TRANSACTIONS
What we covered last time

• Transactions
• Properties of Transactions: ACID
• Logging:
  – Atomicity & Durability
  – Write-Ahead Logging (WAL) protocol
1. Concurrency, scheduling & anomalies

2. Locking: Strict 2PL, conflict serializability, deadlock detection

3. Recovery
Concurrency & Locking
1. CONCURRENCY, SCHEDULING & ANOMALIES
What you will learn about in this section

1. Interleaving & scheduling

2. Conflict & anomaly types
Concurrency: Isolation & Consistency

The DBMS must handle concurrency such that...

1. **Isolation** is maintained:
   - Users must be able to execute each TXN *as if they were the only user*
   - DBMS handles the details of *interleaving* various TXNs

2. **Consistency** is maintained:
   - TXNs must leave the DB in a *consistent state*
   - DBMS handles the details of enforcing integrity constraints
Example - consider two TXNs:

T1: START TRANSACTION
UPDATE Accounts
SET Amt = Amt + 100
WHERE Name = 'A'
UPDATE Accounts
SET Amt = Amt - 100
WHERE Name = 'B'
COMMIT

T2: START TRANSACTION
UPDATE Accounts
SET Amt = Amt * 1.06
COMMIT

T1 transfers $100 from B’s account to A’s account
T2 credits both accounts with a 6% interest payment
Example - consider two TXNs:

T1 transfers $100 from B’s account to A’s account

T2 credits both accounts with a 6% interest payment

We can look at the TXNs in a timeline view - serial execution:
Example - consider two TXNs:

The TXNs could occur in either order... DBMS allows!

$T_1$ transfers $100$ from B’s account to A’s account

$T_2$ credits both accounts with a 6% interest payment

$A += 100$

$B -= 100$

$A *= 1.06$

$B *= 1.06$

T1 transfers $100$ from B’s account to A’s account

T2 credits both accounts with a 6% interest payment

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Example - consider two TXNs:

The DBMS can also **interleave** the TXNs

\[ T_1 \]
- \[ A += 100 \]
- \[ B -= 100 \]

\[ T_2 \]
- \[ A *= 1.06 \]
- \[ B *= 1.06 \]

\[ T_2 \] credits A’s account with 6% interest payment, then \[ T_1 \] transfers $100 to A’s account...

\[ T_2 \] credits B’s account with a 6% interest payment, then \[ T_1 \] transfers $100 from B’s account...

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Example - consider two TXNs:

The DBMS can also **interleave** the TXNs

- $T_1$: $A += 100$  
- $T_2$: $A *= 1.06$  
- $B -= 100$  
- $B *= 1.06$

What goes wrong here??

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Three Types of Regions of Memory

1. **Local**: In our model each process in a DBMS has its own local memory, where it stores values that only it “sees”

2. **Global**: Each process can read from / write to shared data in main memory

3. **Disk**: Global memory can read from / flush to disk

4. **Log**: Assume on stable disk storage- spans both main memory and disk...
Why Interleave TXNs?

• Interleaving TXNs might lead to anomalous outcomes... why do it?

• Several important reasons:
  – Individual TXNs might be slow
    • don’t want to block other users during!
  – Disk access may be slow
    • let some TXNs use CPUs while others accessing disk!

All concern large differences in performance
Interleaving & Isolation

• The DBMS has freedom to interleave TXNs

• However, it must pick an interleaving or schedule such that isolation and consistency are maintained

  – Must be *as if* the TXNs had executed serially!

“With great power comes great responsibility”

DBMS must pick a schedule which maintains isolation & consistency
A schedule is a list of actions
- Reading (R)
- Writing (W)
- Aborting (A)
- Committing (C)

A schedule represents actual or potential execution sequence.
Scheduling examples

Serial schedule $T_1, T_2$:

$T_1$: $A += 100$  $B -= 100$

$T_2$: $A *= 1.06$  $B *= 1.06$

Interleaved schedule $A$:

$T_1$: $A += 100$  $B -= 100$

$T_2$: $A *= 1.06$  $B *= 1.06$

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Same result!
Scheduling examples

Serial schedule $T_1, T_2$:

$T_1$  
A += 100  B -= 100

$T_2$  
A *= 1.06  B *= 1.06

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Different result than serial $T_1, T_2$!

Interleaved schedule $B$:

$T_1$  
A += 100  B -= 100

$T_2$  
A *= 1.06  B *= 1.06

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Scheduling examples

Serial schedule $T_2,T_1$:  

$T_1$  
A += 100  B -= 100  

$T_2$  
A *= 1.06  B *= 1.06

Interleaved schedule B:  

$T_1$  
A += 100  B -= 100  

$T_2$  
A *= 1.06  B *= 1.06

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Different result than serial $T_2,T_1$ ALSO!
Scheduling examples

*Interleaved* schedule B:

\[
\begin{align*}
T_1 & : & A & += 100 & & B & -= 100 \\
T_2 & : & A & *= 1.06 & & B & *= 1.06 \\
\end{align*}
\]

This schedule is different than *any* serial order! We say that it is *not* serializable.
• A serial schedule is one that does not interleave the actions of different transactions

• A and B are equivalent schedules if, for any database state, the effect on DB of executing A is identical to the effect of executing B

• A serializable schedule is a schedule that is equivalent to any serial execution of the transactions.

The word “any” makes this definition powerful & tricky!
Order of Execution

• Executing transactions in different order may produce different results
  – But all are presumed to be acceptable.
  – DBMS makes no guarantees about which of them will be the outcome of an interleaved execution.

Serial schedule $T_1, T_2$:

$T_1$: A += 100, B -= 100

$T_2$: A *= 1.06, B *= 1.06

Serial schedule $T_2, T_1$:

$T_1$: A += 100, B -= 100

$T_2$: A *= 1.06, B *= 1.06

Starting Balance

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Serializable?

Serial schedules:

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<td>$T_1, T_2$</td>
<td>1.06*(A+100)</td>
<td>1.06*(B-100)</td>
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<td>$T_2, T_1$</td>
<td>1.06*A + 100</td>
<td>1.06*B - 100</td>
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Same as a serial schedule \textit{for all possible values of} $A, B$ = serializable
Serializable?

 Serializable?

\[
A += 100
\]
\[
B -= 100
\]
\[
A *= 1.06
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\[
B *= 1.06
\]

Serial schedules:

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<td>T_1, T_2</td>
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<tr>
<td>T_2, T_1</td>
<td>1.06*A + 100</td>
<td>1.06*B - 100</td>
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Not equivalent to any serializable schedule = not serializable
What else can go wrong with interleaving?

• Various anomalies which break isolation / serializability
  – Often referred to by name...

  conflicts

• Occur because of / with certain “conflicts” between interleaved TXNs
The DBMS’s view of the schedule

Each action in the TXNs reads a value from global memory and then writes one back to it.

Scheduling order matters!
Conflict Types

Two actions **conflict** if they are part of different TXNs, involve the same variable/object, and at least one of them is a write.

- Thus, there are three types of conflicts:
  - Read-Write conflicts (RW)
  - Write-Read conflicts (WR)
  - Write-Write conflicts (WW)

**Why no “RR Conflict”?**

Interleaving anomalies occur with / because of these conflicts between TXNs *(but these conflicts can occur without causing anomalies!)*
“Unrepeatable read”:

Example:

1. $T_1$ reads some data from $A$
2. $T_2$ writes to $A$
3. Then, $T_1$ reads from $A$ again and now gets a different / inconsistent value

Occurring with / because of a RW conflict

Possible issue: Error due to integrity constraint
Unrepeatable Read (RW Conflicts)

• A unrepeatable read manifests when consecutive reads yield different results due to a concurring transaction that has just updated the record we’re reading.

• This is undesirable since we end up using stale data.

• This is prevented by holding a shared lock (read lock) on the read record for the whole duration of the current transaction.
“Dirty read” / Reading uncommitted data:

Example:

1. $T_1$ writes some data to $A$
2. $T_2$ reads from $A$, then writes back to $A$ & commits
3. $T_1$ then aborts - now $T_2$’s result is based on an obsolete / inconsistent value

**Occurring with / because of a WR conflict**

**Problem:** The value of $A$ written by $T1$ is read by $T2$ before $T1$ has completed all its changes.
Dirty Read (Reading Uncommitted Data) (WR Conflicts)

- A dirty read happens when a transaction is allowed to read uncommitted changes of some other running transaction.
- This happens because there is no locking preventing it.
- In the picture, you can see that the second transaction uses an inconsistent value as the first transaction is aborted.
Partially-lost update:

Example:

1. $T_1$ \textit{blind} writes some data to $A$

2. $T_2$ \textit{blind} writes to $A$ and $B$

3. $T_1$ then \textit{blind} writes to $B$; now we have $T_2$’s value for $A$ and $T_1$’s value for $B$ - not equivalent to any serial schedule!

Occurring because of a \textit{WW conflict}

Problem: $T_1$’s update ($W(A)$) is lost. $T_2$’s update ($W(B)$) is lost
Unrecoverable Schedule

1. $T_1$ reads and writes data to A
2. $T_2$ reads and writes data to A
3. $T_2$ commits
4. $T_1$ aborts.

In a recoverable schedule, transactions commit only after all transactions whose changes they read commit.
2. CONFLICT SERIALIZABILITY, LOCKING & DEADLOCK
What you will learn about in this section

1. RECAP: Concurrency
2. Conflict Serializability
3. DAGs & Topological Orderings
4. Strict 2PL
5. Deadlocks
Recall: Concurrency as Interleaving TXNs

For our purposes, having TXNs occur concurrently means interleaving their component actions (R/W).

We call the particular order of interleaving a schedule.
Recall: “Good” vs. “bad” schedules

We want to develop ways of discerning “good” vs. “bad” schedules
Ways of Defining “Good” vs. “Bad” Schedules

• Recall from last time: we call a schedule **serializable** if it is equivalent to *some* serial schedule

  – We used this as a notion of a “good” interleaved schedule, since a **serializable schedule will maintain isolation & consistency**

• Now, we’ll define a stricter, but very useful variant:

  – **Conflict serializability**

  We’ll need to define *conflicts* first..
Two actions **conflict** if they are part of different TXNs, involve the same variable, and at least one of them is a write.
Two actions \textit{conflict} if they are part of different TXNs, involve the same variable, and at least one of them is a write.

All “conflicts”!
• Two schedules are **conflict equivalent** if:
  
  – They involve *the same actions of the same TXNs*
  
  – Every *pair of conflicting actions* of two TXNs are *ordered in the same way*

• Schedule S is **conflict serializable** if S is *conflict equivalent* to some serial schedule

**Conflict serializable ⇒ serializable**
So if we have conflict serializable, we have consistency & isolation!
Conflict serializable

T₁: R(A) W(A)  R(B) W(B)
T₂: R(A) W(A)  R(B) W(B)

T₁: R(A) W(A)  R(B) W(B)
T₂: R(A) W(A)  R(B) W(B)

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Not Conflict serializable

T<sub>1</sub>  R(A)  W(A)  R(B)  W(B)

T<sub>2</sub>  R(A)  W(A)  R(B)  W(B)

T<sub>1</sub>  R(A)  W(A)  R(B)  W(B)

T<sub>2</sub>  R(A)  W(A)  R(B)  W(B)
Example of Serializable Schedule that is not Conflict Serializable

T₁  R(A)  W(A)  W(A)  W(A)  W(A)  Serializable

T₂  W(A)  W(A)  W(A)

T₃  W(A)  W(A)  W(A)

But Not Conflict Serializable
Recall: “Good” vs. “bad” schedules

Serial Schedule:

Interleaved Schedules:

Note that in the “bad” schedule, the order of conflicting actions is different than the above (or any) serial schedule!

Conflict serializability also provides us with an operative notion of “good” vs. “bad” schedules!
Note: Conflicts vs. Anomalies

- **Conflicts** are things we talk about to help us characterize different schedules
  - Present in both “good” and “bad” schedules

- **Anomalies** are instances where isolation and/or consistency is broken because of a “bad” schedule
  - We often characterize different anomaly types by what types of conflicts predicated them
• Let’s now consider looking at conflicts at the TXN level

• Consider a graph where the nodes are TXNs, and there is an edge from $T_i \rightarrow T_j$ if any actions in $T_i$ precede and conflict with any actions in $T_j$
What can we say about “good” vs. “bad” conflict graphs?

Serial Schedule:

Interleaved Schedules:

A bit complicated...
What can we say about “good” vs. “bad” conflict graphs?

**Serial Schedule:**

T₁ → T₂

**Interleaved Schedules:**

T₁ → T₂

T₁ ← T₂

Simple!

**Theorem:** Schedule is conflict serializable if and only if its conflict graph is acyclic.

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Let’s unpack this notion of acyclic conflict graphs...
DAGs & Topological Orderings

• A **topological ordering** of a directed graph is a linear ordering of its vertices that respects all the directed edges

• A directed **acyclic** graph (DAG) always has one or more **topological orderings**
  – (And there exists a topological ordering *if and only if* there are no directed cycles)
• Ex: What is one possible topological ordering here?

Ex: 0, 1, 2, 3 (or: 0, 1, 3, 2)
DAGs & Topological Orderings

- Ex: What is one possible topological ordering here?

There is none!
Connection to conflict serializability

• In the conflict graph, a topological ordering of nodes corresponds to a serial ordering of TXNs

• Thus an acyclic conflict graph $\rightarrow$ conflict serializable!

Theorem: Schedule is conflict serializable if and only if its conflict graph is acyclic
How to deal with concurrency

Locking
Strict Two-Phase Locking

• We consider locking—specifically, strict two-phase locking—as a way to deal with concurrency, because it guarantees conflict serializability (if it completes—see upcoming...)

• Also (conceptually) straightforward to implement, and transparent to the user!
Strict Two-phase Locking (Strict 2PL) Protocol:

• Rule 1:
  – If a transaction T wants to:
    • Read an object, it obtains a shared (S) lock on the object
    • Write an object, it obtains an exclusive (X) lock on the object

• Rule 2:
  – All locks held by a transaction are released when transaction is completed.

If a TXN holds a lock S, no other TXN can get a lock X on that object.

If a TXN holds a lock X, no other TXN can get a lock (S or X) on that object.
Theorem: Strict 2PL allows only schedules whose dependency graph is acyclic.

Proof Intuition: In strict 2PL, if there is an edge $T_i \rightarrow T_j$ (i.e. $T_i$ and $T_j$ conflict) then $T_j$ needs to wait until $T_i$ is finished – so cannot have an edge $T_j \rightarrow T_i$.

Therefore, Strict 2PL only allows conflict serializable $\Rightarrow$ serializable schedules.
Strict 2PL

- If a schedule follows strict 2PL and locking, it is conflict serializable...
  - ...and thus serializable
  - ...and thus maintains isolation & consistency!

- Not all serializable schedules are allowed by strict 2PL.

- So let’s use strict 2PL, what could go wrong?
DEADLOCK
First, $T_1$ requests a shared lock on $A$ to read from it
Deadlock Detection: Example

Next, $T_2$ requests a shared lock on $B$ to read from it
T_2 then requests an exclusive lock on A to write to it- now T_2 is waiting on T_1...
Finally, $T_1$ requests an exclusive lock on $B$ to write to it—now $T_1$ is waiting on $T_2$...
DEADLOCK!
Performance of Locking

• Resolve conflicts between transactions and use two basic mechanisms:
  – Blocking
  – Aborting

• Both incurs performance penalty.
  – Blocking (Other transactions need to wait)
  – Aborting (Wastes the work done thus far)

• Deadlock:
  – Extreme instance of blocking
  – A set of transactions are forever blocked unless one of the deadlocked transactions is aborted by the DBMS
• **Deadlock**: Cycle of transactions waiting for locks to be released by each other.

• Two ways of dealing with deadlocks:
  1. Deadlock prevention
  2. Deadlock avoidance
Deadlock Prevention

• Use timestamp ordering mechanism of transactions in order to predetermine a deadlock situation.

• Wait-Die Scheme
• Wound-Wait Scheme
Each transaction is assigned a *unique* increasing timestamp

*Earlier transactions* receive a *smaller* timestamp

$T_1$ (old), $T_2$, $T_3$ (new), ...

Notation: Old Transaction $T_{\text{old}}$ New Transaction $T_{\text{new}}$
$T_{old}$ is allowed to \textit{wait} for $T_{new}$.

$T_{new}$ will \textit{die} when it waits for $T_{old}$.
\( T_{old} \) will wound \( T_{new} \)

\( T_{new} \) waits for \( T_{old} \)
Deadlock Avoidance

- Waits-for graph:
  - For each transaction entering into the system, a node is created.
  - When a transaction $T_i$ requests for a lock on an item, say $X$, which is held by some other transaction $T_j$, a directed edge is created from $T_i$ to $T_j$.
  - If $T_j$ releases item $X$, the edge between them is dropped and $T_i$ locks the data item.

- The system maintains this wait-for graph for every transaction waiting for some data items held by others. The system keeps checking if there's any cycle in the graph.
Here, we can use any of the two following approaches –

• First, do not allow any request for an item, which is already locked by another transaction.
  – This is not always feasible and may cause starvation, where a transaction indefinitely waits for a data item and can never acquire it.

• The second option is to rollback one of the transactions.
  – It is not always feasible to roll back the younger transaction, as it may be important than the older one.
  – With the help of some relative algorithm, a transaction is chosen, which is to be aborted.
  – This transaction is known as the **victim** and the process is known as **victim selection**.
Acknowledgement

• Some of the slides in this presentation are taken from the slides provided by the authors.

• Many of these slides are taken from cs145 course offered by Stanford University.

• https://vladmihalcea.com/2014/01/05/a-beginners-guide-to-acid-and-database-transactions/