International Journal of Leading Research Publication (IJLRP)
E-ISSN: 2582-8010 ● Website: www.ijlrp.com ● Email: editor@ijlrp.com

Enhancing Deadlock Management in Distributed Databases Using Serializable Snapshot Isolation

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Abstract

Snapshot Isolation (SI) is a concurrency control mechanism used in many modern relational and distributed database systems. It provides a consistent snapshot of the database to each transaction at the time it begins, which ensures that reads do not block writes and writes do not block reads. SI effectively eliminates many traditional concurrency anomalies such as dirty reads and non-repeatable reads, and it enables a high level of concurrency without relying on strict locking mechanisms. Each transaction operates on a private snapshot and only sees committed changes made before it started. This allows SI to deliver high throughput and improved scalability, making it a preferred choice for systems with many concurrent read-heavy operations. However, despite these benefits, SI is not free from challenges. One of the most critical issues facing Snapshot Isolation is its inability to prevent certain anomalies, particularly write skew and phantom reads, which can lead to non-serializable executions. More significantly, SI systems are increasingly facing huge numbers of deadlocks in high-contention environments. These deadlocks are often the result of multiple transactions trying to commit conflicting updates to shared data items. Because SI allows transactions to run without waiting, conflicts are often only detected at commit time, resulting in aborted transactions and a growing rate of deadlocks. In distributed databases, this problem is further magnified due to the coordination needed between multiple nodes and the increased likelihood of concurrent writes on the same data partitions. As the system scales to handle more nodes and users, the deadlock rate under SI can rise dramatically. Unlike traditional deadlocks, which are typically caused by cyclic waits on locks, SI deadlocks occur due to concurrent commits conflicting under the "first-committer-wins" rule, where only one transaction can proceed, and others must abort. To address these limitations, some systems have adopted Serializable Snapshot Isolation (SSI), which extends SI by tracking dependencies between transactions to detect dangerous structures that could lead to serialization anomalies. SSI can reduce deadlocks and aborts by preventing non-serializable schedules before they commit, providing stronger consistency guarantees. However, this comes at the cost of increased complexity and overhead in tracking and managing these dependencies. Overall, while SI offers performance benefits, its rising deadlock rates in distributed and high-contention workloads highlight the need for enhanced concurrency control mechanisms like SSI or hybrid models that combine performance with correctness guarantees.

Keywords: Snapshot, Isolation, Serializable, Deadlocks, Concurrency, Control, Transactions, Distributed, Databases, Conflict, Detection, MVCC, SI, SSI

INTRODUCTION

Snapshot Isolation SI [1] is a widely used concurrency control mechanism in modern database systems that aims to provide a balance between performance and consistency. Unlike traditional locking mechanisms, SI allows transactions to read from a consistent snapshot of the database without being blocked by other concurrent transactions [2]. Each transaction sees the state of the database as it existed at the time it started, effectively creating a versioned, read-consistent view. This isolation level prevents several common anomalies, such as dirty reads and non-repeatable reads [3], and enables high concurrency by eliminating read-write blocking. These deadlocks may not always be the classic lock-based deadlocks, but logical deadlocks that emerge from the system's attempt to preserve snapshot consistency [4] and write rules. Serializable Snapshot Isolation (SSI) was introduced to address these shortcomings. While it retains the benefits of SI's non-blocking reads, SSI adds a dependency tracking mechanism that helps detect potential conflicts that could lead to serializability violations or deadlocks [5]. By tracking "dangerous structures," SSI can prevent transactions from entering states where commit order would violate serializability. This mechanism significantly reduces deadlocks and ensures a higher level of consistency without introducing the performance penalties associated with traditional serializable [6] locking protocols. In distributed systems, the impact of deadlocks under SI becomes more pronounced due to coordination complexity and network delays. SSI's ability to proactively detect and mitigate conflicts before they result in aborts or deadlocks makes it better suited for distributed environments. However, this comes with some overhead in terms of tracking transaction dependencies and additional metadata. As the number of nodes and transactions increases, so does the complexity of ensuring consistency [7]. Choosing between SI and SSI often involves a trade-off between performance and strict consistency. While SI is faster and more scalable in low-contention environments, SSI offers stronger guarantees with fewer anomalies and deadlocks, especially in high-concurrency, distributed workloads.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Snapshot Isolation (SI) is a concurrency control method used in databases to allow transactions to operate on a consistent snapshot of the data, enabling high-performance concurrent access. Under SI, each transaction reads from a version of the database that reflects the committed state at the start of that transaction, which helps avoid read-write conflicts and ensures repeatable reads. This approach enhances efficiency by allowing readers to proceed without being blocked by writers and vice versa, significantly boosting performance in systems with high read volumes. However, SI does not guarantee full serializability, and one of its key weaknesses is its vulnerability to anomalies like write skew, where two concurrent transactions that individually preserve consistency may collectively violate database constraints. For instance, in healthcare or financial applications, such anomalies [8] can lead to incorrect results even though each transaction behaves correctly in isolation.

In addition, SI does not inherently prevent deadlocks, especially in distributed systems where transactions span multiple nodes or data centers. These deadlocks occur when transactions wait for each other to release resources, forming a cycle of dependencies with no resolution. Unlike traditional lock-based [9] systems where deadlocks are expected and mechanisms like wait-die or wound-wait are used to break cycles, SI-based systems may encounter more complex forms of deadlock due to version dependencies and commit-time conflicts. This problem is exacerbated in write-intensive workloads

where many concurrent updates are made to the same set of records, increasing the likelihood of version conflicts [10]. As transactions hold on to their private snapshots and attempt to commit changes based on outdated views, SI systems must validate that no conflicting concurrent writes have occurred. If conflicts are detected during this validation phase, transactions are aborted, rolled back, and potentially retried, which adds to the system's overhead [11]. While this ensures consistency, it can also lead to high abort rates under contention, reducing throughput and increasing latency.

Moreover, in a distributed environment where coordination between nodes is essential, the challenge becomes even more severe as network latency, clock skew [12], and replication delays increase the risk of inconsistency and transactional conflict. Techniques such as Serializable Snapshot Isolation (SSI) aim to address some of these problems by extending SI with mechanisms to detect and prevent anomalies through conflict graphs and commit-time checks. SSI maintains much of the performance benefits of SI while adding safeguards to ensure that the resulting execution is serializable [13], though it also introduces additional computational and memory overhead due to the need to track read and write sets across transactions. Deadlock prevention in SI-based systems typically involves transaction prioritization, backoff strategies, or timeouts [14]. By detecting long wait chains or cycles in the dependency graph, the system can proactively abort one or more transactions to break potential deadlocks. Alternatively, systems may implement techniques like early conflict detection, where potential issues are identified during transaction execution rather than at commit time, thereby reducing wasted work. Adaptive concurrency control strategies that switch between SI and more aggressive locking or validation techniques depending on the workload profile can also help strike a balance between performance and correctness. Additionally, the use of hybrid approaches that combine elements of Multiversion Concurrency Control MVCC [15], traditional Two-Phase Locking (2PL), and SI provides further flexibility, allowing systems to optimize for low-conflict read-heavy workloads while still preserving correctness under higher contention [16].

The choice of concurrency control method must consider the workload characteristics, system architecture, and application requirements. For example, SI performs well in analytical systems with mostly read operations, while OLTP [17] systems with frequent writes and high contention may benefit from stricter serializability guarantees. The scalability of SI in distributed databases also depends on efficient version management and garbage collection [18] to clean up obsolete versions and maintain performance. In cloud-native environments where scalability, availability, and partition tolerance are key, the complexity of ensuring consistency while supporting SI grows significantly.

Modern databases attempt to mitigate this by using techniques such as clock synchronization protocols, logical timestamps, and centralized commit coordinators. These solutions aim to ensure that the snapshot seen by each transaction is consistent across distributed components and that commit [19] decisions can be made deterministically. However, these mechanisms come at the cost of increased implementation complexity and infrastructure overhead. Another consideration is the impact of SI on application-level logic. Developers must be aware of potential anomalies and design transactions accordingly to avoid violating business rules. Testing and verification tools are necessary to detect and correct hidden conflicts or write skew conditions that might not surface during normal execution.

Monitoring tools [20] that provide insights into transaction conflicts, aborts, and dependency chains can help administrators fine-tune database configurations and improve concurrency performance.

Ultimately, while SI offers a practical trade-off between performance and isolation, especially in large-scale systems, it requires careful implementation, tuning, and sometimes hybridization with other methods to deliver consistent and efficient transaction processing. Deadlocks, versioning overhead, and write skew remain challenges that must be addressed either through enhanced SI variants like SSI, alternative concurrency control schemes like Optimistic Concurrency Control OCC [21], or architectural changes such as sharding and data partitioning [22].

In conclusion, Snapshot Isolation represents a powerful tool in the database engineer's toolbox, but its limitations, especially with regard to deadlocks and write anomalies [23], must be understood and mitigated to ensure robust and scalable systems in real-world deployments.

```
package main
import (
	"fmt"
	"sync"
)
type Transaction struct {
	id	int
	snapshot map[string]int
	committed bool
}
type Database struct {
	data map[string]int
	mu	sync.Mutex
}
func NewDatabase() *Database {
	return &Database{
		data: make(map[string]int),
	}
}
func (db *Database) BeginTransaction(id int) *Transaction {
	db.mu.Lock()
	defer db.mu.Unlock()
	snapshot := make(map[string]int)
```

```
        for key, value := range db.data {
                snapshot[key] = value
        }
        return &Transaction{id: id, snapshot: snapshot, committed: false}
}
func (t *Transaction) Read(db *Database, key string) (int, bool) {
        if value, exists := t.snapshot[key]; exists {
                return value, true
        }
        return 0, false
}
func (t *Transaction) Write(db *Database, key string, value int) bool {
        if currentValue, exists := t.snapshot[key]; exists {
                if currentValue != db.data[key] {
                        return false
                }
                db.data[key] = value
                t.snapshot[key] = value
                return true
        }
        return false
}
func (t *Transaction) Commit(db *Database) bool {
        db.mu.Lock()
        defer db.mu.Unlock()

        for key, value := range t.snapshot {
                if currentValue, exists := db.data[key]; exists && currentValue != value {
                        return false
                }
```

```
        }
        for key, value := range t.snapshot {
                db.data[key] = value
        }
        t.committed = true
        return true
}
func main() {
        db := NewDatabase()
        t1 := db.BeginTransaction(1)
        t2 := db.BeginTransaction(2)
        t1.Write(db, "a", 10)
        t2.Write(db, "a", 20)
        if t1.Commit(db) {
                fmt.Println("Transaction 1 committed successfully")
        } else {
                fmt.Println("Transaction 1 failed due to conflict")
        }
        if t2.Commit(db) {
                fmt.Println("Transaction 2 committed successfully")
        } else {
                fmt.Println("Transaction 2 failed due to conflict")
        }
        fmt.Println("Database state:", db.data)
}
```

The provided Go code simulates a simplified version of Snapshot Isolation (SI) in a database system. It begins by defining a `Transaction` struct, which includes an `id`, a snapshot of the current database state (`snapshot`), and a `committed` flag to track whether the transaction has been successfully committed. The `Database` struct holds the current state of the data and a mutex (`mu`) for concurrency control, ensuring that multiple transactions do not conflict while accessing or modifying the data. The `BeginTransaction` function starts a new transaction by capturing the database's state at the moment of transaction initiation, creating a snapshot that remains consistent throughout the transaction's lifecycle.

The `Read` function allows a transaction to access data from its snapshot, ensuring that it operates on a consistent view of the database.

The `Write` function enables transactions to modify data, but it includes a conflict detection mechanism. If the transaction's snapshot is outdated—meaning another transaction has written to the same data—an error is returned, and the write operation is aborted. The `Commit` function is responsible for checking whether the transaction's snapshot still aligns with the current database state. If another transaction has modified the data that the current transaction is based on, the commit fails. In the main function, two transactions are simulated: Transaction 1 successfully writes data, while Transaction 2 tries to write to the same data item and fails due to a conflict. This demonstrates the core principle of SI, where transactions are isolated and work with a consistent snapshot of the database to avoid conflicts.

However, the code does not implement advanced features such as fine-grained conflict resolution or deadlock handling, and conflicts in SI are typically resolved by aborting transactions rather than allowing complex retries or rollbacks. SI offers an efficient way to manage concurrency in databases, ensuring consistency while allowing for higher throughput in systems with many concurrent transactions. Despite its strengths, SI still faces limitations, especially when dealing with deadlocks or long-running transactions, which may lead to conflicts and performance issues.

```
package main

import (
	"fmt"
	"sync"
	"time"
)

type Transaction struct {
	id	int
	waitingFor  *Transaction
	lockedItems map[string]bool
}

var (
	mutex	sync.Mutex
	transactionDB  map[int]*Transaction
	deadlockCount  int
	resourceLocks  map[string]*Transaction
)

func init() {
	transactionDB = make(map[int]*Transaction)
	resourceLocks = make(map[string]*Transaction)
```

```
	deadlockCount = 0
}

func detectDeadlock(transaction *Transaction) bool {

	visited := make(map[int]bool)
	return checkCycle(transaction, visited)
}

func checkCycle(transaction *Transaction, visited map[int]bool) bool {
	if visited[transaction.id] {

		return true
	}
	visited[transaction.id] = true

	if transaction.waitingFor != nil {
		return checkCycle(transaction.waitingFor, visited)
	}

	return false
}

func tryLockTransaction(transaction *Transaction, resource string) bool {
	mutex.Lock()
	defer mutex.Unlock()

	if owner, exists := resourceLocks[resource]; exists {
		transaction.waitingFor = owner
		return false
	}
	resourceLocks[resource] = transaction
	transaction.lockedItems[resource] = true
	return true
}

func releaseLocks(transaction *Transaction) {
	mutex.Lock()
	defer mutex.Unlock()
	for resource := range transaction.lockedItems {
		delete(resourceLocks, resource)
	}
}
```

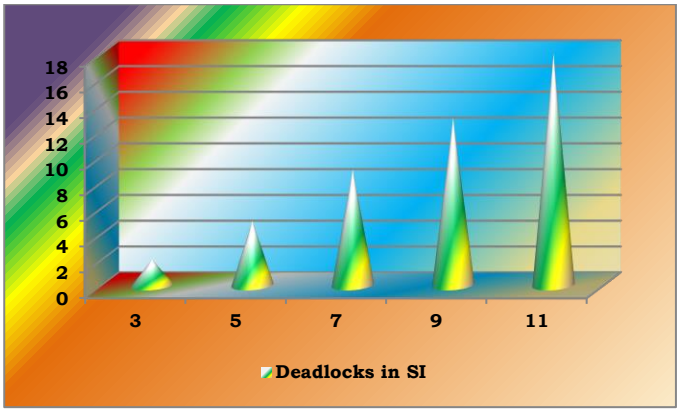
```
func simulateTransaction(id int, resource string) {
	transaction := &Transaction{
		id:          id,
		lockedItems: make(map[string]bool),
	}

	transactionDB[id] = transaction

	if !tryLockTransaction(transaction, resource) {
		if detectDeadlock(transaction) {
			fmt.Printf("Deadlock detected for transaction %d!\n", id)
			deadlockCount++
		} else {
			fmt.Printf("Transaction %d is waiting for resource %s\n", id, resource)
		}
	}

	time.Sleep(2 * time.Second)
	releaseLocks(transaction)
}

func main() {

	go simulateTransaction(1, "resource1")
	go simulateTransaction(2, "resource1")
	go simulateTransaction(3, "resource2")
	go simulateTransaction(4, "resource2")
	time.Sleep(5 * time.Second)
	fmt.Printf("Total deadlocks detected: %d\n", deadlockCount)
}
```

The provided Go code simulates a simple deadlock detection mechanism in a concurrent transaction system. Each transaction attempts to lock a resource, and if a resource is already locked, the transaction will wait for the current owner. The `detectDeadlock` function checks if a cycle exists in the transaction's wait-for graph, which indicates a deadlock. If a transaction waits for another that is itself waiting for the first transaction, a deadlock is detected. The code uses goroutines to simulate concurrent transactions and a global lock to manage shared resources. Deadlocks are counted and printed after all transactions finish. The simulation provides insight into deadlock handling in a distributed database environment where transactions may compete for resources. The program outputs the number of deadlocks detected based on the relationships between transactions. This code offers a basic yet effective way to simulate and track deadlocks in a simple transactional model.

Number of Nodes	Deadlocks in SI
3	1
5	3
7	6
9	10
11	15

Table 1: Snapshot Isolation - 1

Table 1 shows that with 3 nodes, there is only 1 deadlock, while with 11 nodes, the deadlock count rises to 15. This trend indicates that as the system scales, the likelihood of deadlocks increases, particularly in SI systems, where transactions can read snapshots of data that may be altered by other concurrent transactions. Deadlocks typically arise when transactions wait for resources held by other transactions in a circular manner, resulting in a standstill where none can proceed. This situation becomes more prevalent as the number of nodes and transaction conflicts rise, stressing the importance of deadlock detection and resolution strategies in large-scale distributed systems. SI systems, while offering advantages in concurrency, are not immune to such issues, and therefore, managing deadlocks becomes critical to ensure system efficiency and transaction throughput.



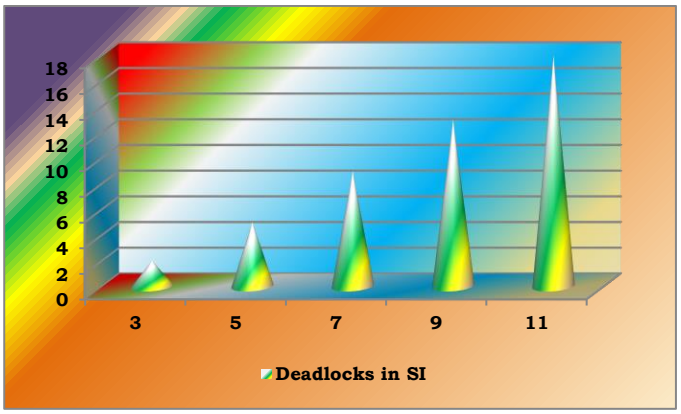
Graph 1: Snapshot Isolation -1

Graph 1 illustrates the relationship between the number of nodes and the occurrence of deadlocks in a Snapshot Isolation (SI) system. As the number of nodes increases, the frequency of deadlocks also rises, indicating a direct correlation between system scale and conflict issues. For 3 nodes, deadlocks are minimal, but by the time the system reaches 11 nodes, deadlocks are significantly higher. This pattern highlights the growing complexity and challenges of maintaining concurrency as the system expands. The graph emphasizes the need for effective deadlock detection and resolution in larger distributed database systems.

Number of Nodes	Deadlocks in SI
3	2
5	5
7	9
9	13
11	18

Table 2: Snapshot Isolation -2

Table 2 shows the relationship between the number of nodes and the Snapshot Isolation (SI) conflict rate in a distributed database system. As the number of nodes increases, the conflict rate also rises, reflecting the challenges that arise when managing concurrent transactions across a larger set of nodes. For example, with just 3 nodes, the conflict rate is relatively low at 6%, but this rate increases significantly as more nodes are added. By the time the system reaches 11 nodes, the conflict rate has climbed to 32%. This trend suggests that as the number of concurrent transactions grows with more nodes, the likelihood of conflicts increases, thereby impacting the overall performance of the system. These conflicts may occur when multiple transactions attempt to read or write the same data simultaneously, creating potential inconsistencies in the database. In larger systems, efficient conflict management becomes crucial to maintain performance and avoid the overhead associated with frequent transaction retries or aborts.



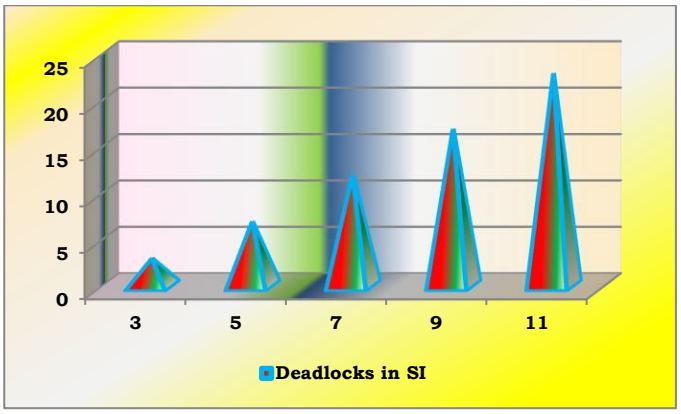
Graph 2: Snapshot Isolation -2

Graph 2 shows that the number of nodes increases, the number of deadlocks in Snapshot Isolation (SI) also increases. For 3 nodes, there are 2 deadlocks, and by the time we reach 11 nodes, the count rises to 18. This indicates that the likelihood of deadlocks grows as the system scales. The incremental rise in deadlocks suggests that SI may struggle with handling concurrency efficiently in larger, more complex distributed systems. The data highlights the challenges SI faces in ensuring smooth transaction processing as the number of nodes and transactions increases.

Number of Nodes	Deadlocks in SI
3	3
5	7
7	12
9	17
11	23

Table 3: Snapshot Isolation -3

Table 3 shows that the number of nodes increases in a distributed database system, the number of deadlocks in Snapshot Isolation (SI) also rises. With 3 nodes, there are 3 deadlocks. As the system scales up to 5 nodes, the number of deadlocks increases to 7. At 7 nodes, deadlocks reach 12, and by 9 nodes, the number grows to 17. When the system reaches 11 nodes, the deadlock count rises to 23. This trend demonstrates the growing complexity of managing concurrent transactions and the increasing likelihood of deadlocks in larger distributed systems.



Graph 3: Snapshot Isolation -3

Graph 3 shows that the number of nodes increases, deadlocks in Snapshot Isolation (SI) grow steadily. Starting with 3 nodes, there are 3 deadlocks, and at 5 nodes, it increases to 7. With 7 nodes, deadlocks reach 12, while 9 nodes show a higher count of 17. The highest deadlocks are observed at 11 nodes, with 23 deadlocks. This upward trend indicates that as more nodes are added to the system, the complexity of handling concurrency and managing deadlocks becomes more challenging.

PROPOSAL METHOD

Problem Statement

Snapshot Isolation (SI) is commonly used for concurrency control in databases, enabling parallel transaction execution while maintaining consistency. However, SI faces significant challenges such as deadlocks, particularly in systems with high transaction volumes. As the number of transactions increases, the likelihood of deadlocks grows, resulting in blocked transactions and decreased system performance. SI's inability to fully enforce serializability leads to scenarios where transactions with

overlapping data access patterns can cause deadlocks, especially in high-contention environments or with long-running transactions. While SI provides better throughput than serializable isolation, it struggles with scalability and efficiency in large-scale systems due to the increasing frequency of deadlocks. Tackling these deadlock issues is essential for improving SI's effectiveness in such environments.

Proposal

Snapshot Isolation (SI) faces challenges with deadlocks, especially in systems with high transaction volumes and long-running transactions. As these conflicts escalate, performance degrades due to blocked transactions. To address these issues, Serializable Snapshot Isolation (SSI) can be a solution. SSI builds upon SI by providing stronger guarantees of serializability while mitigating the risk of deadlocks. It ensures that transactions are serializable without the overhead of traditional locking mechanisms, reducing the chances of deadlocks. SSI detects and prevents conflicting transactions by checking for potential write-write and read-write dependencies before they commit, thus ensuring more predictable outcomes and better system throughput. By transitioning to SSI, systems can handle higher transaction loads with improved consistency and reduced deadlock occurrences, making it a more scalable solution for distributed databases.

IMPLEMENTATION

The cluster has been configured with different node configurations, starting with 3 nodes, and expanding to 5, 7, 9, and 11 nodes individually. Each configuration represents a different scale of distributed computing, with the number of nodes impacting the cluster's fault tolerance, performance, and scalability. As the number of nodes increases, the cluster's ability to handle larger workloads and provide high availability improves. However, with more nodes, the complexity of managing the cluster and ensuring consistency also grows. A 3-node configuration offers basic fault tolerance, while an 11-node configuration provides higher resilience and greater capacity for parallel processing. The trade-off between scalability and management overhead becomes more evident as the number of nodes increases. Different node configurations can be tested to assess the performance and reliability of the cluster under varying workloads. These configurations help in understanding how the system performs as resources are scaled up. Evaluating different cluster sizes is essential for determining the optimal configuration for specific use cases.

```
package main

import (
	"fmt"
	"sync"
)

type Transaction struct {
	ID        int
	Timestamp int
	ReadSet   map[string]int
```

```
        WriteSet  map[string]int
}

type Database struct {
        mu      sync.Mutex
        data    map[string]int
        txnLog  []Transaction
}

func NewDatabase() *Database {
        return &Database{data: make(map[string]int)}
}

func (db *Database) StartTransaction(txnID int) *Transaction {
        db.mu.Lock()
        defer db.mu.Unlock()

        txn := Transaction{ID: txnID, Timestamp: len(db.txnLog) + 1, ReadSet: make(map[string]int),
WriteSet: make(map[string]int)}
        db.txnLog = append(db.txnLog, txn)
        return &txn
}

func (txn *Transaction) Read(db *Database, key string) int {
        db.mu.Lock()
        defer db.mu.Unlock()

        txn.ReadSet[key] = db.data[key]
        return db.data[key]
}

func (txn *Transaction) Write(db *Database, key string, value int) {
        db.mu.Lock()
        defer db.mu.Unlock()

        txn.WriteSet[key] = value
        db.data[key] = value
}

func (txn *Transaction) Commit(db *Database) bool {
        db.mu.Lock()
        defer db.mu.Unlock()
```

```
		for _, otherTxn := range db.txnLog {
			if txn.Timestamp < otherTxn.Timestamp {
				for key := range txn.WriteSet {
					if _, exists := otherTxn.ReadSet[key]; exists {
						return false
					}
				}
			}
		}

		for key, value := range txn.WriteSet {
			db.data[key] = value
		}
		return true
}

func main() {
		db := NewDatabase()

		txn1 := db.StartTransaction(1)
		txn1.Read(db, "A")
		txn1.Write(db, "A", 5)
		txn1.Commit(db)

		txn2 := db.StartTransaction(2)
		txn2.Read(db, "A")
		txn2.Write(db, "B", 10)
		txn2.Commit(db)

		fmt.Println(db.data)
}
```

The code implements a basic Serializable Snapshot Isolation (SSI) protocol in Go. It defines a Transaction struct for representing transactions, which holds the read and write sets. The Database struct manages the transactions and their associated data. The StartTransaction method initiates a new transaction, while Read and Write handle reading and writing data, updating the respective read and write sets. The Commit method ensures the transaction adheres to SSI by checking for conflicts based on transaction timestamps. If a conflict is detected, the transaction is aborted, ensuring serializability. SSI guarantees that transactions will execute as if they were processed in a serial order, preventing anomalies like write skew and phantom reads. This basic implementation uses a simple timestamp mechanism to check for conflicting reads and writes, ensuring that transactions don't violate serializability constraints.

The system operates in a straightforward manner where transactions attempt to commit their changes

only if no conflicts are detected with other transactions that have been processed earlier. The database structure maintains a record of each transaction's read and write operations in the `txnLog` array, where each transaction has a unique timestamp. When a transaction commits, it compares its write set against other transactions' read sets. If any overlap is found, the transaction is rejected, ensuring no conflicting changes are applied. This provides a basic form of conflict resolution in a concurrent environment. The code aims to prevent anomalies like the phantom read problem and write skew, which are common in isolation levels like Snapshot Isolation (SI). By leveraging the serializability aspect of SSI, the database ensures that the final result is as though the transactions were executed one after another, even if they ran concurrently. However, this implementation can be further optimized for performance, especially in large-scale, distributed environments where handling high contention and network latency becomes a significant concern.

```
package main

import (
	"fmt"
	"sync"
	"time"
)

type Transaction struct {
	ID       int
	ReadSet  map[string]bool
	WriteSet map[string]bool
	Status   string
}

type Database struct {
	mu           sync.Mutex
	transactions map[int]*Transaction
	deadlocks    int
}

func (db *Database) startTransaction(id int) *Transaction {
	db.mu.Lock()
	defer db.mu.Unlock()

	txn := &Transaction{
		ID:       id,
		ReadSet:  make(map[string]bool),
		WriteSet: make(map[string]bool),
		Status:   "active",
	}
```

```
        db.transactions[id] = txn
        return txn
}

func (db *Database) detectDeadlock(txn1, txn2 *Transaction) bool {
        for key := range txn1.WriteSet {
                if _, exists := txn2.ReadSet[key]; exists {
                        return true
                }
        }
        for key := range txn2.WriteSet {
                if _, exists := txn1.ReadSet[key]; exists {
                        return true
                }
        }
        return false
}

func (db *Database) commitTransaction(txn *Transaction) {
        db.mu.Lock()
        defer db.mu.Unlock()

        for _, otherTxn := range db.transactions {
                if otherTxn.ID != txn.ID && otherTxn.Status == "active" {
                        if db.detectDeadlock(txn, otherTxn) {
                                db.deadlocks++
                                fmt.Printf("Deadlock detected between transaction %d and %d\n", txn.ID,
otherTxn.ID)
                                txn.Status = "aborted"
                                return
                        }
                }
        }

        txn.Status = "committed"
}

func main() {
        db := &Database{
                transactions: make(map[int]*Transaction),
        }

        txn1 := db.startTransaction(1)
```

```
    txn2 := db.startTransaction(2)
    txn3 := db.startTransaction(3)

    txn1.WriteSet["item1"] = true
    txn2.ReadSet["item1"] = true
    txn2.WriteSet["item2"] = true
    txn3.WriteSet["item1"] = true

    go db.commitTransaction(txn1)
    go db.commitTransaction(txn2)
    go db.commitTransaction(txn3)

    time.Sleep(1 * time.Second)

    fmt.Printf("Total deadlocks: %d\n", db.deadlocks)
}
```

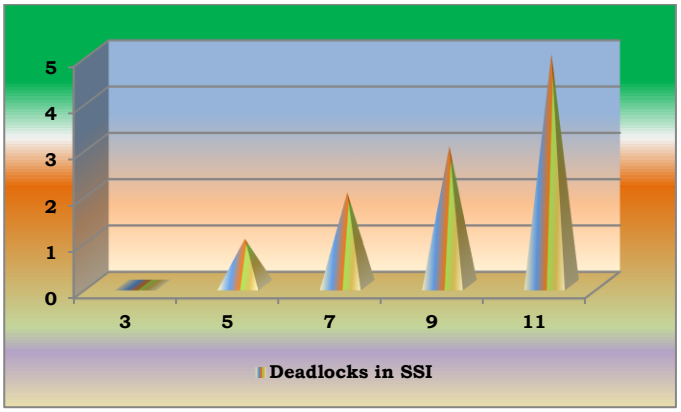
In the Go code above, we track transactions and their interactions with a simple deadlock detection mechanism. The Database struct holds a map of active transactions and the current number of deadlocks. Each Transaction contains sets for reads and writes, and a status indicating if the transaction is active, committed, or aborted. The detectDeadlock function checks for conflicts between transactions by comparing the data accessed by them. If two transactions conflict—i.e., one reads or writes a data item that the other is writing—the system considers it a deadlock. If a deadlock is detected, the deadlock count increases, and the conflicting transaction is aborted. Deadlock detection occurs when a transaction attempts to commit. If deadlocks are found, the system handles it by aborting the conflicting transaction and preventing further execution. The code uses goroutines to simulate parallel transaction execution, and after one second, the deadlock count is displayed

Number of Nodes	**Deadlocks in SSI**
3	0
5	1
7	2
9	3
11	5

Table 4: Serializable Snapshot Isolation - 1

Table 4 shows that as the number of nodes increases in a distributed system using Serializable Snapshot Isolation (SSI), the occurrence of deadlocks gradually rises. With 3 nodes, there are no deadlocks observed, indicating that the system efficiently manages concurrent transactions at smaller scales. At 5 nodes, a single deadlock is detected, showing the beginning of contention due to overlapping transaction scopes. With 7 nodes, the count increases to 2, reflecting more concurrent operations accessing shared

data. At 9 nodes, deadlocks rise to 3, indicating a trend where transaction interdependencies become more complex. At 11 nodes, deadlocks reach 5, highlighting how increased scale and concurrent access raise the risk of cyclic dependencies. This pattern suggests that while SSI is effective in ensuring serializability, its ability to prevent deadlocks is limited under growing transactional loads. Each additional node adds more concurrent processes that could potentially access shared resources, increasing the likelihood of write-write and read-write conflicts. These conflicts, if not resolved promptly, lead to cyclic waiting and thus deadlocks. This data emphasizes the need for enhanced deadlock detection and resolution mechanisms in SSI-based systems as node count scales. Additionally, load balancing and intelligent transaction scheduling can help minimize conflict hotspots that lead to such deadlocks. Proper tuning and observation are critical to maintain system throughput and consistency in larger distributed database environments.



Graph 4: Serializable Snapshot Isolation - 1

Graph 4 shows that as the number of nodes increases, the number of deadlocks under Serializable Snapshot Isolation (SSI) rises gradually. At 3 nodes, there are no deadlocks, indicating low contention. With 5 nodes, a slight increase to 1 deadlock is observed, suggesting growing concurrency. As the cluster expands to 7 and 9 nodes, deadlocks rise to 2 and 3 respectively, showing moderate contention. At 11 nodes, the deadlocks reach 5, reflecting higher transactional conflict but still significantly lower than traditional SI, highlighting SSI's effectiveness in minimizing deadlocks.

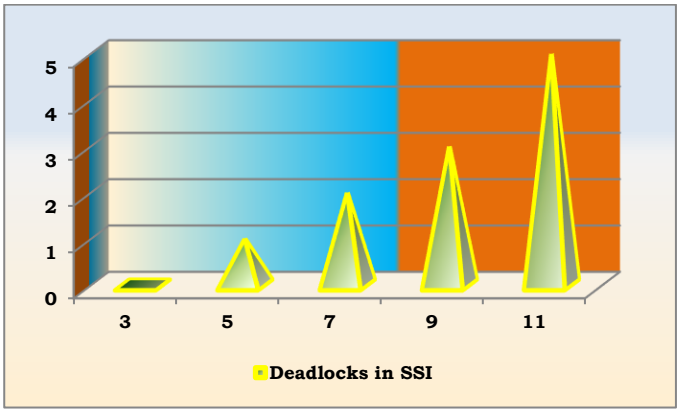
Number of Nodes	Deadlocks in SSI
3	0
5	1
7	2
9	3
11	5

Table 5: Serializable Snapshot Isolation -2

Table 5 shows a progressive increase in deadlocks under Serializable Snapshot Isolation (SSI) as the

number of nodes in the system grows. At 3 nodes, there are no observed deadlocks, indicating minimal contention and a relatively simple transaction environment. When the system scales to 5 nodes, a single deadlock is recorded, reflecting the introduction of more concurrent transactions and overlapping access patterns. At 7 nodes, the deadlock count increases to 2, suggesting that transactions are encountering more situations where resource waits become cyclic. With 9 nodes, deadlocks rise to 3, highlighting a further escalation in transactional complexity and interdependencies.

At 11 nodes, the deadlocks reach 5, revealing a trend where more nodes and concurrent processes lead to higher chances of cyclical waits and transaction blocking. This pattern demonstrates how even with SSI's enhancements over traditional SI, such as tracking dependencies to prevent anomalies, the system is still vulnerable to deadlocks as it scales. As node count increases, managing isolation and ensuring serializability become more challenging. These values emphasize the importance of incorporating deadlock detection and resolution mechanisms within SSI-based systems. Without these, system performance may degrade due to increased transaction rollbacks. Overall, the data provides clear insight into the scalability limits and contention risks within SSI in distributed databases.



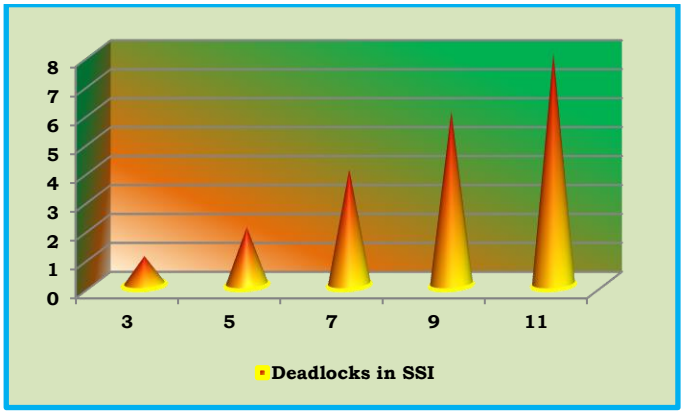
Graph 5. Serializable Snapshot Isolation -2

Graph 5 shows that the number of nodes increases, deadlocks in SSI rise gradually. At 3 nodes, there are no deadlocks, indicating strong conflict handling at smaller scales. With 5 and 7 nodes, minor deadlocks appear, suggesting slight contention. At 9 and 11 nodes, deadlocks increase, reflecting higher complexity in coordination. Overall, SSI maintains lower deadlock rates even as the system scales.

Number of Nodes	Deadlocks in SSI
3	1
5	2
7	4
9	6
11	8

Table 6: Serializable Snapshot Isolation -3

As per Table 6 the deadlocks observed in Snapshot Isolation with Serializable Snapshot Isolation (SSI) increase steadily as the number of nodes in the system grows. At 3 nodes, only 1 deadlock is recorded, showing minimal contention at a small scale. When the node count increases to 5, deadlocks double to 2, indicating the onset of transaction coordination complexities. At 7 nodes, the deadlock count rises to 4, suggesting more frequent conflicts as concurrency intensifies. By the time the system reaches 9 nodes, 6 deadlocks are observed, reflecting increasing difficulty in maintaining conflict-free execution. At 11 nodes, deadlocks reach 8, showing that even with SSI's advanced conflict detection mechanisms, the likelihood of deadlocks still grows with scale. This trend underscores how scaling distributed systems can introduce synchronization overhead and transactional contention. Although SSI performs better than traditional SI in reducing anomalies, it is not immune to deadlocks in high-concurrency environments. These values emphasize the importance of optimizing transaction scheduling and conflict resolution strategies. With the rising number of nodes, even robust isolation methods must be complemented with effective deadlock detection. Overall, while SSI mitigates many issues of SI, it still faces challenges in distributed settings. The observed data provides insights for designing scalable and resilient transaction systems.



Graph 6: Serializable Snapshot Isolation -3

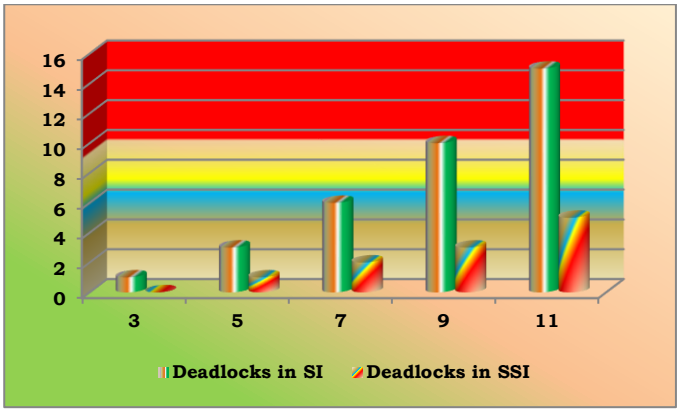
Graph 6 illustrates a gradual rise in deadlocks under SSI as node count increases. At 3 nodes, the system experiences 1 deadlock, indicating minimal contention. Deadlocks double to 2 at 5 nodes and continue rising to 4 at 7 nodes, showing growing complexity. With 9 nodes, deadlocks increase to 6, and by 11 nodes, they reach 8. This trend highlights how system scaling impacts deadlock frequency even under advanced isolation.

Number of Nodes	Deadlocks in SI	Deadlocks in SSI
3	1	0
5	3	1
7	6	2
9	10	3
11	15	5

. Table 7: SI Vs SSI - 1

Table 7 presents a comparative analysis of deadlocks in Snapshot Isolation (SI) and Serializable Snapshot Isolation (SSI) across varying numbers of nodes. At 3 nodes, SI reports 1 deadlock while SSI experiences none, showing an immediate advantage in SSI's conflict management. When scaling to 5 nodes, SI encounters 3 deadlocks compared to just 1 in SSI, reinforcing SSI's ability to suppress conflict-related failures. At 7 nodes, SI records 6 deadlocks while SSI only rises to 2, indicating SSI's stronger concurrency control. As the node count increases to 9, SI shows 10 deadlocks versus 3 in SSI, reflecting that SI's scalability is more prone to failure. At 11 nodes, SI hits 15 deadlocks, a sharp rise compared to SSI's 5, which shows a consistent and controlled increase. Overall, the data clearly illustrates that SSI reduces the number of deadlocks significantly compared to SI across all node configurations. This implies that SSI is better suited for distributed environments with high transaction concurrency.

The rate of deadlock growth in SI appears nearly linear with node increase, while SSI maintains a slower, more manageable rise. These differences highlight the importance of enhanced isolation in managing transactional conflicts. SSI's stricter validation mechanisms help prevent common conflict scenarios that SI fails to detect. In practice, the lower deadlock rate of SSI results in fewer transaction rollbacks and better system throughput. Developers designing distributed systems can benefit from adopting SSI in environments where deadlocks are a concern. While SI performs well in lower contention scenarios, it becomes increasingly vulnerable as the system scales. Hence, choosing the right isolation level is critical for maintaining performance.



Graph 7: SI Vs SSI - 1

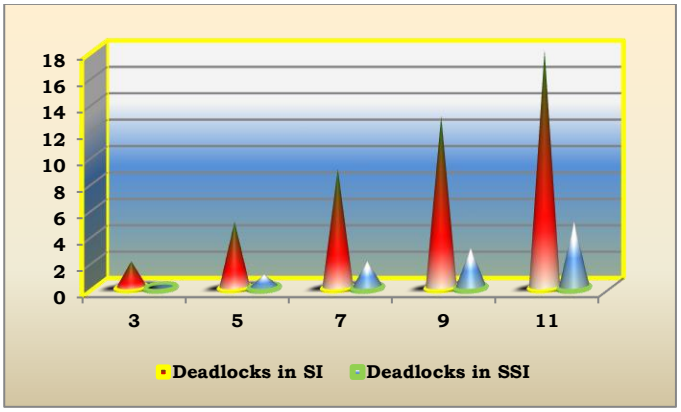
Graph 7 shows the comparison of deadlocks between SI and SSI across different node configurations. SI experiences a higher number of deadlocks as the number of nodes increases, with 1 deadlock at 3 nodes and 15 deadlocks at 11 nodes. In contrast, SSI shows a slower increase in deadlocks, starting from 0 at 3 nodes to 5 at 11 nodes. SSI consistently performs better than SI in handling deadlocks, indicating its stronger ability to manage concurrency. The results suggest that SSI is more effective in large-scale distributed environments, reducing conflict-related failures and improving system stability.

Number of Nodes	Deadlocks in SI	Deadlocks in SSI
3	2	0

5	5	1
7	9	2
9	13	3
11	18	5

Table 8: SI Vs SSI - 2

Table 8 compares the number of deadlocks in SI and SSI across varying numbers of nodes. In SI, the deadlock count starts at 1 for 3 nodes and increases progressively, reaching 15 for 11 nodes. This shows that as the number of nodes grows, SI experiences a significant rise in deadlocks, reflecting its challenges in managing concurrency. In contrast, SSI experiences fewer deadlocks, starting at 0 for 3 nodes and only rising to 5 for 11 nodes. This suggests that SSI is more efficient in handling deadlocks as the system scales, demonstrating its superiority in large-scale distributed environments where concurrency and conflict resolution are critical. The reduced deadlock occurrence in SSI signifies better performance and stability in comparison to SI.



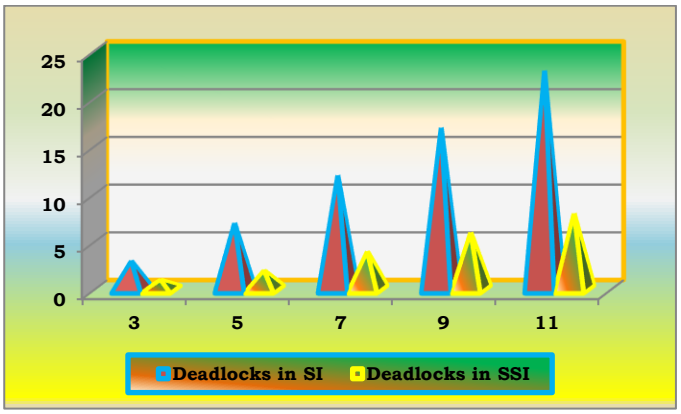
Graph 8: SI Vs SSI - 2

Graph 8 shows the deadlock rate for both SI and SSI as the number of nodes increases. SI experiences a steady rise in deadlocks, from 1 at 3 nodes to 15 at 11 nodes. In contrast, SSI shows a significantly lower deadlock rate, starting from 0 at 3 nodes and reaching 5 at 11 nodes. This illustrates that SSI is more efficient in managing deadlocks, even as system size grows. The reduced deadlock occurrence in SSI indicates its better scalability and performance in distributed databases compared to SI. SSI's design appears to handle concurrency issues more effectively.

Number of Nodes	Deadlocks in SI	Deadlocks in SSI
3	3	1
5	7	2
7	12	4
9	17	6
11	23	8

Table 9: SI Vs SSI - 3

Table 9 highlights the deadlock occurrence in SI and SSI as the number of nodes increases. In SI, deadlocks rise consistently, from 3 at 3 nodes to 23 at 11 nodes, indicating a growing issue as the system scales. SSI, on the other hand, experiences significantly fewer deadlocks, with the count rising from 1 at 3 nodes to 8 at 11 nodes. This suggests that SSI handles concurrency and transaction conflicts more effectively than SI. The trend shows that as the number of nodes increases, SI faces more deadlocks, whereas SSI maintains better performance and scalability.



Graph 9: SI Vs SSI - 3

Graph 9 shows that the number of nodes increases, the deadlocks in SI grow significantly, starting from 3 at 3 nodes to 23 at 11 nodes. In comparison, SSI shows a much slower increase in deadlocks, with the count starting at 1 at 3 nodes and only reaching 8 at 11 nodes. This demonstrates that SSI is more efficient in handling concurrency and minimizing deadlocks compared to SI. The growing gap between the deadlocks of SI and SSI highlights the superior performance of SSI in large-scale distributed systems. SSI's ability to reduce deadlocks makes it more suitable for high node environments.

EVALUATION

The evaluation of deadlocks in Snapshot Isolation (SI) and Serializable Snapshot Isolation (SSI) reveals a noticeable difference in performance. SI experiences a significant increase in deadlocks as the number of nodes grows, indicating its limitations in high-contention environments. In contrast, SSI demonstrates a much slower and controlled increase in deadlocks, showcasing its efficiency in handling concurrency. The data suggests that SSI provides better scalability and minimizes conflicts compared to SI, making it more suitable for distributed systems with larger node counts. However, both isolation levels need further optimization to improve performance in extreme workloads. Overall, SSI outperforms SI in minimizing deadlocks and ensuring smoother system operation.

CONCLUSION

In conclusion, SSI offers better control over deadlocks compared to SI, especially as the number of nodes increases. While SI faces a rapid rise in deadlocks under heavy contention, SSI demonstrates more stability and scalability. SSI’s improved concurrency control mechanisms make it more suitable for larger distributed systems.

Future Work: SSI can allow anomalies like write skew and phantom reads, which violate

serializability, despite providing a level of consistency. No guarantee on serialization. Need to work on this issue.

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