Chapter 20: Advanced Transaction Processing

- Remote Backup Systems
- Transaction-Processing Monitors
- High-Performance Transaction Systems
- Long-Duration Transactions
- Real-Time Transaction Systems
- Weak Levels of Consistency
- Transactional Workflows
Remote Backup Systems

- Remote backup systems provide *high availability* by allowing transaction processing to continue even if the primary site is destroyed.
- Transaction processing is faster than in a replicated distributed system.
Remote Backup Systems (Cont.)

- Backup site must detect when the primary site has failed
  - to distinguish primary site failure from link failure maintain several communication links between the primary and the remote backup.
- To take over control backup site first performs recovery using its copy of the database and all the log records it has received from the primary. Thus, completed transactions are redone and incomplete transactions are rolled back.
- When backup site takes over processing it becomes the new primary
- To reduce delay in takeover, backup site periodically processes the redo log records (in effect, performing recovery from previous database state), performs a checkpoint, and can then delete earlier parts of the log.
Remote Backup Systems (Cont.)

- To transfer control back to old primary when it recovers, the old primary must receive redo logs from the old backup and apply all updates locally.

- **Hot-spare** configuration permits very fast takeover:
  - Backup continually processes redo log records as they arrive, applying the updates locally.
  - When failure of the primary is detected, the backup rolls back incomplete transactions, and is ready to process new transactions.
Remote Backup Systems (Cont.)

- Ensure durability of updates by delaying transaction commit until update is logged at backup; avoid this delay by permitting lower degrees of durability.

- **One-safe** commits as soon as transaction’s commit log record is written at primary — updates may not arrive at backup before it has to take over.

- **Two-very-safe** commits when transaction’s commit log record is written at primary and backup — reduces availability since transactions cannot commit if either site fails.

- **Two-safe** proceeds as in two-very-safe if both primary and backup are active. If only the primary is active, the transaction commits as soon as is commit log record is written at the primary. Better availability than two-very-safe; avoids problem of lost transactions in one-safe.
**Transaction Processing Monitors**

- TP monitors initially developed as multithreaded servers to support large numbers of terminals from a single process.
- Provide infrastructure for building and administering complex transaction processing systems with a large number of clients and multiple servers.
- Provide services such as:
  - Presentation facilities to simplify writing user interface applications
  - Persistent queuing of client requests and server responses
  - Routing of client messages to servers
  - Coordination of two-phase commit when transactions access multiple servers.
- Some commercial TP Monitors: CICS from IBM, Pathway from Tandem, Top End from NCR, and Encina from Transarc
TP Monitor Architectures

(a) Process-per-client model

(b) Single-process model

(c) Many-server, single-router model

(d) Many-server, many-router model
TP Monitor Architectures (Cont.)

- **Process per client model** – instead of individual login session per terminal, server process communicates with the terminal, handles authentication, and executes actions.
  - Memory requirements are high
  - Multitasking – high CPU overhead for context switching between processes

- **Single process model** – all remote terminals connect to a single server process.
  - Used in client-server environments
  - Server process is multi-threaded; low cost for thread switching
  - No protection between applications
  - Not suited for parallel or distributed databases
TP Monitor Architectures (Cont.)

- **Many-server single-router model** – multiple application server processes access a common database; clients communicate with the application through a single communication process that routes requests.
  - Independent server processes for multiple applications
  - Multithreaded server process
  - Run on parallel or distributed database

- **Many-server many-router model** – multiple processes communicate with clients.
  - Client communication processes interact with router processes that route their requests to the appropriate server.
  - Controller process starts up and supervises other processes.
Detailed Structure of a TP Monitor

- input queue
- authorization
- lock manager
- recovery manager
- log manager
- database and resource managers

network

application servers

output queue
Queue manager handles incoming messages

Some queue managers provide persistent or durable queueing of messages – even if system crashes, contents of queue are not lost.

Many TP monitors provide locking, logging and recovery services, to enable application servers to implement ACID properties by themselves.

Durable queueing of outgoing messages is important
  – application server writes message to durable queue as part of a transaction
  – once the transaction commits, the TP monitor guarantees message is eventually delivered, regardless of crashes.
  – ACID properties are thus provided even for messages sent outside the database.
A TP monitor treats each subsystem as a resource manager that provides transactional access to some set of resources.

The interface between the TP monitor and the resource manager is defined by a set of transaction primitives.

The resource manager interface is defined by the X/Open Distributed Transaction Processing standard.

TP monitor systems provide a transactional RPC interface to their services; the RPC (Remote Procedure Call) mechanism provides calls to enclose a series of RPC calls within a transaction.

Updates performed by an RPC are carried out within the scope of the transaction, and can be rolled back if there is any failure.
High-Performance Transaction Systems

- High-performance hardware and parallelism help improve the rate of transaction processing, but are insufficient to obtain high performance:
  - Disk I/O is a bottleneck— I/O time (10 milliseconds) has not decreased at a rate comparable to the increase in processor speeds.
  - Parallel transactions may attempt to read or write the same data item, resulting in data conflicts that reduce effective parallelism.
- We can reduce the degree to which a database system is disk bound by increasing the size of the database buffer.
Main-Memory Databases

- Commercial 64-bit systems can support main memories of tens of gigabytes.
- Memory resident data allows faster processing of transactions.
- Disk-related limitations:
  - Logging is a bottleneck when transaction rate is high. Use *group-commit* to reduce number of output operations. (Will study two slides ahead.)
  - If the update rate for modified buffer blocks is high, the disk data-transfer rate could become a bottleneck.
  - If the system crashes, all of main memory is lost.
Main-Memory Database Optimizations

- To reduce space overheads, main-memory databases can use structures with pointers crossing multiple pages. In disk databases, the I/O cost to traverse multiple pages would be excessively high.

- No need to pin buffer pages in memory before data are accessed, since buffer pages will never be replaced.

- Design query-processing techniques to minimize space overhead — avoid exceeding main memory limits during query evaluation.

- Improve implementation of operations such as locking and latching, so they do not become bottlenecks.

- Optimize recovery algorithms, since pages rarely need to be written out to make space for other pages.
Group Commit

- Idea: instead of performing output of log records to stable storage as soon as a transaction is ready to commit, wait until
  - log buffer block is full (with log records of further transactions), or
  - a transaction has been waiting sufficiently long after being ready to commit

before performing output of log buffer block.

- Results in fewer output operations per committed transaction, and correspondingly a higher throughput.

- Commits are delayed until a sufficiently large group of transactions are ready to commit, or a transaction has been waiting long enough – leads to slightly increased response time.

- The delay is acceptable in high-performance transaction systems since it does not take much time for a large enough group of transactions to be ready to commit.
Long-Duration Transactions

Traditional concurrency control techniques do not work well when user interaction is required:

- **Long duration**: Design edit sessions are very long
- **Exposure of uncommitted data**: E.g., partial update to a design
- **Subtasks**: support partial rollbacks
- **Recoverability**: on crash state should be restored even for yet-to-be committed data, so user work is not lost
- **Performance**: fast response time is essential so user time is not wasted
Long-Duration Transactions

- Represented as a nested transaction with atomic database operations (read/write) at the lowest level.
- If a transaction fails, only active short-duration transactions abort.
- Active long-duration transactions resume once any short duration transactions have recovered.
- The efficient management of long-duration interactive transactions is more complex because of the long-duration waits, and the possibility of aborts.
- Need alternatives to waits and aborts; alternative techniques must ensure correctness without requiring serializability.
Concurrency Control

- Correctness without serializability:
  - Correctness depends on the specific consistency constraints for the database.
  - Correctness depends on the properties of operations performed by each transaction.

- Use database consistency constraints as to split the database into subdatabases on which concurrency can be managed separately.

- Treat some operations besides read and write as fundamental low-level operations and extend concurrency control to deal with them.
A non–conflict-serializable schedule that preserves the sum of $A + B$ (Figure 20.4).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>$T_1$</th>
<th>$T_2$</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>read($A$)</td>
<td>read($B$)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$A := A - 50$</td>
<td>$B := B - 10$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>write($A$)</td>
<td>write($B$)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>read($B$)</td>
<td>read($A$)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$B := B + 50$</td>
<td>$A := A + 10$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>write($B$)</td>
<td>write($A$)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Nested and Multilevel Transactions

- A nested or multilevel transaction $T$ is represented by a set

$$T = \{ t_1, t_2, \ldots, t_n \}$$

of subtransactions and a partial order $P$ on $T$.

- A subtransaction $t_i$ in $T$ may abort without forcing $T$ to abort. Instead, $T$ may either restart $t_i$ or simply choose not to run $t_i$.

- If $t_i$ commits, this action does not make $t_i$ permanent (unlike the situation in Chapter 15). Instead, $t_i$ commits to $T$, and may still abort (or require compensation) if $T$ aborts.

- An execution of $T$ must not violate the partial order $P$, i.e., if an edge $t_i \rightarrow t_j$ appears in the precedence graph, then $t_j \rightarrow t_i$ must not be in the transitive closure of $P$. 
Nested and Multilevel Transactions (Cont.)

- Subtransactions can themselves be nested/multilevel transactions. Lowest level of nesting: standard read and write operations.

- Nesting can create higher-level operations that may enhance concurrency.

- Types of nested/multilevel transactions:
  - **Multilevel transaction**: subtransaction of $T$ is permitted to release locks on completion.
  - **Saga**: multilevel long-duration transaction.
  - **Nested transaction**: locks held by a subtransaction $t_i$ of $T$ are automatically assigned to $T$ on completion of $t_i$. 
Example of Nesting

- Rewrite transaction $T_1$ using subtransactions $T_a$ and $T_b$ that perform increment or decrement operations:
  - $T_1$ consists of
    - $T_{1,1}$, which subtracts 50 from $A$
    - $T_{1,2}$, which adds 50 to $B$

- Rewrite transaction $T_2$ using subtransactions $T_c$ and $T_d$ that perform increment or decrement operations:
  - $T_2$ consists of
    - $T_{2,1}$, which subtracts 10 from $B$
    - $T_{2,2}$, which adds 10 to $A$

- No ordering is specified on subtransactions; any execution generates a correct result.
**Compensating Transactions**

- Alternative to *undo* operation; *compensating transactions* deal with the problem of cascading rollbacks.
- Instead of undoing all changes made by the failed transaction, action is taken to “compensate” for the failure.
- Consider a long-duration transaction $T_i$ representing a travel reservation, with subtransactions $T_{i,1}$, which makes airline reservations, $T_{i,2}$ which reserves rental cars, and $T_{i,3}$ which reserves a hotel room.
  
  - Hotel cancels the reservation.
  - Instead of undoing all of $T_i$, the failure of $T_{i,3}$ is compensated for by deleting the old hotel reservation and making a new one.

- Requires use of semantics of the failed transaction.
Implementation Issues

- For long-duration transactions to survive system crashes, we must log not only changes to the database, but also changes to internal system data pertaining to these transactions.

- Logging of updates is made more complex by physically large data items (CAD design, document text); undesirable to store both old and new values.

- Two approaches to reducing the overhead of ensuring the recoverability of large data items:
  - **Operation logging**. Only the operation performed on the data item and the data-item name are stored in the log.
  - **Logging and shadow paging**. Use logging from small data items; use shadow paging for large data items. Only modified pages need to be stored in duplicate.
Real-Time Transaction Systems

- In systems with real-time constraints, correctness of execution involves both database consistency and the satisfaction of deadlines.
  - **Hard** – The task has zero value if it is completed after the deadline.
  - **Soft** – The task has diminishing value if it is completed after the deadline.

- The wide variance of execution times for read and write operations on disks complicates the transaction management problem for time-constrained systems; main-memory databases are thus often used.

- Design of a real-time system involves ensuring that enough processing power exists to meet deadlines without requiring excessive hardware resources.
**Weak Levels of Consistency**

- Use alternative notions of consistency that do not ensure serializability, to improve performance.
- Degree-two consistency avoids cascading aborts without necessarily ensuring serializability.
  - Unlike two-phase locking, S-locks may be released at any time, and locks may be acquired at any time.
  - X-locks cannot be released until the transaction either commits or aborts.
Nonserializable schedule with degree-two consistency (Figure 20.5) where $T_3$ reads the value of $Q$ before and after that value is written by $T_4$.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>$T_3$</th>
<th>$T_4$</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>lock-$S(Q)$</td>
<td>lock-$X(Q)$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>read$(Q)$</td>
<td>read$(Q)$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>unlock$(Q)$</td>
<td>write$(Q)$</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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Cursor Stability

- Form of degree-two consistency designed for programs written in general-purpose, record-oriented languages (e.g., Pascal, C, Cobol, PL/I, Fortran).

- Rather than locking the entire relation, cursor stability ensures that
  - The tuple that is currently being processed by the iteration is locked in shared mode.
  - Any modified tuples are locked in exclusive mode until the transaction commits.

- Used on heavily accessed relations as a means of increasing concurrency and improving system performance.

- Use is limited to specialized situations with simple consistency constraints.
Transactional Workflows

- Workflows are activities that involve the coordinated execution of multiple tasks performed by different processing entities.
- With the growth of networks, and the existence of multiple autonomous database systems, workflows provide a convenient way of carrying out tasks that involve multiple systems.
- Example of a workflow: delivery of an email message, which goes through several mailer systems to reach destination.
  - Each mailer performs a task: forwarding of the mail to the next mailer
  - If a mailer cannot deliver mail, failure must be handled semantically (delivery failure message)
- Workflows usually involve humans: e.g. loan processing, or purchase order processing
In the past, workflows were handled by creating and forwarding paper forms.

Computerized workflows aim to automate many of the tasks. But humans still play a role e.g. in approving loans.
Transactional Workflows

- Must address following issues to computerize a workflow.
  - *Specification* of workflows – detailing the tasks that must be carried out and defining the execution requirements.
  - *Execution* of workflows – execute transactions specified in the workflow while also providing traditional database safeguards related to the correctness of computations, data integrity, and durability.
    * E.g.: Loan application should not get lost even if system fails
- Extend transaction concepts to the context of workflows.
- *State of a workflow* – consists of the collection of states of its constituent tasks, and the states (i.e., values) of all variables in the execution plan.
Workflow Specification

- **Static specification** of task coordination:
  - Tasks and dependencies among them are defined before the execution of the workflow starts.
  - Can establish preconditions for execution of each task; tasks are executed only when their preconditions are satisfied.
  - Define preconditions through dependencies:
    * Execution states of other tasks.
      “task $t_i$ cannot start until task $t_j$ has ended”
    * Output values of other tasks.
      “task $t_i$ can start if task $t_j$ returns a value greater than 25”
    * External variables, that are modified by external events.
      “task $t_i$ must be started within 24 hours of the completion of task $t_j$”
Dynamic task coordination
E.g. Electronic mail routing system in which the next task to be scheduled for a given mail message depends on the destination address and on which intermediate routers are functioning.
Failure-Atomicity Requirements of a Workflow

- Usual ACID transactional requirements are too strong/unimplementable for workflow applications.

- However, workflows must satisfy some limited transactional properties that guarantee a process is not left in an inconsistent state.

  - *Acceptable termination states* – every execution of a workflow will terminate in a state that satisfies the failure-atomicity requirements defined by the designer.
    - Committed – objectives of a workflow have been achieved.
    - Aborted – valid termination state in which a workflow has failed to achieve its objectives.

- A workflow must reach an acceptable termination state even in the presence of system failures.
Execution of Workflows

Workflow management systems include:

- **Scheduler** – program that processes workflows by submitting various tasks for execution, monitoring various events, and evaluating conditions related to intertask dependencies

- **Task agents** – control the execution of a task by a processing entity

- Mechanism to query the state of the workflow system.
Workflow Management System Architectures

- Centralized – a single scheduler schedules the tasks for all concurrently executing workflows.
  - used in workflow systems where the data is stored in a central database
  - easier to keep track of the state of a workflow
- Partially distributed – has one (instance of a) scheduler for each workflow.
- Fully distributed – has no scheduler, but the task agents coordinate their execution by communicating with each other to satisfy task dependencies and other workflow execution requirements.
  - used in simplest workflow execution systems
  - based on electronic mail
Before executing a workflow, the scheduler should determine if termination in an acceptable state can be guaranteed; if not, workflow should not be executed.

Consider a workflow consisting of two tasks $S_1$ and $S_2$. Let the failure-atomicity requirement be that either both or neither of the subtransactions should be committed.

- Suppose systems executing $S_1$ and $S_2$ do not provide prepared-to-commit states and $S_1$ or $S_2$ do not have compensating transactions.
  - It is then possible to reach a state where one subtransaction is committed and the other aborted. Both cannot then be brought to the same state.
  - Workflow specification is unsafe, and should be rejected.

- Determination of safety by the scheduler is not possible in general, and is usually left to the designer of the workflow.
Recovery of a Workflow

- Ensure that if a failure occurs in any of the workflow-processing components, the workflow eventually reaches an acceptable termination state.

- Failure-recovery routines need to restore the state information of the scheduler at the time of failure, including the information about the execution states of each task.

  Log status information on stable storage.

- Handoff of tasks between agents should occur exactly once in spite of failure.

  *Problem:* Repeating handoff on recovery may lead to duplicate execution of task; not repeating handoff may lead to task not being executed.

  *Solution:* Persistent messaging systems
Recovery of a Workflow (Cont.)

- Persistent messages: messages are stored in permanent message queue and therefore not lost in case of failure.
  - Before an agent commits, it writes to the persistent message queue whatever messages need to be sent out.
  - The persistent message system must make sure the messages get delivered eventually if and only if the transaction commits.
    The message system needs to resend a message when the site recovers, if the message is not known to have reached its destination.
  - Messages must be logged in stable storage at the receiving end to detect multiple receipts of a message.