Transactions and Consistency

CSE 486/586: Distributed Systems

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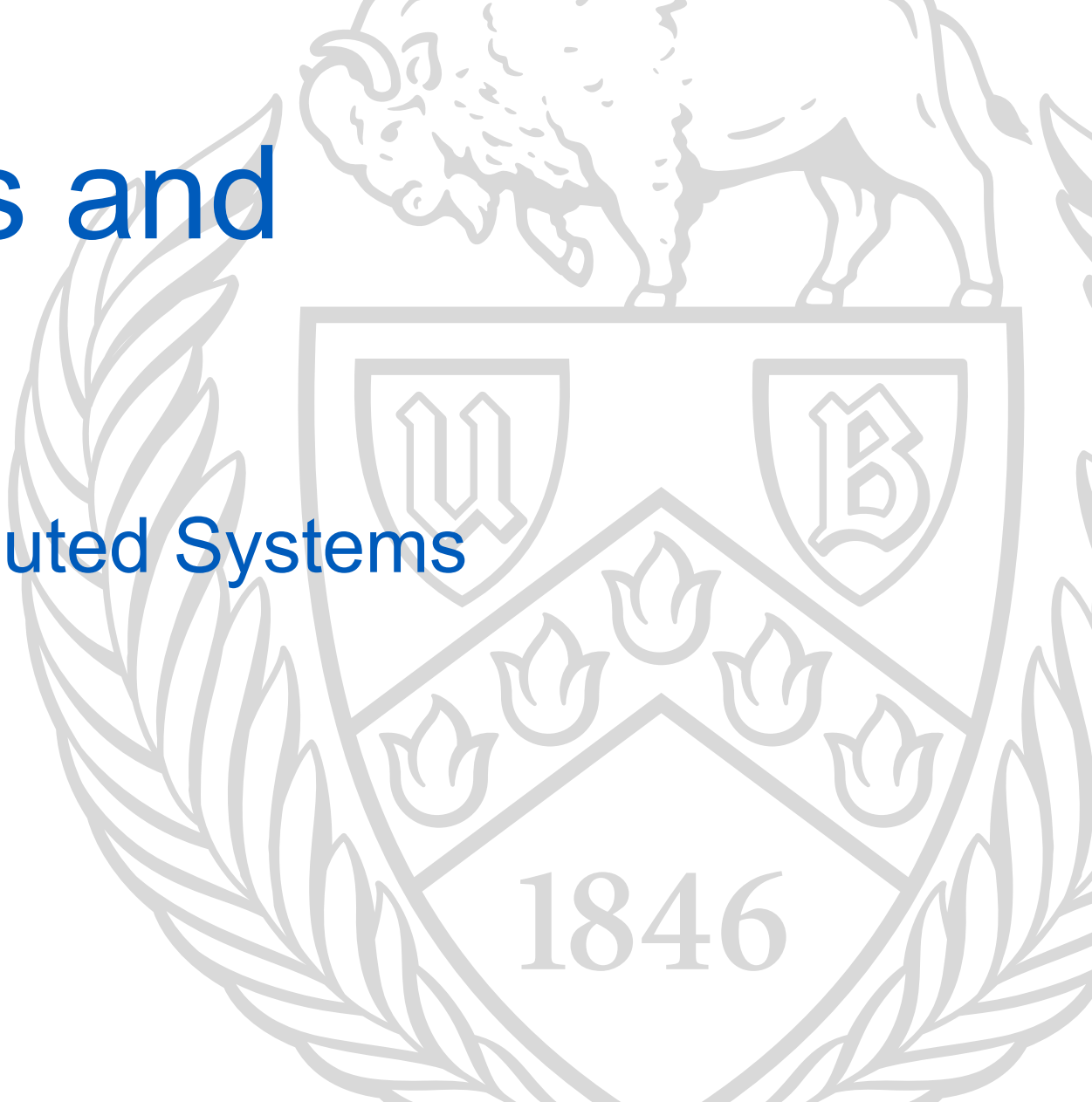

Consistency

Many applications have consistency requirements.

Sometimes we think of these as invariants:

- The number of items in inventory cannot fall below zero
- The forward and reverse pointers in a doubly-linked list will be reflexive

Sometimes they are conditional:

- If a debit fails, the corresponding credit must also fail
- A file transfer must be verified complete before the source is removed

Distributed Consistency

In a distributed system, consistency may require consensus.

- What if inventory is spread through warehouses across the country?
- What if the debiting account and crediting account are at different institutions?

This introduces FLP to the mix!

Failure detection and timeouts are often used.

(We won't look at this just yet.)

Transactions

Consistency may be violated during a computation.

For example, that bank transfer:

1. A quantity is debited from one account
2. The same quantity is deposited to another account

In between, the accounts are inconsistent: money is lost!

These actions together form a transaction [1].

Consistency is maintained before and after the transaction.

Atomic Transactions

With concurrency, transactions require atomicity.

Recall:

- If a debit fails, the corresponding credit must also fail

What happens if:

- The debit succeeds but the credit fails?
- The debit fails but the credit succeeds?

A transaction must:

- Never expose partially-complete results
- Either fully succeed or fail without effect

Schedules

Each transaction is made up of individual actions.

A schedule is some sequence of those actions.

A consistent schedule is such a schedule that ensures that each transaction sees a consistent state.

Consistent schedules trivially maintain consistency.

Consistency

Transaction consistency depends on correct transactions.

We will assume that transactions are correct.

This allows us to state that: If the system is consistent before a transaction begins, it is consistent after the transaction completes.

It is our job to schedule transactions to preserve this.

Atomicity

T1: savings ← savings - $200
checking ← checking + $200

What if T1 fails between lines 1 and 2?

Transactions normally have three operations:

- begin
- commit
- abort

A committed transaction is completely successful.
An aborted transaction never happens.

Example Transactions

Suppose we have the consistency constraint A = B.

T1: $A \leftarrow A + 100$
$B \leftarrow B + 100$

T2: $A \leftarrow A \times 2$
$B \leftarrow B \times 2$

Is it OK to:

- Run T1, then T2?
- Run T2, then T1?
- Run line 1 of T1, then T2, then line 2 of T1?

Example Transactions

Suppose that T1 and T2 operate on accounts:

T1:		T2:
	savings ← savings - $100	
		total ← savings
		total ← total + checking
	checking ← checking + $100	

What if T2 runs between the two actions of T1?

Does this represent the actual total of the accounts?

Concurrency

Why have concurrency at all?

We can just run transactions one at a time!

Consider: ISIS, Raft.

This is serial execution and it ensures consistency.

It is also inefficient:

- Communication is orders of magnitude slower than simple computation!
- Transactions may require arbitrarily complex computation

Transaction Independence

Some transactions can freely run concurrently.

For example: two transactions on disjoint state.

T1: A ← A + 100

T2: B ← B - 200
C ← C + 200

There is no ordering of these operations that is incorrect!

All orderings are equivalent to running T1, then T2.

Transaction Conflicts

In general, two transactions can have problematic ordering if:

- Both transactions use some state *S*
- At least one transaction changes *S*

We divide these into three conflict types:

- read-write: T1 reads changing values for some state
- write-read: T1 reads a value which is not committed
- write-write: T1′s write is overwritten

Note that there is no read-read conflict.

Conflicts between operations can be modeled as graphs [2].

Read-Write Conflict

Reads in a read-write conflict observe inconsistent values.

T1:	read A		T2:	
				write A
				commit
	read A			
	write something			
	commit			

It is a read-write conflict if T2 executes between the reads in T1.

Write-Read Conflict

Reads in a write-read conflict observe uncommitted state.

T1:		T2: write A
	read A	
	read B	
	write something	
	commit	
		write B
		commit

It is a write-read conflict if T1 executes between the writes of T2.

Write-Write Conflict

Writes in a write-write conflict overwrite uncommitted state.

T1:	T2:
read A	
write A	
	read B
	write A
	commit
write B	
commit	

It is a write-write conflict if T2 executes during “compute” in T1.

Serializability

We wish to interleave transactions to maintain efficiency.

Many more transactions per unit time can be processed this way.

To maintain consistency, we preserve serializability.

Two transactions T1 and T2 are serializable if:

- to an external observer,
- it appears as if one happened before the other

E.g., T1 happened before T2.

Actions and Transactions

Serializability is determined from the actions in the transaction.

A schedule of actions is serializable if it is equivalent to some serial execution of the same transactions.

Formally:
Suppose that S is a schedule, and S_{SE} is its serial equivalent.
For every pair of conflicting actions $a_1, a_2 \in S$:
if $a_1 \rightarrow a_2$ in S, then $a_1 \rightarrow a_2$ in S_{SE}.

Example

T1:		T2:	
	read A		
			read B
			write C
	write B		
			commit
	commit		

T2 → T1.

Why not T1 → T2?

Aborted Transactions

If transactions can abort, then there can be cascading aborts [3].

Cascading aborts are where:

- Some transaction T1 observes the output of T2
- T2 aborts instead of committing
- T1 must now abort to preserve serializability

Note that this cannot happen with serial execution:
T2 either already committed or already aborted before T1 began.

Two-Phase Locking

Transactions maintain serializability if they run in two phases [1]:

- Growing Phase: First, a transaction acquires locks
- Shrinking Phase: Second, a transaction releases locks

Not all locks must be acquired/released at the same time.

Once any lock is released, no lock can be acquired.

We call this two-phase locking (2PL).

Serializability of 2PL

This preserves serializability because:

- While T1 locks a datum, T2 cannot observe it
- Once T1 unlocks any datum, it will not modify any observable datum

Therefore, for each datum, either:

- T1 occurs before T2, or
- T2 occurs before T1

Non-serializability would imply deadlock. (We know how to avoid that!)

Intuition

There is a point in each transaction where:

- It has acquired all of its locks
- It has not yet released any lock

We call this the lock point.

Effectively, if T1′s lock point is before T2′s lock point:

- T1 released every shared datum before T2 locked it
- T1 is serializable before T2

2PL and Aborts

Two-phase locking does not prevent cascading aborts!

However, there is a modification that does: Strict 2PL.

In strict two-phase locking, all locks are released at once.

In this way, no transaction output is visible until it commits.

If no other transaction views its changes, no aborts can cascade.

Summary

- Transactions are multiple actions grouped together into an atomic entity.
- The actions in transactions can be interleaved.
- Some interleavings are inconsistent.
- Consistent interleavings are serializable.
- Two-phase locking preserves serializability.

Bibliography

Required Readings

Optional Readings

[1] Kapali. P. Eswaran, James N. Gray, Raymond A. Lorie, and Irving L. Traiger. "The Notions of Consistency and Predicate Locks in a Database System". In: *Communications of the ACM* 19.11 (November 1976), Edited by Howard L. Morgan, pages 624–633.

[2] Philip A. Bernstein, David W. Shipman, and Wing S. Wong. "Formal Aspects of Serializability in Database Concurrency Control". In: *IEEE Transactions on Software Engineering* SE-5.3 (May 1979), pages 203–216.

[3] M. Tamer Özsu and Patrick Valduriez. *Principles of Distributed Database Systems*. Fourth Edition. Springer, 2020.

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