

## Transaction Management

### Motivation

- **Database Management System Front End:**

1. *(i)* Accept query from user
2. *(ii)* Process query
3. *(iii)* Output result

Step *(ii)* - *core* of DBMS.

- **Query Processing:**

High Level	Low Level
Query Evaluation	Data storage
Use of index structures	Index organization
Query rewrite rules	File system organization
Query evaluation plans	<b>Transaction Management</b>
Cost models	

**Transaction (externally)** Execution of any user program by a DBMS.

**Transaction (internally)** A series of **reads** and **writes**.

- **Read database access** (see Fig. 1)

- Data is stored in *records* on *pages* on *physical storage* devices (e.g., hard disks).
- Pages are retrieved from physical storage and loaded into *main memory buffer*.
- Records are retrieved from *pages* in *main memory buffer* and passed to the *transaction program* where they are stored as *variables*.

- **Write database access** (see Fig. 1)

- Data stored in the variables of the *transaction program* is written into a *page* in *main memory buffer*
- Pages of *main memory buffer* are written to *physical storage*.

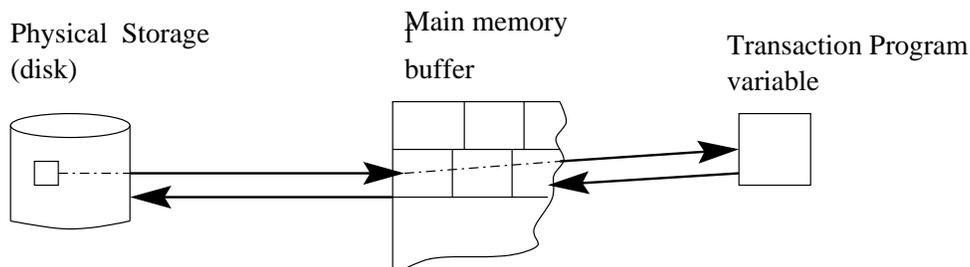


Figure 1: Data Flow in a Database Management System.

## ACID Transactions

- **Transaction Managers** of DBMS operate in the following framework:
  - multi-user environment;
  - transaction requests come from many users;
  - transaction history is known;
  - future transactions cannot be predicted;
- **Transaction Managers** must
  - Ensure **integrity** and **consistency** of the data;
  - Be able to process multiple transactions **concurrently**;
  - Recover from **system crashes** (**recovery manager**);

### ACID properties of Transactions:

- (A)atomicity** Transaction manager executes either *all* actions of the transaction or *none*. Incomplete transactions should not result in permanent changes in the database.
- (C)onsistency** Each transaction run by itself must preserve the *consistency* of the database.
- (I)solation** Each transaction should be protected from effects of other transactions being executed alongside.
- (D)urability** Once the user is informed about successful completion of a transaction, its effects must become *permanent* in the database and should be able to survive system crashes.

## Schedules

**Transaction** A sequence of **actions**.

**Action:** One of the following:

**Read: R(A):** Read content of database object A into transaction program memory

**Write: W(A):** Write new content into database object A

**Commit:** Successful termination of transaction

**Abort:** Unsuccessful termination of transaction

- DBMS usually has to manage a set of transactions (set of sequences of actions).

**Schedule:** A list of actions from a set of transactions  $\mathcal{T}$  which preserves the order of actions for *each* transaction  $T \in \mathcal{T}$ .

- in other words: *topologically sorted* list of actions from  $\text{actions}(\mathcal{T})$ .

**Complete schedule:** Schedule that contains either commit or abort for all transactions  $T \in \mathcal{T}$ .

- Two transactions are **interleaved** in a (complete) schedule  $S$  if the actions of one of them appear *after* the second one starts but *before* it commits or aborts.

**Serial schedule:** A complete schedule **without** interleaving transactions.

## Why Serial Schedules are Bad ?

**Example 1** Consider the following two transactions on the University of Kentucky accounting database:

1.  $T1$ : Compute 7.65% of every employee's monthly salary.
2.  $T2$ : Find Alex Dekhtyar's monthly contribution to the retirement fund.

$T1$  needs to access all 20-40 thousands of records in the *salary* relation.

$T2$  needs to access **one** record from the *retirement* relation.

In a serial schedule where  $T1$  is issued first and  $T2$  is issued seconds later, no action from  $T2$  will be executed until  $T1$  is committed (or aborted). This may take a very long time.

## Serializability

- **Consistent database state**
  - defined by database manager/designer
  - integrity constraints
  - key/participation constraints
- **Transactions must preserve database consistency**
  - If a transaction started in a consistent state, it must end its execution in one.
- **Note:** serial schedules result in consistent database states.
- **Serializable schedule** over a set of committed transactions - a schedule whose effect on any database in a consistent state is *guaranteed* to be identical to **some** serial schedule.

- **Note:** Different serial schedules of the same set of transactions may result in different final states of the database.
- Equivalence to **any** serial schedule is sufficient for **serializability!!!**
- **Serializable schedule** over a set of transactions  $\mathcal{T}$  - a schedule whose effect on any database in a consistent state is guaranteed to be equivalent to **any** serial schedule of the set of **all** committed transactions from  $\mathcal{T}$ .
  - Idea: Influence of aborted transactions **should not be felt**.

## Conflicts

Non-serial schedules may be subject to the following three types of conflicts (problems leading to non-serializability):

1. **Write-Read (WR):** Reading uncommitted data
2. **Read-Write (RW):** Unrepeatable read
3. **Write-Write (WW):** Writing uncommitted data

### Write-Read (WR) Conflict

**Description:** **WR** conflict occurs when one transaction changes a particular database object, then another transaction reads it after which the first transaction aborts.

**Example:** Consider the following schedule of actions for transactions T1 and T2:

T1:W(A); T2:R(A);T2:W(B); T1:Abort; T2:Commit.

T1 assigns new value(s) to object A but later aborts, causing the change to be undone. However, in the meantime, T2 reads the value(s) of object A as assigned by T1 and continues execution writing the value(s) of object B, which quite possibly can depend on the value(s) obtained from A.

### Read-Write (RW) Conflict

**Description:** **RW** conflict occurs when one transaction changes reads value(s) from a particular database object, this object is then overwritten by second transaction, after which first transaction re-reads the value of the object.

**Example:** Consider the following schedule of actions for transactions T1 and T2:

T1:R(A); T2:W(A);T1:R(A);T1:W(B) T1:Commit; T2:Commit.

In a serial schedule first and second read of A by T1 yield the same result. In the schedule above, the results of these two reads are different (assuming T2 changed A), therefore, the rest of the transaction T1 is possibly affected.

## Write-Write (WW) Conflict

**Description:** WW conflict is similar occurs when writes interleaved from different transactions result in an inconsistent state of the database.

**Example:** Consider the following schedule of actions for transactions T1 and T2:

T1:W(A); T2:W(B);T1:W(B);T2:W(A) T1:Commit; T2:Commit.

Each transaction by itself results in a consistent database state. However, in the schedule above the result stored in A comes from transaction T2 and the result stored in B comes from transaction T1. These two values may be inconsistent.