Report

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Using Optimistic Atomic Broadcast in Transaction Processing Systems *

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Abstract

Atomic broadcast primitives are often proposed as a mechanism to allow fault-tolerant cooperation between sites in a distributed system. Unfortunately, the delay incurred before a message can be delivered makes it difficult to implement high performance, scalable applications on top of atomic broadcast primitives. Recently, a new approach has been proposed for atomic broadcast which, based on optimistic assumptions about the communication system, reduces the average delay for message delivery to the application. In this paper, we develop this idea further and show how applications can take even more advantage of the optimistic assumption by overlapping the coordination phase of the atomic broadcast algorithm with the processing of delivered messages. In particular, we present a replicated database architecture that employs the new atomic broadcast primitive in such a way that communication and transaction processing are fully overlapped, providing high performance without relaxing transaction correctness.

1 Introduction and Motivation

Group communication primitives are often proposed as a mechanism to increase fault tolerance in distributed systems. These primitives use different ordering semantics to provide a very flexible framework in which to develop distributed systems. One example of the available semantics is the Atomic Broadcast primitive [CT91, BSS91] which guarantees that all sites deliver all messages in the same order. Unfortunately, it is also widely recognized that group communication systems suffer from scalability problems [BC94, FvR95]. While performance characteristics depend on the implementation strategy, the fundamental bottleneck is the need to do some coordination between sites before messages can be delivered.

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This results in a considerable delay since messages cannot be delivered until the coordination step has been completed. Such delay makes it very difficult to implement high performance, scalable applications on top of group communication primitives.

Recently, a new approach has been proposed for atomic broadcast which, based on optimistic assumptions about the communication system, reduces the average delay for message delivery to the application [PS98]. The protocol takes advantage of the fact that in a LAN, messages normally arrive at the different sites exactly in the same order. Roughly speaking, this protocol considers the order messages arrive at each site as a first optimistic guess, and only if a mismatch of messages is detected, further coordination rounds between the sites are executed to agree on a total order. The idea has significant potential as it offers a feasible, realistic, and reasonable solution to the performance problems of group communication.

In this paper we develop this idea further, and show how applications can take full advantage of the optimistic assumption by overlapping the coordination phase of the atomic broadcast algorithm with the processing of delivered messages. In particular, we present a replicated database architecture that employs the new atomic broadcast primitive in such a way that communication and transaction processing are fully overlapped providing high performance without relaxing transaction correctness (i.e., serializability). Our general database framework is based on broadcasting updates to all replicas, and using the total order provided by the atomic broadcast to serialize the updates at all sites in the same way [AAES96, KA98b, KA98a, PGS97, PGS98]. The basic idea is that the communication system delivers messages twice. First, a message is preliminary delivered to the database system as soon as the message is received from the network. The transaction manager uses this tentative total order to determine a scheduling order for the transaction and starts executing the transaction. While execution takes place without waiting to see if the tentative order was correct, the commitment of a transaction is postponed until the order is confirmed. When the communication system has determined the definitive total order, it delivers a confirmation for the message. If tentative and definitive orders are the same, the transaction is committed, otherwise further measures have to be taken to guarantee that the serialization order obeys the definitive total order. If the time it takes to receive confirmation of the order in which messages are delivered is comparable to the time it takes to execute a transaction, and there are not many cases in which the tentative order differs from the definitive order, then the overhead of the group communication mechanism has been hidden behind the cost of executing a transaction.

The results reported in this paper make several important contributions. First, our solution avoids most of the overhead of group communication by overlapping the processing of messages (execution of transactions) with the algorithm used to totally order them. In environments where the optimistic assumption holds (namely local area networks) this may be a first step towards building high performance distributed systems based on group communication primitives. Second, the transaction processing strategy follows accepted practice in database management systems in that we use the same correctness criteria (i.e., serializability) and mechanisms as existing database management systems. Third, we solve the problem of the mismatch between the total order used in group communication and the data flow ordering typical of transaction processing, thereby not losing concurrency in the execution of
transactions. Finally, our approach compares favorably with existing commercial solutions for database replication in that it maintains global consistency and has the potential to offer comparable performance.

The paper is structured as follows. In Section 2 we describe the system model and introduce some definitions. In Section 3 we present the atomic broadcast primitive used in our database algorithms, and discuss degrees of optimism for atomic broadcast protocols. The optimistic transaction processing is described in Section 4, and its correctness proof in Section 5. Queries are discussed in Section 6. In Section 7, we enhance our transaction model and allow fine granularity concurrency control. Section 8 concludes the paper.

2 Model and Definitions

Our formal definition of a replicated database combines the traditional definitions of distributed asynchronous systems and database systems. A replicated database consists of a group of sites \( N = \{N_1, N_2, \ldots, N_n\} \) which communicate with each other by exchanging messages. We assume asynchronous (no bound on the transmission delays) and reliable communication. Reliable communication ensures that a message sent by a site \( N_i \) to a site \( N_j \) is eventually received by \( N_j \). Sites can only fail by crashing (i.e., we exclude Byzantine failures), and always recover after a crash.

We assume a fully replicated system, i.e., each site \( N_i \) contains a copy of the entire database. The data can be accessed by executing transactions. Updates are coordinated on the replicas by two different modules: the communication system using Atomic Broadcast with Optimistic Delivery and the transaction management providing Optimistic Transaction Processing (OTP).

2.1 Atomic Broadcast with Optimistic Delivery

Communication is based on atomic broadcast. Each site broadcasts a message to all other sites. Atomic broadcast provides an ordering of all messages in the system, i.e., all sites receive all messages in the same order. Furthermore, reliability is provided in the sense that all sites decide on the same set of messages to deliver. Sites that have crashed will deliver the messages after recovering from the failure.

Although there exist many different ways to implement total order delivery [CT91, BSS91, DM96, MMSA+96, vRBM96], all of them require some coordination between sites to guarantee that all messages are delivered in the same order at the different sites. However, when network broadcast (e.g., IP-multicast) is used, there is a high probability that the messages arrive at all sites spontaneously totally ordered [PS98]. If this happens most of the time, it seems to be a waste of resources to delay the delivery of a message until the sites agree to this same total order. Instead, one could optimistically process the messages as they are received. If a message is processed out of order, one has to pay the penalty of having to undo the processing done for the message, and redo it again in the proper order. This approach is conceptually similar to the virtual time proposed by [Jef85].

In order to illustrate the spontaneous total order property of local area networks, we have conducted some experiments on a cluster of 4 sites (Ultrasparc 1 workstations) connected
by an Ethernet network (10 Mbits/s), where all sites simultaneously send messages using IP multicast. Figure 1 shows the percentage of spontaneously ordered messages vs. the interval between two consecutive messages on each site. For example, for this configuration, if each site sends one message each 4 milliseconds, around 99% of the messages arrive at all sites in the same order.

![Figure 1: Spontaneous total order in a 4-site-system](image)

The atomic broadcast with optimistic delivery used in this work, is formally defined by the three primitives shown below.

- **TO-broadcast**(m) broadcasts the message m to all sites in the system.

- **Opt-deliver**(m) delivers a message m optimistically to the application. **Opt-deliver** does not guarantee total order. We consider the order perceived by the application by receiving the sequence of **Opt-delivered** messages as a **tentative order**.

- **TO-deliver**(m) delivers m definitively to the application. The order perceived by the application by receiving the sequence of **TO-delivered** messages is called the **definitive order**.

In practice, **TO-deliver**(m) will not deliver the entire body of the message (which has already been done **OPT-delivering** m), but rather deliver only a confirmation message that contains the identifier of m. Further details and a complete specification of the atomic broadcast with optimistic delivery is given in Section 3.

2.2 Transaction Model

Typically, there are three ways to interact with a relational database. One is to use SQL interactively through a console. A second one is to use embedded SQL, that is, to use SQL as part of programs written in other programming languages such as C. Program execution and flow control takes place outside the database system and only the specific database operations are transferred to the database system. A third possibility is to use stored procedures. A stored procedure allows to encapsulate complex interactions with the database into a single
procedure which is executed within the database context. It can be invoked using standard remote procedure call (RPC) mechanisms. While discussing the nature and advantages of stored procedures is beyond the scope of this paper, it must be pointed out that it is an approach that greatly facilitates interaction with databases as it allows to ignore the database schema and the query language entirely. Stored procedures are written by experts and then can be easily used by programmers which do not need to know anything about the underlying database system. Since the entire code, both data manipulation and the flow control of the program, are executed within the scope of the database system, this approach leads to better performance and simplified access.1

For simplicity, initially, we assume that all data access is done through stored procedures, with one transaction corresponding to one stored procedure. In the following, we use transaction and stored procedure as equivalent terms. Since the details of transactions are hidden by the use of stored procedures, we use a simplified version of the traditional transaction model [BHG87]. Transactions access the database by reading and writing (updating) objects of the database. Transactions execute atomically, i.e., a transaction T either commits or aborts all its results. It is possible for two or more transactions to access the database concurrently. Two transactions conflict if both access the same object X and at least one of the transactions updates X. A history H is a partial order of a set of transactions and reflects one possible execution. All conflicting transactions contained in H are ordered. We only look at the committed projection of a history, which is the history after removing all active or aborted transactions. A history H is serial if it totally orders all transactions. A correct execution will be determined in terms of conflict equivalence to a serial history. Two histories, H1 and H2, are conflict equivalent if they are over the same set of transactions and they order conflicting transactions in the same way. A history H is said to be serializable if it is conflict equivalent to some serial history.

Since we use a replicated database system, 1-copy-serializability will be the correctness criterion: despite the existence of multiple copies an object appears as one logical copy (also called 1-copy-equivalence) and the execution of concurrent transactions is equivalent to a serial execution over the logical copy (serializability).

The serializable execution of concurrent transactions is achieved through concurrency control. The concurrency control mechanisms allow non-conflicting transactions to execute in parallel while conflicting ones have to be serialized. A concurrency control protocol provides serializability when all executions it allows are serializable. In a replicated database system the combined concurrency control and replica control protocols provide 1-copy-serializability if the following holds:2 \( H = \bigcup H_i \) is serializable with \( H_1, H_2, \ldots, H_n \) being the histories at sites \( N_1, \ldots, N_n \).

In Section 7, we enhance the model to be able to serialize transactions on the level of a single operation and not on the entire transaction.

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1In fact, many commercial databases base their replication solutions on the use of stored procedures [Str94,戈94]

2We define the union operation \( \bigcup H \) between histories as follows. Let \( H = (\Sigma, <_H) \) be a history where \( \Sigma \) is a set of transactions, and \( <_H \) is a set defining a transitive binary relation between transactions in \( \Sigma \). If \( H' \) and \( H'' \) are two histories, then \( H = H' \bigcup H'' \) is such that \( \Sigma = \Sigma' \bigcup \Sigma'' \) and \( <_H = '<_H \bigcup '<_H \).
2.3 Concurrency Control

For our purposes and to simplify the presentation, we assume a rather simple version of concurrency control. We assume that each stored procedure (or transaction) belongs to one of several disjoint conflict classes. The procedures of one conflict class only access a certain partition of the database, and different conflict classes work on different partitions. A conflict class is therefore determined by a set of objects, and transactions belonging to this class are only allowed to access these objects. This means that transactions within one conflict class have a high probability of having conflicts while it is assured that transactions from different conflict classes do not conflict.

With this assumption, concurrency control is done as follows (Figure 2). For each conflict class $C$ there exists a FIFO class queue $CQ$. When a transaction $T$, $T \in C$, is started, it is added to $CQ$. When $T$ is the only transaction in $CQ$, then it can be submitted to the data manager. When there are already other transactions queued in $CQ$, $T$ has to wait. When a transaction commits (this only happens when the transaction is the first one in its class queue), it is removed from the queue and the next transaction waiting (if any) is submitted for execution. This means that whenever transactions are in the same conflict class, they are executed sequentially. When they are in different classes, their execution is not ordered. It is easy to see that this protocol guarantees serializability because conflicting transactions are fully serialized.

This mechanism is a simplified version of the standard lock table used in existing database systems [GR93]. The difference is that a lock table has a queue for each data item, and an entry corresponds to one transaction operation, i.e., a transaction can have several entries in a lock table, while our approach has a queue per disjoint class and a transaction is exactly queued in one class queue once when the transaction begins. Later on, we show how these same ideas can be applied to the more general case.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Conflict Classes</th>
<th>Class Queues</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>C1</td>
<td>CQ1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Ti Tm</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C2</td>
<td>CQ2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Tj</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C3</td>
<td>CQ3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Tk Tl Tn</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 2: Conflict classes and their class queues
2.4 Execution Model

We use a variation of the read-one/write-all approach for replica control. When a user submits a query (i.e., a transaction that does not update any data) to a site \(N\) in the system, the query is executed locally at \(N\). This is very important, because replication is mainly used to provide fast local read access [KA98b]. However, when a user sends the request for an update transactions to \(N\), \(N\) TO-broadcasts the request to all sites so that the updates are executed at all sites. Stored procedures support this approach very well. Since they are predefined, the type of the transaction (query or update transaction) can be declared in advance. In the next sections, we first focus on update transactions only. Queries are considered in section 6.

Figure 3 depicts the coordination of the communication manager and the transaction manager to execute update transactions. The communication manager receives and orders TO-broadcasted requests. A first module, the Tentative Atomic Broadcast module, receives the messages, and immediately Opt-delivers them to the transaction manager. In the transaction manager part of the system, the Serialization module takes the messages, analyzes the corresponding transactions and adds them to the corresponding class queue. The Execution module executes the transactions of the class queues concurrently as long as they do not belong to the same conflict class. However, whenever they conflict, they are ordered according to the tentative order. If two transactions \(T_1\) and \(T_2\) conflict, and \(T_1\) is tentatively ordered before \(T_2\), then \(T_2\) has to wait until \(T_1\) commits before it can start executing. However, transactions are not committed until they are TO-delivered and their definitive order is determined. Once the communication manager, via the Definitive Atomic Broadcast module, establishes a definitive total order for a message, the message is TO-delivered to the Correctness Check module of the transaction manager. This module compares the tentative serialization order with the serialization order derived from the definitive total order. If they match, then the TO-delivered transaction can be committed. If there are mismatches, then measures need to be taken to ensure that the execution order is correct. This may involve, as it will be later discussed, aborting and rescheduling transactions. Using this mechanism, the system guarantees one-copy serializability for the committed transactions.

3 Atomic Broadcast with Optimistic Delivery

In this section we define the properties of the atomic broadcast primitives on which our database algorithm is based, and discuss some degrees of optimism exploited by atomic broadcast protocols.

Atomic broadcast protocols have traditionally been defined by a single delivery primitive [CT91, BSS91, DM96, MMSA+96, vRBM96] that guarantees that no site delivers a message out of order (total order property [HT93]). Only recently, optimistic protocols that exploit the characteristics of the network, or the semantics of the application, have been considered. In [PS98], the authors propose an Optimistic Atomic Broadcast protocol that first checks whether the order in which messages are received is the same at all sites. If so, the algorithm does not incur in any further coordination between sites to reach an agreement on the order of such messages. Since the verification phase introduces some additional messages in the
protocol, there is a tradeoff between optimistic and conservative (non-optimistic) decisions. However, messages are never delivered in the wrong order to the application.

The approach proposed here is a more aggressive version of the protocol in [PS98], in that it shortcuts the verification phase. This is possible because the application, that is, the database, allows mistakes (due to optimistic delivery) to be corrected by undoing operations and redoing them later, in the definitive order. This approach has significant potential since it does not only rely on the optimism about the network, but also on the semantics of the application, that in this case does not always require messages to be totally ordered at all sites (i.e., if two messages contain transactions that do not belong to the same conflict class, total order between these messages is not necessary).

Different degrees of optimism are summarized in Figure 4 (for simplicity, we consider a scenario without failures). If messages are sent to all sites using network broadcast, there is a high probability that they will reach all sites in the same order.

The Atomic Broadcast with Optimistic Delivery (defined in Section 2.1) is specified by the following properties.

**Termination:** If a site TO-broadcasts \( m \), then every site eventually Opt-delivers \( m \) and
TO-delivers $m$.

**Global Agreement:** If a site Opt-delivers $m$ (TO-delivers $m$) then every site eventually
Opt-delivers $m$ (TO-delivers $m$).

**Local Agreement:** If a site Opt-delivers $m$ then it eventually TO-delivers $m$.

**Global Order:** If two sites $N_i$ and $N_j$ TO-deliver two messages $m$ and $m'$, then $N_i$ TO-delivers $m$ before it TO-delivers $m'$ if and only if $N_j$ TO-delivers $m$ before it TO-delivers $m'$.

**Local Order:** A site first Opt-delivers $m$ and then TO-delivers $m$.

These properties state that every message TO-broadcast by a site is eventually Opt-delivered and TO-delivered by every site in the system. The order properties guarantee that no site TO-delivers a message before Opt-delivering it, and every message is TO-delivered (but not necessarily Opt-delivered) in the same order by all sites.

## 4 Optimistic Transaction Processing

In this section, we show how transactions are executed in the system, and present the OTP-algorithm for optimistic transaction processing.

### 4.1 General Idea

To better understand the algorithms described below, the idea is first further elaborated using an example. Assume two sites $N$ and $N'$ where the following tentative sequence of update transactions (messages) is delivered to the database.

**Tentative total order at $N$:** $T_1, T_2, T_3, T_4, T_5, T_6$

**Tentative total order at $N'$:** $T_1, T_3, T_2, T_4, T_6, T_5$

Assume as well that there are three different conflict classes and the distribution of the transactions is $T_1, T_2 \in C_x, T_3, T_4 \in C_y$, and $T_5, T_6 \in C_z$. When the scheduler receives the transactions in tentative order, it places them as follows in the queues:

**At $N$:** $CQ_x = T_1, T_2$

$CQ_y = T_3, T_4$

$CQ_z = T_5, T_6$

**At $N'$:** $CQ_x = T_1, T_2$

$CQ_y = T_3, T_4$

$CQ_z = T_6, T_5$

The transaction manager will then submit the execution of the transactions at the head of each queue, i.e., $T_1, T_3,$ and $T_5$ are executed at $N$, and $T_1, T_3,$ and $T_6$ are executed at $N'$. 

9
When the transactions terminate execution, the transaction manager will wait to commit them until their ordering is confirmed. Assume that the definitive total order turns out to be:

\[\text{Definite total order: } T_1, T_2, T_3, T_4, T_5, T_6\]

This means that at \(N\), the definitive total order is identical to the tentative order, while at \(N'\) the definitive order has changed in regard to the tentative order for transactions \(T_2\) and \(T_3\) and for transactions \(T_5\) and \(T_6\).

Upon receiving the messages in definitive total order, the transaction manager has to check whether what it did makes sense. At \(N\), the tentative order and the definitive order are the same, thus, transactions \(T_1\), \(T_3\), and \(T_5\) can be committed and the next transactions in the queues executed. Since the definitive ordering for \(T_2\), \(T_4\) and \(T_6\) has also been established, once these transactions are completely executed they can also commit.

At \(N'\), however, things are more complicated since the definitive total order is not the same as the tentative order. However, we can see that the ordering between \(T_2\) and \(T_3\) is not really important because these two transactions do not conflict. However, the order between \(T_5\) and \(T_6\) is relevant since they conflict. Given that the serialization order must match the definitive total order of the communication system in the case of conflicts, the transaction manager has to undo the modifications of \(T_6\) and first perform the ones of \(T_5\) before it reexecutes \(T_6\).

It is trivial for the transaction manager of \(N'\) to detect such conflicts. Assume \(T_6\) and \(T_5\) have been Opt-delivered and \(T_6\) is ordered before \(T_5\) in the conflict queue \(CQ_z\). When \(T_5\) is TO-delivered (note, that \(T_5\) is TO-delivered before \(T_6\)), the transaction manager of \(N'\) performs a correctness check. It looks in the queue and scans through the list of transactions. The first transaction is \(T_6\) and \(T_6\) has not yet been TO-delivered. The wrong order is detected and the updates of \(T_6\) can be undone using traditional recovery techniques [BH87]. \(T_6\) will then be appended to the queue after \(T_5\). To be able to detect whether a transaction in the queue has already been TO-delivered, the transaction manager should mark transactions as TO-delivered. This can be done during the correctness check. In our example, the transaction manager marks \(T_5\) TO-delivered when it performs the check. When at a later timepoint \(T_6\) is TO-delivered, the transaction manager performs again a correctness check. It looks in the queue and scans through the list of transactions. The first transaction is now \(T_5\). Since \(T_5\) is marked TO-delivered the transaction manager knows that this time the scheduling of \(T_5\) before \(T_6\) was correct and no rescheduling has to take place. Thus, \(T_6\) is simply marked TO-delivered. Note, that the transaction manager does not need to realize that the tentative and the definitive order for \(T_2\) and \(T_3\) did not match.

With this method there is no need for the transaction manager to memorize the tentative and definitive orders. It only uses the primitives Opt-deliver and TO-deliver and marks TO-delivered transactions committable, because once TO-delivery has taken place, the transaction will not be aborted anymore. Whenever a transaction is marked committable and all its operations have been executed it can commit and be removed from the queue, so that the next transaction can be started. Reordering will take place only when transactions in the
same queue are not in the right order, this means that when a transaction is TO-delivered but there are preceding transactions in the same queue which are not yet committable.

This example shows both the basic mechanisms used as well as the advantages of the approach. Namely, how communication and transaction execution can be done at the same time. Note also that, whenever transactions do not conflict, the discrepancy between the tentative and the definitive orders does not lead to additional overhead because ordering these transactions is not necessary (see $T_2$ and $T_3$ at $N'$). This means that in the case of low to medium conflict rates among transactions, the tentative and the definitive order might differ considerably without leading to high abort rates (due to reordering).

4.2 Algorithm

In the following, we present the OTP-algorithm for optimistic transaction processing. Its main tasks are the maintenance of a serialization order, a controlled execution and a correct termination (commit/abort) of the transactions. For simplicity, we divide the algorithm into different parts according to the different modules described in section 2.4.

The transaction management relies on the semantics of the primitives $\text{Opt-deliver}(m)$ and $\text{TO-deliver}(m)$ provided by the communication system (see section 2.1). The serialization module determines the serialization order on behalf of $\text{Opt-delivered}$ messages, the correctness check module checks and corrects this order on behalf of $\text{TO-delivered}$ messages, and the execution module executes the transactions. Note that these different modules do not necessarily represent different threads of execution but rather separate the different steps in the lifetime of a transaction. Since all modules access the same common data structures, some form of concurrency control between the modules is necessary (for instance, by using semaphores). Moreover, we assume without further discussing them here that there are two functions, commit and abort, that perform all the operations necessary to commit or abort a transaction locally.

Care must be taken that at most one transaction of each conflict class is executed at a time, and that transactions do not commit before they are both executed and TO-delivered to guarantee that the serialization order obeys the definitive total order. To do so, we label each transaction with two state variables. The execution state of a transaction can be active or executed. The delivery state can be pending (after Opt-deliver) or committable (after TO-deliver).

The serialization module is activated upon Opt-delivery of a transaction. Its job, depicted in Figure 5, is to append Opt-delivered transactions to their corresponding conflict classes (S1), to mark that this serialization order is still tentative (S2), and to submit the execution of transactions when there are no conflicts (S4).

The execution module has to inform the transaction manager about completely executed transactions (Figure 6). When a transaction is both executed and TO-delivered (E1), it can commit (E2). If a transaction has completely executed before its TO-delivery, it must be marked accordingly (E3). Note that only the first transaction in a queue can be marked executed.
Upon Opt-delivery of message m containing transaction $T_i$:

- S1: Append $T_i$ to the corresponding class queue $CQ$
- S2: Mark $T_i$ as pending and active
- S3: if $T_i$ is the only transaction in $CQ$
- S4: Submit the execution of the transaction
- S5: end if

Figure 5: Serialization Module

Upon complete execution of transaction $T_i$:

- E1: if $T_i$ is marked commitable (see correctness check module)
- E2: commit $T_i$ and remove $T_i$ from the corresponding $CQ$
- E3: Submit the execution of the next transaction in $CQ$
- E4: else
- E5: Mark $T_i$ executed
- E6: end if

Figure 6: Execution Module

The correctness check module is activated upon TO-delivery of a transaction. Figure 7 depicts the different steps. The module verifies whether the preliminary execution of a transaction was correct and reschedules the transaction if this is not the case.

Since each message is Opt-delivered before it is TO-delivered (Local Order property), it is guaranteed that there is an entry for a transaction $T$ in its corresponding class queue (CC1). The first transaction of a class queue commits whenever it is TO-delivered and totally executed (CC2, CC3) (both events must be true) and the execution of the next transaction in the class queue can be submitted (CC4). If a transaction cannot be committed immediately upon its TO-delivery it is marked commitable (CC6) to distinguish between transactions whose final serialization order has been determined and those where TO-delivery is still pending. The last part of the protocol checks whether the tentative and the definitive order are different for conflicting transactions. If so, abort (CC7, CC8) and reordering (CC10) take place. Note that abort does not mean that the aborted transaction will never be executed and committed. The aborted transaction will be reexecuted at a later point in time. The protocol guarantees that all commitable transactions are ordered before all pending ones in the class queue $CQ$ (due to step CC10). In particular, if transaction $T$ of queue $CQ$ is TO-delivered and the first transaction in $CQ$ is still pending, all transactions before $T$ are pending. Therefore, step CC10 schedules $T$ to be the first transaction in the queue (CC11), and step CC12 keeps the execution of transactions in this queue running.

We illustrate this further with two examples (see Figure 8). In the following we use the following notation: $a$ for active, $e$ for executed, $p$ for pending and $c$ for commitable. In the first example, a class queue has the following entries: $CQ = [T_1[a, c], T_2[a, e], T_3[a, p], T_4[a, p]]$. This means that both $T_1$ and $T_2$ have been TO-delivered, but not $T_3$ and $T_4$ and the execution of $T_1$ is still in progress. When the TO-delivery of $T_4$ is now processed, $T_4$ is simply
Upon TO-delivery of message in containing transaction $T_i$:

- **CC1**: Look for the entry of $T_i$ in the corresponding class queue $CQ$
- **CC2**: if $T_i$ is marked executed (can only be the first one in $CQ$)
- **CC3**: Commit $T_i$ and remove it from $CQ$
- **CC4**: Submit the execution of the next transaction in $CQ$ if existing
- **CC5**: else (not yet fully executed or not the first one in $CQ$)
- **CC6**: Mark $T_i$ committable
- **CC7**: if the first transaction $T_j$ in $CQ$ is marked pending
- **CC8**: Abort $T_j$
- **CC9**: end if
- **CC10**: Schedule $T_i$ before the first transaction $T_k$ in $CQ$ marked pending
- **CC11**: if $T_i$ has now become the first transaction in $CQ$
- **CC12**: Submit the execution of $T_i$
- **CC13**: end if
- **CC14**: end if

**Figure 7**: Correctness Check Module

**Figure 8**: Examples of reordering transactions: (a) without and (b) with abort

rescheduled between $T_2$ and $T_3$ (CC10). Since, the first transaction in the queue, $T_1$, is committable (it only waits for its execution to terminate) it will not be aborted.

In the second example, the queue $CQ$ has the entries: $CQ = T_1[e, p], T_2[a, p], T_3[a, p], T_4[a, p]$. This means that none of the transactions is TO-delivered but $T_1$ is already fully executed. In this case, when the TO-delivery of $T_4$ is processed, the first transaction $T_1$ must be aborted since it is still pending (CC7-CC8). After this, $T_4$ can be rescheduled before $T_1$ and submitted. This means that the execution of $T_1$ is rescheduled after the execution of $T_4$.

These examples show how committable transactions get always ordered before all pending ones.
5 Correctness

In this section we prove that the OTP-algorithm is starvation free and provides 1-copy-serializability. Starvation free means that a transaction that is TO-delivered will eventually be committed and not rescheduled forever. We use the following notation: for two transactions $T_i$ and $T_j$ belonging to conflict class $C$, we write $T_i \rightarrow_{Opt} T_j$ if $T_i$ is Opt-delivered before $T_j$. Similarly, we write $T_i \rightarrow_{TO} T_j$ if $T_i$ is TO-delivered before $T_j$.

For Theorem 5.1 we assume a failure free execution.

**Theorem 5.1** The OTP-algorithm guarantees that each TO-delivered transaction $T_i$ eventually commits.

**Proof**

We prove the theorem by induction on the position $n$ of $T_i$ in the corresponding class queue $CQ$.

1. **Induction Basis:** If $T_i$ is the first transaction in $CQ$ ($n = 1$), it is executed immediately (S3-S4,E3,CC4,CC11-CC12) and commits after its execution (E1-E2,CC2-CC3).

2. **Induction Hypothesis:** The theorem holds for all TO-delivered transactions that are at positions $n \leq k$, for some $k \geq 1$, in $CQ$, i.e., all transactions that have at most $n$-1 preceding transactions will eventually commit.

3. **Induction Step:** Assume now, a transaction $T_i$ is at position $n = k + 1$ when the correctness check module processes $T_i$’s TO-delivered message. Let $T_j$ be any of the transactions ordered before $T_i$ in $CQ$. Two cases can be distinguished:

   a.) $T_i \rightarrow_{TO} T_j$: When the correctness check module processes the TO-delivery of $T_i$, $T_j$ is still pending. This means, step CC10 will schedule $T_i$ before $T_j$, and hence, to a position $n' \leq k$. Therefore, according to the induction hypothesis, $T_i$ will eventually commit. Note that due to the reordering process $T_j$ might be moved out of the first $k$ positions. Since it has not yet been TO-delivered this does not violate the induction hypothesis.

   b.) $T_j \rightarrow_{TO} T_i$: Since $T_j$ has a position $n' \leq k$, the induction hypothesis assures that $T_j$ will eventually commit and be removed from $CQ$. When this happens, $T_i$ is at most at position $k$, and hence, will eventually commit according to the induction hypothesis.

**Lemma 5.1** Each site executes and orders conflicting transactions in the definitive order established by the atomic broadcast.

**Proof**

Let $T_i$ and $T_j$ be two conflicting transactions belonging to the same conflict class $C$ and let $T_i \rightarrow_{TO} T_j$. We have to show that $T_i$ commits before $T_j$. We can distinguish two cases:

1. $T_i \rightarrow_{Opt} T_j$: This means that $T_i$ is included into $CQ$ before $T_j$. We have to show that this order can never be reversed and hence, $T_i$ executes and commits before $T_j$. The
only time the order could change according to the protocol is when the correctness check module processes the TO-delivery of $T_j$. However, at that time, $T_i$ is either already executed and committed or it is marked committable, because of $T_i \rightarrow TO T_j$. Hence, CC10 does not affect $T_i$.

2. $T_j \rightarrow opt T_i$: This means that $T_j$ is included into $CQ$ before $T_i$. We show that this order is reversed exactly once and hence, $T_i$ commits before $T_j$. When $T_i$ is TO-delivered, $T_j$ might already be executed (when it is the first transaction in the queue) but cannot be committed because it is not yet TO-delivered but still marked as pending. Therefore, the protocol processes step CC10 and reorders $T_i$ before $T_j$. This order cannot be changed anymore because $T_i$ is now marked committable.

**Theorem 5.2** The OTP-algorithm provides 1-copy-serializability.

**Proof**

Since up to now, we have only looked at update transactions that are executed at all sites, the local histories of all sites contain exactly the same transactions. Lemma 5.1 proves that in all these histories conflicting transactions are always processed in the same order, namely the definitive order established by the atomic broadcast. Therefore, all local histories are conflict equivalent to each other. This guarantees the “1-copy” property, i.e., all the copies behave in the same way. Moreover, there is a serial history that is conflict equivalent to all those produced: the one derived from the definitive total order provided by the atomic broadcast (this provides the “serializability” property).

The extension of the OTP-algorithm to include queries and fine granularity locking can be found in the next sections.

### 6 Queries

A configuration consisting of sites all performing exactly the same update transactions is only useful for fault-tolerance purposes. A more common setting will be a database system where the main load are queries which can be processed locally while a certain amount of updates must be performed at all sites. Therefore, a protocol needs to be not only tuned for updating transactions but also for read-only transactions.

There exist many concurrency control approaches for queries [BHG87, GR93, Ora95]. Current solutions include standard 2-phase-locking (no difference between queries and updating transactions), optimized locking protocols, and snapshot mechanisms (which eliminate any interference between queries and updating transactions).

In what follows we sketch how two different solutions can be integrated into the replica control presented in this paper. The protocols are extensions of the OTP-algorithm for updating transactions described in Section 4.2.

The first solution takes into consideration that it is not reasonable to require that queries belong to a single conflict class. Since queries often access a lot of data, this approach would make it necessary to choose a very coarse granularity for the conflict classes, thereby reducing
Upon begin of query $Q_i$:

1. For each conflict queue $CQ$, $Q_i$ wants to access
2. Build an entry for $Q_i$ and mark it committable
3. If first transaction $T_j$ in $CQ$ is marked pending
   1. Abort $T_j$
   2. End if
4. Insert the entry of $Q_i$ before the first transaction $T_k$ in $CQ$ marked pending
5. If $Q_i$ is now the first transaction in $CQ$
   1. Submit the execution of $Q_i$
   2. End if
6. End for each

Figure 9: OTP-Q-protocol for queries

concurrency. Therefore, it is important to allow queries to belong to many conflict classes and hence, to spread their access across arbitrary partitions of the database.

Figure 9 depicts the OTP-Q-protocol. The start of a query is very similar to processing the TO-delivery of a transaction but with the difference that the query can access several conflict classes. For each conflict class, a query $Q$ is scheduled after all committable and before all pending transactions. It is easy to see that the protocol provides serializability. The total order provided by the atomic broadcast is still an equivalent serial execution (i.e., whenever $T_i \rightarrow_{TO} T_j$ then the serialization order at all sites is $T_i \rightarrow T_j$). A query $Q$ is included in this order as follows: Assume all transactions $T_i$ are indexed according to the total order of the atomic broadcast, i.e., if $T_i$ is TO-delivered before $T_j$, then $i < j$. Let $i$ be the index of the last transaction whose TO-delivery was processed before $Q$ starts. $Q$ is added to the serialization order by simply ordering it directly after $T_i$ and before $T_{i+1}$ (we could imagine $Q$ to have the index $i+5$).

Since queries are added to all their conflict classes at starting time, all data the transaction wants to access must be known in advance. Furthermore, queries can be very extensive, leading to considerable delay for succeeding update transactions. Hence, it may be desirable to handle queries dynamically, i.e., queries should neither need to know in advance which conflict classes they are going to access nor should transactions be delayed too long by queries.

However, the solution is not straightforward. Queries cannot simply be added to a class queue when they want to access an object of this class for the first time. Such a protocol would violate 1-copy-serializability. The problem is the fact that update transactions of different conflict classes could now be indirectly ordered by queries that access both classes at different times. For example, such a protocol would allow the following serialization orders for the queues $CQ_x$ and $CQ_y$ at sites $N$ and $N'$:

At $N$: $CQ_x = T_1, T_2, Q, T_3$

$CQ_y = T_4, Q, T_5, T_6$
At \( N' \): \[ CQ_x = T_1, Q', T_2, T_3 \]
\[ CQ_y = T_4, T_5, Q', T_6 \]

This means that \( Q \) implicitly builds the serialization order \( T_2 \rightarrow Q \rightarrow T_5 \) at site \( N \), while \( Q' \) leads to the order \( T_5 \rightarrow Q' \rightarrow T_2 \) at \( N' \) [Alo97].

To avoid such situations, we have to ensure that the execution at all sites is equivalent to the order induced by the atomic broadcast (as it is the case in the previous algorithm). To combine 1-copy-serializability with dynamic queries and fast execution for updating transactions, our last proposal uses snapshots for queries (similar to Oracle snapshots [Ora95]). To provide consistent snapshots for queries, different versions of the data of a conflict class are maintained, each labeled with the index of the transaction that created the version (again assuming that transactions are indexed according to their \( \text{TO}-\text{delivery} \)). A query receives an index when it starts. As in the previous algorithm, if \( T_i \) was the last processed \( \text{TO}-\text{delivered} \) message, the index for the query is \( i.5 \). When a query \( Q_{i.5} \) wants to access a conflict class \( C \) for the first time, it receives a snapshot of the data that has been created by transaction \( T_j \), where \( j = \max(k), k < i, T_k \in C \). With this, we produce the same execution order as with the OTP-Q-protocol. Note that this approach is similar to the hybrid algorithm in [KA98b].

7 Fine Granularity Locking

Class queues as a concurrency model have allowed us to demonstrate in a simple manner the idea of optimistic transaction processing. However, requiring that transactions may only access objects of a certain partition is quite restrictive. In some applications this might result in very few classes and hence in a very low degree of concurrency. This section extends the model to show how it can be applied in more generic settings: we drop the requirement that an update transaction may only access objects of a single conflict class. Instead transactions are allowed to access arbitrary objects of the database.

Our model still uses stored procedures. Whenever a client sends the request for an update transaction to a site \( N \), \( N \) \( \text{TO}-\text{broadcasts} \) the request to all sites and each site executes the corresponding stored procedure. But instead of including the request into a single class queue (corresponding to a partition), we now use a traditional lock table. The lock table maintains lock queues for each object of the database and transactions place lock entries into the queues of those objects they want to access. In our approach, placing the lock entries of a transaction is done in an atomic step at the time the transaction is delivered. This means that there is no interleaving with any other transactions. In other words, the important step for our approach is not how many queues there are but that transactions must be placed in all the necessary queues one at a time. Note that we require that all locks of a transaction are known in advance. We are aware that this is still restrictive since it relies on predefined stored procedures where one can tell in advance which fine-granularity objects are accessed by the transaction. We are working on improving our concurrency model so that it also allows other transaction types, e.g., interactive transactions.
7.1 Enhanced Transaction Model

In this section we enhance our original transaction model to fit the traditional transaction model as presented in [BHG87]. We now characterize a transaction (stored procedure) as a sequence of read \( r_i(X) \) and write \( w_i(X) \) operations on objects \( X \). As before, update transactions perform both their read and write operations on an object \( X \) on all copies of \( X \) in the system. Hence an operation \( o_i(X), o \in \{r, w\} \), is translated to physical operations \( o_i(X_1), \ldots, o_i(X_n) \). Conflicts are no more defined between transactions but rather between operations. Operations conflict if they are from different transactions, access the same copy and at least one of them is a write. A local history \( H_N = (\Sigma_N, <_N) \) of a node \( N \) describes all physical operations of a set of transactions \( \Sigma \) being executed on the copies of \( N \). Furthermore, it describes a partial order, \( <_N \), which orders all operations within a transaction (as they are executed by the stored procedure) and additionally all conflicting operations. As described in section 2.2, a global history is the union of all local histories in the system. A history is now serializable if it orders all conflicting operations in the same way as a serial history.

Concurrency control is done via locking. It is performed independently at each site. Before a transaction accesses an object it has to acquire the corresponding read/write lock on the object. There may not be two conflicting locks granted on an object. We maintain a lock queue for each object \( X \) where the lock entries are included in first-in-first-out order. If the first lock in the queue is a write lock it is the only granted lock. Otherwise all read locks before the first write lock are granted. Whenever a lock is released, the next lock(s) in the queue are granted. Our locking protocol requests all locks at the beginning of the transaction and releases them at the end of the transaction. This is necessary because we have to include the lock entries of a transaction in an atomic step. This atomicity can be accomplished, e.g., by acquiring a latch on the lock table during lock insertion.

7.2 Example

As before, a transaction is sent to all sites. The main idea is for each transaction to request all its read and write locks when it is Opt-delivered. Once all lock requests are included in the lock table, the transaction starts executing. As before, once a message is TO-delivered the serialization order has to be checked.

Figure 10 depicts an example which shows the main difference between the enhanced system and the class queue system. We look at a lock table with lock entries for three objects \( X \),
Y and Z and two transactions \( T_1 \) and \( T_2 \). \( T_1 \) reads objects X and Z and writes Y. \( T_2 \) reads object Z and writes X. Hence, the accesses on X conflict. Steps (I) to (V) depict different states of the lock table if the following delivery order of messages takes place:

\[
\text{Tentative total order: } T_1, T_2 \quad \text{Definitive total order: } T_2, T_1
\]

In step (I) \( T_1 \) is \textit{OPT-delivered}. Since there are no other locks active, all locks can be granted and \( T_1 \) can start executing. Granted locks are labeled with a star. \( T_1 \)'s state is \textit{active} and \textit{pending}. When \( T_2 \) is \textit{OPT-delivered} (II), its lock on Z can be granted (because both \( T_1 \)'s and \( T_2 \)'s locks are reads) and the operation submitted, but its write lock on X has to wait until \( T_1 \) releases its lock. Both transactions are \textit{active} and \textit{pending}. Step (III) depicts the \textit{TO-delivery} of \( T_2 \). Like in the case of class queues, the correctness check module scans through all of \( T_2 \)'s locks and looks whether there exist locks of \textit{pending} transactions that are ordered before the waiting locks of \( T_2 \). Note that all locks of a single transactions are usually linked with each other making this check a fast operation. In our example, \textit{pending} transaction \( T_1 \) has a conflicting granted lock on X and thus, must be aborted. Only when the updates of \( T_1 \) are undone, the lock can be granted to \( T_2 \). However, this might take considerable time. Since we do not want to wait, we reorder immediately \( T_2 \)'s locks before \( T_1 \)'s locks. Additionally, we keep a \textit{notification entry} at the beginning of the queue for X. It can be viewed as a copy of \( T_1 \)'s lock entry. When \( T_1 \)' abort is completed it removes the notification entry from the queue and only then \( T_2 \)'s lock can be granted. Such a notification entry on an object is only created if the lock of the \textit{pending} transaction and of the \textit{committable} transaction conflict on this object because only in this case the \textit{committable} transaction must wait. Hence, there is no notification entry for Z (shared locks) or Y (\( T_2 \) does not need a lock for Y). Step (IV) depicts the time after \( T_1 \) is aborted. It scans through all its locks and whenever it finds one of its notification entries (in our case X) it releases the entry so that the waiting requests can be granted. Note, that its original lock entry on X has already been queued behind the \textit{TO-delivered} entry of \( T_2 \) in step (III). Then, \( T_1 \) is restarted from the beginning and its execution state changes from \textit{aborting} back to \textit{active}. The \textit{TO-delivery} of \( T_1 \) does not change anything. When performing the check, only locks of the \textit{committable} transaction \( T_2 \) are ordered before \( T_1 \). Hence, \( T_1 \) is simply marked \textit{committable}. Whenever both transactions are fully executed their locks can be released and the transactions can be committed.

### 7.3 Algorithm

In this section, the enhanced algorithm, called FG-algorithm (fine granularity), is described. As before, we divide transaction execution into the steps serialization, execution and correctness check.

Figure 11 depicts the serialization module. Upon \textit{OPT-delivery} of a transaction, all lock entries are created and included into the lock table (S1-S3). Some might be granted immediately, others might have to wait. Entering all locks into the lock table is considered one atomic step, i.e. the process may not be interrupted by other accesses to the lock table. As noted before this can be done by using a latch on the lock table. At this stage, the transaction has the delivery state \textit{pending}. Only after the locks are requested the transaction starts executing (S5).
Upon Opt-delivery of message m containing transaction $T_i$:

1. **for each** operation $o_i(X)$ of $T_i$:
2. Append a lock entry in queue $X$
3. **end for each**
4. Mark $T_i$ pending and active
5. Submit the execution of the transaction (see execution module E1-E4)

**Figure 11**: Fine granularity serialization module

The execution module (Figure 12) is responsible for processing transactions. Here, we distinguish several cases: a transaction is submitted for execution, a transaction has completely executed, the abort of a transaction is submitted, and a transaction has completely aborted. A transaction can now be in three different execution states. It can be **active**, **executed** or **aborting**. Once a transaction is submitted by the serialization module it is **active** (E1).

In our protocol, all locks are requested at the beginning of the transaction. Then the stored procedure is started executing the sequence of read and write operations as soon as the corresponding locks are granted (E2-E4).

Once the transaction is fully executed we look whether the transaction has already the delivery state **committable**. If this is the case we can commit it and release its locks (E6-E10). Otherwise, the transaction transfers from the execution state **active** to **executed**.

As long as the transaction is in the delivery state **pending** it might happen that it has to abort (E14-E15) due to a mismatch between the OTP-delivery and the TO-delivery order. Note that it can transfer both from the **active** and the **executed** execution state into the **aborting** state.

Once the transaction is completely aborted it releases all its notification entries (E16-E18). These entries were created during the correctness check. They replaced locks that conflicted with locks of **committable** transactions. For details of how these entries are created see the correctness check module. Finally, the transaction is restarted (E19). Note that the restart transfers the transaction from the execution state **aborting** back to the **active** state (E1).

The correctness check module (Figure 13) is activated upon TO-delivery of a transaction $T_i$. As the serialization module, the correctness check module performs its access to the lock table in an atomic step, i.e., it has exclusive access to the lock table until the check is completed. A TO-delivered transaction can immediately commit and release its lock if it is already totally executed (CC1-CC5). If this is not the case we mark $T_i$ **committable** (CC7) and check whether any reordering has to take place. We have to reorder entries whenever a lock of a **pending** transaction $T_j$ is ordered before one of $T_i$’s locks. Furthermore, if the lock of $T_j$ is granted and conflicts with $T_i$’s lock, $T_j$ must be aborted to guarantee that conflicting operations are ordered in the order of TO-delivery. Hence, the correctness check scans through all locks of $T_i$ (CC8). Whenever there exists a conflicting granted lock of a **pending** transaction $T_j$, $T_j$ must be aborted. Note that $T_j$ might already be in the **aborting** state if there was already another conflicting transaction TO-delivered before $T_j$. Only if this is not the case we have to submit $T_j$’s abort (CC10-CC12). Then rescheduling takes place. $T_i$’s lock entry is ordered before the first lock that belongs to a **pending** transaction (CC13-CC14).
Upon submission to execute transaction $T_i$:

E1  Mark $T_i$ active
E2  for each operation $o_i(X)$:
    E3     As soon as the corresponding lock is granted
    E4     execute $o_i(X)$
E5  end for each

Upon complete execution of transaction $T_i$:

E6  if $T_i$ is marked committable (see correctness check module CC6)
E7     Commit $T_i$
E8  for each lock on object $X$
E9     Release the lock
E10  end for each
E11  else
E12  Mark $T_i$ executed
E13  end if

Upon submission to abort transaction $T_i$:

E14  Mark $T_i$ aborting
E15  Undo all operations executed so far

Upon complete abort of transaction $T_i$:

E16  for each notification entry on object $X$ (see correctness check module)
E17     Release the entry
E18  end for each
E19  Restart the execution (E1-E4)

Figure 12: Fine Granularity Execution Module

Note that rescheduling takes place both for conflicting and non-conflicting locks. Since we want to finish the correctness check before the aborts complete, we keep notification entries at the begin of the queue for each conflicting granted lock of a pending transaction (CC15-CC19). Only when these locks are released (namely, when the corresponding transactions have completely aborted – see execution module E16-E18) $T_i$’s locks can be granted.

Figure 14 shows a second example with three transactions. The ordering is

Tentative total order: $T_1$, $T_2$, $T_3$

Definitive total order: $T_2$, $T_3$, $T_1$

The example shows the different steps when the delivery takes place in the following order:

OPT-deliver($T_1$), OPT-deliver($T_2$), TO-deliver($T_2$), OPT-deliver($T_3$), TO-deliver($T_3$), OPT-deliver($T_1$).

As in the previous example, $T_1$ reads $X$ and $Z$, and writes $Y$, and $T_2$ writes $X$ and reads $Z$. Furthermore, $T_3$ writes $X$, $Y$ and $Z$. The first three steps are the same as in the previous example. First (step I), $T_1$ is OPT-delivered, its locks granted and its execution submitted (E1-E5). Its state is active and pending. When $T_2$ is OPT-delivered (step II) its lock on $Z$
Upon TO-delivery of message m containing transaction $T_i$:

| CC1  | if $T_i$ is marked executed (see execution module E12) |
| CC2  | Commit $T_i$                                     |
| CC3  | for each lock entry on object $X$                 |
| CC4  | Release the lock                                  |
| CC5  | end for each                                      |
| CC6  | else                                              |
| CC7  | Mark $T_i$ committable                            |
| CC8  | for each lock entry $X$ of $T_i$                  |
| CC9  | for each conflicting granted lock of a pending transaction $T_j$ |
| CC10 | if $T_j$ is not marked aborting                   |
| CC11 | start aborting $T_j$ (see execution module E14-E15) |
| CC12 | end if                                            |
| CC13 | Schedule $T_i$’s lock before the first lock entry |
| CC14 | that belongs to a pending transaction $T_k$.      |
| CC15 | for each conflicting granted lock of a pending transaction $T_j$ |
| CC16 | Keep a notification entry at the begin of the queue. |
| CC17 | Only when this entry is released (see execution module E16-E18), |
| CC18 | $T_i$’s lock can be granted                       |
| CC19 | end for each                                      |
| CC20 | end for each                                      |
| CC21 | end if                                            |

**Figure 13: Fine Granularity Correctness Check Module**

is granted, the lock on $X$ must wait. $T_2$’s state is active and pending. Upon TO-delivery of $T_2$ (step III), $T_1$ must be aborted due to the conflict on $X$ (CC9-CC12). $T_1$’s locks on $X$ and $Z$ are scheduled before $T_1$’s locks (CC13). Note that lock entries are rescheduled both for conflicting locks ($X$) and non-conflicting locks ($Z$). Furthermore, $T_1$ keeps a notification entry on $X$ until it is totally aborted (CC15-CC19). Now, $T_1$ is aborting and pending while $T_2$ is active and committable. In step IV, $T_3$ gets Opt-delivered. The lock entries are simply added to the queues. They all must wait and $T_3$ is active and pending. Next, $T_3$ is TO-delivered (step V). The correctness check scans through all of $T_3$ locks and finds conflicting granted locks of pending transaction $T_1$ on the objects $Y$ and $Z$ (CC9). Note that $T_1$’s lock on $X$ is no more granted and already reorder behind $T_2$’ lock. Since $T_1$ is already in the aborting state, steps CC10-CC12 of the correctness check algorithm are not performed. $T_3$ simply orders its locks before $T_1$’s lock entries (CC13-CC14). Furthermore, notification entries for $T_1$ on objects $Y$ and $Z$ are created. Since $T_1$ has already a notification entry on $X$, there is no need to create a second one (CC15-CC19). $T_3$ is now active and committable. At this stage, all locks are in the correct order of TO-delivery. Additionally there are some notification entries that control when locks are granted. When $T_1$ has completely aborted (step VI), it releases its notification entries and restarts (E16-E19). The TO-delivery of $T_1$ does not change anything. Whenever one of the three transactions is fully executed it can
be committed.

Note that execution state and delivery state are orthogonal to each other. Figure 15 depicts all possible states of a transactions and their transitions. A transaction always starts with the states active and pending and commits with executed and committable. Delivery states can only change from pending to committable. Once it is committable there is no cycle in the transitions.

7.4 Proof of Correctness

The proof of correctness follows the same line as the one provided in section 5. We first want to show that 1-copy-serializability is provided. In the simple OTP-algorithm the definitive total order of the atomic broadcast ordered entire transactions. Now, it only orders conflicting operations.

Lemma 7.1 Using the FG-algorithm, each site orders and executes conflicting operations in the definitive order provided by the atomic broadcast.
Figure 15: Execution and delivery states of transactions

**Proof**

Let $T_i$ and $T_j$ be two conflicting transactions accessing both object $X$ and let $T_i \rightarrow_{TO} T_j$. We have to show that $T_i$’s operation on $X$ is executed before $T_j$’s operation. The proof is identical to the one provided in section 5. If $T_i \rightarrow_{OPT} T_j$ the locks were already included in the queue in the right order. This order will not change anymore since the correctness module only reschedules entries if there is a mismatch between the $OPT$-$delivery$ and the $TO$-$delivery$. Hence $T_i$’s lock will be granted before $T_j$’s locks resulting in the correct order of execution. If $T_j \rightarrow_{OPT} T_i$, then the the $TO$-$delivery$ of $T_i$ will schedule $T_i$’s lock before $T_j$’s lock. In the case $T_j$’s lock was already granted, $T_j$ will undo its operation and only receive the lock and reexecute the operation when $T_i$ has committed. □

**Theorem 7.1** The FG-algorithm provides 1-copy-serializability.

**Proof**

Again the proof is very similar to the one provided in section 5. All local histories contain exactly the same update transactions. Since all conflicting operations are executed in the same order at all sites, namely the definitive order of the atomic broadcast, the “1-copy” property is guaranteed. The serial history that is conflict equivalent to all those produced is the one derived from the definitive total order established by the atomic broadcast (“serializability” property).

Finally we want to prove that the protocol is starvation free.

**Theorem 7.2** The FG-algorithm guarantees that each TO-delivered transaction $T_i$ eventually commits.
Proof

We prove the theorem by induction on the position $n$ of $T_i$ in the definitive total order.

1. **Induction Basis**: If $T_i$ is the first TO-delivered transaction the correctness check module will schedule $T_i$’s locks before any other lock. Only notification entries might be ordered before $T_i$’s locks. However, the corresponding transactions abort without acquiring any further locks and hence will finally release their notification entries. Hence, eventually all of $T_i$’s locks will be granted, $T_i$ can execute all its operations and commit.

2. **Induction Hypothesis**: The theorem holds for all TO-delivered transactions that are at positions $n \leq k$, for some $k \geq 1$, in the definitive total order, i.e., all transactions that have at most $n-1$ preceding transactions in the total order will eventually commit.

3. **Induction Step**: Assume now, a transaction $T_i$ is at position $n = k + 1$ of the definitive total order. The correctness check module will schedule all of $T_i$’s locks behind all locks of committable transactions and before all locks of pending transactions (CC13-CC14). All of these committable transactions were TO-delivered before $T_i$ and have a lower position in the definitive total order. Hence, they will all commit according to the induction hypothesis. Existing notification entries will finally be released as described before. Therefore, $T_i$’s locks will finally be granted, $T_i$ can execute all its operations and commit.

Note that in this case, starvation free means not only that a transaction is not rescheduled forever but also that the protocol is deadlock free. Transactions do not wait for each other to release locks while holding locks other transactions are waiting for. This is true because the locks of committable transactions are ordered in the definitive total order as noted in the proof above.

8 Conclusion

In this paper, we have presented a new way of integrating communication and database technology to build a distributed and replicated database architecture. Taking advantage of the characteristics of today’s networks, we use an optimistic approach to overlap communication and transaction processing. In this way, the message overhead caused by the need for coordination among the sites of a distributed system is hidden by optimistically starting to execute transactions. Correctness is ensured by delaying transaction commitment until the message is definitively delivered.

The modularity of our approach is given by encapsulating message exchange using group communication semantics, on which the transaction processing module bases the execution of transactions. The new solution can easily be integrated into existing systems because the modifications both on group communication and database side are straightforward and easy to implement. Our approach provides a solution whereby the benefits offered by group communication can be fully exploited without loss of performance.

References


