Transactions

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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

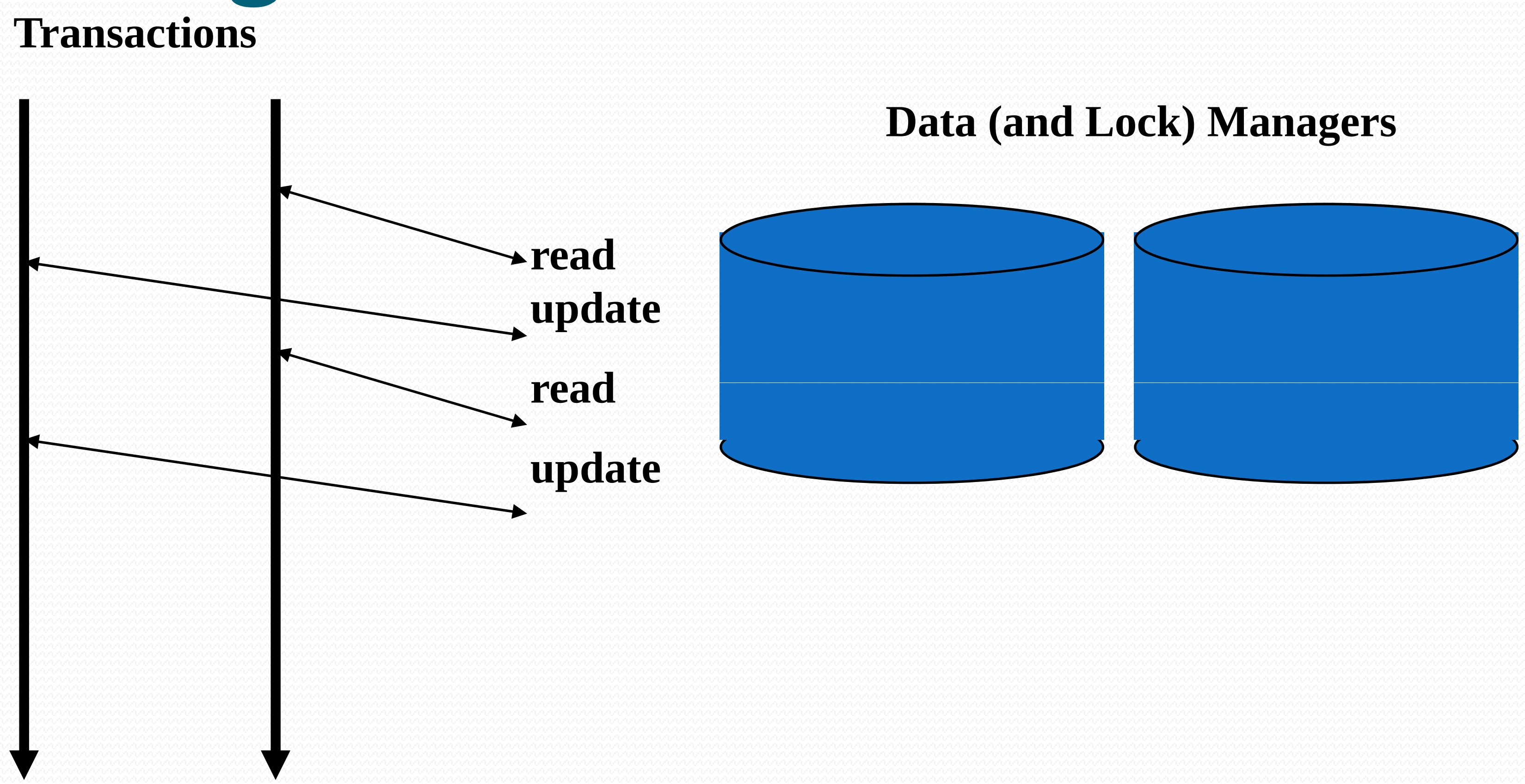
The transactional model

- 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

Transaction and Data Managers



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

T_1: $R_1(X)$ $R_1(Y)$ $W_1(X)$ $commit_1$

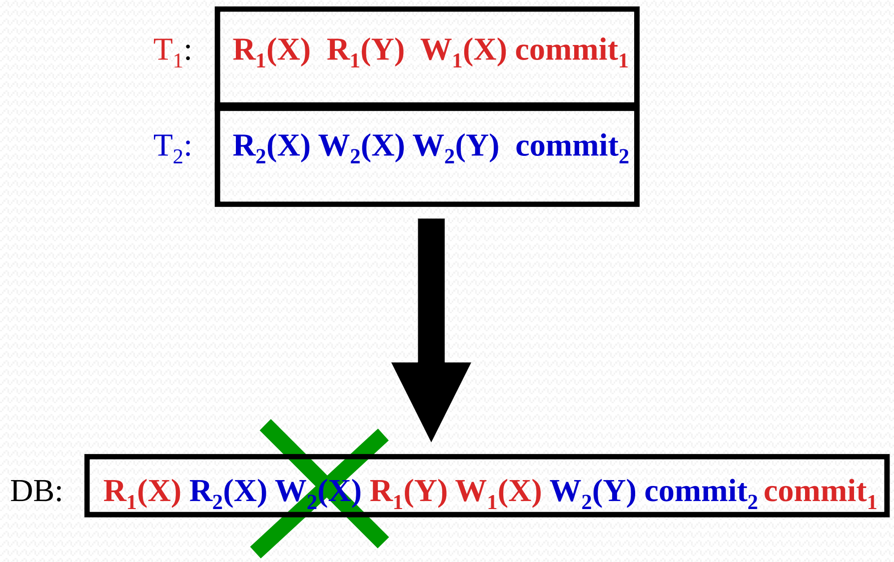
T_2: $R_2(X)$ $W_2(X)$ $W_2(Y)$ $commit_2$

↓

DB: $R_1(X)$ $R_2(X)$ $W_2(X)$ $R_1(Y)$ $W_1(X)$ $W_2(Y)$ $commit_1$ $commit_2$

Data manager interleaves operations to improve concurrency

Non serializable execution



Unsafe! Not serializable

Problem: transactions may "interfere". Here, T_2 changes x, hence T_1 should have either run first (read <u>and</u> write) or after (reading the changed value).

Serializable execution

T_1: $R_1(X)$ $R_1(Y)$ $W_1(X)$ $commit_1$

T_2: $R_2(X)$ $W_2(X)$ $W_2(Y)$ $commit_2$

DB: $R_2(X)$ $W_2(X)$ $R_1(X)$ $W_1(X)$ $W_2(Y)$ $R_1(Y)$ $commit_2$ $commit_1$

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

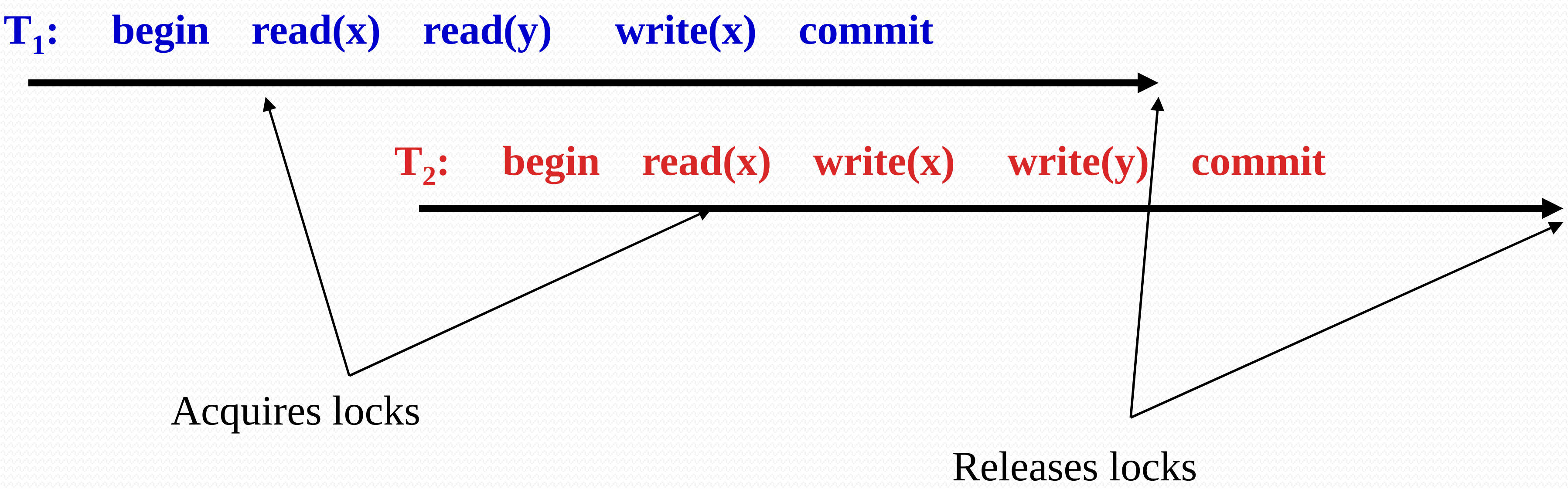
Strict Two-phase locking: how it works

- 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



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 occured 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 T_1 triggers abort of T_2

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

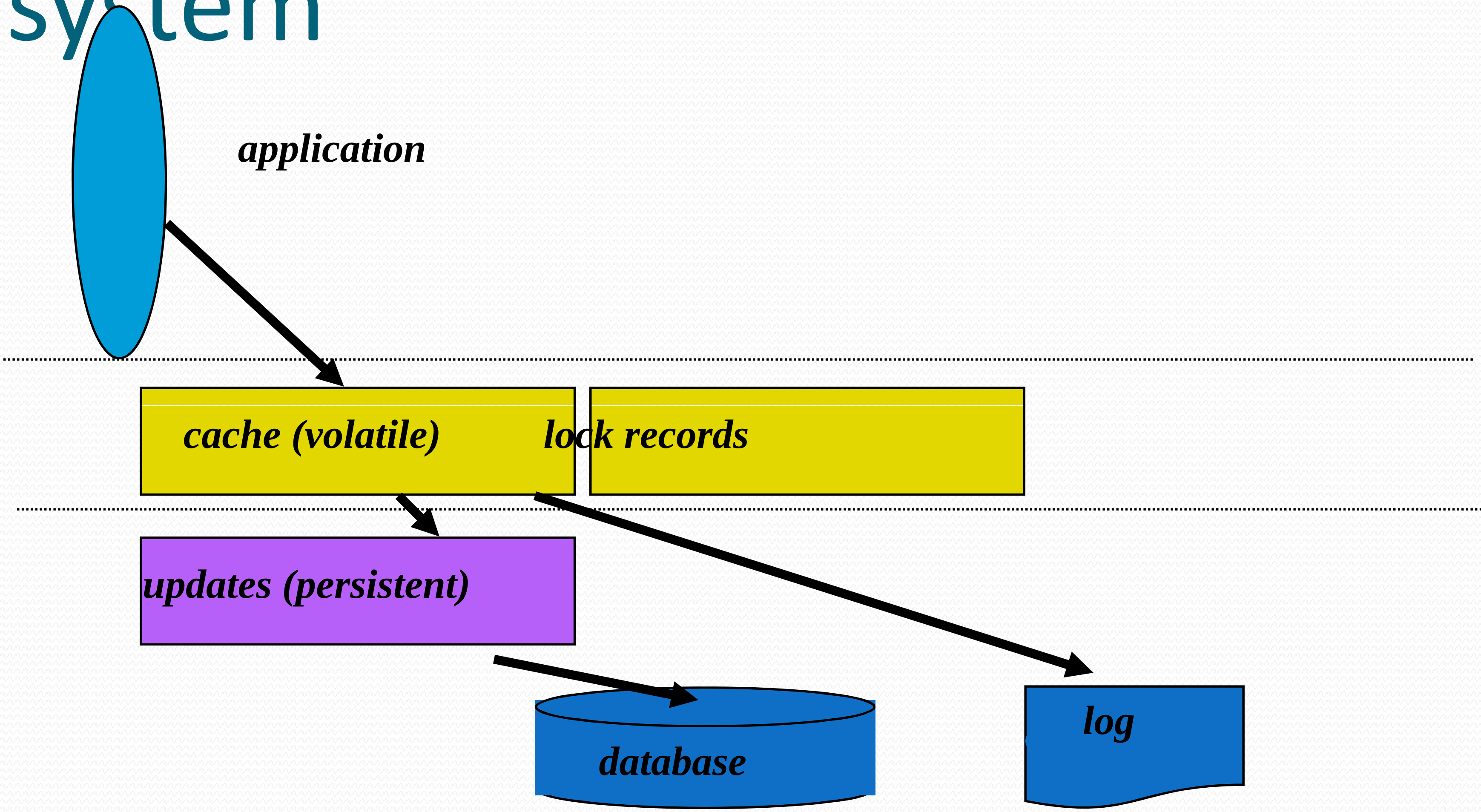
Intentions list concept

- 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.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

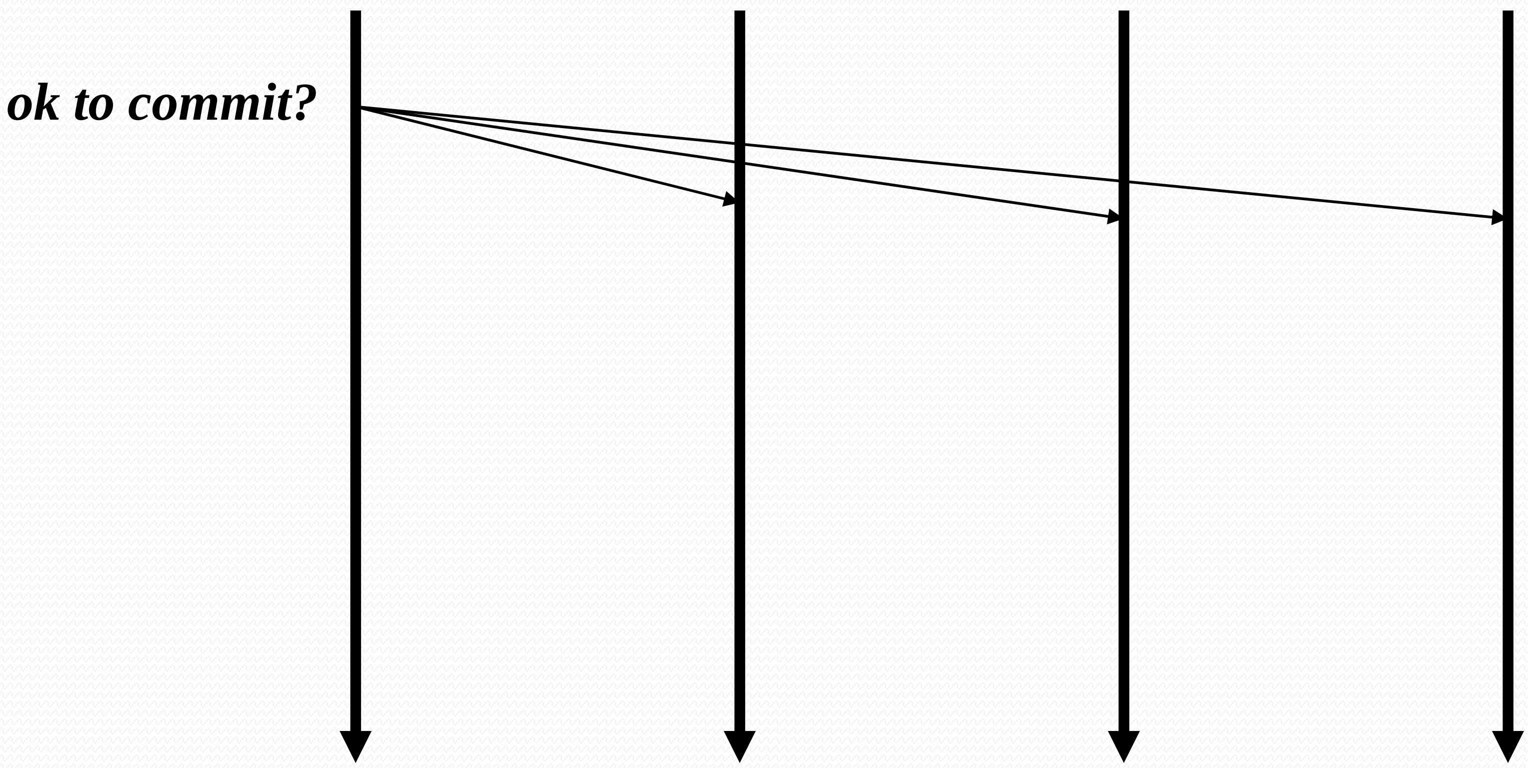
Transactions in distributed systems

- 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!

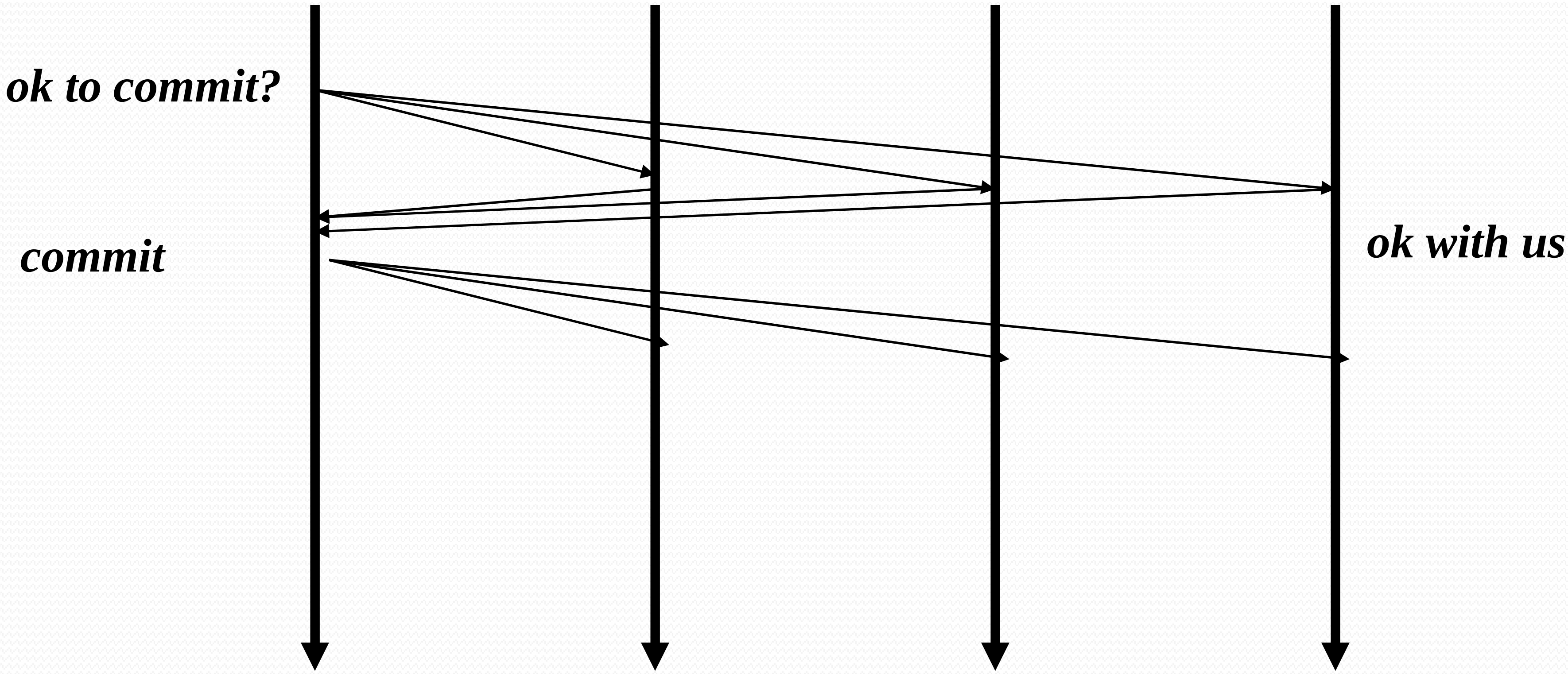
Two-phase commit in transactions

- 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



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