 WRITE(B,s) READ(A, t)t := t+100 WRITE(A, t) READ(B, t)

t := t+100

WRITE(B,t)

REVIEW: SERIALIZABLE SCHEDULE

A schedule is serializable if it is equivalent to a serial schedule

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A SERIALIZABLE SCHEDULE



This is NOT a serial schedule

WRITE(B,s)

A NON-SERIALIZABLE SCHEDULE

T2 T1 READ(A, t) t := t+100 WRITE(A, t) READ(A,s)s := s*2 WRITE(A,s) READ(B,s) s := s*2 WRITE(B,s) READ(B, t) t := t+100 WRITE(B,t)

HOW DO WE KNOW IF A SCHEDULE IS SERIALIZABLE?

Notation: T₁: r₁(A); w₁(A); r₁(B); w₁(B) T₂: r₂(A); w₂(A); r₂(B); w₂(B)

Key Idea: Focus on conflicting operations

CONFLICTS

Write-Read – WR Read-Write – RW Write-Write – WW Read-Read?

Conflicts: (i.e., swapping will change program behavior)

Two actions by same transaction T_i:

Two writes by T_i , T_j to same element

Read/write by T_i, T_i to same element

r_i(X); w_i(Y)

$$w_i(X); w_j(X)$$

$$w_i(X); r_j(X)$$

$$r_i(X); w_j(X)$$

A schedule is <u>conflict serializable</u> if it can be transformed into a serial schedule by a series of swappings of adjacent non-conflicting actions

Every conflict-serializable schedule is serializable

The converse is not true (why?)

Example:

r₁(A); w₁(A); r₂(A); w₂(A); r₁(B); w₁(B); r₂(B); w₂(B)

Example:

r₁(A); w₁(A); r₂(A); w₂(A); r₁(B); w₁(B); r₂(B); w₂(B)



r₁(A); w₁(A); r₁(B); w₁(B); r₂(A); w₂(A); r₂(B); w₂(B)

Example:

 $r_1(A); w_1(A); r_2(A); w_2(A); r_1(B); w_1(B); r_2(B); w_2(B)$

r₁(A); w₁(A); r₁(B); w₁(B); r₂(A); w₂(A); r₂(B); w₂(B)

Example:



r₁(A); w₁(A); r₁(B); w₁(B); r₂(A); w₂(A); r₂(B); w₂(B)

Example:



TESTING FOR CONFLICT-SERIALIZABILITY

Precedence graph:

- A node for each transaction T_i,
- An edge from T_i to T_j whenever an action in T_i conflicts with, and comes before an action in T_j

The schedule is conflict-serializable iff the precedence graph is acyclic
EXAMPLE 1

$r_2(A); r_1(B); w_2(A); r_3(A); w_1(B); w_3(A); r_2(B); w_2(B)$



EXAMPLE 1

$r_2(A); r_1(B); w_2(A); r_3(A); w_1(B); w_3(A); r_2(B); w_2(B)$



This schedule is conflict-serializable

EXAMPLE 2

r₂(A); r₁(B); w₂(A); r₂(B); r₃(A); w₁(B); w₃(A); w₂(B)





This schedule is NOT conflict-serializable



Scheduler = the module that schedules the transaction's actions, ensuring serializability

Also called Concurrency Control Manager

We discuss next how a scheduler may be implemented

IMPLEMENTING A SCHEDULER

Major differences between database vendors

Locking Scheduler

- Aka "pessimistic concurrency control"
- SQLite, SQL Server, DB2

Multiversion Concurrency Control (MVCC)

- Aka "optimistic concurrency control"
- Postgres, Oracle: Snapshot Isolation (SI)

We discuss only locking schedulers in this class

LOCKING SCHEDULER

Simple idea:

Each element has a unique lock

Each transaction must first acquire the lock before reading/writing that element

If the lock is taken by another transaction, then wait

The transaction must release the lock(s)

By using locks scheduler ensures conflict-serializability

WHAT DATA ELEMENTS ARE LOCKED?

Major differences between vendors:

Lock on the entire database

SQLite

Lock on individual records

• SQL Server, DB2, etc

CASE STUDY: SQLITE

SQLite is very simple

More info: http://www.sqlite.org/atomiccommit.html

Lock types

- READ LOCK (to read)
- RESERVED LOCK (to write)
- PENDING LOCK (wants to commit)
- EXCLUSIVE LOCK (to commit)

Step 1: when a transaction begins

Acquire a **READ LOCK** (aka "SHARED" lock)

All these transactions may read happily

They all read data from the database file

If the transaction commits without writing anything, then it simply releases the lock

Step 2: when one transaction wants to write

Acquire a **RESERVED LOCK**

May coexists with many READ LOCKs

Writer TXN may write; these updates are only in main memory; others don't see the updates

Reader TXN continue to read from the file

New readers accepted

No other TXN is allowed a RESERVED LOCK

Step 3: when writer transaction wants to commit, it needs *exclusive lock*, which can't coexists with *read locks*

Acquire a **PENDING LOCK**

May coexists with old READ LOCKs

No new READ LOCKS are accepted

Wait for all read locks to be released



Step 4: when all read locks have been released Acquire the EXCLUSIVE LOCK Nobody can touch the database now

All updates are written permanently to the database file

Release the lock and **COMMIT**





SCHEDULE ANOMALIES

What could go wrong if we didn't have concurrency control:

- Dirty reads (including inconsistent reads)
- Unrepeatable reads
- Lost updates

Many other things can go wrong too



Write-Read Conflict

T₁: WRITE(A) T₁: ABORT

T₂: READ(A)

INCONSISTENT READ

Write-Read Conflict



T₂: READ(A); T₂: READ(B);

UNREPEATABLE READ

Read-Write Conflict

T₁: WRITE(A)

T₂: READ(A); T₂: READ(A);

LOST UPDATE

Write-Write Conflict

 T_1 : READ(A)

 $T_1: A := A+5$

T₁: WRITE(A)

T₂: READ(A);

T₂: A := A*1.3

T₂: WRITE(A);

MORE NOTATIONS

 $L_i(A)$ = transaction T_i acquires lock for element A

 $U_i(A)$ = transaction T_i releases lock for element A

A NON-SERIALIZABLE SCHEDULE

WRITE(B)

T2 T1 READ(A) A := A+100 WRITE(A) READ(A) A := A*2 WRITE(A) READ(B) B := B*2 WRITE(B) READ(B) B := B+100

```
EXAMPLE
                                    T2
T1
L<sub>1</sub>(A); READ(A)
A := A+100
WRITE(A); U<sub>1</sub>(A); L<sub>1</sub>(B)
                                    L_2(A); READ(A)
                                    A := A*2
                                    WRITE(A); U_2(A);
                                    L<sub>2</sub>(B); BLOCKED...
READ(B)
B := B+100
WRITE(B); U_1(B);
                                    ...GRANTED; READ(B)
                                    B := B*2
```

WRITE(B); U₂(B); Scheduler has ensured a conflict-serializable schedule

BUT... T2 T1 L₁(A); READ(A) A := A+100 WRITE(A); U₁(A); $L_2(A)$; READ(A) A := A*2 WRITE(A); U₂(A); $L_2(B)$; READ(B) B := B*2 WRITE(B); U₂(B); $L_1(B)$; READ(B) B := B+100

WRITE(B); U₁(B);

Locks did not enforce conflict-serializability !!! What's wrong ?

The 2PL rule:

In every transaction, all lock requests must precede all unlock requests

EXAMPLE: 2PL TRANSACTIONS T1 T2 $L_1(A); L_1(B); READ(A)$ A := A+100WRITE(A); U₁(A)

L₂(A); READ(A) A := A*2 WRITE(A); L₂(B); BLOCKED...

READ(B) B := B+100 WRITE(B); U₁(B);

Now it is conflict-serializable

...GRANTED; READ(B) B := B*2 WRITE(B); U₂(A); U₂(B);

Theorem: 2PL ensures conflict serializability

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Proof. Suppose not: then there exists a cycle in the precedence graph.



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Then there is the following <u>temporal</u> cycle in the schedule: $U_1(A) \rightarrow L_2(A)$ why?

> U₁(A) happened strictly <u>before</u> L₂(A)

Theorem: 2PL ensures conflict serializability

Proof. Suppose not: then there exists a cycle in the precedence graph.

C T3 A T2 B Then there is the following <u>temporal</u> cycle in the schedule: $U_1(A) \rightarrow L_2(A)$ why?

Theorem: 2PL ensures conflict serializability

Proof. Suppose not: then there exists a cycle in the precedence graph.



Then there is the following <u>temporal</u> cycle in the schedule: $U_1(A) \rightarrow L_2(A)$ $L_2(A) \rightarrow U_2(B)$ why?

> L₂(A) happened strictly <u>before</u> U₁(A)

Theorem: 2PL ensures conflict serializability

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Then there is the following <u>temporal</u> cycle in the schedule: $U_1(A) \rightarrow L_2(A)$ $L_2(A) \rightarrow U_2(B)$ why?

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Then there is the following <u>temporal</u> cycle in the schedule: $U_1(A) \rightarrow L_2(A)$ $L_2(A) \rightarrow U_2(B)$ $U_2(B) \rightarrow L_3(B)$ why?

Theorem: 2PL ensures conflict serializability

Proof. Suppose not: then there exists a cycle in the precedence graph.



Then there is the following temporal cycle in the schedule: $U_1(A) \rightarrow L_2(A)$ $L_2(A) \rightarrow U_2(B)$ $U_2(B) \rightarrow L_3(B)$ etc....

Theorem: 2PL ensures conflict serializability

Proof. Suppose not: then there exists a cycle in the precedence graph.



Then there is the following temporal cycle in the schedule: $U_1(A) \rightarrow L_2(A)$ $L_2(A) \rightarrow U_2(B)$ $U_2(B) \rightarrow L_3(B)$ $L_3(B) \rightarrow U_3(C)$ $U_3(C) \rightarrow L_1(C)$ Cycle in time: Contradiction

A NEW PROBLEM: NON-RECOVERABLE SCHEDULE

T2

L₁(A); L₁(B); READ(A) A :=A+100 WRITE(A); U₁(A)

T1

READ(B) B :=B+100 WRITE(B); U₁(B);

Rollback

 $L_2(A)$; READ(A) A := A*2 WRITE(A); $L_2(B)$; BLOCKED...

...GRANTED; READ(B) B := B*2 WRITE(B); U₂(A); U₂(B); Commit
A NEW PROBLEM: NON-RECOVERABLE SCHEDULE

T2

L₁(A); L₁(B); READ(A) A :=A+100 WRITE(A); U₁(A)

T1

 $L_2(A)$; READ(A) A := A*2 WRITE(A); $L_2(B)$; BLOCKED...

READ(B) B :=B+100 WRITE(B); U₁(B);

> Elements A, B written by T1 are restored to their original value.

...GRANTED; READ(B) B := B*2 WRITE(B); $U_2(A)$; $U_2(B)$; Commit



A NEW PROBLEM: NON-RECOVERABLE SCHEDULE

T2

L₁(A); L₁(B); READ(A) A :=A+100 WRITE(A); U₁(A)

T1

READ(B) B :=B+100 WRITE(B); U₁(B);

Rollback

Elements A, B written by T1 are restored to their original value. L₂(A); READ(A) A := A*2 WRITE(A); L₂(B); BLOCKED...

Dirty reads of A, B lead to incorrect writes.

...GRANTED; READ(B) B := B*2 WRITE(B); $U_2(A)$; $U_2(B)$; Commit

A NEW PROBLEM: NON-RECOVERABLE SCHEDULE

T2

L₁(A); L₁(B); READ(A) A :=A+100 WRITE(A); U₁(A)

T1

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Rollback

Elements A, B written by T1 are restored to their original value. $L_2(A)$; READ(A) A := A*2 WRITE(A); $L_2(B)$; BLOCKED...

Dirty reads of A, B lead to incorrect writes.

...GRANTED; READ(B) B := B*2 WRITE(B); U₂(A); U₂(B); Commit

Can no longer undo!

STRICT 2PL

The Strict 2PL rule:

All locks are held until commit/abort: All unlocks are done together with commit/abort.

With strict 2PL, we will get schedules that are both conflict-serializable and recoverable

STRICT 2PL

T2

L₁(A); READ(A) A :=A+100 WRITE(A);

L₁(B); READ(B) B :=B+100

WRITE(B);

Rollback & U₁(A);U₁(B);

L₂(A); BLOCKED...

...GRANTED; READ(A) A := A*2 WRITE(A); L₂(B); READ(B) B := B*2 WRITE(B); Commit & U₂(A); U₂(B);

STRICT 2PL

Lock-based systems always use strict 2PL

Easy to implement:

- Before a transaction reads or writes an element A, insert an L(A)
- When the transaction commits/aborts, then release all locks

Ensures both conflict serializability and recoverability

ANOTHER PROBLEM: DEADLOCKS

- T₁: R(A), W(B)
- **T**₂: R(B), W(A)

\mathbf{T}_1 holds the lock on A, waits for B

T₂ holds the lock on B, waits for A

This is a deadlock!

ANOTHER PROBLEM: DEADLOCKS

To detect a deadlocks, search for a cycle in the waits-for graph:

 T_1 waits for a lock held by T_2 ;

 T_2 waits for a lock held by T_3 ;

. . .

T_n waits for a lock held by T₁

Relatively expensive: check periodically, if deadlock is found, then abort one TXN; re-check for deadlock more often (why?)