Transactions and Recovery
Transactions and Recovery

DBMSs offer two important concepts:

1. transaction support
   - a sequence of operations is combined into one compound operation
   - transactions can be execution concurrently with well defined semantics

2. recovery
   - the machine/DBMS/user code can crash at an arbitrary point in time, errors can occur, etc.
   - the recovery component ensures that no (committed) data is lost, instance is consistent

Implementation of both is intermingled, therefore we consider them together.
Why Transactions?

Transfer money from account A to account B

- read the account balance of A into the variable $a$: \texttt{read}(A,a);
- reduce the balance by EURO 50,–: $a := a - 50$;
- write back the new account balance: \texttt{write}(A,a);
- read the account balance of B into the variable $b$: \texttt{read}(B,b);
- increase the balance by EURO 50,–: $b := b + 50$;
- write back the new account balance: \texttt{write}(B,b);

Many issues here: crashes, correctness, concurrency, ...
Operations

• **begin of transaction (BOT):**
  ▶ marks the begin of transaction
  ▶ in SQL: `begin transaction`
  ▶ often implicit

• **commit:**
  ▶ terminates a successful transaction
  ▶ in SQL: `commit [transaction]`
  ▶ all changes are permanent now

• **abort:**
  ▶ terminates an unsuccessful transaction
  ▶ in SQL: `rollback [transaction]`
  ▶ undoes all changes performed by the transaction
  ▶ might be triggered externally

All transactions either commit or abort.
ACID

Transactions should offer ACID properties:

- **Atomicity**
  - the operations are either executed completely or not at all
- **Consistency**
  - a transaction brings a database instance from one consistent state into another one
- **Isolation**
  - currently running transactions are not aware of each other
- **Durability**
  - once a transaction commits successfully, its changes are never lost
Transactions and Recovery

The concept of *recovery* is related to the *transaction* concept:

- the DBMS must handle a crash at an arbitrary point in time
- first, the DBMS data structures must survive this
- second, transaction guarantees must still hold
- Atomicity
  - in-flight transactions must be rolled back at restart
- Consistency
  - consistency guarantees must still hold
- Durability
  - committed transactions must not be lost, even though data might still be in transient memory

Sometimes the dependency is mutual

- Isolation
  - some DBMS use the recovery component for transaction isolation
Technical Aspects

The logical concept *transactions* and *recovery* can be seen under (largely orthogonal) technical aspects:

- concurrency control
- logging

As we will see, both are relevant for both logical concepts.
Multi User Synchronization

- executing transactions (TA) serialized is safe, but slow
- transactions are frequently delayed (wait for disk, user input, ...)
- in serial execution, would block all other TAs
- concurrent execution is desirable for performance reasons

But: simple concurrent execution causes a number of problems.
Lost Update

The result of transaction $T_1$ is lost.

\[
\begin{array}{c|c}
T_1 & T_2 \\
\hline
\text{bot} & \text{bot} \\
r_1(x) & r_2(x) \\
\text{commit} & \text{commit} \\
\end{array}
\]

\[
\begin{array}{c}
\rightarrow \\
\leftrightarrow \\
\leftrightarrow \\
\leftrightarrow \\
\end{array}
\]
Dirty Read

\[
\begin{array}{c|c}
T_1 & T_2 \\
\hline
\text{bot} & \text{bot} \\
\text{博} & r_2(x) \\
& w_2(x) \\
r_1(x) & \leftarrow \\
w_1(y) & \leftarrow \\
\text{commit} & \\
\text{博} & \text{abort}
\end{array}
\]

\(T_1\) reads an invalid value \(x\).
Non-Repeatable Read

\[ \begin{array}{c|c}
T_1 & T_2 \\
\hline
\text{bot} & \text{bot} \\
\text{\(r_1(x)\)} & \text{\(w_2(x)\)} \\
\leftrightarrow & \text{commit} \\
\hline
\end{array} \]

\[ r_1(x) \leftrightarrow \]
\[ \ldots \]

\(T_1\) reads the value \(x\) twice, with different results.
Phantom Problem

\[
\begin{array}{c}
T_1 \\
bot \\
select \text{count}(*) \\
from R; \\
\rightarrow \\
\end{array}
\quad
\begin{array}{c}
T_2 \\
\bot \\
insert \text{into} R \ldots; \\
\text{commit} \\
\leftarrow \\
\end{array}
\]

\[\text{select \text{count}(*)} \\
\text{from} R; \\
\ldots\]

\[T_1 \text{ sees a new tuple during hit second access.}\]
Serial Execution

These problems vanish with *serial* execution

- a transaction always controls the whole DBMS
- no conflicts possible
- but poor performance

Instead: execute transaction as if they were serial

- if they behave as if they were serial they cause no problems
- concept is called *serializable*
- requires some careful bookkeeping
Formal Definition of a Transaction

- Possible operations of a TA $T_i$
  - $r_i(A)$: read the data item $A$
  - $w_i(A)$: write the data item $A$
  - $a_i$: abort
  - $c_i$: commit successfully

- $bot$: begin of transaction (implicit)
Formal Definition of a Transaction (2)

- A TA $T_i$ is a partial order of operations with the order relation $<_i$ such that
  
  - $T_i \subseteq \{r_i[x], w_i[x] \mid x \text{ is a data item}\} \cup \{a_i, c_i\}$
  - $a_i \in T_i$, iff $c_i \notin T_i$
  - Let $t$ be $a_i$ or $c_i$. Then for all other operations $p_i$: $p_i <_i t_i$
  - If $r_i[x] \in T_i$ and $w_i[x] \in T_i$, then either $r_i[x] <_i w_i[x]$ or $w_i[x] <_i r_i[x]$
Example

- transactions are often drawn as directed acyclic graphs (DAGs)

\[
\begin{array}{c}
 r_2[x] \\
 \downarrow \\
 w_2[z] \\
 \downarrow \\
 c_2 \\
 \end{array}
\]

- \( r_2[x] <_2 w_2[z] \), \( w_2[z] <_2 c_2 \), \( r_2[x] <_2 c_2 \), \( r_2[y] <_2 w_2[z] \), \( r_2[y] <_2 c_2 \)
- transitive relationships are contained implicitly
Schedules

- multiple transactions can be executed concurrently
- this is captured by a schedule
- a schedule orders the operations of the TAs relative to each other
- due to the concurrent execution of operations the schedule defines only partial ordering
Conflicting Operations

- operations that are conflicting must not be executed in parallel
- two operations are in conflict if both operate on the same data item and at least one of the two is a write operation

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>$T_j$</th>
<th>$r_i[x]$</th>
<th>$w_i[x]$</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>$T_i$</td>
<td>$r_j[x]$</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>$w_j[x]$</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

$T_i$ and $T_j$ are in conflict if $r_i[x]$ and $w_i[x]$ are both in the same row, with $w_j[x]$ satisfying $w_j[x] = \neg (w_i[x] \land r_j[x])$. The operations $r_i[x]$ and $w_i[x]$ are write operations, and $r_j[x]$ is a read operation.
Definition of a Schedule

- Let $T = \{T_1, T_2, \ldots, T_n\}$ be a set of transactions.
- A schedule $H$ over $T$ is a partial order with order relation $\prec_H$, such that:
  - $H = \bigcup_{i=1}^{n} T_i$
  - $\prec_H \supseteq \bigcup_{i=1}^{n} \prec_i$
  - For all conflicting operations $p, q \in H$ the following holds: either $p \prec_H q$ or $q \prec_H p$
Example

\[ H = \begin{array}{c c c c c c}
\uparrow & r_3[y] & \rightarrow & w_3[x] & \rightarrow & w_3[y] & \rightarrow & w_3[z] & \rightarrow & c_3 \\
\uparrow & r_2[x] & \rightarrow & w_2[y] & \rightarrow & w_2[z] & \rightarrow & c_2 \\
\uparrow & r_1[x] & \rightarrow & w_1[x] & \rightarrow & & & c_1 \\
\end{array} \]
(Conflict-)Equivalence

- The schedules $H$ and $H'$ are (conflict-)equivalent ($H \equiv H'$), if:
  - both contain the same set of TAs (including the corresponding operations)
  - both order conflicting operations of non-aborted TAs in the same way
- the general idea is that executing conflicting operations in the same order will produce the same result
Example

\[ r_1[x] \rightarrow w_1[y] \rightarrow r_2[z] \rightarrow c_1 \rightarrow w_2[y] \rightarrow c_2 \]

\[ \equiv \]

\[ r_1[x] \rightarrow r_2[z] \rightarrow w_1[y] \rightarrow c_1 \rightarrow w_2[y] \rightarrow c_2 \]

\[ \equiv \]

\[ r_2[z] \rightarrow r_1[x] \rightarrow w_1[y] \rightarrow w_2[y] \rightarrow c_2 \rightarrow c_1 \]

\[ \not\equiv \]

\[ r_2[z] \rightarrow r_1[x] \rightarrow w_2[y] \rightarrow w_1[y] \rightarrow c_2 \rightarrow c_1 \]
Serializability

- serial schedules are safe, therefore we are interested in schedules with similar properties
- in particular we want schedules that are equivalent to a serial schedule
- such schedules are called *serializable*
Serializability (2)

- Definition
  - The committed projections $C(H)$ of a schedule $H$ contains only the committed TAs
  - A schedule $H$ is serializable, if $\exists H_s$ such that $H_s$ is serial and $C(H) \equiv H_s$. 
Serializability (3)

- How to check for serializability?
- A schedule $H$ is serializable if and only if the serializability graph $SG(H)$ is acyclic.
Serializability Graph

- The serializability graph $SG(H)$ of a schedule $H = \{T_1, \ldots, T_n\}$ is a directed graph with the following properties:
  - the nodes are formed by the committed transactions from $H$
  - two TAs $T_i$ and $T_j$ are connected by an edge from $T_i$ to $T_j$ if there exist two operations $p_i \in T_i$, $q_j \in T_j$ such that $p_i$ and $q_j$ are in conflict and $p_i <_H q_j$. 
Example

• Schedule $H$

$$H = w_1[x] \rightarrow w_1[y] \rightarrow c_1 \rightarrow r_2[x] \rightarrow r_3[y] \rightarrow w_2[x] \rightarrow c_2 \rightarrow w_3[y] \rightarrow c_3$$

• $SG(H)$

$$SG(H) = \begin{array}{c}
T_2 \\
\uparrow \\
T_1 \\
\downarrow \\
T_3
\end{array}$$
Example (2)

- $H$ is serializable
- equivalent serial schedules

\[
H_s^1 = T_1 \mid T_2 \mid T_3
\]
\[
H_s^2 = T_1 \mid T_3 \mid T_2
\]

$H \equiv H_s^1 \equiv H_s^2$
Example (3)

\[
\begin{align*}
r_1[x] & \rightarrow w_1[x] \rightarrow w_1[y] \rightarrow c_1 \\
H = & \quad \checkmark \quad r_2[x] \rightarrow w_2[y] \rightarrow c_2 \\
r_3[x] & \rightarrow w_3[x] \rightarrow c_3
\end{align*}
\]

\[
SG(H) = T_2
\]

\[
T_3
\]

\[
T_1
\]
Example (4)

- $H$ is serializable
- equivalent serial schedules

\[ H_s^1 = T_2 \mid T_1 \mid T_3 \]
\[ H \equiv H_s^1 \]
Example (5)

\[ H = \]
\[ \begin{align*}
    w_1[x] & \rightarrow w_1[y] \rightarrow c_1 \\
    r_2[x] & \rightarrow w_2[y] \rightarrow c_2
\end{align*} \]

\[ SG(H) = T_1 \iff T_2 \]

- \( H \) is not serializable
Additional Properties of a Schedule

- Besides serializability, other properties are desirable, too:
  - recoverability
  - avoiding cascading aborts: ACA
  - strictness

Recoverability is required for correctness, the others are more nice to have (but are crucial for some implementations).
Additional Properties of a Schedule (2)

- Before looking at more properties, we define the reads-from relationship
- A TA $T_i$ read (data item $x$) from TA $T_j$, if
  - $w_j[x] < r_i[x]$
  - $a_j \neq r_i[x]$
  - if $\exists w_k[x]$ such that $w_j[x] < w_k[x] < r_i[x]$, then $a_k < r_i[x]$
- a TA can read from itself
Recoverability

- A schedule is *recoverable*, if
  - Whenever TA $T_i$ reads from another TA $T_j$ ($i \neq j$) and $c_i \in H$, then $c_j < c_i$
- the TAs must adhere to a certain commit order
- non-recoverable schedules may cause problems with C and/or D of the ACID properties
Recoverability (2)

\[ H = w_1[x] \ r_2[x] \ w_2[y] \ c_2 \ a_1 \]

- \( H \) is not recoverable
- this has some unfortunate consequences:
  - if we keep the updates from \( T_2 \) then the data is inconsistent (\( T_2 \) has read data from an aborted transaction)
  - if we undo \( T_2 \), the we change committed data
## Cascading Aborts

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>step</th>
<th>$T_1$</th>
<th>$T_2$</th>
<th>$T_3$</th>
<th>$T_4$</th>
<th>$T_5$</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>0.</td>
<td>...</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td>$w_1[x]$</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td></td>
<td>$r_2[x]$</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.</td>
<td></td>
<td>$w_2[y]$</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>$r_3[y]$</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>$w_3[z]$</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>$r_4[z]$</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>$w_4[v]$</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>$r_5[v]$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9.</td>
<td>$a_1$ (abort)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Cascading Aborts (2)

- A schedule avoids cascading aborts, if the following holds
  - whenever a TA $T_i$ reads from another TA $T_j$ ($i \neq j$), then $c_j < r_i[x]$
- We must only read from transactions that have committed already.
Strictness

- A schedule is *strict*, if the following holds
  - for any two operations $w_j[x] < o_i[x]$ (with $o_i[x] = r_i[x]$ or $w_i[x]$) either $a_j < o_i[x]$ or $c_j < o_i[x]$.
- We must only read from committed transactions, and only overwrite changes made by committed transactions.
Strictness (2)

- Only strict schedules allow for physical logging during recovery

\[
\begin{align*}
x &= 0 \\
w_1[x, 1] \text{ before image of } T_1: 0 \\
x &= 1 \\
w_2[x, 2] \text{ before image of } T_2: 1 \\
x &= 2 \\
a_1 \\
c_2
\end{align*}
\]

When aborting \( T_1 \) \( x \) would incorrectly be set to 0.
Classification of Schedules

SR: serializable, RC: recoverable, ACA: avoids cascading aborts, ST: strict
Scheduler

- the scheduler orders incoming operations such that the resulting schedule is serializable and recoverable.

- options:
  - execute (immediately)
  - reject
  - delay

- two main classes of strategies:
  - pessimistic
  - optimistic
Pessimistic Scheduler

- scheduler delays incoming operations
- for concurrent operations, the scheduler picks a safe execution order
- most prominent example: lock-based scheduler (very common)
Optimistic Scheduler

- scheduler executes incoming operations as quickly as possible
- might have to rollback later
- most prominent example: time-stamp based scheduler
Lock-based Scheduling

- The main idea is simple:
  - each data item has an associated lock
  - before a TA $T_i$ accesses a data item, it must acquire the associated lock
  - if another TA $T_j$ holds the lock, $T_i$ has to wait until $T_j$ releases the lock
  - only one TA may hold a lock (and access the corresponding data item)

- how to guarantee serializability?
Two-Phase Locking

• Abbreviated as 2PL
• Two lock modes:
  ▶ $S$ (shared, read lock)
  ▶ $X$ (exclusive, write lock)
  ▶ compatibility matrix:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>acquired lock</th>
<th>none</th>
<th>$S$</th>
<th>$X$</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>$S$</td>
<td>√</td>
<td>√</td>
<td>–</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$X$</td>
<td>√</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>–</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Definition

- before accessing a data item a TA must acquire the corresponding lock
- a TA must not request a lock that it already holds
- if a lock cannot be granted immediately, the TA is put into a wait queue
- a TA must not acquire new locks once it has released a lock (two phases)
- at commit (or abort) all held locks must be released
Two Phases

- growing phase: locks are acquired, but not released
- shrinking phase: locks are released, but not acquired
# Concurrency with 2PL

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Schritt</th>
<th>$T_1$</th>
<th>$T_2$</th>
<th>remarks</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td>BOT</td>
<td>BOT</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td>lockX[x]</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.</td>
<td>r[x]</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.</td>
<td>w[x]</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.</td>
<td></td>
<td>lockS[x]</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>$T_2$ has to wait</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7.</td>
<td>lockX[y]</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8.</td>
<td>r[y]</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9.</td>
<td>unlockX[x]</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>$T_2$ wakes up</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11.</td>
<td></td>
<td>lockS[y]</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>$T_2$ has to wait</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13.</td>
<td>w[y]</td>
<td></td>
<td>$T_2$ wakes up</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14.</td>
<td>unlockX[y]</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16.</td>
<td>commit</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17.</td>
<td>unlockS[x]</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18.</td>
<td>unlockS[y]</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>commit</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Strict 2PL

- 2PL does not avoid cascading aborts
- extension to *strict* 2PL:
  - all locks must be held until the end of transaction
  - avoids cascading aborts (the schedule is even strict)
Strict 2PL (2)
Lock Manager

locks are typically organized in a hash table
Lock Manager (2)

Traditional architecture:

- one mutex per lock chain
- within the lock, separate locking/waiting mechanism
- syncing chain mutex/lock latch needs some care to maximize concurrency
- lock includes ownership and lock mode information

Separate per-transaction chaining

- needed for EOT
- no latching required
- but: can only be embedded easily for exclusive locks
- in general: keep the list external
Lock Manager (3)

One problem: EOT

- all locks have to be released
- lock list is available
- but puts a lot of stress on the lock manager
- chains may be scanned and locked repeatedly
- one option: lazy removal of lock entries
- allows for EOT without locking the chains
Reducing the Lock Size

Locks a relatively expensive

- typically 64-256 bytes per lock
- thousands, potentially millions of locks
- space utilization becomes a problem
- commercial DBMS limit the amounts of locks

One solution: use less locks

- space/granularity trade-off
- leads to MGL (as we will see)
- may cause unnecessary aborts

Other option: reduce the size of locks
Reducing the Lock Size (2)

- standard locks contain a wait mechanism
- but when we use strict 2PL, we wait for transactions anyway
- it is sufficient to contain the owner in the lock
- we always wait for the owner
- shared locks are a bit problematic (requires some effort)

| 64 bit key | 32 bit owner | 32 bit status |

- status include lock mode, pending writes, etc.
- concurrently held require some care (linked list, spurious wakeups, etc.)
- but that is fine if the lists are short
Deadlocks

- Example:

\[
\begin{align*}
&T_1 & T_2 \\
&\text{bot} & \text{bot} \\
&\text{lockX}_1(a) & \text{lockS}_2(b) \\
&w_1(a) & r_2(b) \\
&\text{lockX}_1(b) & \text{lockS}_2(a)
\end{align*}
\]
**Deadlock Detection**

- no TA should have to wait “forever”
- one strategy to avoid deadlocks are time-outs
  - finding the right time-out is difficult
- a precise method analyzes the waits-for graph
  - TAs form node, edges are induced by waits-for relations
  - if the graph is cyclic we have a deadlock
Waits-for graph

- Example

- the waits-for graph is cyclic, i.e., we have a deadlock
- we can break the cycle by aborting $T_2$ or $T_3$
Implementing Deadlock Detection

- timeouts are simple, fast, and crude
- cycle detection is precise but expensive

One alternative: use a hybrid approach

- use a short timeout
- after the timeout triggered, start the graph analysis
- build the wait-for graph on demand

Keeps the common case fast, deadlock detection is only slightly delayed.
Online Cycle Detection

How to find cycles in a directed graph?

- simple solution: depth-first-search and mark
- we have a cycle if we meet a marked node
- problem: $O(n + m)$
- executed at every check

Better: use an online algorithm

- remembers information from last checks
- only re-computes if needed

Observation: a graph is acyclic if and only if there exists a topological ordering.
Online Cycle Detection (2)

- we start with an arbitrary topological ordering $<_T$
- when trying to add a restriction $B < A$, we perform a check

```java
if B <_T A
    return true

marker[B] = 2

if ¬ dfs(A, B)
    for each $V \in [A, B]$
        marker[V] = 0

    return false

shift(A, B)
```

- dynamically updates the ordering
Online Cycle Detection (3)


dsf($N$, $L$)
    marker[$N$]=1
    for each $V$ outgoing from $N$
        if $V \leq_T L$
            if marker[$V$]=2
                return false
            if marker[$V$]=0
                if $\neg$ dsf($V$, $L$)
                    return false
    return true
Online Cycle Detection (4)

Update the ordering

\[ \text{shift}(B, A) \]
\[ \text{marker}[B] = 0 \]
\[ \text{shift} = 0 \]
\[ L = <> \]

\textbf{for each } V \in [A, B] \textbf{ do}
  \begin{align*}
  &\text{if } \text{marker}[V] > 0 \\
  &\quad L = L \circ < V > \\
  &\quad \text{shift} = \text{shift} + 1 \\
  &\quad \text{marker}[V] = 0 \\
  &\text{else} \\
  &\quad \text{move } V \text{ shift steps to the left} \\
  &\quad \text{place the entries in } L \text{ at } B - \text{shift}
  \end{align*}
Multi-Granularity Locking

- (strict) 2PL solves the mentioned isolation problems, except the phantom problem
- the phantom-problem cannot be solved by standard locks, as we cannot lock something that does not exist
- we can solve this by using hierarchical locks (multi-granularity locking: MGL)
MGL

Database

Segments

Pages

Records
Additional Lock Modes for MGL

- \textit{S} (shared): read only
- \textit{X} (exclusive): read/write
- \textit{IS} (intention share): intended reads further down
- \textit{IX} (intention exclusive): intended writes further down the hierarchy
## Compatibility Matrix

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>requested</th>
<th>current lock</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>none</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>S</strong></td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>X</strong></td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>IS</strong></td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>IX</strong></td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
**Protocol**

- Locks are acquired top-down
  - for a S or IS lock all ancestors must be locked in IS or IX mode
  - for a X or IX lock all ancestors must be locked in IX mode
- locks are released bottom-up (i.e., only if no locks on descendants remain)
Example

Database

Segments

Pages

Records

(T₁, IX)  (T₂, IS)  (T₃, IX)
D

(T₁, IX)  (T₂, IS)
a₁

(T₂, S)
(T₃, X)
a₂

(T₁, X)

(T₁, X)
p₁

(T₁, X)
p₂

(T₁, X)
p₃

s₁  s₂  s₃  s₄  s₅  s₆
Example (2)

Database

Segments

Pages

Records
Example (3)

- TAs $T_4$ and $T_5$ are blocked
- we have no deadlock here, but deadlocks are possible with MGL, too.
Using MGL for Lock Management

Another important use for MGL: lock management

- most DBMSs cannot cope with a huge number of locks
- usually an upper bound on the number of locks
- but MGL can reduce the load
- we can reduce the locks by locking higher hierarchy levels
- and then release the descendant locks
- allows for scaling the number of locks

But: can easily lead to deadlocks/aborted transactions.
Preventing Phantom Problems without MGL

Another way to prevent the phantom problem: add a lock for the “next” tuple

- adds a lock for the “next” pseudo-tuple
- non-PK scans lock this tuple shared
- insert operations lock it exclusive
- prevents phantoms

But: we may want concurrent inserts

- another lock mode just for inserts
- if the TA scans+inserts, we really want exclusive
- gets a bit tricky
- but can be solved
Timestamp Based Approaches

- timestamp based synchronization is an alternative to locking
- each TA is assigned a unique timestamp
- each operation of the TA is uses this timestamp

Assignment of timestamps varies (eager, lazy, ...), the simplest case is order by BOT.
Timestamps

- the scheduler uses the timestamps to order conflicting operations
  - assume that $p_i[x]$ and $q_j[x]$ are conflicting operations
  - $p_i[x]$ is executed before $q_j[x]$, iif the timestamp of $T_i$ is older than the timestamp of $T_j$
timestamps (2)

- the scheduler annotates each data item \( x \) with the timestamp of the last operations on \( x \)
- timestamps are stored separately for each type of operation \( q \): \( \text{max-q-scheduled}(x) \)
- when the scheduler tries to execute an operator \( p \), the timestamp of \( p \) is compared to all \( \text{max-q-scheduled}(x) \) that conflict with \( p \)
- if the timestamp of \( p \) is older than any \( \text{max-q-scheduled}(x) \) the operations is rejected (and the TA aborted)
- otherwise \( p \) is executed and \( \text{max-p-scheduled}(x) \) is updated
Commit Order

- using the basic timestamp approach might produce non-recoverable schedules
- we can guarantee recoverability by committing TAs in timestamp order
- the commit of a TA $T_i$ is delayed as long as transaction from which $T_i$ has read are still active.

Ideally, timestamps are given out in commit order
- hard to know beforehand
- one alternative: transaction reordering
Limitations

Timestamps are used only relatively rarely

- does not avoid the phantom problem
- aborts TAs if there is any indication of problems
- every read operation is implicitly a write (updating the timestamps)

But it also has some strength

- can synchronize an arbitrary number of items (unlike locks)
- easy to distribute/parallelize

Might become more attractive considering current hardware trends.
Snapshot Isolation

- the DBMS has to keep track of all updates performed by a TA
- needed to undo a TA
- this information is usually available even after a TA committed
- therefore the DBMS can (conceptually) remove the effect of any TA

This can be used to isolate transaction:
- at BOT, the TA is assigned a timepoint $T$
- all committed changes before are visible
- all changes after $T$ are removed from the data view
- conceptually produces a snapshot of the data
Snapshot Isolation (2)

How to implement SI?

- makes use of the transaction log
- every page contains the LSN
- indicates the last change
- pages with old LSN can be read safely
- for pages with newer LSN the log is checked to eliminate recent changes
Snapshot Isolation (3)

Snapshot isolation has some very nice properties:

- no need for read locks (which could be millions)
- read operations never wait
- serializability (but see below)

Limitations:

- only safe for read-only transactions!
- a read-write transaction must not use snapshot isolation if the schedule has to be serializable
- still, many systems use snapshot isolation even for r/w TAs
Recovery

• a DBMS must not lose any data in case of a system crash
• main mechanisms of recovery:
  ▶ database snapshots (backups)
  ▶ log files
Recovery (2)

- a *database snapshot* is a copy of the database at a certain point in time
- the *log file* is a protocol of all changes performed in the database instance
- obviously the main data, the database snapshots, and the log-files should not be kept on the same machine...
System Failure

The Classical Architecture
Transactions and Recovery

State 1

backup

Snapshot

restore

Log File
(lost)

\{T_i, T_j, T_k\}

rollforward

State 1

State 2

State 2

Log File

State 1

State 2

Roll forward
Main Memory Loss

- problem: some TAs in \( \{ T_j \} \) where still active, some committed already
- restart reconstructs state 2 + all changes by committed TAs in \( \{ T_j \} \)
Aborting a Transaction

- log files can also be used to undo the changes performed by an aborted TA
- the functionality is needed anyway (system crash)
- can be used for “normal” aborts, too

We now look more closely at the implementation.
Classification of Failures

- local failure within a non-committed transaction
  - effect of TA must undone
  - $R_1$ recovery
- failure with loss of main memory
  - all committed TAs must be preserved ($R_2$ recovery)
  - all non-committed TAs must be rolled back ($R_3$ recovery)
- failure with loss of external memory
  - $R_4$ recovery
Storage Hierarchy

DBMS Buffer

<p>| | | |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>A'</td>
<td>D</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C'</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

External Memory

PB
PA
PC

write
read

B
C
D
A'

P_B
P_A
P_C
Storage Hierarchy (2)

- Replacement strategies for buffer pages
  - \(\neg \text{steal} \): pages that have been modified by active transactions must not be replaced
  - \(\text{steal} \): any non-fixed pages can be replaced if new pages have to be read in
Storage Hierarchy (3)

• write strategies for committed TAs
  ▶ force strategy: changes are written to disk when a TA commits
  ▶ ¬force strategy: changed pages may remain in the buffer and are written back at some later point in time
### Effects on Recovery

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>force</th>
<th>¬force</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>¬steal</td>
<td>• no redo</td>
<td>• redo</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• no undo</td>
<td>• no undo</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>steal</td>
<td>• no redo</td>
<td>• redo</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• undo</td>
<td>• undo</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Update Strategies

- **Update in Place**
  - each page corresponds to one fixed position on disk
  - the old state is overwritten

- **Twin-block approach**

  \[
  \begin{array}{c|c|c|c|c|c|c|c}
  P^0_A & P^1_A & P^0_B & P^1_B & P^0_C & P^1_C & \cdots \\
  \end{array}
  \]

- **Shadow pages**
  - only changed pages are replicated
  - less redundancy than with the twin-block approach
System Configuration

In the following we assume a system with the following configuration

- steal
- ¬force
- update-in-place
- fine-grained locking
The ARIES protocol is a very popular recovery protocol for DBMSs. The log file contains:

- Redo Information: contains all information necessary to re-apply changes
- Undo Information: contains all information necessary to undo changes
Writing the Log

- The log information stored written two times
  - log file for fast access: R1, R2, and R3 recovery
  - log archive: R4 recovery
Writing the Log (2)

- organization of the log ring-buffer:
Writing the Log (3)

- **Write Ahead Log Principle**
  - before a transaction is *committed*, all corresponding log entries must have been written to disk
  - before a modified page is written back to disk, all log entries involving this page must have been written to disk

- this is called *forcing* the log

Required for Durability.
Writing the Log (4)

Some care is needed when writing the log to disk

- disks are not byte addressable
- larger chunks, usually 512 bytes
- remember, the system may crash at any time
- partial writes to the last block are dangerous
- might require additional padding when forcing the log
- related problem: partial page writes

Some of these issues can be solved by hardware.
Restart after Failure

- TAs like $T_1$ are *winner* transactions: they must be replayed completely.
- TAs like $T_2$ are *loser* transactions: they must be undone.
Restart Phases

- **Analysis:**
  - determine the *winner* set of transactions of type \( T_1 \)
  - determine the *loser* set of transactions of type \( T_2 \).

- **Repeating History:**
  - *all* operations contained in the log are applied to the database instance in the original order

- **Undo of Loser Transactions:**
  - the operations of *loser* transactions are undone in the database instance in reverse order
Restart Phases (2)

1. Analysis

2. Redo of all changes (Winner and Loser)

3. Undo of all changes from Loser transactions
Structure of Log Entries

[LSN, TA, PageID, Redo, Undo, PrevLSN]

- Redo:
  - physical logging: after image
  - logical logging: code that constructs the after image from the before image

- Undo:
  - physical logging: before image
  - logical logging: code that constructs the before image from the after image
Structure of Log Entries (2)

- **LSN (Log Sequence Number)**,
  - a unique number identifying a log entry
  - LSNs must grow monotonically
  - allows for determining the chronological order of log entries
  - typical choice: offset within log file (i.e., implicit)

- **TA**
  - transaction ID of the transaction that performed the change
Structure of Log Entries (3)

- *PageID*
  - the ID of the page where the update was performed
  - if a change affects multiple pages, multiple log records must be generated
- *PrevLSN,*
  - pointer to the previous log entry of the corresponding transactions
  - needed for performance reasons

Note: often there is a certain asymmetry: physical redo (one page), logical undo (multiple pages)
Example

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>$T_1$</th>
<th>$T_2$</th>
<th>Log</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>$\text{BOT}$</td>
<td>$\text{BOT}$</td>
<td>[#1, $T_1$, $\text{BOT}$, 0]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>$r(A, a_1)$</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>$a_1 := a_1 - 50$</td>
<td>$c_2 := c_2 + 100$</td>
<td>[#3, $T_1$, $P_A$, $A-=50$, $A+=50$, #1]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>$w(A, a_1)$</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>$r(B, b_1)$</td>
<td></td>
<td>[#4, $T_2$, $P_C$, $C+=100$, $C-=100$, #2]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>$b_1 := b_1 + 50$</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>$w(B, b_1)$</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>$r(A, a_1)$</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>$a_2 := a_2 - 100$</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>$w(A, a_2)$</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>$\text{commit}$</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The Phases - Analysis

- the log contains BOT, commit, and abort entries
- the log is scanned sequentially to identify all TAs
- when a *commit* is seen, the TA is a *winner*
- when a *abort* is seen, the TA is a *loser*
- TAs that neither commit nor abort are implicitly *loser*

Winner have to be preserved, loser have to be undone
The Phases - Redo

Redo brings the DB into a consistent state

- some changes might still be in main memory at the crash (force)
- changes can be incomplete (e.g., B-tree split)
- but the log contains everything

Redo is done by one forward pass

- all log entries contain the affected page
- the pages contain LSN entries
- if the LSN of the page is less than the LSN of the entry, the operation must be applied
- the LSN is updated afterwards!
- allows for identifying the current state

Afterwards the DB has a known state.
The Phases - Undo

Eliminates all changes by *loser* transactions.

- during analysis, DBMS remembers last LSN of each transaction
- transactions that aborted on their own can be ignored (no “last operation”, all undone)
- active TAs have to be rolled back

Log is read backwards

- lastLSN pointers are used for skipping
- all encountered operations are undone
- produces new log entries (redo the undo)
Idempotent Restart

\[ \text{undo(undo(\cdots(undo(a))\cdots))) = undo(a)} \]
\[ \text{redo(redo(\cdots(redo(a))\cdots))) = redo(a)} \]
Idempotent Restart (2)

- CLRs (compensating log records) for undone changes
- #7’ is a CLR for #7
- #4’ is a CLR for #4
Log Entries after Restart

[#1, $T_1$, BOT, 0]
[#2, $T_2$, BOT, 0]
[#3, $T_1$, $P_A$, $A-=50$, $A+=50$, #1]
[#4, $T_2$, $P_C$, $C+=100$, $C-=100$, #2]
[#5, $T_1$, $P_B$, $B+=50$, $B-=50$, #3]
[#6, $T_1$, commit, #5]
[#7, $T_2$, $P_A$, $A-=100$, $A+=100$, #4]
⟨#7′, $T_2$, $P_A$, $A+=100$, #7, #4⟩
⟨#4′, $T_2$, $P_C$, $C-=100$, #7′, #2⟩
⟨#2′, $T_2$, −, −, #4′, 0⟩

• CLRs are marked by ⟨…⟩
CLR

- a CLR is structured as follows
  - LSN
  - TA
  - PageID
  - Redo information
  - PrevLSN
  - UndoNxtLSN (pointer to the next operation to undo)
- no undo information (redo only)
- prevLSN/undoNxtLSN could be combined into one (prevLSN is not really needed)
Partial Rollback

- Steps 3 and 4 are rolled back
- necessary to implement save points within a TA
Checkpoints

- used to speed up restart
Checkpoints (2)

- transaction consistent:

```
Log
  checkpoint

Analysis
  Redo
  Undo
```
Checkpoints (3)

- action consistent:

```
Log

checkpoint

MinLSN

Analysis

Redo

Undo
```
Checkpoints (4)
Checkpoints (5)

- fuzzy checkpoints:

![Diagram showing checkpoints and log entries]

- MinDirtyPageLSN
- MinLSN
- Analysis
- Redo
- Undo
Fuzzy Checkpoints

- modified pages are not forced to disk
- only the page ids are recorded
- *Dirty Pages* = set of all modified pages
- *MinDirtyPageLSN*: the minimum LSN whose changes have not been written to disk yet