

CS5412: TRANSACTIONS (I)

Lecture XVII

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Transactions

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- A widely used reliability technology, despite the BASE methodology we use in the first tier
- Goal for this week: in-depth examination of topic
 - ▣ How transactional systems really work
 - ▣ Implementation considerations
 - ▣ Limitations and performance challenges
 - ▣ Scalability of transactional systems
- Topic will span two lectures

Transactions

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- 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:

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- 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.

The ACID Properties

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- Atomicity
 - ▣ All or nothing.
- Consistency:
 - ▣ Each transaction, if executed by itself, maintains the correctness of the database.
- Isolation (Serializability)
 - ▣ Transactions won't see partially completed results of other non-committed transactions
- Durability
 - ▣ Once a transaction commits, future transactions see its results

Transactions in the real world

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- In cs5142 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

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- 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

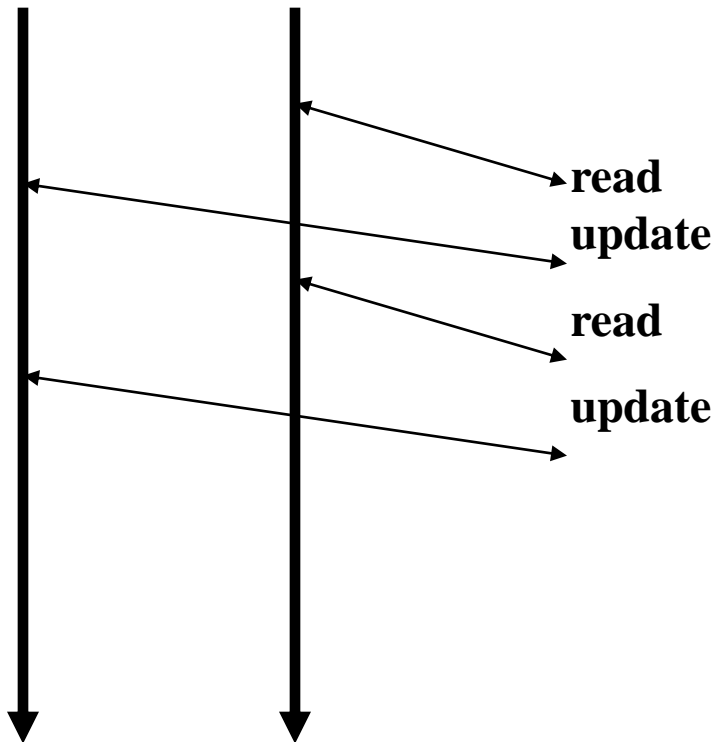
A side remark

- 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

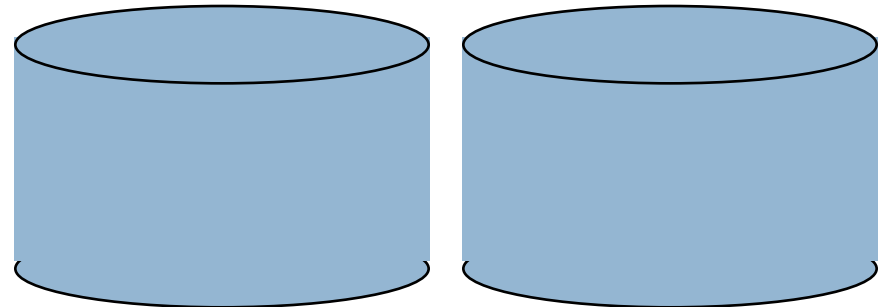
Transaction and Data Managers

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Transactions



Data (and Lock) Managers



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

Typical transactional program

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```
begin transaction;  
    x = read("x-values", ....);  
    y = read("y-values", ....);  
    z = x+y;  
    write("z-values", z, ....);  
commit transaction;
```

What about locks?

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- Unlike some 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

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- 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

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- 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

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- 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

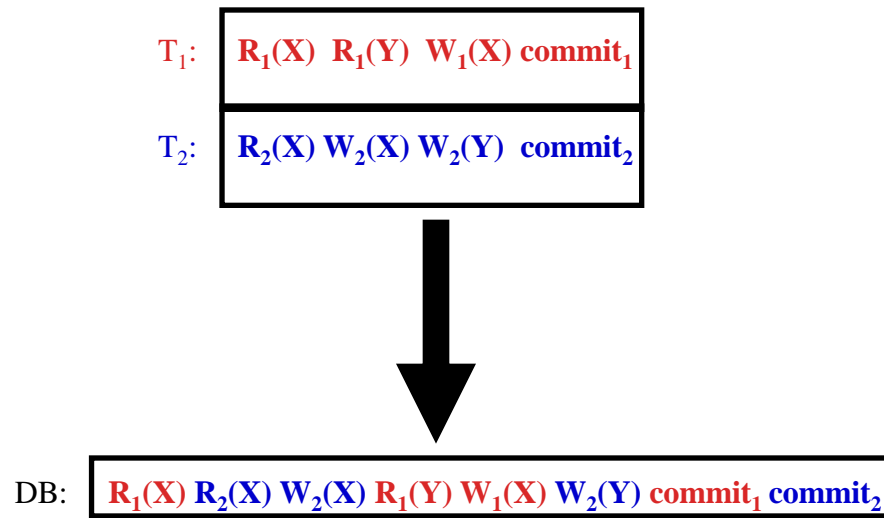
Serializability

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- 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

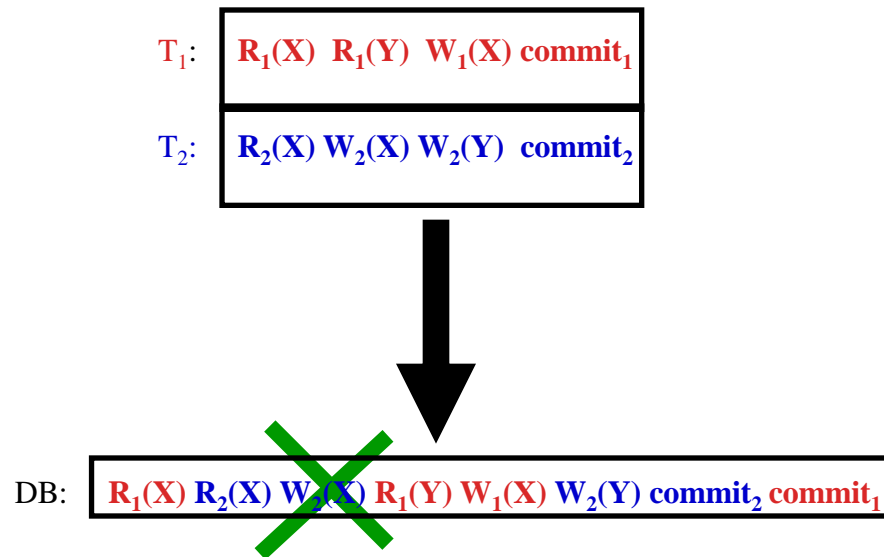
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Data manager interleaves operations to improve concurrency

Non serializable execution

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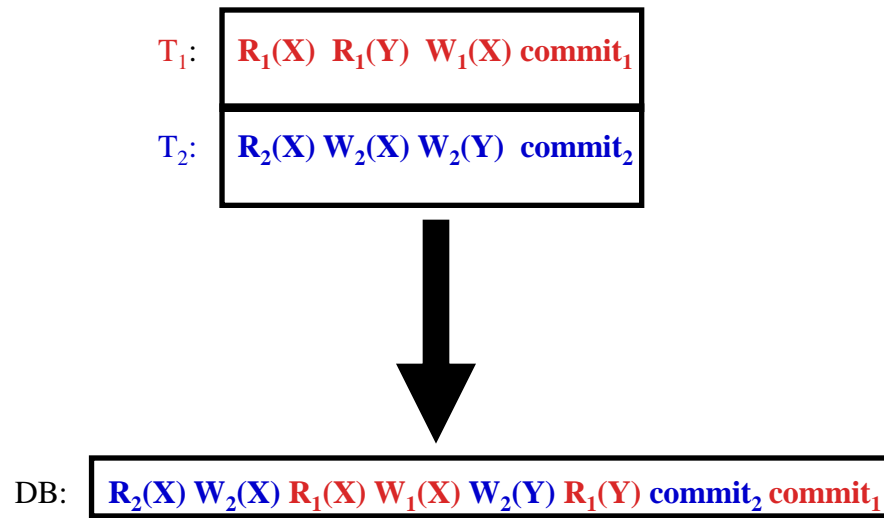


Unsafe! Not serializable

Problem: transactions may “interfere”. Here, T₂ changes x, hence T₁ should have either run first (read and write) or after (reading the changed value).

Serializable execution

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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 T₂ ran first.

Atomicity considerations

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- 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

Components of transactional system

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- 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

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- 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

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- 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?

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- 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

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T₁: begin read(x) read(y) write(x) commit

T₂: begin read(x) write(x) write(y) commit

Acquires locks

Releases locks

Notes

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- 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?

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- 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

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- 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”

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- 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

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- 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

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- 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

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- 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

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

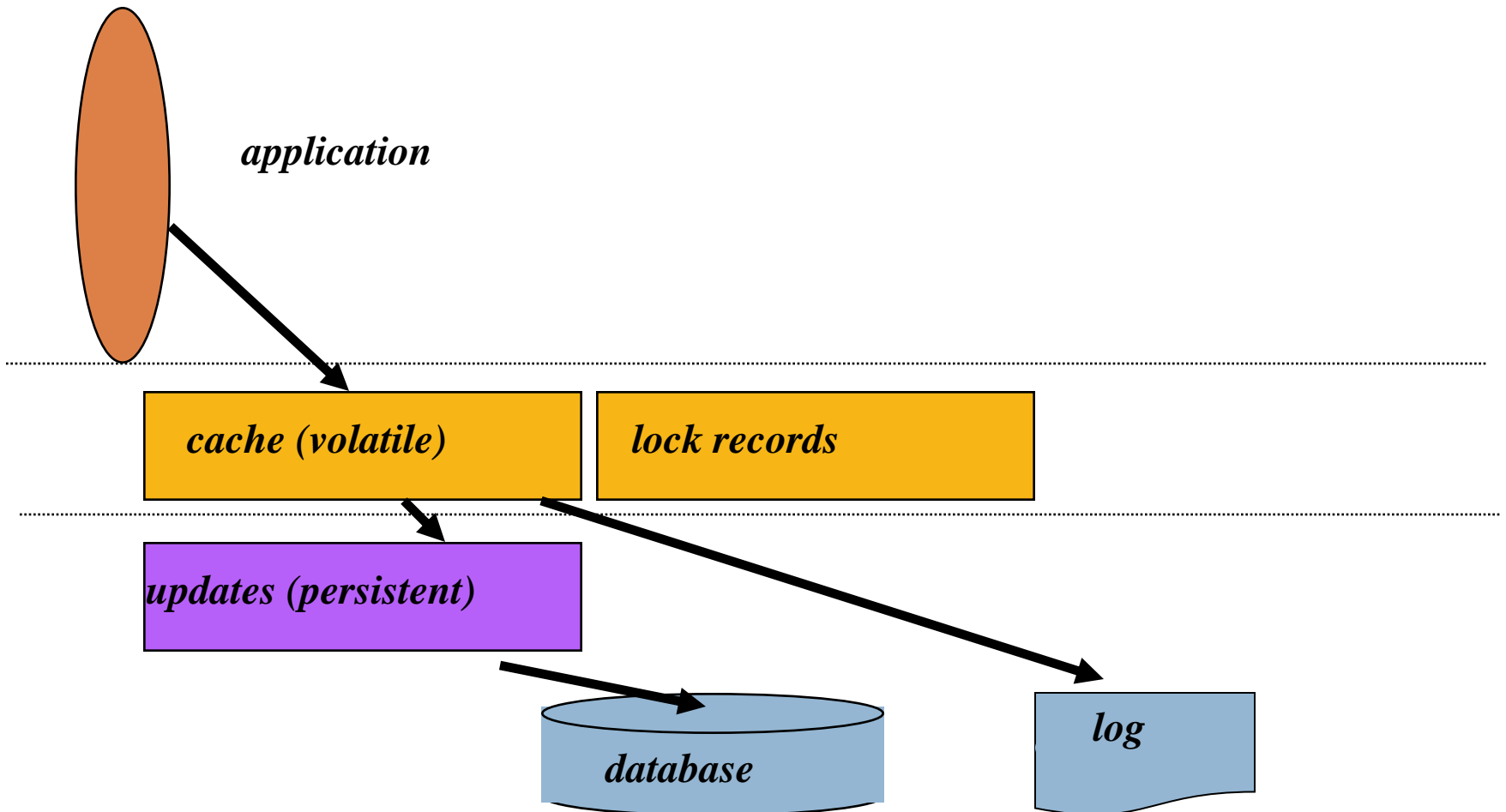
Role of write-ahead log

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- 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

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Recovery?

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- 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

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- 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

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- 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

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- 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!

Unilateral abort

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- 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!

Transactions on distributed objects

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- Idea was proposed by Liskov's Argus group and then became popular again recently
- Each object translates an abstract set of operations into the concrete operations that implement it
- Result is that object invocations may “nest”:
 - ▣ Library “update” operations, do
 - ▣ A series of file read and write operations that do
 - ▣ A series of accesses to the disk device

Nested transactions

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- Call the traditional style of flat transaction a “top level” transaction
 - ▣ Argus short hand: “actions”
- The main program becomes the top level action
- Within it objects run as nested actions

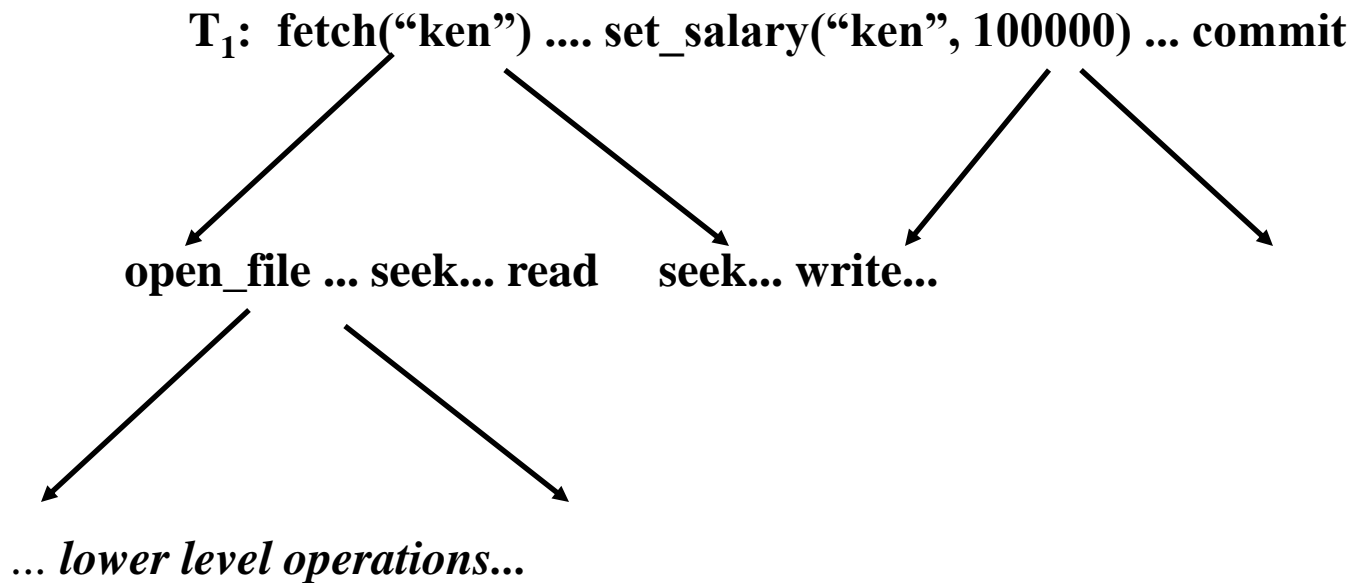
Arguments for nested transactions

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- It makes sense to treat each object invocation as a small transaction: begin when the invocation is done, and commit or abort when result is returned
 - ▣ Can use abort as a “tool”: try something; if it doesn’t work just do an abort to back out of it.
 - ▣ Turns out we can easily extend transactional model to accommodate nested transactions
- Liskov argues that in this approach we have a simple conceptual framework for distributed computing

Nested transactions: picture

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Observations

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- Can number operations using the obvious notation
 - ▣ T1, T1.2.1.....
- Subtransaction commit should make results visible to the parent transaction
- Subtransaction abort should return to state when subtransaction (not parent) was initiated
- Data managers maintain a stack of data versions

Stacking rule

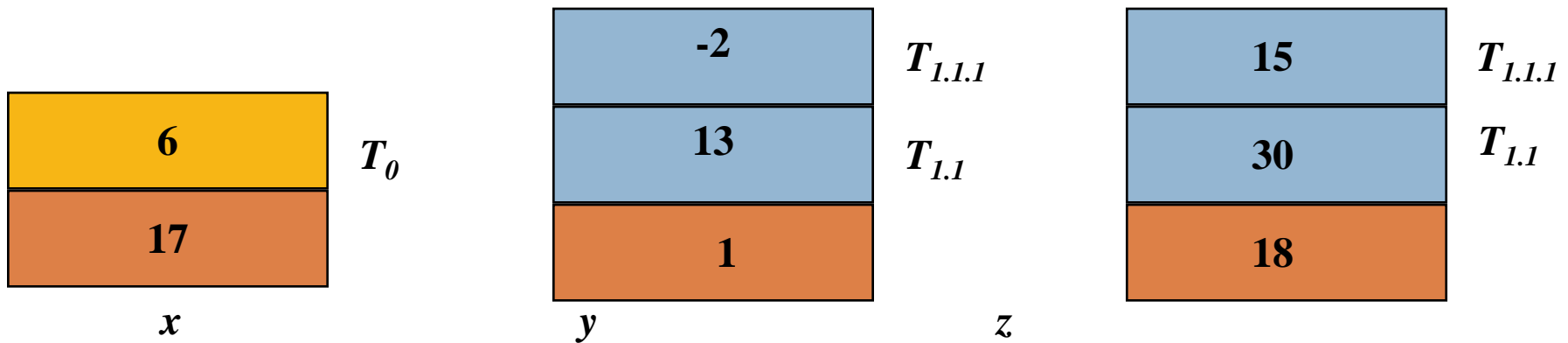
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- Abstractly, when subtransaction starts, we push a new copy of each data item on top of the stack for that item
- When subtransaction aborts we pop the stack
- When subtransaction commits we pop two items and push top one back on again
- In practice, can implement this much more efficiently!!!

Data objects viewed as “stacks”

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- Transaction T_0 wrote 6 into x
- Transaction T_1 spawned subtransactions that wrote new values for y and z



Locking rules?

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- When subtransaction requests lock, it should be able to obtain locks held by its parent
- Subtransaction aborts, locks return to “prior state”
- Subtransaction commits, locks retained by parent
- ... Moss has shown that this extended version of 2-phase locking guarantees serializability of nested transactions

Relatively recent developments

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- Many cloud-computing solutions favor non-transactional tables to reduce delays even if consistency is much weaker
 - ▣ Called the NoSQL movement: “Not SQL”
 - ▣ Application must somehow cope with inconsistencies and failure issues. E.g. your problem, not the platform’s.
- Also widely used: a model called “Snapshot isolation”. Gives a form of consistency for reads and for updates, but not full serializability

Summary

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- Transactional model lets us deal with large databases or other large data stores
- Provides a model for achieving high concurrency
- Concurrent transactions won't stumble over one-another because ACID model offers efficient ways to achieve required guarantees