

School of Computing Science and Engineering

Program: B.Tech CSE Course Code: BCSE2073 Course Name: Database Management System



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Course Name : DBMS

Course Outcomes :

CO Number	Title CO
CO1	Explain Database Architecture and Representation Models
CO2	Use DDL and DML commands using SQL to retrieve data from the given table
CO3	Use Normalization techniques to design a database for a given application
CO4	Describe the transaction processing concept and apply storage techniques
CO5	Describe the concurrency control process and various relevant protocols



Course Prerequisites

✓ Basic knowledge of data.

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Syllabus

Unit I: Introduction

Introduction: An overview of database management system, database system Vs file system, Database system concept and architecture, data model schema and instances, data independence and database language and interfaces, data definitions language, DML, Overall Database Structure.

Data modeling using the Entity Relationship Model: ER model concepts, notation for ER diagram, mapping constraints, keys, Concepts of Super Key, candidate key, primary key, Generalization, aggregation, reduction of an ER diagrams to tables, extended ER model, relationship of higher degree.

Unit II: Relational data Model and Language

Relational data model concepts, integrity constraints, entity integrity, referential integrity, Keys constraints, Domain constraints, relational algebra, relational calculus, tuple and domain calculus.

Introduction on SQL: Characteristics of SQL, advantage of SQL. SQl data type and literals. Types of SQL commands. SQL operators and their procedure. Tables, views and indexes. Queries and sub queries. Aggregate functions. Insert, update and delete operations, Joins, Unions, Intersection, Minus, Cursors, Triggers, Procedures in SQL/PL SQL

Unit III: Data Base Design & Normalization

Functional dependencies, normal forms, first, second, third normal forms, BCNF, inclusion dependence, loss less join decompositions, normalization using FD, MVD, and JDs, alternative approaches to database design.

Unit IV: Transaction Processing Concept

Transaction system, Testing of serializability, serializability of schedules, conflict & view serializable schedule, recoverability, Recovery from transaction failures, log based recovery, checkpoints, deadlock handling. Distributed Database: distributed data storage, concurrency control, directory system.

Unit V: Concrrency Control Techniques

Concurrency control, Locking Techniques for concurrency control, Time stamping protocols for concurrency control, validation based protocol, multiple granularity, Multi version schemes, Recovery with concurrent transaction, case study of Oracle.

11 lecture hours

9 lecture hours

8 lecture hours

8 lecture hours

8 lecture hours

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Contents

- ✓ Transaction System
- ✓ Transaction State
- ✓ Serializability of schedules,
- ✓ conflict & view serializable
- ✓ Testing of Serializability



Introduction to Transaction Processing

- A Transaction: logical unit of database processing that includes one or more access operations (read -retrieval, write insert or update, delete).
- A transaction (set of operations) may be stand-alone specified in a high level language like SQL submitted interactively, or may be embedded within a program.
- **Transaction boundaries**: Begin and End transaction.
- An **application program** may contain several transactions separated by the Begin and End transaction boundaries.



Introduction to Transaction Processing

- A *transaction* is a *unit* of program execution that accesses and possibly updates various data items.
- A transaction must see a consistent database.
- During transaction execution the database may be inconsistent.
- When the transaction is committed, the database must be consistent.
- Two main issues to deal with:
 - Failures of various kinds, such as hardware failures and system crashes
 - Concurrent execution of multiple transactions



SIMPLE MODEL OF A DATABASE (for purposes of discussing transactions):

- A database collection of named data items
- **Granularity of data** a field, a record , or a whole disk block (Concepts are independent of granularity)
- Basic operations are **read** and **write**
 - read_item(X): Reads a database item named X into a program variable. To simplify our notation, we assume that the program variable is also named X.
 - write_item(X): Writes the value of program variable X into the database item named X.



READ AND WRITE OPERATIONS

- Basic unit of data transfer from the disk to the computer main memory is <u>one block</u>. In general, a data item (what is read or written) will be the field of some record in the database, although it may be a larger unit such as a record or even a whole block.
- read_item(X) command includes the following steps:
- 1. Find the address of the disk block that contains item X.
- 2. Copy that disk block into a buffer in main memory (if that disk block is not already in some main memory buffer).
- 3. Copy item X from the buffer to the program variable named X.



READ AND WRITE OPERATIONS (cont.)

- write_item(X) command includes the following steps:
- 1. Find the address of the disk block that contains item X.
- 2. Copy that disk block into a buffer in main memory (if that disk block is not already in some main memory buffer).
- 3. Copy item X from the program variable named X into its correct location in the buffer.
- 4. Store the updated block from the buffer back to disk (either immediately or at some later point in time).



Properties of transaction (ACID)

- Atomicity: Either all operations of the transaction are properly reflected in the database or none are.
- **Consistency:** Execution of a transaction in isolation preserves the consistency of the database.
- **Isolation:** Although multiple transactions may execute concurrently, each transaction must be unaware of other concurrently executing transactions. Intermediate transaction results must be hidden from other concurrently executed transactions.
 - That is, for every pair of transactions T_i and T_j , it appears to T_i that either T_j , finished execution before T_i started, or T_j started execution after T_i finished.
- **Durability:** After a transaction completes successfully, the changes it has made to the database persist, even if there are system failures.



Example of Fund Transfer

- Transaction to transfer \$50 from account *A* to account *B*:
 - 1. **read**(*A*)
 - 2. A := A 50
 - 3. **write**(*A*)
 - 4. **read**(*B*)
 - 5. B := B + 50
 - 6. **write**(*B*)
- Consistency requirement the sum of *A* and *B* is unchanged by the execution of the transaction.
- Atomicity requirement if the transaction fails after step 3 and before step 6, the system should ensure that its updates are not reflected in the database, else an inconsistency will result.



Example of Fund Transfer (Cont.)

- **Durability requirement:** once the user has been notified that the transaction has completed (i.e., the transfer of the \$50 has taken place), the updates to the database by the transaction must persist despite failures.
- Isolation requirement: if between steps 3 and 6, another transaction is allowed to access the partially updated database, it will see an inconsistent database (the sum A + B will be less than it should be). Can be ensured trivially by running transactions *serially*, that is one after the other. However, executing multiple transactions concurrently has significant benefits, as we will see.



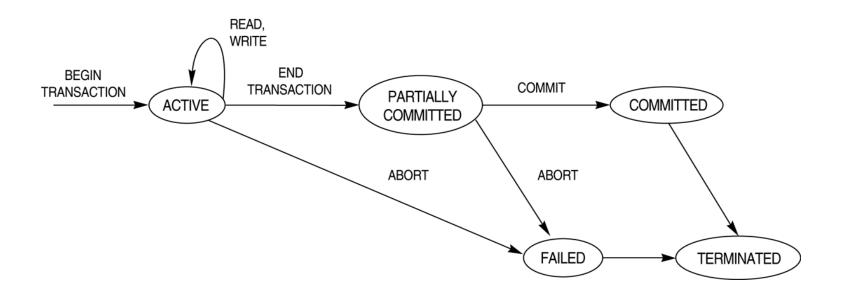
Transaction State

- Active, the initial state; the transaction stays in this state while it is executing
- **Partially committed,** after the final statement has been executed.
- Failed, after the discovery that normal execution can no longer proceed.
- Aborted, after the transaction has been rolled back and the database restored to its state prior to the start of the transaction. Two options after it has been aborted:
 - restart the transaction only if no internal logical error
 - kill the transaction
- Committed, after *successful completion*.



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Transaction State (Cont.)



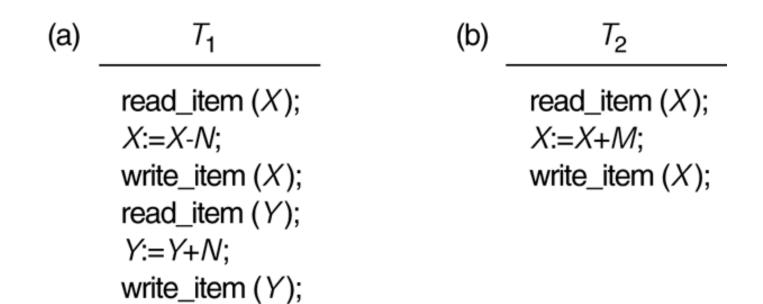
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Two sample transactions

(a) Transaction T₁.
(b) Transaction T₂.





Schedules

- *Schedules* sequences that indicate the chronological order in which instructions of concurrent transactions are executed
- OR, When various transactions are executing in concurrent manner then the order of execution of various instruction is called schedule.
- Two types of schedules
 - Serial schedule
 - Non-serial schedule



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Example Schedules:

Let T_1 transfer \$50 from *A* to *B*, and T_2 transfer 10% of the balance from *A* to *B*. The following is a serial schedule (Schedule 1 in the text), in which T_1 is followed by T_2 .

T2
read(A)
temp := A * 0.1
A := A - temp
write(A)
read(B)
B := B + temp
write(B)

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Example Schedule (Cont.)

Let T_1 and T_2 be the transactions defined previously. The following schedule (Schedule 3 in the text) is not a serial schedule, but it is *equivalent* to Schedule 1.

T ₁	T ₂
read(A)	
A := A - 50	
write(A)	
	read(A)
	temp := A * 0.1
	A := A - temp
	write(A)
read(B)	
B := B + 50	
write(B)	
	read(B)
	B := B + temp
	write(B)

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Serializability

- Basic Assumption Each transaction preserves database consistency.
- Thus serial execution of a set of transactions preserves database consistency.
- A (possibly concurrent) schedule is serializable if it is equivalent to a serial schedule. Different forms of schedule equivalence give rise to the notions of:

1. conflict serializability

2. view serializability

• We ignore operations other than **read** and **write** instructions, and we assume that transactions may perform arbitrary computations on data in local buffers in between reads and writes. Our simplified schedules consist of only **read** and **write** instructions.



Conflict Serializability

• Instructions l_i and l_j of transactions T_i and T_j respectively, **conflict** if and only if there exists some item Q accessed by both l_i and l_j , and at least one of these instructions wrote Q.

1.
$$l_i = \operatorname{read}(Q)$$
, $l_j = \operatorname{read}(Q)$. l_i and l_j don't conflict.

2.
$$l_i = \operatorname{read}(Q)$$
, $l_j = \operatorname{write}(Q)$. They conflict.

3.
$$l_i = \operatorname{write}(Q), l_j = \operatorname{read}(Q)$$
. They conflict

4. $l_i = \text{write}(Q), \ l_j = \text{write}(Q)$. They conflict

• Intuitively, a conflict between l_i and l_j forces a (logical) temporal order between them. If l_i and l_j are consecutive in a schedule and they do not conflict, their results would remain the same even if they had been interchanged in the schedule.



Conflict Serializability (Cont.)

- If a schedule *S* can be transformed into a schedule *S*' by a series of swaps of non-conflicting instructions, we say that *S* and *S*' are **conflict equivalent**.
- We say that a schedule *S* is **conflict serializable** if it is conflict equivalent to a serial schedule
- Example of a schedule that is not conflict serializable:

$$\begin{array}{ccc} T_3 & T_4 \\ read(Q) & \\ write(Q) \\ write(Q) \end{array}$$

We are unable to swap instructions in the above schedule to obtain either the serial schedule $\langle T_3, T_4 \rangle$, or the serial schedule $\langle T_4, T_3 \rangle$.



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Conflict Serializability (Cont.)

Schedule 3 below can be transformed into Schedule 1, a serial schedule where T_2 follows T_1 , by series of swaps of non-conflicting instructions. Therefore Schedule 3 is conflict serializable.

T_1	T_2
read(A)	
write(A)	
	read(A)
	write(A)
read(B)	
write(B)	
	read(B)
	write(B)



View Serializability

- Let *S* and *S*' be two schedules with the same set of transactions. *S* and *S*' are **view equivalent** if the following three conditions are met:
 - 1. For each data item Q, if transaction T_i reads the initial value of Q in schedule S, then transaction T_i must, in schedule S', also read the initial value of Q.
 - 2. For each data item Q if transaction T_i executes read(Q) in schedule S, and that value was produced by transaction T_j (if any), then transaction T_i must in schedule S' also read the value of Q that was produced by transaction T_j .
 - 3. For each data item Q, the transaction (if any) that performs the final **write**(Q) operation in schedule S must perform the final **write**(Q) operation in schedule S'.

As can be seen, view equivalence is also based purely on **reads** and **writes** alone.



View Serializability (Cont.)

- A schedule *S* is **view serializable** it is view equivalent to a serial schedule.
- Every conflict serializable schedule is also view serializable.
- Schedule 9 (from text) a schedule which is view-serializable but *not* conflict serializable.

T_3	T_4	T_6
read(Q)		
	write (Q)	
write (Q)		
		write (Q)

• Every view serializable schedule that is not conflict serializable has **blind** writes.



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Other Notions of Serializability

- Schedule 8 (from text) given below produces same outcome as the serial schedule $< T_1, T_5 >$, yet is not conflict equivalent or view equivalent to it.
- Determining such equivalence requires analysis of operations other than read and write.

T_1	T_5
read(A)	
A := A - 50	
write(A)	
	read(B)
	B := B - 10
	write(B)
read(B)	
B := B + 50	
write(B)	
	read(A)
	A := A + 10
	write(A)



Recommended Books

Text books

"Data base System Concepts", Silberschatz, Korth, McGraw Hill, V edition

Reference Book

- 1. C.J. Date, "An Introduction to Database Systems", Addision Wesley, Eigth Edition, 2003.
- 2. Elmasri, Navathe, "Fudamentals of Database Systems", Addision Wesley, Sixth Edition, 2011.

Additional online materials

1. WWW.Tutoiralpoint.com/

