On Maintaining Multiple Versions in STM

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Abstract
An effective way to reduce the number of aborts in software transactional memory (STM) is to keep multiple versions of transactional objects. In this paper, we study inherent properties of STMs that use multiple versions to guarantee successful commits of all read-only transactions.

We first show that these STMs cannot be disjoint-access parallel. We then consider the problem of garbage collecting old object versions, and show that no STM can be optimal in the number of previous versions kept. Moreover, we show that garbage collecting useless versions is impossible in STMs that implement invisible reads. Finally, we present an STM algorithm using visible reads that efficiently garbage collects useless object versions.

1 Introduction
Transactional memory [12, 18] is a popular paradigm for concurrent computing in modern multi-core architectures. Most current transactional memory implementations are software toolkits, or STMs for short. STMs speculatively allow multiple transactions to proceed concurrently, before knowing all possible data dependencies between them. This optimistic approach inevitably leads to aborting transactions in some cases, such as when data dependencies introduce inconsistencies. When many transactions contend on the same data objects, aborts may become frequent, causing a devastating effect on performance [2, 15]. Therefore, reducing the number of aborts is an important challenge for STMs.

While some aborts are unavoidable, existing STMs tend to be over-conservative, and also abort transactions that could have been committed without violating consistency. Such unnecessary aborts often stem from coarse-grained inconsistency detection. Consider the scenario depicted in Figure 1. We depict transactional histories in the style of [17]. An object $o_i$’s state in time is represented as a horizontal line, with time proceeding left to right. Transactions are drawn as polylines, with circles representing accesses to objects. Filled circles indicate writes, and empty circles indicate reads. A commit is indicated by the letter C, and an abort by the letter A. A read operation returning an old value of an object is indicated by a dotted arc line. The initial value of object $o_i$ is denoted by $o_i^0$, and the value written to $o_i$ by the $j$’th write is denoted by $o_i^j$.

In the scenario depicted in Figure 1 transaction $T_2$ reads an object $o_1$, then another transaction $T_3$ updates objects $o_1$ and $o_2$, and commits. Assume that $T_2$ now tries to read $o_2$. Reading the value $o_2^2$ written by $T_3$ would violate correctness, since $T_2$ does not read the value $o_2^3$ written by $T_3$. In a single-versioned STM, illustrated in Figure 1(a), $T_2$ must abort. However, a multi-versioned STM may keep both versions $o_2^1$ and $o_2^2$ of $o_2$, and may return $o_2^1$ to $T_2$, as illustrated in Figure 1(b). This allows $T_2$ to successfully commit, in spite of its conflict with $T_3$.

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We call aborts that can be avoided, such as $T_2$’s abort in Figure 1(a), spurious. We can capture the amount of spurious aborts that we allow using the notion of permissiveness. Some previously defined permissiveness conditions, such as single-version permissiveness [8], are too weak, and still allow many spurious aborts. Other permissiveness conditions, such as online $\pi$-permissiveness [13], prevent all spurious aborts, but require complex algorithms to implement (see Section 2 for details). In Section 4, we define the new notion of multi-versioned (MV) permissiveness. It ensures that read-only transactions never abort, and permits update transactions to abort only when they conflict with other update transactions. This property can be achieved by practical algorithms. In fact, the algorithms in [16, 3, 2] would all satisfy MV-permissiveness if they kept enough object versions.

A key challenge when maintaining multiple versions is knowing when to garbage collect (GC) old object versions. On the one hand, an STM needs to keep versions that might be needed in the future. On the other hand, keeping unneeded versions wastes memory. In Section 5, we show that this problem is inherent. We prove that no STM algorithm can be space optimal, i.e., ensure that it always maintains the minimum number of object versions possible. We then define an achievable GC property called useless prefix (UP) GC, based on maintaining object versions only when they may be needed by some existing read-only transactions.

Satisfying MV-permissiveness (and UP GC) imposes costs on an STM. A key contribution of our paper is a systematic study of such necessary and sufficient costs. In Section 6, we show that an MV-permissive STM cannot be weakly disjoint-access parallel (DAP). Roughly speaking, this means that in order to ensure that read-only transactions never abort, it is necessary for transactions to communicate with each other, even when they do not access the same transactional objects. We also show that if an STM is MV-permissive and satisfies UP GC, then read-only transactions must leave some trace of themselves in shared memory, even after they have committed. Note that this implies the STM cannot use invisible reads [6], an important technique for optimizing read-only transactions. We also note that if the UP GC requirement is omitted, then it is possible to implement an STM using invisible reads, as done in our companion paper [15], assuming there exists a garbage collection thread that sees the private (“invisible”) memory of all transactions, such as the Java GC.

Finally, to complete our exploration of the design space of MV-permissiveness and garbage collection, we present in Section 7 a non-DAP algorithm using visible reads, satisfying MV-permissiveness and UP GC. Our results are summarized in Table 1.

### 2 Related Work

**Permissiveness.** The notion of permissiveness was first introduced by Guerraoui et al. [8]. Informally, an STM satisfies $\pi$-permissiveness for a correctness criterion $\pi$, if every history that does not violate $\pi$ is accepted by the STM. However, Guerraoui et al. focused on a model with single-versioned objects, which
Another permissiveness condition, online $\pi$-permissiveness, was presented in our earlier paper [13]. Online permissiveness does not allow aborting transactions if there is a way to continue the run without violating $\pi$ [10]. This condition is strong enough to avoid all spurious aborts, but is too complex to achieve with practical algorithms, and also requires keeping a large number of object versions. In fact, object versions overwritten by a write-only transaction $T$ cannot be garbage collected until all transactions that started before $T$’s commit terminate.

**Garbage collection.** Any practical multi-versioned STM has to address the problem of removing old object versions. Some earlier STMs, such as LSA [16] and Versioned Boxes [3], keep a fixed number of old object versions. This approach is neither necessary nor sufficient: certain object versions kept by these algorithms may be GCed without causing additional aborts, while the algorithms sometimes do not keep enough object versions to ensure all read-only transactions commit.

Another approach for garbage collection was presented in our selective multi-versioning (SMV) STM [15]. SMV keeps a variable number of old versions, which reduces memory usage while ensuring read-only transactions can always commit. Nevertheless, SMV does not satisfy UP GC, and hence keeps more object versions than the algorithm we present in Section 7. In addition, our new algorithm is more efficient for read-only transactions. The tradeoff is that update transactions are more costly.

**Impossibility of DAP.** An important technique for optimizing STM performance is disjoint-access parallelism. As described earlier, this means that transactions that do not access the same objects should also not access the same memory locations, thereby avoiding memory contention. Kapalka and Guerraoui [9] show that a single-versioned, obstruction free [11] STM cannot be strictly DAP. However, their proof does not apply in the multi-versioned setting we consider.

Attiya et al. [1] show that there is no STM implementing DAP that uses invisible reads, in which read-only transactions always terminate. In Section 6.1, we show that no MV-permissive STM can be DAP. As stated earlier, MV-permissiveness ensures all read-only transactions commit, and update transactions abort only when they conflict with other update transactions. Thus, our results show that the requirement of invisible reads in [1] can be replaced by precluding update transactions from aborting when they conflict with read-only transactions.

## 3 System Model

**Transactions.** A *transaction* consists of a sequence of *transactional operations*, where each operation is comprised of an invocation step and a subsequent matching response step, collectively called *transactional steps*. The system contains a set of *transactional objects*. Each transactional operations either accesses a transactional object, or tries to commit or abort the transaction. More precisely, let $T$ be a transaction, $o$ be a transactional object, and $v$ be a value. Then a transactional operation is one of the following. (1) An

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Table 1: Summary of our results.

is insufficient for avoiding many spurious aborts.

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Table 1: Summary of our results.
invocation step \( \text{read}(T, o) \), followed by a response step that either gives the current value of \( o \), or responds \( A(T) \), meaning that the transaction is aborted. (2) An invocation \( \text{write}(T, o, v) \), followed by a response either acknowledging the write, or responding \( A(T) \). (3) An invocation \( \text{Abort}(T) \), followed by response \( A(T) \). (4) An invocation \( \text{Commit}(T) \), followed either by response \( C(T) \), meaning \( T \) committed, or \( A(T) \).

We say the read set, resp. write set of a transaction is the set of transactional objects read, resp. written to by \( T \). We say \( T \) is read-only if its write set is empty. An update transaction is any transaction that is not read-only. We say two transactions conflict if they both access a common transactional object, and at least one of the accesses is a write. We assume that the steps in a transaction are not known ahead of time, but it is known a priori whether a transaction is a read-only or update transaction. Detection of read-only behavior can be done at compile time or using programmer annotations.

A transactional history \( H \) is a sequence of transactional steps, interleaved in an arbitrary order. A transaction is live in \( H \) if it is neither committed nor aborted, it is complete otherwise. We let \( \text{complete}(H) \) denote the set of completed transactions in \( H \).

**Serializations.** Two transactional histories \( H \) and \( H' \) are equivalent if they contain the same transactions, and every transaction performs the same sequence of invocations and receives the same responses in both histories. The real-time order of a transactional history \( H \), written \( \preceq_H \), is a partial order on the transactions in \( H \). Given transactions \( T, T' \) in \( H \), we define \( T \preceq_H T' \) when the response step for \( \text{Commit}(T) \) occurs before the first step of \( T' \). \( T, T' \) are concurrent if neither \( T \preceq_H T' \), nor \( T' \preceq_H T \).

A transactional history \( S \) is sequential if it has no concurrent transactions. \( S \) is legal if it respects the sequential specification of each transactional object accessed in \( S \). \( H \) is strictly serializable \([14]\) if \( \text{complete}(H) \) is equivalent to some legal sequential history \( S \), and \( \preceq_S \) is a refinement of \( \preceq_H \). Note that strict serializability is strictly weaker than the commonly used correctness condition of opacity \([10]\). Our lower bounds hold for algorithms satisfying strict serializability. It can be shown that our algorithm satisfies opacity, though for simplicity, we only consider strict serializability herein.

**STM.** A software transactional memory (STM) is an algorithm for running transactions. In this paper, we assume the algorithm consists of a set of threads. The threads communicate with each other using shared memory, and each thread also has private memory which it alone can access. Each transaction is run by a thread, and each thread runs at most one transaction at a time. To run a transaction \( T \), a thread runs each of \( T \)’s transactional operations, as follows. (1) Take as input an invocation step of \( T \). (2) Perform a sequence of private and shared memory steps, which are determined by the input and the memory. (3) Return as output a response step to \( T \). We write \( \text{thr}(T) \) for the thread running \( T \).

We call the memory objects accessed by the threads base objects. Note that these are conceptually distinct from the transactional objects accessed by the transactions. We also call the steps performed by the threads base steps. We assume that all the base steps for running a transactional step appear to execute atomically. In practice, this atomicity can be achieved using locks, or by lock-free algorithms \([7]\).

The STM guarantees that each operation invocation eventually gets a response, even if all other threads do not invoke new transactional operations. This limits the STM’s behavior upon operation invocation, so that it may either return an operation response, or abort a transaction, but cannot wait for other transactions to invoke new transactional operations. Note that our model does allow waiting for concurrent transactional operations to complete, such as the use of locks in TL2 \([4]\). In other words, the STM provides lock-freedom at the level of transactional operations.

A configuration of an STM consists of the states of the shared memory, private memory, and threads. An execution of an STM is an alternating sequence of configurations and base steps, starting with a configuration in which the memory and threads are all in their initial states. Two executions are indistinguishable to a thread if it performs the same sequence of state changes in both executions. Given a configuration \( C \) and a
transaction $T$, we let the configuration external to $T$ in $C$ consist of the state of the shared memory and the states and private memories of all threads other than $\text{thr}(T)$ in $C$.

Given a set of transactions $T$ and an execution $\alpha$, the execution interval of $T$ in $\alpha$, written $\text{interval}(\alpha, T)$, is the smallest subsequence of $\alpha$ containing all the base steps for the transactions in $T$.

DAP. We define the notion of weak disjoint-access parallelism, following [1]. Let $T_1, T_2$ be transactions, and let $\alpha$ be an execution. Let $T$ be the set of all transactions whose execution interval overlaps with the execution interval of $\{T_1, T_2\}$ in $\alpha$. Let $X$ be the set of transactional objects accessed by $T$. Let $G(T_1, T_2, \alpha)$ be an undirected graph with vertex set $X$, and an edge between vertices $x_1, x_2 \in X$ whenever there is a transaction $T \in T$ accessing both $x_1$ and $x_2$. We say $T_1, T_2$ are disjoint-access in $\alpha$ if there is no path between $T_1$ and $T_2$ in $G(T_1, T_2, \alpha)$. Given two sets of base steps, we say they contend if there is a base object that is accessed by both sets of steps, and at least one of the accesses changes the state of the object.

**Definition 1.** An STM is weakly disjoint-access parallel (weakly DAP) if, given any execution $\alpha$, and transactions $T_1, T_2$ that are disjoint-access in $\alpha$, the base steps for $T_1$ and $T_2$ in $\alpha$ do not contend.

### 4 Multi-Versioned Permissiveness

One of the main benefits of multi-versioning is reducing the aborts rate. In order to evaluate the effectiveness of multi-versioned STMs, we need to formally define the set of aborts that are avoided. Such restrictions on aborts are captured by permissiveness conditions. As noted in Section 2, many existing permissiveness notions are either too weak or too strong. In this section, we define a practically achievable permissiveness property that is suited for multi-versioned STMs.

Multi-versioning is particularly useful for avoiding aborts of read-only transactions. In fact, by keeping enough versions, read-only transaction can always find appropriate object versions to read, and commit successfully. Our permissiveness condition captures this property. In addition, it captures the property that read-only transactions do not cause update transactions to abort.

**Definition 2.** An STM satisfies multi-versioned (MV)-permissiveness if a transaction aborts only when it is an update transaction that conflicts with another update transaction.

We say that an STM satisfying MV-permissiveness is MV-permissive.

Most multi-versioned algorithms [16, 3, 2] are not MV-permissive, because they do not always keep all the object versions needed to commit all read-only transactions. However, the algorithm we present in Section 7, as well as the algorithm in [15], are MV-permissive.

### 5 Garbage Collection Properties

A key aspect to maintaining multiple versions is a mechanism for garbage collecting (GC) old object versions. This section considers two sides to this problem. In Section 5.1 we show that no STM can always keep the minimum number of old object versions. Then in Section 5.2, we define an achievable GC property that removes many old versions.

#### 5.1 Impossibility of Space Optimal STM

**Definition 3.** An MV-permissive STM $\mathcal{X}$ is online space optimal, if for any other MV-permissive STM $\mathcal{X}'$ and any transactional history $H$, the number of versions kept by $\mathcal{X}$ at any point of time during $H$ is less than or equal to the number of versions kept by $\mathcal{X}'$. 

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5
Theorem 1. No MV-permissive STM can be online space optimal.

![Diagram](image_url)

(a) An STM does not know whether to remove $o_3$. (b) Removing $o_3^1$ obliges an STM to keep the versions written by $T_4$ the versions written by $T_4$ to $o_3$ and to $o_4$ and $o_5$ even after they are $o_5$ after they are overwritten.

Figure 2: No STM can be online space optimal — it is not known at time $t_0$ whether to remove the version of $o_3$ written by $T_2$.

Proof. The main idea is to construct a transactional history in which any STM that keeps the minimum number of object versions at a time $t_0$ will keep more than the minimum number of object versions at time $t_1 > t_0$. Thus, no STM can keep the minimum number of versions at all times, and so is not online space optimal.

Formally, assume for contradiction that there exists an online space optimal STM $\mathcal{X}$ satisfying MV-permissiveness. Consider the transactional history $H$ depicted in Figure 2(a). At time $t_0$, $\mathcal{X}$ should either remove object version $o_3^1$ or keep it. We show that for either one of these decisions, there exists an MV-permissive STM that keeps fewer versions than $\mathcal{X}$ during $H$ or an extension of $H$.

Assume first that $\mathcal{X}$ keeps $o_3^1$ at time $t_0$. Consider another STM $\mathcal{X}'$ which behaves the same as $\mathcal{X}$ until time $t_0$, but GCs $o_3^1$ as soon as $T_4$ performs its write to $o_3$. Then $\mathcal{X}'$ keeps fewer object versions than $\mathcal{X}$. It remains to show that $\mathcal{X}'$ does not violate MV-permissiveness by GCing $o_3^1$. Notice that it suffices to show that at time $t_0$, all live read-only transactions, namely $T_1$ and $T_3$, can commit. Now, $T_1$’s first read step precedes $T_2$’s first write step. Thus, $T_1$ cannot read $o_3^1$ when invoking a read operation of $o_3$. $\mathcal{X}$ is MV-permissive, hence there exists a version $o_3^1 \neq o_3^1$, which is kept by $\mathcal{X}'$ at time $t_0$ and which can be read by $T_1$.

Other than removing version $o_3^1$, $\mathcal{X}$ and $\mathcal{X}'$ are the same — $T_1$ can read $o_3^1$ when invoking a read operation of $o_3$. Also, $T_3$ can return $o_3^2$, by serializing $T_3$ after $T_1$. So both $T_1$ and $T_3$ can commit after $\mathcal{X}'$ removes $o_3^1$, and so $\mathcal{X}'$ satisfies MV-permissiveness. Thus, $\mathcal{X}$ is not online space optimal.

Next, suppose that $o_3^1$ is GCed at time $t_0$. Consider the transactional history $H_1$ depicted in Figure 2(b), which extends $H$. We claim that the second step of $T_3$ cannot read $o_3^0$. Indeed, $T_3$ starts after $T_2$ finished, and $T_2$’s second step overwrote $o_3^0$. So, $T_3$’s second step must read $o_3^1$, and so $T_3$ precedes $T_3$ in any strict serialization. Also, $T_3$ precedes $T_3$ in any strict serialization, because the first step of $T_3$ does not read $o_3^1$. From this, we get that the third and fourth steps of $T_3$ must read $o_3^2$ and $o_3^5$, resp. So, these object versions cannot be GCed at time $t_1$. Now, to show that $\mathcal{X}$ is not online space optimal, consider another STM $\mathcal{X}'$ that keeps $o_3^1$ at time $t_0$, but GCs $o_3^1$ and $o_3^5$ at time $t_0$. We claim that $\mathcal{X}'$ satisfies MV-permissiveness. Again, it suffices to show the live read-transactions $T_1$ and $T_3$ at time $t_0$ can commit. Indeed, $T_1$’s second and third steps read $o_1^0$ and $o_0^0$, resp., so $T_1$ can commit. Also, $T_3$’s second, third and fourth steps can read $o_3^3$, $o_3^1$ and $o_3^0$, resp., by serializing $T_3$ after $T_2$, and so $T_3$ can also commit. This is illustrated in Figure 2(c). Thus,
satisfies MV-permissiveness. So, since \( X' \) keeps 6 object versions at \( t_1 \) and \( X \) keeps 7, \( X \) is not online space optimal.

5.2 Useless-Prefix GC

Though we have just seen that no MV-permissive STM is online space optimal, we would still like an STM to garbage collect as many old versions as it can. To this end, we define the following.

**Definition 4.** An MV-permissive STM satisfies useless-prefix (UP) GC if at any point in a transactional history \( H \), an object version \( o_j \) is kept only if there exists an extension of \( H \) with a live transaction \( T_i \), such that (1) \( T_i \) can read \( o_j \), and (2) \( T_i \) cannot read any version written after \( o_j \).

In other words, an STM satisfying UP GC, removes the longest possible prefix of versions for each object at any point in time and keeps the shortest suffix of versions that might be needed by read-only transactions.

6 Inherent Limitations

In shared memory systems, cache contention due to concurrent memory accesses, and especially concurrent writes, is a significant performance bottleneck. Thus, it is desirable to try to separate the memory locations accessed by different transactions as much as possible. One natural requirement seems to be that transactions that access different transactional objects access only different base objects. However, we show in this section that MV-permissive STMs cannot satisfy this property.

Another desirable property for an STM is not to update shared memory during read-only transactions. Such STMs are said to use invisible reads. It is easy to show that an STM satisfying MV-permissiveness and UP GC cannot use invisible reads. Indeed, UP GC requires knowing about existing read-only transactions, in order to determine which object versions to GC; such knowledge cannot be obtained unless read-only transactions write. In our second result in this section, we prove a stronger statement. We show that it is not possible for an MV-permissive STM to perform UP GC, even when we allow read-only transactions to write, and only require that when such a transaction runs alone, the external configurations before and after the transaction are the same. This means that read-only transactions must leave some trace of their existence, even after they have committed. In particular, even keeping current readers lists for the objects [7], or using non-zero indicators for conflict detection [5] does not suffice.

6.1 Disjoint-Access Parallelism

**Theorem 2.** An STM satisfying MV-permissiveness cannot be weakly disjoint-access parallel.

![Diagram](image)

(a) \( H_1 \): \( T_1 \preceq T_3, T_2 \) must read the value written by \( T_1 \).

(b) \( H_2 \): \( T_3 \preceq T_1, T_2 \) cannot read the value written by \( T_1 \).

Figure 3: In a weakly DAP STM \( T_1 \) does not distinguish between \( H_1 \) and \( H_2 \) and cannot be MV-permissive.
Proof. Suppose for contradiction that there exists an STM satisfying MV-permissiveness that is weakly DAP. Consider the transactional histories in Figure 3. In both $H_1$ and $H_2$, transactions $T_2$ and $T_3$ conflict on object $o_1$: $T_3$ writes to $o_1$ and commits, overriding the value read by a live transaction $T_2$. Note that since an STM satisfies MV-permissiveness, $T_3$ neither aborts nor waits for $T_2$’s termination upon a write to $o_1$. We claim the following. (1) The second step of $T_2$ returns $o_1^1$ in $H_1$. (2) The second step of $T_2$ returns $o_1^3$ in $H_2$. (3) The first step of $T_2$ returns $o_1^0$ in $H_2$. (4) $H_2$ is not strictly serializable if the first step of $T_2$ returns $o_1^0$, and the second step returns $o_1^3$. Conclusion (4) contradicts the strict serializability of the STM. So there is no STM that is both MV-permissive and weakly DAP. In the following, let $s_1$, $s_2$, $s_3$ denote the first steps of $T_1$, $T_2$, $T_3$, resp., and let $s_2’$ denote the second step of $T_2$.

To show (1), note that $T_1$ performs the last write on $o_2$ before the start of $T_2$ in $H_1$. So by strict serializability, $s_2’$ returns $o_1^1$.

To show (2), we show that $H_1$ and $H_2$ are indistinguishable to $thr(T_2)$. We first claim that the base steps of $s_1$ and $s_2$ in $H_1$ do not contend. Indeed, consider another transactional history $H_3$ in which $T_2$ commits after its first step $s_2$. $T_1$ and $T_2$ are disjoint-access in $H_3$, so the base steps of $s_1$ and $s_2$ in $H_3$ do not contend. After $s_2$, $thr(T_1)$ and $thr(T_2)$ do not distinguish $H_1$ from $H_3$, because the steps of $T_2$ are not known ahead of time. Thus, the base steps of $s_1$ and $s_2$ in $H_1$ also do not contend. Next, we claim that the base steps of $s_1$ and $s_3$ in $H_1$ do not contend. This is because $T_1$ and $T_3$ are disjoint-access in $H_3$, so the base steps of $s_1$ and $s_3$ in $H_3$ do not contend. Since $thr(T_1)$ and $thr(T_2)$ do not distinguish $H_1$ from $H_3$ after $s_3$, then $thr(T_3)$ does not distinguish them after $s_3$. So, the base steps of $s_1$ and $s_3$ do not contend in $H_1$. Now, since the base steps for $s_1$, $s_2$ and $s_1$, $s_3$ in $H_1$ do not contend, then the configuration after the base steps of $s_3$ in $H_1$, and after the base steps of $s_1$ in $H_2$, are the same. Thus, $thr(T_2)$ does not distinguish between $H_1$ and $H_2$. So since $s_2’$ returns $o_1^1$ in $H_1$, it also returns $o_1^3$ in $H_2$.

(3) is true because $s_2’$ occurs before $s_3$ in $H_2$, and so $s_2$ returns $o_1^0$.

To show (4), let $S$ be any legal sequential history that is equivalent to $H_2$. Since $s_2$ returns $o_1^0$ and $s_2’$ returns $o_1^3$, then $T_2 \preceq_S T_3$ and $T_1 \preceq_S T_2$. Also, since $T_1$ starts after $T_3$ commits, then $T_3 \preceq_S T_1$. But then $T_1 \preceq_S T_2 \preceq_S T_3 \preceq_S T_1$, which is a contradiction. Thus, $H_2$ is not strictly serializable. \hfill \Box

6.2 Read Visibility

Theorem 3. Suppose an STM satisfies MV permissiveness and UP GC. Consider a read-only transaction whose execution interval does not contain base steps of any other transaction. Then the configuration external to the transaction, immediately before and after the transaction, cannot be the same.

![Figure 4: H1 and H2 are indistinguishable if a read-only transaction T2 does not leave any trace after its execution.](image)

Proof. Suppose for contradiction that there exists an STM satisfying MV-permissiveness and UP GC, in which the external configurations before and after a read-only transaction are the same, when the transaction’s interval does not overlap the steps of any other transaction. Consider the transactional histories
in Figure 4. We claim the following. (1) $o_1^2$ is GCed in $H_1$. (2) $o_2^1$ is GCed in $H_2$. (3) $T_4$ aborts in $H_2$. Conclusion (3) is a contradiction, because $T_4$ is a read-only transaction, and cannot abort because of MV-permissiveness.

To show (1), first note that the second step of $T_4$ can read $o_2^2$, since this is equivalent to the legal sequential history $T_1 T_2 T_3 T_4 T_5$. Also, any read transaction that starts after $H_1$ follows $T_3$ in real-time, and so it cannot return $o_2^1$. Thus, in every extension of $H$, a live transaction can read $o_2^2$ or a later version. So by the definition of UP GC, $o_2^1$ is GCed.

We now show (2). In $H_1$ and $H_2$, $T_2$ is a read-only transaction, and its execution interval does not contain steps of any other transactions. So by assumption, the external configuration before and after $T_2$ are the same. Thus, after $T_2$’s second step in $H_2$, the only thread that distinguishes between $H_1$ and $H_2$ is $thr(T_2)$. Note that $thr(T_2)$ does not GC $o_2^1$, since $o_2^1$ is the latest version of $o_2$ during $T_2$’s execution interval. Then, since $o_2^1$ is GCed in $H_1$, it is also GCed in $H_2$.

To show (3), assume for contradiction that $T_4$ commits in $H_2$. Let $S$ be a legal sequential history equivalent to $H_2$. Since $o_2^1$ is GCed in $H_2$, then $T_4$ must return $o_2^2$ in its second read step. Thus, we have $T_3 \preceq_S T_4$. Next, we have $T_4 \preceq_S T_5$, because $T_4$ does not read $o_2^1$ in its first read step. We have $T_5 \preceq_S T_2$, because $T_2$ starts after $T_5$ commits. Finally, we have $T_2 \preceq_S T_3$, because the first step of $T_2$ does not return $o_2^2$. Combining the above, we have $T_2 \preceq_S T_3 \preceq_S T_4 \preceq_S T_5 \preceq_S T_2$, which is a contradiction. Thus, $T_4$ does not commit in $H_2$, and so the lemma is proved.

7 UP Multi-Versioning Algorithm

We present UP Multi-Versioning (UP-MV), an STM algorithm satisfying MV-permissiveness and UP GC. Section 7.1 overviews the principles underlying UP-MV’s design. The data structures used by UP-MV and its algorithm are described in Section 7.2. UP-MV’s properties are analyzed in Section 7.3.

7.1 Algorithm Overview and Design Principles

First we explain how the algorithm finds the versions to read and write, and then explain the garbage collection mechanism.

Versions written and read. As UP-MV satisfies MV-permissiveness, each read-only transaction commits. Almost all STMs abort an update transaction whenever its read-set is overwritten [11, 4, 16, 7]. Our first design principle mandates that we abort only in such situations:

**Design Principle 1.** Update transaction $T$ aborts if and only if one of the objects in its read-set has been overwritten after being read by $T$ and before $T$ commits.

This rule is trivially checked at commit time by validating that each version in the read-set is still the latest one. To expedite these checks, we use a global version clock, as in TL2 [4] and LSA [16]. The clock is incremented by each committed transaction, and object versions are tagged with its values.

The writes to a transactional object $o$ create a sequence of versions $o^0, o^1, \ldots$. Like [4, 7, 6], UP-MV defers the writes to commit time, and does not allow for “write reordering”:

**Design Principle 2.** When an update transaction commits, it adds a new object version as the latest one.

Since update transactions abort whenever their read-set is overwritten, they read only the last object versions. A read-only transaction reads the latest version that it can read without violating correctness. To specify this, we define the transaction precedence relation recursively as follows: $T_j$ precedes $T_i$ if:

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• $T_j$ terminates before the start of $T_i$ (real-time order);
• $T_i$ reads the value written by $T_j$ (read-after-write);
• $T_i$ writes to object $o_k$, which was previously written to by $T_j$ (write-after-write);
• $T_i$ writes to object $o_k$ and $T_j$ reads the version overwritten by $T_i$ (write-after-read); or
• $\exists T_k \text{ s.t. } T_i \text{ precedes } T_k \text{ and } T_k \text{ precedes } T_j$.

If $T_j$ precedes $T_i$, we say that $T_i$ follows $T_j$. Note that any serialization order must respect the precedence order. We can now specify which versions are read:

**Design Principle 3.** Consider a transaction $T_i$ reading object $o_j$. If $T_i$ is an update transaction, it reads the latest version. Otherwise, let $T_k$ be the earliest update transaction that follows $T_i$ and writes to $o_j$. Then $T_i$ reads the version of $o_j$ overwritten by $T_k$. If no such $T_k$ exists, $T_i$ reads the last version of $o_j$.

![Figure 5](image)

Figure 5: Transaction $T_0$ reads the latest object versions it can correctly read: when reading $o_2$ it accesses $o_1^2$, which was overwritten by $T_2$; when reading $o_3$, it accesses the last version.

For example, in Figure 5, when transaction $T_0$ reads $o_2$ it should read $o_1^2$, because this version is overwritten by $T_2$, which follows $T_0$ and writes to $o_2$. We say that a live transaction $T_i$ is a potential reader of version $o_j^i$ if $T_i$ precedes $o_j^{i+1}.writer$ and does not precede $o_j^i.writer$. In order to maintain the precedence information, UP-MV keeps a graph whose vertices are transactional descriptors for each transaction, and whose edges correspond to the precedence relations created by transactional steps during the run.

Note that if a read-only transaction does not conflict with any update transaction, then it has no following transactions, and therefore reads the last version of every object. Thus, by default, read-only transactions access the last object versions, which are referenced directly by object handles. In addition, each read-only transaction should be able to find references to relevant old object versions. But since, by UP GC, such versions may exist only as long as there are live transactions that can read them, these versions have to somehow be linked to their potential readers. This leads to the following design principle:

**Design Principle 4.** Every read-only transaction $T$ has a map of references from objects to old versions of which $T$ is a potential reader.

The responsibility for maintaining such maps lies on update transactions: before a committing update transaction writes to an object, it copies the reference to the overwritten version to all the maps of its live preceding transactions, (which are the potential readers of that version). The potential readers are found by traversing the precedence graph. In case the map already includes a version for this object, the version numbers are compared, and the earlier one is kept.

In Appendix A, we prove that our algorithm satisfies the following invariant:
Invariant 1. Transaction $T_i$ has $o_j$ in its map if and only if $o_j$ is not $o_i$’s last version and $o_j$ is the latest version that $T_i$ can read without violating correctness.

Garbage Collection. To satisfy the UP GC, an old object version is deleted at time $t_0$ if it cannot be read by any transaction after $t_0$. By Design Principle 3, version $o_j$ may be read if and only if it has a potential reader. Version $o_j$ is deleted at time $t_0$ if it may have no potential readers from $t_0$ onward. Our algorithm ensures that if there are no potential readers at time $t_0$, then no such readers may appear after $t_0$.

We deduce the following design rule for garbage collecting old object versions:

Design Principle 5. Every old object version is deleted when its last potential reader terminates.

In addition to removing old object versions, UP-MV’s garbage collection should clean up transactional descriptors of terminated transactions from the precedence graph. As noted above, this graph is needed to allow committing transactions to copy overwritten versions to their live preceding transactions. Once a terminated transaction $T$ has no live preceding transactions, its descriptor become useless. Hence:

Design Principle 6. The descriptor of terminated transaction $T$ is deleted when the last live preceding transaction of $T$ terminates.

7.2 UP-MV’s Data Structures and Algorithm

Algorithm 1 UP-MV algorithm data structures.

```
1: Object Handle $o_j$:
2:     Version: latest $\triangleright$ latest version of the object
3: Version $o_j$:
4:     Data: data $\triangleright$ actual data
5:     Tid: writerId $\triangleright$ Id of the version’s writer
6:     int: versionNum $\triangleright$ ordered version number of $o_j$
7: TxnDsc[]: readers $\triangleright$ current live readers
8:     int: potentialCount $\triangleright$ the number of live read-only transactions that might need the version in future
9: TxnDsc $T_i$:
10:     {Live, Terminated}: status
11:     int: clockVal $\triangleright$ global clock at the beginning of transaction
12:     {Object, Version}[]: readSet
13:     {Object, Version}[]: writeSet
14:     TxnDsc[]: prev $\triangleright$ immediate predecessors of $T_i$
15:     TxnDsc[]: next $\triangleright$ immediate successors of $T_i$
16:     {Object, Version}[]: toRead $\triangleright$ if $T_i$ cannot read the latest version of $o_j$, then the legal version is kept in $T_i$.toRead[$o_j$]
17: Global Variables:
18:     int: globalClock $\triangleright$ incremented by committing update txn
19:     TxnDsc[]: finished $\triangleright$ finished txns that have not been GCed
20:     {Tid, TxnDsc[]}[]: txnMap
```

Memory layout. The data structures used in the algorithm are depicted in Algorithm 1. Transactional objects are accessed via object handles, which point to the last object versions. In order to facilitate garbage collection, old versions are referenced directly by their potential readers.

Each version keeps a counter of potential readers, potentialCount; when this counter becomes zero the version is deleted. Additionally, each version keeps the version number, versionNum, as read from the global clock when the version is written. Each object version also keeps the list of its current live reading transactions, readers, which is used by update transactions to maintain precedence information. This is where the algorithm violates read invisibility, as required for UP GC (see Section 6.2).
Each transaction is represented by its transactional descriptor keeping the read-set and the write-set of the accessed objects. A data structure `TxnMap` keeps pointers to all the non-GCed transactions’ descriptors. Some of the transactional descriptors point to each other, forming a subgraph of the precedence graph. Transactional steps add edges according to read-after-write, write-after-write, and write-after-read relations. Edges reflecting real-time precedence are added at startup, as we explain below. The transactional descriptor of a terminated transaction is GCed once it has no incoming edges. If transaction $T_i$ has no live preceding transactions at the end of its run, $T_i$’s descriptor is deleted by $T_i$ itself. Otherwise, $T_i$’s descriptor is deleted by the last live transaction preceding $T_i$ when it terminates.

In order to track real-time order, the algorithm maintains a global transaction set `finished`, which holds the descriptors of all the terminated transactions that have not been GCed. A transaction $T$ that cannot GC its descriptor inserts it to this set upon termination, and the descriptor is removed from `finished` when it is GCed. Note that `finished` is always empty in runs without conflicts. When a new transaction starts, it adds edges from every transaction in `finished` to itself. The use of this set is where the algorithm violates the DAP property, as necessary for MV-permissiveness (see Section 6.1). Although the use of a global clock, which is incremented by each committing transaction, and copied to every written version, also violates DAP, we use it only to optimize consistency checks, and it is not needed for correctness.

In Figure 6, we see the memory layout for the scenario depicted in Figure 5: a live read-only transaction $T_0$ precedes committed transactions $T_2 \ldots T_4$, so these transactions are not GCed, whereas committed transactions $T_1$, $T_5$, $T_6$, which have no live preceding transactions, are deleted.

The map of old object versions $T_i$ may read is stored in $T_i$.toRead. Invariant 1 guarantees that if a read-only transaction $T_i$ cannot read the last version of object $o_j$, then $T_i$.toRead contains a mapping from $o_j$ to the old version that should be read by $T_i$. In Figure 6, the object versions overwritten by $T_1$ are referenced by its live preceding transaction $T_0$. All other old object versions are GCed because they have no potential readers.

Handling update transactions. The pseudo-code for update transaction $T_i$ is depicted in Algorithm 2. At startup, transaction $T_i$ saves the value of the global clock in its local variable `clockVal` and adds edges from all the descriptors in `finished` to itself (line 34).

Write operations postpone most of the work till the commit phase; a write operation merely updates the local copy of the object and puts it in its write-set. A read operation may only return the last version of the object. To that end, the last version’s number is validated. If a read operation succeeds, $T_i$ updates the
precedence information: if the last version’s writer \( T_j \) was not GCed, then \( T_i \) adds an edge from \( T_j \) to itself.

Transaction \( T_i \) commits successfully if and only if no object in its read-set is overwritten after being read by \( T_i \) and before \( T_i \) commits. This is checked similarly to TL2 [4], using the global clock, and without using precedence information. A commit operation starts by revalidating \( T_i \)’s read-set (line 17). If the validation fails, \( T_i \) aborts. Otherwise, \( T_i \) executes the following: 1) increments the global clock; 2) for each \( o_j \in T_i \).writeSet, \( T_i \) adds edges from \( o_j \)’s writer to itself, and then installs the new version (lines 21–27); and 3) calls the function overwrittenVersions to update potential readers’ maps with the versions overwritten by \( T_i \) (line 29).

The process of updating potential readers with overwritten versions (lines 51–59) is executed recursively for every preceding transaction. For a live transaction \( T_j \), the overwritten versions are inserted to its \( toRead \) map. If for some object \( o_i \), \( toRead \) already contains a version of \( o_i \), the version with the smaller versionNum is chosen (lines 54–57). This way, the algorithm guarantees that a read-only transaction that reads \( o_i \) accesses the version overwritten by the earliest following transaction.

When \( T_i \) terminates, it adds its descriptor to \( finished \) and starts the GC procedure (lines 39–46). The transactional descriptor may be deleted if it has no incoming edges. Since deleting one transactional descriptor decreases the number of incoming edges in its successors, the GC continues recursively with them.

Handling read-only transactions. The pseudo-code for read-only transactions appears in Algorithm 3.
Algorithm 3 UP-MV algorithm for read-only transaction $T_i$.

60: Read $o_j$:
61:   if ($o_j \in T_i$.readSet) then return readSet[$o_j$.data]
   ▷ find the version to read
62:   if ($o_j \in T_i$.toRead) then
63:     verToRead ← $T_i$.toRead[$o_j$]
64:   else
65:     verToRead ← $o_j$.latest
   ▷ update precedence information
66:   writer ← txnRepository.get(verToRead.writerId)
67:   if (writer $\neq \bot$) then
68:     addEdge(writer, $T_i$)
   ▷ pass the overwritten versions to the preceding transactions
69:   foreach $T_j \in T_i$.prev do:
70:     overwrittenVersions($T_j$, $T_i$.toRead)
71:     verToRead.readers ← verToRead.readers $\cup T_i$
72:   readSet[$o_j$] ← verToRead
73:   return verToRead.data
74:   Termination:
75:   $T_i$.status ← Terminated
76:   finished ← finished $\cup T_i$
77:   if ($T_i$.prev $= \emptyset$) then
78:     foreach ($o_j$, version) $\in T_i$.readSet do:
79:       version.readers ← version.readers $\setminus T_i$
80:     foreach ($o_j$, oldVersion) $\in T_i$.toRead do:
81:       oldVer.potentialCount ← oldVer.potentialCount $- 1$
82:     if (oldVer.potentialCount $= 0$) then delete oldVersion
83:   GC($T_i$)

To read object $o_j$ (lines 3–6), $T_i$ checks whether the object is in $toRead$. If not, then $T_i$ reads the last version of $o_j$. Otherwise, $T_i$ reads the version from its $toRead$ list.

When a read-only transaction $T_i$ terminates, it decrements the counter of potential readers for all the versions in its $toRead$ list. If a version’s number of potential readers becomes zero, the old object version is deleted (lines 80–82).

### 7.3 Properties

UP-MV’s MV-permissiveness immediately follows from the code, since read-only transactions never abort and update transactions abort only if some object in their read-set is modified during their lifecycle. UP GC is also easy to see, since each version has a counter, which is non-zero only if the version is in the map of a read-only transaction. But by Invariant 1, $T_i$ has $o_j^i$ in its $toRead$ map only if $o_j^i$ is the last version $T_i$ can read.

UP-MV’s correctness follows from the following arguments:

1. The algorithm maintains precedence order correctly. That is, if $T_i$ is a live preceding transaction of $T_j$, then there is a path from $T_i$’s descriptor to $T_j$’s.
2. The precedence graph remains acyclic, since (a) by Invariant 1, a read-only transaction can always find a version to read without creating a cycle; and (b) update transactions have no followers as long as they are alive because they abort on every conflict, and so their steps also do not create cycles.
3. Any total order that preserves the precedence order of an $H$ is a legal serialization of $H$ [13].
8 Conclusions

This paper studied the use of multi-versioning to reduce the number of aborts in STMs, as well as techniques for garbage collection to reduce the memory consumption of multi-versioned STMs. We first defined the property of multi-version permissiveness. Then we showed that no MV-permissive STM can guarantee to always garbage collect the maximum number of unneeded object versions. We also showed that an MV-permissive STM cannot be weakly disjoint-access parallel. We defined an achievable garbage collection property, useless-prefix GC, and showed that in an MV-permissive STM satisfying UP GC, even read-only transactions must make lasting changes to the system state. Finally, we presented an MV-permissive STM satisfying UP GC that uses visible reads and is non-DAP, showing that these conditions are not only necessary but also sufficient.

Our paper suggests a number of areas for future research. For example, while we showed that no MV-permissive STM can be online space optimal, it is interesting to consider whether there exist approximately optimal STMs. There are clear tradeoffs between the quality of garbage collection, permissiveness and the computational complexity of transactional operations: we believe that understanding these tradeoffs may be valuable to improving the performance and utility of transactional memory.

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References


A Invariant Proof

We now prove Invariant 1 presented in Section 7.1.

It was shown earlier, that history $H$ has a legal serialization if and only if its precedence graph is acyclic [13]. We use this property to prove the following lemma:

Lemma 1. Transaction $T_i$ can read object version $o_j^i$ without violating correctness if and only if $T_i$ does not precede $o_j^{i+1}.writer$.

Proof. $T_i$ can correctly read $o_j^i$ if and only if the read operation does not create a cycle in the precedence graph. When $T_i$ reads $o_j^i$, two new precedence relations are added: $(o_j^i.writer, T_i)$ and $(T_i, o_j^{i+1}.writer)$.

$(\Rightarrow)$: If $T_i$ already precedes $o_j^i.writer$, then adding relation $(o_j^i.writer, T_i)$ creates a cycle in the precedence graph, so $T_i$ cannot read $o_j^i$.

$(\Leftarrow)$: The algorithm always installs new versions at the end, so $o_j^i.writer$ precedes $o_j^{i+1}.writer$. If $T_i$ does not precede $o_j^i.writer$, then adding relation $(o_j^i.writer, T_i)$ cannot create a cycle in the precedence graph. Therefore, $T_i$ can read $o_j^i$ if it does not precede $o_j^i.writer$. \hfill $\Box$

The following lemma can be proven by easy induction on the steps of the algorithm:

Lemma 2. The transactional descriptor graph of UP-MV is at any given time a subgraph of the precedence graph, which includes a path from every live transaction $T_i$ to each of its followers.

Invariant 2. Let $S_i^j$ be the set of committed update transactions following $T_i$ that write to $o_j$. If $S_i^j$ is empty then $T_i$’s map contains no mapping for $o_j$. Otherwise, $T_i$’s map contains the first version of $o_j$ that is overwritten by a transaction in $S_i^j$.

Proof. We prove the invariant by showing that it is correct at the beginning of each transaction and is preserved after each algorithm step. Upon startup, $T_i$’s map is empty and $T_i$ does not precede any other transaction, so $S_i^j = \emptyset$. Hence, the invariant holds.

In order to show that the invariant is preserved after each algorithm’s operation, we show the following: (1) each change in $T_i$’s mapping for $o_j$ corresponds to a change in $S_i^j$, (2) $S_i^j$ may only grow during the lifetime of $T_i$, (3) the invariant is preserved when a new transaction joins $S_i^j$. These three steps together complete the proof.

To show (1), observe that $T_i$’s mapping for $o_j$ changes only in the function overwrittenVersions (line 57), which operates on $T_i$’s descriptor as a result of one of two events. First, a transaction $T_k$ that follows $T_i$ writes to $o_j$ and commits (line 29, and recursively, line 57). In this case, $T_k \in S_i^j$. Second, a live-read only transaction $T_k$, which precedes some $T_l$ that writes $o_j$, reads the value written by one of $T_i$’s followers (line 70). In this case, $T_i$ starts preceding $T_l$ via $T_k$, and therefore $T_j \in S_i^j$. Each member of $S_i^j$ writes to $o_j$ once. Therefore, every change in $T_i$’s mapping for $o_j$ corresponds to a change of $S_i^j$.

Claim (2) follows directly from the observation that if $T_i$ precedes $T_j$ at time $t_0$, this relation persists in every extension of the history.

To show (3), we examine all the possible ways for a new transaction to join $S_i^j$:

- A transaction $T_l$ that follows $T_i$ writes to $o_j$ and commits. In this case, $T_l$ calls overwrittenVersions (line 29), which traverses recursively all the predecessors of $T_i$’s descriptor. By Lemma 2, $T_i$’s descriptor is a predecessor of $T_l$’s descriptor, hence overwrittenVersions is executed with $T_i$, and in line 57, it compares $T_i$’s mapping for $o_j$ with the version overwritten by $T_j$, and chooses the version with the earlier version number. The invariant is preserved.
• A (committed) writer of $o_j$ has a new preceding transaction $T_l$. This happens only when a live read-only transaction $T_k$, which precedes $T_l$, reads a value written by one of $T_i$’s followers. In this case, $T_k$ calls overwrittenVersions (line 70), which traverses recursively all the predecessors of $T_k$’s descriptor, including $T_i$’s descriptor (by Lemma 2). According to the invariant assumption, $T_k$’s mapping for $o_j$ contains the version of $o_j$ that is overwritten by the earliest transaction in $S^j_k$. This version is compared with $T_i$’s current mapping for $o_j$ in line 57, and the version with the earlier version number is chosen. Note that if an update transaction $T_m \in S^j_k$ is not the earliest one in $S^j_k$, then it cannot be the earliest one in $S^j_i$, because $S^j_k \subseteq S^j_i$. Therefore, the invariant is preserved.

We have shown that the invariant is correct at the beginning of each transaction and is preserved after each algorithm step. □

Invariant 1 follows directly from Lemma 1 and Invariant 2:

**Invariant 1. (restated)** Transaction $T_i$ has $o^i_j$ in its map if and only if $o^i_j$ is not $o_i$’s last version and $o^i_j$ is the latest version that $T_i$ can read without violating correctness.