Database Recovery

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Transaction Concept

- A **transaction** is a <u>unit</u> of execution
- Either committed or aborted.
- <u>After</u> a transaction, the db must be <u>consistent</u>.
 - Consistent No violation of any constraint.

For example, if a transaction is supposed to raise the salaries of all employees,

then the database should guarantee that when the transaction finishes, all salaries should have been raised correctly.

Transaction State



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ACID Properties

Each transaction should have:

- Atomicity. Either committed or aborted.
- **Consistency.** No violation of any constraint.
- Isolation. Concurrent transactions are not aware of each other.
 - Each would think it was the only running transaction
- **Durability.** If the transaction is committed, its changes to the db are permanent.
 - Even if there is a system failure.

Example of Fund Transfer

- Transfer \$50 from account *A* to *B*:
 - 1. **read**(*A*)
 - 2. A = A 50
 - 3. **write**(*A*)
 - 4. **read**(*B*)
 - 5. B = B + 50
 - 6. **write**(*B*)
- **Consistency** Assume there is a user constraint that A + B should remain the same. Then the database should ensure this.
- Atomicity If any step fails, then no change should be made to the database.

Example of Fund Transfer (Cont.)

- 1. read(A)
- 2. A = A 50
- 3. **write**(*A*)
- 4. **read**(*B*)
- 5. B = B + 50
- 6. **write**(*B*)
- **Durability** once the transaction is complete, the money transfer is permanent.
- Isolation Assume after step 3, another transaction also needs to access A, B. Neither transaction should affect the other.

Recovery Algorithms

- **Recovery algorithms** are techniques to ensure database consistency, transaction atomicity, and durability despite failures.
- Recovery algorithms have two parts
 - 1. Actions taken during normal transaction processing to ensure enough information exists to recover from failures
 - 2. Actions taken after a failure to recover the database contents to a state that ensures atomicity, consistency and durability

Recovery and Atomicity

- Modifying the database without ensuring that the transaction will commit may leave the database in an inconsistent state.
- Consider transaction T_i that transfers \$50 from account A to account B; our goal is either to
 - perform all database modifications made by T_i , or
 - none at all.
- Operations in the transaction
 - Deduct from A
 - Add into B
 - Either one may fail.

Recovery and Atomicity (Cont.)

- We will introduce two recovery methods:
 - log-based recovery
 - shadow-paging
- We first assume that transactions run serially, that is, one after the other.
- And then address recovery for concurrent transactions.

Log-Based Recovery

- A log is kept on stable storage.
 - Contains a sequence of **log records**, described as follows.
- When transaction *T_i* starts, it registers itself by writing a
 <T_i start> log record
- <u>Before</u> T_i executes write(X), a log record < T_i, X, V₁, V₂ > is written,
 - V_1 is the value of X before the write
 - *V*₂ is the value to be written to *X*.
- When T_i finishes its last statement, the log record <T_i commit> is written.
 - Partial commit

Methods of Modifying the Database

- We assume all the log records are written immediately to the disk.
- But as for modifying the database contents, we have:
- Deferred modification.
 - The database simply records all modifications to the log, but defers all the writes to the disk after partial commit.
- Immediate modification.
 - Change the content of the disk immediately (before partial commit).

Deferred Database Modification

- Transaction starts by writing $< T_i$ *start*> record to log.
- A **write**(*X*) operation results in a log record $< T_i, X, V >$, where *V* is the new value for *X*.
 - Note: old value is not needed for this scheme
 - The write is not performed on *X* at this time, but is deferred.
- When T_i partially commits, $< T_i$ commit> is written to the log
- Finally, the log records are read and used to actually execute the previously deferred writes.

Example

 T_0 : read (A)A = A - 50write (A) read (B)B = B + 50write (*B*)

*T*₁ : **read** (*C*) *C*=*C*- 100 **write** (*C*)

< T_0 start> < T_0 , A, 950> < T_0 , B, 2050> < T_0 commit> < T_1 start> < T_1 , C, 600> < T_1 commit>

Example With Crashes

T_0 :	T_1 :		
read (A)	read (C)		
A = A - 50	C=C- 100		
write (A)	write (C)		
read (B)	$< T_{\circ}$ start>	<t<sub>a start></t<sub>	<t<sub>a starts</t<sub>
B = B + 50	< <i>T</i> ₀ , <i>A</i> , 950>	< <i>T</i> ₀ , <i>A</i> , 950>	< <i>T</i> ₀ , <i>A</i> , 950>
write (B)	<t<sub>0, B, 2050></t<sub>	$< T_0$, <i>B</i> , 2050> $< T_0$ commit> $< T_1$ start>	$< T_0$, <i>B</i> , 2050> $< T_0$ commit> $< T_1$ start>
		<t<sub>1, C, 600></t<sub>	< T_1 , C, 600>< T_1 commit>
	(a)	(b)	(c)

□ Consider the following logs

In (a), for example, there is a crash before T0 finishes.

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Deferred Database Modification

- During the recovery from a crash, a transaction is re-executed if
 - both $< T_i$ start> and $< T_i$ commit> are present in the log.
- Redoing a transaction $\mathcal{T}_{\mathcal{F}}$ sets the value of all data items according to the log records.

$< T_0$ start>	$< T_0$ start>	$< T_0$ start>
<t<sub>0, A, 950></t<sub>	<t<sub>0, A, 950></t<sub>	<t<sub>0, A, 950></t<sub>
<t<sub>0, B, 2050></t<sub>	<t<sub>0, B, 2050></t<sub>	<t<sub>0, B, 2050></t<sub>
	$< T_0$ commit>	< <i>T</i> ₀ commit>
	$< T_1$ start>	$< T_1$ start>
	<t1, 600="" c,=""></t1,>	<t1, 600="" c,=""></t1,>
		$< T_1$ commit>
(a)	(b)	(c)

- What if there is a crash during the redoing?
 - Say crashes in executing <T0, B, 2050> for (c)?

Deferred Database Modification

- It doesn't matter.
- During recovery from this crash, re-do again.
- Logs are **idempotent**.
- That is, even if the operation is executed multiple times the effect is the same as if it is executed once

$< T_0$ start>	$< T_0$ start>	$< T_0$ start>
<t<sub>0, A, 950></t<sub>	<t<sub>0, A, 950></t<sub>	<t<sub>0, A, 950></t<sub>
<t<sub>0, B, 2050></t<sub>	<t<sub>0, B, 2050></t<sub>	<t<sub>0, B, 2050></t<sub>
	$< T_0$ commit>	$< T_0$ commit>
	$< T_1$ start>	$< T_1$ start>
	<t1, 600="" c,=""></t1,>	<t<sub>1, C, 600></t<sub>
		$< T_1$ commit>
(a)	(b)	(c)

Immediate Modification – Example

- Log Update the variable $< 7_0$ start> $< 7_0$, A, 1000, 950> $< 7_0$, B, 2000, 2050> A = 950 B = 2050 $< 7_1$ start> $< 7_1$ start> $< 7_1$, C, 700, 600> C = 600
- Update log record must be written <u>before</u> database item is written.

Immediate Database Modification

- Recovery procedure has two operations instead of one:
 - undo(*T*_i)
 - sets the items updated by T_{i} to their old values,
 - going backwards from the last log record for T_{i}
 - **redo**(*7*)
 - sets the items updated by T_i to the new values,
 - going forward from the first log record for T_{i}
- Both operations must be idempotent

Immediate Database Modification

- When recovering after failure:
 - Transaction T_i needs to be undone if the log contains
 <T_i start >, but not <T_i commit >.
 - Transaction *T_i* needs to be redone if the log contains both *<T_i* start *>* and *<T_i* commit *>*.
- **<u>Undo</u>** operations are performed first, then **<u>redo</u>** operations.

Example with Crashes

$< T_0$ start>	$< T_0$ start>	$< T_0$ start>
<t<sub>0, A, 1000, 950></t<sub>	<t<sub>0, A, 1000, 950></t<sub>	<t<sub>0, A, 1000, 950></t<sub>
< <i>T</i> ₀ , <i>B</i> , 2000, 2050>	<t<sub>0, B, 2000, 2050></t<sub>	< <i>T</i> ₀ , <i>B</i> , 2000, 2050>
	$< T_0$ commit>	$< T_0$ commit>
	$< T_1$ start>	$< T_1$ start>
	<t<sub>1, C, 700, 600></t<sub>	<t<sub>1, C, 700, 600></t<sub>
		$< T_1$ commit>
(a)	(b)	(c)

(a) undo (T_0) : B is restored to 2000 and A to 1000.

(b) undo (T_1) and redo (T_0) : C is restored to 700, and then A and B are

set to 950 and 2050 respectively.

(c) redo (\mathcal{T}_0) and redo (\mathcal{T}_1): A and B are set to 950 and 2050 respectively. Then \mathcal{C} is set to 600

Checkpoints

- In the previous slides, when there are multiple transactions to be executed, we first obtain the logs of all of them, before physically executing the log records.
- Problems:
 - A very long log list.
 - Searching inside the log is time-consuming (e.g., for start/commit records)
 - We might unnecessarily redo transactions multiple times.
 - If a crash happens during redoing.
- Solution: checkpoints

Example

< 7₁ start> <*T*₁, *A*, 0, 10> $< T_1$ commit> $< T_2$ start> < *T*₂, *B*, 0, 10> <checkpoint > physically execute the above records < *T*₂, *C*, 0, 10> <*T*₂ commit> $< T_3$ start> < *T*₃, *A*, 10, 20> <*T*₃, *D*, 0, 10> $< T_3$ commit> $< T_4$ start> < *T*₄, *A*, 20, 30>

failure

Example of Checkpoints



- *T*₁ can be ignored (updates already output to disk due to checkpoint)
- T_2 and T_3 redone.
 - But for T2, redo only the part after the checkpoint.
- T_4 undone

Checkpoints

- At each checkpoint, physically execute the log records before it.
- During recovery we need to consider only
 - the <u>most recent</u> transaction that started before the checkpoint
 - E.g., T2 on the previous slide
 - all transactions that started after.
 - E.g., T3, T4

Data Access

- Physical blocks are those blocks residing on the disk.
- **Buffer blocks** are the blocks residing temporarily in main memory.
- Each transaction T_{i} has its "private work-area"
 - in which local copies of all data items accessed and updated by it are kept.
 - T_{i} 's local copy of a data item X is called X_{i}

Data Access (Cont.)



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Data Access (Cont.)

- Two levels of data access
 - buffer blocks ←→ disk blocks
 - transaction work area $\leftarrow \rightarrow$ buffer blocks
- buffer blocks ←→ disk blocks
 - **input**(*B*) transfers the physical block *B* to main memory.
 - **output**(*B*) transfers the buffer block *B* to the disk, and replaces the appropriate physical block there.

Data Access (Cont.)

- transaction work area ←→ buffer blocks
 - read(X): brings the value of buffered item X to the local variable X_{i}
 - write(X): assigns the value of local variable X_i to buffered item X.