



UNSW  
SYDNEY

# Transaction Management

COMP9311 24T3; Week 8.1

*By Zhengyi Yang, UNSW*

# Transaction

A **transaction** is a *unit* of program execution that accesses and possibly updates various data items.

E.g., 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)**



**Two main issues** to deal with:

- Failures of various kinds, such as hardware failures and system crashes
- Concurrent execution of multiple transactions

# Issue (1)

**Concurrent** execution of **multiple** transactions is needed

- Why?
  - i. Multiple users/transactions may read/change the same data
  - ii. Allowing multiple transactions to update data concurrently can result in complications - data inconsistency.
- Therefore transaction processing systems...
  - i. need to support multiple transactions at the same time.
  - ii. usually allow multiple transactions to run concurrently.

# Issue (2)

## Failures of various kinds

### a. System failure:

- i. Disk failure - e.g., *head crash, media fault*.
- ii. System crash - e.g., *unexpected failure requiring a reboot*.

### b. Program error:

- i. e.g., *divide by zero*.

### c. Exception conditions:

- i. e.g., *no seats for your reservation*.

### d. Concurrency control:

- i. e.g., *deadlock, expired locks*.

Transaction Processing Systems need to be **robust** against failure

# Example of Fund Transfer (1)

A **transaction** is a *unit* of program execution that accesses and possibly updates various data items.

Example: A possible 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)**

Each transaction typically includes some **database access operations**

Operations relevant to transaction processing:

1. Read
2. Write
3. Computation

# Example of Fund Transfer (2)

## Atomicity requirement

- If the transaction fails after step 3 and before step 6, money will be “lost” leading to an inconsistent database state
- Failure could be due to software or hardware
- The system should ensure that updates of a partially executed transaction are not reflected in the database (**all-or-nothing**)

Example:

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)**

# Example of Fund Transfer (3)

## 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 even if there are software or hardware failures.

Example:

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)**

# Example of Fund Transfer (4)

**Consistency requirement** in above example:

- The sum of A and B is unchanged by the execution of the transaction

In general, consistency requirements include

- Explicitly specified integrity constraints such as primary keys and foreign keys
- Implicit integrity constraints
- A transaction must see a consistent database.

During transaction execution the database may be **temporarily inconsistent**.

- When the transaction completes successfully, the database must be consistent
- Erroneous transaction can lead to inconsistency

# Example of Fund Transfer (5)

**Isolation requirement** — if between steps 3 and 6, another transaction T2 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)

**T1**

1.**read(A)**  
2. $A := A - 50$   
3.**write(A)**  
4.**read(B)**  
5. $B := B + 50$   
6.**write(B)**

**T2**

read(A), read(B), print(A+B)

Isolation can be **ensured trivially** by running transactions **serially**. That is, one after the other. However, **executing multiple transactions concurrently has significant benefits**.

# ACID Summary

A **transaction** is a unit of program execution that accesses and possibly updates various data items. To preserve the integrity of data, the database system must ensure the ACID property.

- **Atomicity:** Either all operations of the transaction are properly reflected in the database, or none are.
- **Consistency:** Every transaction sees a consistent 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 must appear 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.

# Transaction States

**Active** – the initial state; the transaction stays in this state while it is executing

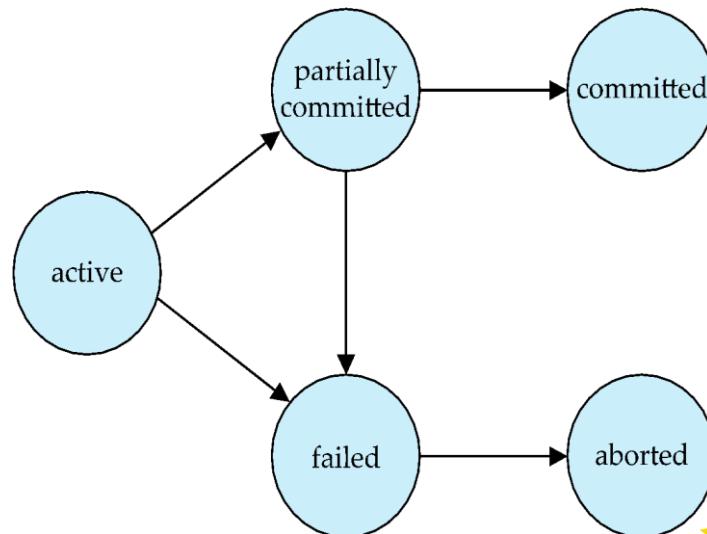
**Partially committed** – after the final statement has been executed.

**Failed** -- after the discovery that normal execution can no longer proceed.

**Aborted** – after the transaction has been **rolled back** using **log** and the database restored to its state prior to the start of the transaction. Two options after it has been aborted:

- Restart the transaction
- Kill the transaction

**Committed** – after successful completion.



# Concurrent Executions

Multiple transactions are allowed to run **concurrently** in the system.

The advantages are:

- **Increased processor and disk utilization**
  - leading to better transaction *throughput*
  - E.g., one transaction can be using the CPU while another is reading from or writing to the disk
- **Reduced average response time** for transactions: short transactions need not wait behind long ones.

**Concurrency control schemes** – mechanisms to achieve **isolation**

- That is, to control the interaction among the concurrent transactions to prevent them from destroying the consistency of the database

# A Simple Transaction Model

We do not consider the full set of SQL language, and ignore SQL insertion/delete operations.

Two operations:

- **read(X)** to transfer the data item X from database to a variable, also called X in a buffer in main memory.
- **write(X)** to transfer the value in the variable X in the buffer to the data item in the database.

Recall example: transaction transfers \$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)**

# More Concepts

## Concurrency/Isolation/Schedule/Control

- The concurrent execution in a database system is similar to the multiprogramming in an operating system (OS).
- When several transactions run concurrently, the **isolation property** may be violated.
- A **schedule** can help identify the executions that are guaranteed to ensure the isolation property and thus database consistency.
- A **concurrency-control scheme** is to control the interaction among the concurrent transactions to prevent them from destroying the consistency of the database.

# Schedules

**Schedule** – a sequence that specifies the order in which instructions of **concurrent transactions** are executed.

- A schedule for **a set of transactions** must consist of all instructions of those transactions
  - Must preserve the order in which the instructions appear in each individual transaction.
- A transaction that successfully completes its execution will have a **commit** instruction as the last statement
  - By default, transaction is assumed to execute commit instruction as its last step
- A transaction that fails to successfully complete its execution will have an **abort** instruction as the last statement

# Two Transactions

Consider that the system receives two transactions

Let  $T_1$  transfer \$50 from  $A$  to  $B$ ,

Let  $T_2$  transfer 10% of the balance from  $A$  to  $B$ .

$T_1$
read ( $A$ )
$A := A - 50$
write ( $A$ )
read ( $B$ )
$B := B + 50$
write ( $B$ )
commit

$T_2$
read ( $A$ )
$temp := A * 0.1$
$A := A - temp$
write ( $A$ )
read ( $B$ )
$B := B + temp$
write ( $B$ )
commit

# Schedule 1

A schedule  $S$  is **serial** if for every transaction  $T$  in the schedule, all (the operations of)  $T$  are executed consecutively in the schedule.

Example: a **serial** schedule in which  $T_1$  is followed by  $T_2$  :

$T1$	$T2$
read ( $A$ )	
$A := A - 50$	
write ( $A$ )	
read ( $B$ )	
$B := B + 50$	
write ( $B$ )	
commit	
	read ( $A$ )
	$temp := A * 0.1$
	$A := A - temp$
	write ( $A$ )
	read ( $B$ )
	$B := B + temp$
	write ( $B$ )
	commit

# Schedule 2

Example: another **valid** serial schedule where  $T_2$  is followed by  $T_1$

$T_1$	$T_2$
	read ( $A$ )
	$temp := A * 0.1$
	$A := A - temp$
	write ( $A$ )
	read ( $B$ )
	$B := B + temp$
	write ( $B$ )
	commit
read ( $A$ )	
$A := A - 50$	
write ( $A$ )	
read ( $B$ )	
$B := B + 50$	
write ( $B$ )	
commit	

# Schedule 3

Let  $T_1$  and  $T_2$  be the transactions given previously.

- The following schedule is **not** a serial schedule
- but it is *equivalent* to Schedule 1

In Schedules 1, 2 and 3, the sum  $A + B$  is preserved.

$T1$	$T2$
read ( $A$ )	
$A := A - 50$	
write ( $A$ )	
	read ( $A$ )
	$temp := A * 0.1$
	$A := A - temp$
	write ( $A$ )
read ( $B$ )	
$B := B + 50$	
write ( $B$ )	
commit	
	read ( $B$ )
	$B := B + temp$
	write ( $B$ )
	commit

# Schedule 4

The following concurrent schedule:

- does **NOT** preserve the value of  $(A + B)$ .

Not all concurrent schedules are desirable

$T1$	$T2$
read ( $A$ )	
$A := A - 50$	
	read ( $A$ )
	$temp := A * 0.1$
	$A := A - temp$
	write ( $A$ )
	read ( $B$ )
write ( $A$ )	
read ( $B$ )	
$B := B + 50$	
write ( $B$ )	
commit	
	$B := B + temp$
	write ( $B$ )
	commit

# How to Avoid These Problems?

If operations are interleaved arbitrarily, incorrect results may occur.

- Isolation can be **ensured trivially** by running transactions **serially**.

Question: why not run only serial schedules?

Answer: Because of very poor throughput due to disk latency

- If a transaction waits for an I/O operation to complete, we cannot switch the CPU processor to another transaction, thus wasting valuable CPU processing time.
- Additionally, if some transaction  $T$  is quite long, the other transactions must wait for  $T$  to complete all its operations before starting.

# How to Avoid These Problems?

Question: why run non-serial schedules?

- It is desirable to interleave the operations of transactions in an **appropriate way**.
- We can fully utilise **resources**.
- For example, if one transaction is waiting for I/O to complete, another transaction can use the CPU.

Point:

- serial schedules are *considered unacceptable* in practice
- **executing multiple transactions concurrently has significant benefits.**

# Motivation (1)

We need to study the notion of correctness of concurrent executions.

- Every transaction is executed from beginning to end in **isolation** from the operations of other transactions, we get a correct end result on the database.

We first need to define types of schedules that are always considered to be correct when concurrent transactions are executing.

# Motivation (2)

Question: How do we determine if non-serial schedules are correct?

Intuition: If we can determine which non-serial schedules are **equivalent** to a serial schedule, we can allow these schedules to occur.

# Summary

- Every serial schedule is considered correct
- We can assume this because every transaction is assumed to be correct if executed on its own (according to the consistency preservation property).
- For serial schedules, it does not matter which transaction execute first. They are all correct.

## Basic Assumption – Each transaction preserves database consistency

- Therefore, a **serial** execution of a set of transactions **preserves database consistency**.
- Serial executions are correct

# Serializability

A (possibly concurrent) schedule  $S$  of  $n$  transactions is **serializable** if

- it is **equivalent** to some serial schedule of the same  $n$  transactions.

There are many notions forms of schedule equivalence give rise to the notion of **Conflict serializability** (Will Discuss Later)

# A Simplified View of Transactions

We ignore operations other than **read** and **write** instructions

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.

An example: For a transaction that transfers \$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)**

*We simply consider the  
read/write only*  
**read(A)**  
**write(A)**  
**read(B)**  
**write(B)**

# Conflicting Instructions

Instructions  $I_i$  and  $I_j$  of **different transactions**  $T_i$  and  $T_j$  respectively, **conflict** if and only if there exists some item  $Q$  accessed by both  $I_i$  and  $I_j$ , and at least one of these instructions wrote  $Q$ .

1.  $I_i = \mathbf{read}(Q)$ ,  $I_j = \mathbf{read}(Q)$ .  $I_i$  and  $I_j$  don't conflict.
2.  $I_i = \mathbf{read}(Q)$ ,  $I_j = \mathbf{write}(Q)$ . They conflict.
3.  $I_i = \mathbf{write}(Q)$ ,  $I_j = \mathbf{read}(Q)$ . They conflict
4.  $I_i = \mathbf{write}(Q)$ ,  $I_j = \mathbf{write}(Q)$ . They conflict

Intuitively, a conflict between  $I_i$  and  $I_j$  forces a (logical) temporal order between them. i.e., changing their order can result in a different combined outcome.

If  $I_i$  and  $I_j$  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.

For example, read–read operations are not conflicting.

# Summary: Conflicting Instructions

Summary: Two operations  $O_1$  and  $O_2$  are *conflicting* if

- They are in different transactions
- They access the same data item,
- At least one of them must be a write.

Language: The transaction of the second operation in the pair is said to be *in conflict* with the transaction of the first operation.

# Conflict Equivalence

Two schedules are said to be **conflict equivalent** if:

- the order of any two *conflicting operations* is the same in both schedules.

**Two schedules are *conflict equivalent* if:**

- Involve the same actions of the same transactions
- Every pair of conflicting actions is ordered the same way

For two schedules to be conflict equivalent:

- the operations applied to each data item affected by the schedules should be applied to that item in both schedules *in the same order*.

We define equivalence of schedules by *conflict equivalence*, which is the more commonly used definition

A better definition of equivalence compared to result equivalence .

# Conflict Serializability

Using the notion of conflict equivalence, we define **a schedule  $S$  to be conflict serializable if it is (conflict) equivalent to some serial schedule  $S$ .**

For conflict serializable schedules:

- we can reorder the *nonconflicting* operations in  $S$  until we form the equivalent serial schedule  $S$ .

This means that if a schedule can be transformed to any serial schedule without changing orders of conflicting operations (but changing orders of non-conflicting, while preserving operation order inside each transaction), then the outcome of both schedules is the same, and the schedule is conflict-serializable by definition.

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.

# Conflict Serializability (2)

Schedule 3 can be transformed into Schedule 6, a serial schedule where  $T_2$  follows  $T_1$ , by series of swaps of non-conflicting instructions. Therefore Schedule 3 is conflict serializable.

$T1$	$T2$
read (A)	
write (A)	
	read (A)
	write (A)
read (B)	
write (B)	
	read (B)
	write (B)

Schedule 3

$T1$	$T2$
read (A)	
write (A)	
read (B)	
write (B)	
	read (A)
	write (A)
	read (B)
	write (B)

Schedule 6

Note: any conflict serializable schedule is also a serializable schedule

# Conflict Serializability (3)

Example of a schedule that is not conflict serializable:

$T_3$	$T_4$
read (Q)	
	write (Q)
write (Q)	

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  $\langle T_4, T_3 \rangle$ .

Note: Not all schedules are conflict serializable.

# Allow Some Concurrent Schedules

Now we characterized the types of schedules that are always considered to be **correct** when concurrent transactions are executing.

The concept of **serializability of schedules** is used to identify which schedules are correct when transaction executions have interleaving of their operations in the schedules.

Since serial schedules are not practical, we can allow conflict serializable schedules since they are correct!

# Allow Some Concurrent Schedules

Saying that a non-serial schedule  $S$  is serializable is equivalent to saying that it is correct

- because it is equivalent to a serial schedule, which is always considered correct.

## Practice:

1. Is a serializable schedule correct?
2. Is being serializable the same as being serial.
3. Is a non-serializable schedule correct?
4. Is a nonserial schedule correct?

# Learning Outcomes

- Transaction Concept
- Transaction State
- Concurrent Executions
- Serializability
- A nonserial schedules can be one of the following case:
  - those that are equivalent to one (or more) of the serial schedules
  - those that are not equivalent to *any* serial schedule and hence are not serializable.