Transactions

- The most important reliability technology for client-server systems
- Now start an in-depth examination of the topic
  - How transactional systems really work
  - Implementation considerations
  - Limitations and performance challenges
  - Scalability of transactional systems
- Traditionally covered in multiple lectures, but with the cloud emphasis in CS5410 this year, compressed into a single one
Transactions

- There are several perspectives on how to achieve reliability
  - We’ve talked at some length about non-transactional replication via multicast
  - Another approach focuses on reliability of communication channels and leaves application-oriented issues to the client or server – “stateless”
  - But many systems focus on the data managed by a system. This yields transactional applications
Transactions on a single database:

- In a client/server architecture,
- A transaction is an execution of a single program of the application (client) at the server.
  - Seen at the server as a series of reads and writes.
- We want this setup to work when
  - There are multiple simultaneous client transactions running at the server.
  - Client/Server could fail at any time.
Transactions –
The ACID Properties

- Are the four desirable properties for reliable handling of concurrent transactions.
- Atomicity
  - The “All or Nothing” behavior.
- C: stands for either
  - Concurrency: Transactions can be executed concurrently
  - ... or Consistency: Each transaction, if executed by itself, maintains the correctness of the database.
- Isolation (Serializability)
  - Concurrent transaction execution should be equivalent (in effect) to a serialized execution.
- Durability
  - Once a transaction is done, it stays done.
Transactions in the real world

- In cs514 lectures, transactions are treated at the same level as other techniques.
- But in the real world, transactions represent a huge chunk (in $ value) of the existing market for distributed systems!
  - The web is gradually starting to shift the balance (not by reducing the size of the transaction market but by growing so fast that it is catching up).
  - But even on the web, we use transactions when we buy products.
The transactional model

- Applications are coded in a stylized way:
  - `begin` transaction
  - Perform a series of `read`, `update` operations
  - Terminate by `commit` or `abort`.

- Terminology
  - The application is the transaction manager
  - The data manager is presented with operations from concurrently active transactions
  - It schedules them in an interleaved but serializable order
A side remark

- Each transaction is built up incrementally
  - Application runs
  - And as it runs, it issues operations
  - The data manager sees them one by one
- But often we talk as if we knew the whole thing at one time
  - We’re careful to do this in ways that make sense
  - In any case, we usually don’t need to say anything until a “commit” is issued
Transactions and Data Managers

Transactions

Data (and Lock) Managers

Read
Update
Read
Update

transactions are stateful: transaction “knows” about database contents and updates
Typical transactional program

begin transaction;
    x = read("x-values", ....);
    y = read("y-values", ....);
    z = x+y;
    write("z-values", z, ....);
commit transaction;
What about the locks?

- Unlike other kinds of distributed systems, transactional systems typically lock the data they access.
- They obtain these locks as they run:
  - Before accessing “x” get a lock on “x”
  - Usually we assume that the application knows enough to get the right kind of lock. It is not good to get a read lock if you’ll later need to update the object.
- In clever applications, one lock will often cover many objects.
Locking rule

Suppose that transaction $T$ will access object $x$.

- We need to know that first, $T$ gets a lock that “covers” $x$
- What does coverage entail?
  - We need to know that if any other transaction $T'$ tries to access $x$ it will attempt to get the same lock
Examples of lock coverage

- We could have one lock per object
- ... or one lock for the whole database
- ... or one lock for a category of objects
  - In a tree, we could have one lock for the whole tree associated with the root
  - In a table we could have one lock for row, or one for each column, or one for the whole table
- All transactions must use the same rules!
- And if you will update the object, the lock must be a “write” lock, not a “read” lock
Transactional Execution Log

- As the transaction runs, it creates a history of its actions. Suppose we were to write down the sequence of operations it performs.
- Data manager does this, one by one
- This yields a “schedule”
  - Operations and order they executed
  - Can infer order in which transactions ran
- Scheduling is called “concurrency control”
Observations

- Program runs “by itself”, doesn’t talk to others
- All the work is done in one program, in straight-line fashion. If an application requires running several programs, like a C compilation, it would run as several separate transactions!
- The persistent data is maintained in files or database relations external to the application
Serializability

- Means that effect of the interleaved execution is indistinguishable from some possible serial execution of the committed transactions
- For example: *T₁ and T₂ are interleaved but it “looks like” T₂ ran before T₁*
- Idea is that transactions can be coded to be correct if run in isolation, and yet will run correctly when executed concurrently (and hence gain a speedup)
Need for serializable execution

Data manager interleaves operations to improve concurrency
Non serializable execution

Problem: transactions may “interfere”. Here, $T_2$ changes $x$, hence $T_1$ should have either run first (read and write) or after (reading the changed value).
Serializable execution

Data manager interleaves operations to improve concurrency but schedules them so that it looks as if one transaction ran at a time. This schedule “looks” like $T_2$ ran first.
Atomicity considerations

- If application (“transaction manager”) crashes, treat as an abort
- If data manager crashes, abort any non-committed transactions, but committed state is persistent
  - Aborted transactions leave no effect, either in database itself or in terms of indirect side-effects
  - Only need to consider committed operations in determining serializability
How can data manager sort out the operations?

- We need a way to distinguish different transactions
  - In example, $T_1$ and $T_2$
- Solve this by requiring an agreed upon RPC argument list (“interface”)
  - Each operation is an RPC from the transaction mgr to the data mgr
  - Arguments include the transaction “id”
- Major products like NT 6.0 standardize these interfaces
Components of transactional system

- Runtime environment: responsible for assigning transaction id’s and labeling each operation with the correct id.
- Concurrency control subsystem: responsible for scheduling operations so that outcome will be serializable
- Data manager: responsible for implementing the database storage and retrieval functions
Transactions at a “single” database

- Normally use 2-phase locking or timestamps for concurrency control
- Intentions list tracks “intended updates” for each active transaction
- Write-ahead log used to ensure all-or-nothing aspect of commit operations
- Can achieve thousands of transactions per second
Strict Two-phase locking: how it works

- Transaction must have a lock on each data item it will access.
  - Gets a “write lock” if it will (ever) update the item
  - Use “read lock” if it will (only) read the item. Can’t change its mind!
- Obtains all the locks it needs while it runs and hold onto them even if no longer needed
- Releases locks only after making commit/abort decision and only after updates are persistent
Why do we call it “Strict” “two phase”?

2-phase locking: Locks only acquired during the ‘growing’ phase, only released during the ‘shrinking’ phase.

Strict: Locks are only released after the commit decision
  - Read locks don’t conflict with each other (hence T’ can read x even if T holds a read lock on x)
  - Update locks conflict with everything (are “exclusive”)
Strict Two-phase Locking

$T_1$: begin read(x) read(y) write(x) commit

$T_2$: begin read(x) write(x) write(y) commit

Acquires locks

Releases locks
Notes

- Notice that locks must be kept even if the same objects won’t be revisited
  - This can be a problem in long-running applications!
  - Also becomes an issue in systems that crash and then recover
    - Often, they “forget” locks when this happens
    - Called “broken locks”. We say that a crash may “break” current locks...
Why does strict 2PL imply serializability?

- Suppose that T’ will perform an operation that conflicts with an operation that T has done:
  - T’ will update data item X that T read or updated
  - T updated item Y and T’ will read or update it
- T must have had a lock on X/Y that conflicts with the lock that T’ wants
- T won’t release it until it commits or aborts
- So T’ will wait until T commits or aborts
Acyclic conflict graph implies serializability

- Can represent conflicts between operations and between locks by a graph (e.g. first T1 reads x and then T2 writes x)
- If this graph is acyclic, can easily show that transactions are serializable
- Two-phase locking produces acyclic conflict graphs
Two-phase locking is “pessimistic”

- Acts to prevent non-serializable schedules from arising: pessimistically assumes conflicts are fairly likely
- Can deadlock, e.g. T1 reads x then writes y; T2 reads y then writes x. This doesn’t always deadlock but it is capable of deadlocking
  - Overcome by aborting if we wait for too long,
  - Or by designing transactions to obtain locks in a known and agreed upon ordering
Contrast: Timestamped approach

- Using a fine-grained clock, assign a “time” to each transaction, uniquely. E.g. T1 is at time 1, T2 is at time 2
- Now data manager tracks temporal history of each data item, responds to requests as if they had occurred at time given by timestamp
- At commit stage, make sure that commit is consistent with serializability and, if not, abort
Example of when we abort

- T₁ runs, updates x, setting to 3
- T₂ runs concurrently but has a larger timestamp. It reads x=3
- T₁ eventually aborts
- ... T₂ must abort too, since it read a value of x that is no longer a committed value
  - Called a cascaded abort since abort of T₁ triggers abort of T₂
Pros and cons of approaches

- Locking scheme works best when conflicts between transactions are common and transactions are short-running
- Timestamped scheme works best when conflicts are rare and transactions are relatively long-running
- Weihl has suggested hybrid approaches but these are not common in real systems
Intentions list concept

- Idea is to separate persistent state of database from the updates that have been done but have yet to commit
- Intensions list may simply be the in-memory cached database state
- Say that transactions intends to commit these updates, if indeed it commits
Role of write-ahead log

- Used to save either old or new state of database to either permit abort by rollback (need old state) or to ensure that commit is all-or-nothing (by being able to repeat updates until all are completed)
- Rule is that log must be written before database is modified
- After commit record is persistently stored and all updates are done, can erase log contents
Structure of a transactional system
Recovery?

- Transactional data manager reboots
- It rescans the log
  - Ignores non-committed transactions
  - Reapplies any updates
  - These must be “idempotent”
    - Can be repeated many times with exactly the same effect as a single time
    - E.g. $x := 3$, but not $x := x.\text{prev} + 1$
- Then clears log records
- (In normal use, log records are deleted once transaction commits)
Transactions in distributed systems

- Notice that client and data manager might not run on same computer
  - Both may not fail at same time
  - Also, either could timeout waiting for the other in normal situations

- When this happens, we normally abort the transaction
  - Exception is a timeout that occurs while commit is being processed
  - If server fails, one effect of crash is to break locks *even for read-only access*
Transactions in distributed systems

- What if data is on multiple servers?
  - In a non-distributed system, transactions run against a single database system
    - Indeed, many systems structured to use just a single operation – a “one shot” transaction!
  - In distributed systems may want one application to talk to multiple databases
Transactions in distributed systems

- Main issue that arises is that now we can have multiple database servers that are touched by one transaction.

- Reasons?
  - Data spread around: each owns subset
  - Could have replicated some data object on multiple servers, e.g. to load-balance read access for large client set
  - Might do this for high availability

- Solve using 2-phase commit protocol!
Two-phase commit in transactions

- Phase 1: transaction wishes to commit. Data managers force updates and lock records to the disk (e.g. to the log) and then say prepared to commit
- Transaction manager makes sure all are prepared, then says commit (or abort, if some are not)
- Data managers then make updates permanent or rollback to old values, and release locks
Commit protocol illustrated

ok to commit?
Commit protocol illustrated

Note: garbage collection protocol not shown here
Unilateral abort

- Any data manager can unilaterally abort a transaction until it has said “prepared”
- Useful if transaction manager seems to have failed
- Also arises if data manager crashes and restarts (hence will have lost any non-persistent intended updates and locks)
- Implication: even a data manager where only reads were done must participate in 2PC protocol!
Notes on 2PC

- Although protocol looks trivial we’ll revisit it later and will find it more subtle than meets the eye!
- Not a cheap protocol
  - Considered costly because of latency: few systems can pay this price
  - Hence most “real” systems run transactions only against a single server
Things we didn’t cover today

- (Detail in the book)
- First, more on how transactional systems are implemented
  - We normally discuss “nested transactions”, where one transaction issues a request to a service that tries to run another transaction
  - You end up with the child transaction “inside” the parent one: if the parent aborts, the child rolls back too (even if the child had committed)
  - Leads to an elegant model... but expensive!
More stuff we didn’t cover

- Transactions with replicated data, or that visit multiple servers
  - Most systems use what are called “quorum” reads and writes with 2PC to ensure serializability
  - No oracle: they generally assume a locked-down set of servers, although some could be unavailable
  - This is quite expensive (even a read involves accessing at least two copies, hence every operation is an RPC!)
- There are also problems with maintaining availability
  - 2PC can block (and so can 3PC, without an oracle)
And even more stuff

- We would have talked about speed....
  - ... the bottom line being that transactions are very fast with just one server but exploiting parallelism is hard
  - Partitioning works well. Anything else...
  - ... hence we get back to to RAPS of RACS, but the RACS are usually very small, maybe just 1 node or perhaps 2
- Many real systems bend the ACID rules
  - For example, they do primary/backup servers but don’t keep the backup perfectly synchronized
  - If a failure occurs, backup can be out of date, but at least normal-case performance is good
Summary

- Transactions are a *huge* part of the cloud story
  - In fact, too big to cover in cs5410 – we would spend the whole semester on the topic!
  - ACID transactional databases live in the core of the cloud.... And things that need real persistence and consistency always run through them
- But to gain scalability, we avoid using these strong properties as much as possible
- In eBay, 99% of the nodes use looser forms of consistency. Transactions used only when consistency is absolutely needed. MSN “Live” has similar story