

## Transaction Concept (RDBMS)

A transaction is a sequence of one or more SQL operations executed as a single logical unit of work.

👉 It ensures that all operations inside it are completed successfully or none are applied.

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### ♦ Key Idea:

👉 A transaction must follow the “all-or-nothing” principle.

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### ♦ Example:

Transfer ₹500 from Account A to Account B:

1. Debit ₹500 from Account A
2. Credit ₹500 to Account B

✓ Both steps must succeed together

✗ If any step fails → entire transaction is rolled back

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### ♦ Properties of Transaction (ACID)

#### 1. Atomicity

- All operations are executed completely or not at all
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#### 2. Consistency

- Database remains in a valid and correct state after transaction
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#### 3. Isolation

- Transactions execute independently without interference
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#### 4. Durability

- Once committed, changes are permanent
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### ♦ Importance of Transaction:

- Maintains data integrity
- Ensures reliable database operations

- Handles system failures safely
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♦ Key Line for Exam:

👉 ***A transaction is a logical unit of work that ensures reliable and consistent execution of database operations using ACID properties.***

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### Transaction States (with Examples)

A **transaction** passes through several states during its execution in a DBMS.

#### 1. States Overview

- **Active** → Transaction is executing
- **Partially Committed** → Last statement executed
- **Committed** → Changes are permanently saved
- **Failed** → Error occurs
- **Aborted** → Changes are rolled back
- **Terminated** → Transaction ends

👉 Flow:

- Success path:  
**Active → Partially Committed → Committed → Terminated**
  - Failure path:  
**Active → Failed → Aborted → Terminated**
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### Example 1: Bank Money Transfer (Successful Transaction)

**Transaction: Transfer ₹1000 from A to B**

#### Steps:

1. Deduct ₹1000 from Account A
2. Add ₹1000 to Account B

#### State Flow:

1. **Active**
  - Transaction starts
  - Deduct ₹1000 from A
2. **Partially Committed**
  - Credit ₹1000 to B executed
  - All statements done

### 3. Committed

- Changes permanently saved in database

### 4. Terminated

- Transaction ends

✓ **Final Result:** Money successfully transferred

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## Example 2: Online Shopping Payment (Failed Transaction)

**Transaction:** Buy a product online

**Steps:**

1. Deduct money from bank
2. Update order status

**State Flow:**

1. **Active**
  - Payment process starts
2. **Failed**
  - Network error or server crash occurs
3. **Aborted**
  - Deducted money is rolled back (refunded)
4. **Terminated**
  - Transaction ends

✗ **Final Result:** Order not placed, money returned

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## Simple Diagram (for exams)

Success Path:

Active → Partially Committed → Committed → Terminated

Failure Path:

Active → Failed → Aborted → Terminated

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## Key Points to Write in Exam

- Transaction states represent the **lifecycle of a transaction**
  - Helps in **error handling and recovery**
  - Ensures **data consistency and reliability**
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## Easy Example: ATM Withdrawal

Transaction: Withdraw ₹500 from ATM

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### Step-by-step States

#### 1. Active

- 👉 You insert card and enter amount ₹500
  - 👉 Transaction is processing
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#### 2. Partially Committed

- 👉 ATM checks balance and deducts ₹500
  - 👉 Last step (cash dispensing) is about to happen
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#### 3. Committed

- 👉 ATM gives you cash
  - 👉 Balance updated successfully
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#### 4. Terminated

- 👉 Transaction ends
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### ✅ Success Flow

Active → Partially Committed → Committed → Terminated

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### Failure Case (Easy)

❌ Suppose ATM runs out of cash

#### 1. Active

- 👉 Transaction starts

#### 2. Failed

- 👉 ATM cannot dispense cash

#### 3. Aborted

- 👉 Deducted money is reversed

#### 4. Terminated

- 👉 Transaction ends

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## ✖ Failure Flow

**Active → Failed → Aborted → Terminated**

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## Implementation of Atomicity using Log-Based Recovery

### 1. Log-Based Recovery

Log-based recovery is a technique used by DBMS to ensure **atomicity** by maintaining a **log file** that records all operations of a transaction.

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#### ♦ Key Points:

- A **log file** records every change made to the database
  - It is stored on **stable storage (disk)** to survive system crashes
  - Log records are written **sequentially** during transaction execution
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#### ♦ Contents of Log Entry:

Each log entry contains:

- **Transaction ID (TID)** → identifies the transaction
  - **Operation performed** → read/write
  - **Old value** → value before modification
  - **New value** → value after modification
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#### ♦ Purpose:

The log helps in:

- **Undo (Rollback)** → reverse changes if transaction fails
  - **Redo (Recovery)** → reapply changes after commit
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#### ♦ Example:

Transaction T1 updates balance:

- Old Balance = ₹5000
- New Balance = ₹4000

👉 Log entry:

<T1, Balance, 5000, 4000>

- ✓ If crash occurs **before commit** → Undo → restore ₹5000
  - ✓ If crash occurs **after commit** → Redo → set ₹4000
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## 2. Working Flow of Atomicity Implementation

Atomicity ensures **all-or-nothing execution** of transactions using the following steps:

- ♦ **Steps:**

1. **Transaction Starts**
  2. **Logging of Operations** (Write-Ahead Logging)
  3. **Apply Changes to Database**
  4. **Commit (if successful)**
  5. **Rollback using Undo (if failure occurs)**
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- ♦ **Simple Example**

**Transaction T1:**

- Step 1: Debit ₹500 from Account A
  - Step 2: Credit ₹500 to Account B
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- 👉 **Case 1: Successful Execution**

- ✓ Both steps completed
- ➡ Transaction **Committed**

Final Result:

- $A = A - 500$
  - $B = B + 500$
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- 👉 **Case 2: Failure After Debit**

- ✗ Credit not executed
- ➡ System performs **Undo**

- ₹500 restored back to Account A

✓ Final Result:

- 👉 No change in database (**Atomicity maintained**)
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- ♦ **Key Line for Exam:**

👉 *Atomicity is achieved using log-based recovery, where all operations are recorded and either committed fully or rolled back completely using undo operations.*

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## Write-Ahead Logging (WAL)

**Write-Ahead Logging (WAL)** is a technique used in DBMS to ensure **atomicity and durability**.

👉 It states that:

**“The log must be written to stable storage before the actual data is written to the database.”**

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### ♦ Key Principle:

- **Log first → Data later**
  - No database update is allowed until its **log record is safely stored on disk**
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### ♦ Rules of WAL:

#### 1. Undo Rule

- Before modifying any data item, the **old value must be written to the log**
  - Ensures that changes can be **undone** if failure occurs
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#### 2. Redo Rule

- All log records must be written to disk **before committing the transaction**
  - Ensures that changes can be **redone** after a crash
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### ♦ Working:

1. Transaction starts
  2. Changes are first written in the **log file**
  3. Log is saved to **stable storage (disk)**
  4. Then actual data is updated in the database
  5. If successful → **Commit**
  6. If failure → **Undo using log**
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### ♦ Example:

Transaction T1:

- Step 1: Update Account A from ₹5000 → ₹4000

👉 Log entry written first:

<T1, A, 5000, 4000>

✓ After log is saved → database is updated

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#### 👉 Case 1: Crash Before Commit

- ➡ Use **Undo**
  - ➡ Restore old value = ₹5000
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#### 👉 Case 2: Crash After Commit

- ➡ Use **Redo**
  - ➡ Set value = ₹4000
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#### ♦ Advantages:

- Ensures **atomicity** (all-or-nothing execution)
  - Ensures **durability** (committed data is not lost)
  - Enables **recovery after system failure**
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#### ♦ Key Line for Exam:

👉 *Write-Ahead Logging ensures that all changes are first recorded in the log before updating the database, enabling reliable undo and redo operations.*

#### Implementation of Durability (RDBMS)

**Durability** is one of the ACID properties which ensures:

👉 *Once a transaction is committed, its changes are permanently stored and will not be lost, even in case of system failure.*

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#### ♦ Techniques to Implement Durability

##### 1. Stable Storage

- Data is stored on **non-volatile memory** (e.g., hard disk/SSD)
- Unlike RAM, this storage **does not lose data after power failure**

👉 Ensures that committed data remains safe permanently

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##### 2. Redo Logs

- The DBMS maintains **log records of all changes**
- After a crash, the system uses these logs to **reapply (redo) committed transactions**

👉 Ensures committed changes are **not lost**

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### 3. Checkpoints

- DBMS periodically saves a **consistent snapshot of the database**
- This point is called a **checkpoint**

👉 During recovery:

- System starts from the **last checkpoint** instead of the beginning
  - Reduces recovery time
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#### ♦ Working Flow of Durability

1. Transaction starts
  2. Changes are written to **log file (WAL)**
  3. Transaction is **committed**
  4. Logs and data are saved to **stable storage**
  5. In case of crash → **Redo operation** restores committed data
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#### ♦ Simple Example

Transaction T1:

- Step 1: Update Account A ₹5000 → ₹4000
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#### 👉 Case 1: After Commit

- ✓ Transaction committed successfully
  - ✓ Data stored on disk
  - ➡ Even if **power failure occurs**,
  - 👉 Value remains **₹4000 (not lost)**
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#### 👉 Case 2: Crash After Commit but Before Data Write

- ➡ Use **Redo logs**
- ➡ System reapplies change

✓ Final Result:

👉 Data remains ₹4000 (**Durability maintained**)

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♦ **Key Line for Exam:**

👉 *Durability is ensured by storing data on stable storage, maintaining redo logs, and using checkpoints to recover committed transactions after failure.*

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## **Concurrent Execution (RDBMS)**

**Concurrent Execution** means:

👉 *Multiple transactions are executed simultaneously in the database system.*

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♦ **Advantages:**

1. **Improves Performance**

- Multiple transactions run together → faster processing

2. **Better CPU Utilization**

- CPU is not idle while waiting for one transaction

3. **Faster Response Time**

- Users get quicker results
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♦ **Problems in Concurrent Execution:**

1. **Lost Update**

- One transaction overwrites the update of another

👉 Example:

T1 and T2 both update same account → one update is lost

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2. **Dirty Read**

- A transaction reads **uncommitted data** of another transaction

👉 Example:

T1 updates value but not committed

T2 reads it → later T1 fails → wrong data used

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3. **Non-Repeatable Read**

- Same data read twice gives **different values**

👉 Example:

T1 reads value

T2 updates and commits  
T1 reads again → value changed

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#### 4. Phantom Read

- New rows appear/disappear during transaction

👉 Example:

T1 queries records

T2 inserts new record

T1 queries again → extra row appears

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#### ♦ Working Concept:

- Transactions execute **simultaneously**
  - DBMS uses **scheduling and isolation techniques** to manage conflicts
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#### ♦ Simple Example:

Two users accessing same account:

- User 1 (T1): Withdraw ₹500
- User 2 (T2): Deposit ₹1000

👉 If executed concurrently without control:

➡ Conflict may occur (wrong balance)

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#### ♦ Key Line for Exam:

👉 *Concurrent execution allows multiple transactions to run simultaneously, improving performance but may lead to problems like lost update, dirty read, non-repeatable read, and phantom read.*

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### Seriali

### zability (RDBMS)

**Serializability** ensures:

👉 *Concurrent execution of transactions produces the same result as some serial (one-by-one) execution.*

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#### ♦ Types of Serializability:

##### 1. Conflict Serializability

- Based on **conflicting operations** (Read-Write, Write-Write, Write-Read)

- If a schedule can be transformed into a serial order → it is conflict serializable
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## 2. View Serializability

- Based on **final result (view)** of transactions
  - Less strict than conflict serializability
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### ♦ Why Needed:

- Maintains **data consistency**
  - Avoids incorrect results due to concurrency
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### ♦ Example:

Transaction T1 and T2:

- T1: Read(A), Write(A)
- T2: Read(A), Write(A)

👉 Serial execution:

- T1 → T2 OR T2 → T1

👉 Concurrent execution must give **same result as one of these**

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### ♦ Key Line for Exam:

👉 *Serializability ensures that concurrent transactions produce results equivalent to serial execution.*

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## 7. Isolation (RDBMS)

**Isolation** ensures:

👉 *Transactions execute independently without interference from other transactions.*

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### ♦ Isolation Levels:

#### 1. Read Uncommitted

- Allows dirty reads

#### 2. Read Committed

- Prevents dirty reads

#### 3. Repeatable Read

- Prevents non-repeatable reads

#### 4. Serializable

- Prevents all concurrency problems
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##### ♦ Purpose:

- Prevents:
    - Dirty Read
    - Lost Update
    - Non-repeatable Read
    - Phantom Read
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##### ♦ Example:

- T1 updates data but not committed
  - T2 should **not see this change** (high isolation level)
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##### ♦ Key Line for Exam:

👉 *Isolation ensures that transactions are executed as if they are running alone in the system.*

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#### 8. Recoverability (RDBMS)

**Recoverability** ensures:

👉 *A transaction commits only after all transactions whose changes it has read are committed.*

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##### ♦ Why Needed:

- Prevents **inconsistent database state**
  - Ensures safe recovery after failure
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##### ♦ Types of Recoverability:

#### 1. Recoverable Schedule

- T2 commits **after** T1 commits (if T2 read T1's data)
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## 2. Cascading Rollback

- If one transaction fails → dependent transactions also rollback
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## 3. Cascadeless Schedule

- Transactions read only **committed data**
  - Avoids cascading rollback
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## 4. Strict Schedule

- No transaction can read/write data until previous transaction commits
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### ♦ Example:

- T1 updates A but not committed
- T2 reads A

👉 If T1 fails → T2 must also rollback (**cascading rollback**)

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### ♦ Key Line for Exam:

👉 *Recoverability ensures that transactions commit in a safe order to maintain database consistency and avoid cascading failures.*