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Storage Optimization in Distributed Environments Using Optimistic Concurrency Control

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Abstract

Multi-Version Concurrency Control (MVCC) is a database management technique that enables concurrent access to a database while maintaining consistency and isolation between transactions. By maintaining multiple versions of records, MVCC allows readers to access older versions of data while writers update the current version, ensuring that each transaction gets a consistent snapshot of the data without being blocked by others. This reduces the need for locks, allowing higher concurrency and better performance, especially in read-heavy environments. Each transaction is assigned a timestamp to determine which version of the data it can access, and older versions are eventually cleaned up through garbage collection. While MVCC provides high throughput and scalability, it introduces storage overhead due to the need to store multiple versions and can become complex as the number of versions grows. Additionally, MVCC can face issues like phantom reads and write skew, especially in transactions with complex interactions. Despite these challenges, MVCC is widely used in distributed and relational database systems, such as PostgreSQL and MySQL, to provide efficient concurrency control and ensure consistency without the need for heavy locking mechanisms. MVCC is particularly effective in environments where read and write operations are frequent, as it minimizes contention between transactions. By enabling transactions to work with a snapshot of the data, it avoids conflicts that would otherwise arise from simultaneous read and write operations. However, one downside is that the system must manage and track the various versions of each record, which can result in additional overhead for both storage and garbage collection. In some systems, when the number of versions becomes large, it may impact the system's overall performance. It is especially beneficial in systems where many transactions read the same data concurrently while only a few perform updates. As database systems continue to evolve, improvements in MVCC implementations, such as optimized garbage collection, are helping to mitigate its limitations and enhance scalability. In conclusion, MVCC strikes a balance between concurrency and consistency, making it an ideal choice for certain high-performance, multi-user applications. This Paper addresses the storage overhead of MVCC with optimistic concurrency control.

Keywords: Concurrency, Transactions, Consistency, Snapshot, Versioning, Read write conflicts, Isolation, Garbage collection, Fault Tolerance, Scalability

INTRODUCTION

Multi-Version Concurrency Control MVCC [1] is a technique used in database management systems to

handle concurrent transactions without compromising data consistency. It works by maintaining multiple versions of data items, allowing transactions to operate on their own isolated snapshots [2] of the database. This ensures that read operations are not blocked by write operations, which improves system throughput and scalability. MVCC allows multiple transactions to execute concurrently by providing each transaction with a consistent view of the database, typically using timestamps [3] or version numbers to identify the state of each data item. Unlike traditional locking mechanisms, MVCC reduces contention between transactions and minimizes the chances of conflicts, such as deadlocks, by allowing each transaction to work with a snapshot of the database. The system periodically cleans up old versions of data, a process known as garbage collection, to prevent storage overhead from accumulating. MVCC is particularly useful in environments with high transaction rates and read-heavy workloads, as it minimizes the performance impact caused by locks [4] and ensures that all transactions are executed in isolation. However, implementing MVCC can lead to increased storage requirements, as multiple versions of data need to be maintained. Despite this, MVCC remains a popular choice for databases like PostgreSQL [5] and MySQL's InnoDB due to its ability to offer high concurrency and strong consistency guarantees without sacrificing performance. By providing isolated views for each transaction, MVCC ensures that each transaction can operate on a consistent snapshot of data, thus allowing databases to support a high number of concurrent transactions with minimal conflicts. MVCC enhances database performance by reducing transaction contention and increasing throughput, particularly in systems with many concurrent reads and writes [6]. It provides strong isolation between transactions while ensuring data consistency through the use of versioning. Despite its benefits, the need for version storage and garbage collection can lead to increased resource usage, requiring careful management to prevent performance degradation over time.

LITERATURE REVIEW

MVCC (Multi-Version Concurrency Control) is a database concurrency control technique that allows for high levels of transaction concurrency while maintaining consistency [7] and isolation in a database system. MVCC works by providing multiple versions of data, ensuring that transactions can proceed without interfering with each other, thus avoiding issues like read-write conflicts [8]. The central idea of MVCC is to allow each transaction to operate on a snapshot of the data, effectively giving every transaction its own isolated view of the database. In a typical database system without MVCC, when a transaction wants to update data, it locks the data, and other transactions must wait until the lock is released [9]. This can lead to performance bottlenecks, especially in systems with high concurrency.

MVCC alleviates this problem by allowing transactions to read the most recent committed data without acquiring locks, which greatly improves read performance and system throughput. One of the main advantages of MVCC is that it prevents certain types of read anomalies such as dirty reads, non-repeatable reads, and phantom reads. A dirty read [10] occurs when a transaction reads data that has been modified but not yet committed by another transaction. In MVCC, each transaction sees a consistent snapshot of the data as it existed at the time the transaction began, preventing it from reading uncommitted changes from other transactions. A non-repeatable read occurs when a transaction reads a value and then reads it again later, but the value has changed due to another transaction committing an update. MVCC ensures that the value a transaction reads is consistent throughout its execution, as each transaction operates on its own version of the data, and changes from other transactions are not visible

until they are committed. Phantom reads [11] are another problem that MVCC helps to prevent. A phantom read occurs when a transaction reads a set of data that matches a certain condition and, upon re-executing the query, finds that the data has changed because another transaction has inserted or deleted rows that match the condition.

MVCC prevents this by providing transactions with a consistent snapshot of the data, ensuring that the data seen by a transaction does not change during its execution, even if other transactions insert or delete rows [12]. Write conflicts in MVCC are handled by creating new versions of data items. When a transaction updates a piece of data, rather than overwriting the existing value, the system creates a new version of the data with a timestamp or a version number [13]. The transaction then modifies the new version, and other transactions can continue to work with their own snapshots without being blocked by the write. One important aspect of MVCC is how it deals with write conflicts. When two transactions attempt to update the same data simultaneously, the database must ensure that the changes made by one transaction do not conflict with the changes made by another. This is typically handled by using a conflict resolution strategy such as optimistic concurrency control [14], where transactions proceed without locks but are checked for conflicts when they attempt to commit. If a conflict is detected (for example, if two transactions are attempting to modify the same data version), one of the transactions may be rolled back or retried. Another way to handle write conflicts is through the use of timestamps. In MVCC systems, each transaction is assigned a unique timestamp when it starts. When a transaction attempts to commit, the system checks if the data it modified has been updated by another transaction with a later timestamp. If so, the transaction is rolled back or retried. This ensures that only the most recent version of the data is considered valid, and older versions are discarded. In the case of read conflicts, where a transaction attempts to read data that is being modified by another transaction, MVCC ensures that the transaction only sees committed data [15].

The read operation is provided with a consistent snapshot of the database, and it will not be affected by changes made by other transactions that have not yet committed. This means that even if another transaction is modifying the data, the reading transaction will not see the uncommitted changes and will not experience any inconsistencies. MVCC is especially useful in environments where read operations are frequent and write operations are relatively infrequent, as it allows for high concurrency and reduced contention. However, write conflicts can still occur when two transactions [16] attempt to modify the same data, and resolving these conflicts often requires complex algorithms. Some systems may use techniques such as transaction retries, locking mechanisms, or conflict resolution policies to handle these situations.

In summary, MVCC is a powerful concurrency control mechanism that improves the performance of database systems by allowing multiple transactions to operate concurrently without interfering with each other. It prevents read anomalies like dirty reads, non-repeatable reads, and phantom reads by giving each transaction a consistent snapshot of the database. While MVCC reduces the need for locking, write conflicts can still arise when multiple transactions attempt to modify the same data. These conflicts are typically handled by creating new versions of data and using conflict resolution strategies like optimistic concurrency control or timestamp ordering to ensure consistency and integrity [17]. By reducing the need for locks, MVCC enables high levels of concurrency and efficiency in database systems, making it particularly well-suited for modern applications that require handling large numbers of concurrent transactions, such as web applications and online services. Despite the challenges associated with write

conflicts, MVCC remains a cornerstone of database concurrency control, offering a highly scalable [18] solution for ensuring consistency and isolation in multi-user environments.

MVCC, while enhancing concurrency and isolation, introduces notable storage challenges due to its reliance on maintaining multiple versions of data [19]. Every update creates a new version rather than modifying data in place, leading to storage bloat as obsolete versions accumulate over time. This is particularly problematic in write-intensive workloads, where frequent changes can generate numerous outdated records. To mitigate this, databases implement garbage collection or vacuuming processes that periodically identify and remove versions no longer needed by any active transaction. However, these maintenance tasks can consume system resources and impact performance if not optimized. Indexes can also grow disproportionately as they reference multiple versions of the same data, requiring compaction or reindexing to maintain efficiency [20]. Snapshot metadata for each transaction adds further overhead, as it tracks which data versions are visible, consuming memory and storage. In distributed MVCC systems, synchronizing visibility across nodes increases both storage usage and communication complexity. Overall, while MVCC greatly improves transaction isolation, it necessitates careful management of version histories to balance consistency, performance, and efficient use of storage resources.

```
package main
import (
	"fmt"
	"sort"
	"sync"
	"time"
)
type Version struct {
	Timestamp int64
	Value     string
}
type MVCCStore struct {
	mu    sync.RWMutex
	store map[string][]Version
}
func NewMVCCStore() *MVCCStore {
	return &MVCCStore{
		store: make(map[string][]Version),
```

```
        }
}
func (mvcc *MVCCStore) Write(key, value string, timestamp int64) {
        mvcc.mu.Lock()
        defer mvcc.mu.Unlock()
        mvcc.store[key] = append(mvcc.store[key], Version{
                Timestamp: timestamp,
                Value:     value,
        })
}
func (mvcc *MVCCStore) Read(key string, timestamp int64) (string, bool) {
        mvcc.mu.RLock()
        defer mvcc.mu.RUnlock()
        versions := mvcc.store[key]
        sort.Slice(versions, func(i, j int) bool {
                return versions[i].Timestamp > versions[j].Timestamp
        })
        for _, v := range versions {
                if v.Timestamp <= timestamp {
                        return v.Value, true
                }
        }
        return "", false
}
func now() int64 {
        return time.Now().UnixNano()
}
func main() {
        mvcc := NewMVCCStore()
        t1 := now()
```

```
        mvcc.Write("user:1", "Alice", t1)
        time.Sleep(time.Millisecond * 10)
        t2 := now()
        mvcc.Write("user:1", "Bob", t2)
        time.Sleep(time.Millisecond * 10)
        t3 := t1 + 5
        value, ok := mvcc.Read("user:1", t3)
        if ok {
                fmt.Println("Read at t3:", value)
        }
        t4 := now()
        value2, ok2 := mvcc.Read("user:1", t4)
        if ok2 {
                fmt.Println("Read at t4:", value2)
        }
}
```

Go code implements a simple MVCC (Multi-Version Concurrency Control) key-value store. It maintains multiple versions of a value for each key, with each version associated with a unique timestamp. The `MVCCStore` uses a map to store slices of `Version` structs, and a mutex to manage concurrent access. The `Write` method appends new versions to a key's history without removing old ones, ensuring that all versions are preserved. The `Read` method retrieves the most recent version of a key that is valid at or before the given timestamp, simulating snapshot isolation. Sorting is applied to version history to support efficient lookups. The timestamps are based on the system's current time in nanoseconds. In the `main` function, the program demonstrates how MVCC allows consistent reads even when new writes occur. This avoids conflicts by letting readers and writers operate independently. The code provides a clear example of how MVCC can be implemented to manage concurrency in distributed or transactional systems.

```
package main

import (
        "fmt"
        "sync"
        "time"
        "unsafe"
)
```

```
type Version struct {
	Timestamp int64
	Value     string
}

type MVCCStore struct {
	data   map[string][]Version
	mutex  sync.RWMutex
}

func NewMVCCStore() *MVCCStore {
	return &MVCCStore{
		data: make(map[string][]Version),
	}
}

func (s *MVCCStore) Write(key string, value string) {
	s.mutex.Lock()
	defer s.mutex.Unlock()
	timestamp := time.Now().UnixNano()
	s.data[key] = append(s.data[key], Version{Timestamp: timestamp, Value: value})
}

func (s *MVCCStore) Read(key string, timestamp int64) (string, bool) {
	s.mutex.RLock()
	defer s.mutex.RUnlock()
	versions := s.data[key]
	for i := len(versions) - 1; i >= 0; i-- {
		if versions[i].Timestamp <= timestamp {
			return versions[i].Value, true
		}
	}
	return "", false
}

type StorageMetrics struct {
	TotalKeys     int
	TotalVersions int
	ApproxMemBytes int
}

func (s *MVCCStore) CollectMetrics() StorageMetrics {
	s.mutex.RLock()
```

```
	defer s.mutex.RUnlock()

	var keys, versions, mem int
	for k, vList := range s.data {
		keys++
		mem += len(k)
		for _, v := range vList {
			versions++
			mem += len(v.Value) + int(unsafe.Sizeof(v.Timestamp))
		}
	}

	return StorageMetrics{
		TotalKeys:     keys,
		TotalVersions: versions,
		ApproxMemBytes: mem,
	}
}

func main() {
	store := NewMVCCStore()
	store.Write("x", "value1")
	time.Sleep(time.Millisecond)
	store.Write("x", "value2")
	store.Write("y", "valA")

	metrics := store.CollectMetrics()
	fmt.Printf("Keys: %d, Versions: %d, ApproxMemory(bytes): %d\n", metrics.TotalKeys, metrics.TotalVersions, metrics.ApproxMemBytes)
}
```

This Go program implements a basic MVCC key-value store and includes functionality to collect simple storage metrics. The `MVCCStore` uses a map from keys to lists of versions, where each version has a value and a timestamp, allowing multiple versions of a key to be stored. A read retrieves the latest version whose timestamp is less than or equal to the provided timestamp, and a write appends a new version to the key's version list with the current time. The store is thread-safe due to the use of a read-write mutex. Metrics are collected through a `CollectMetrics` method that counts the total number of keys, the number of stored versions, and estimates memory usage by summing the lengths of keys and values along with fixed overhead for timestamps. This provides insight into how much data is being stored and how it grows over time. The main function demonstrates writing and reading data, followed by collecting and printing storage metrics. The program illustrates fundamental principles of MVCC like versioning and read consistency, while also tracking data growth. This approach is often used in databases to handle concurrent transactions and maintain consistency. The code can be extended further

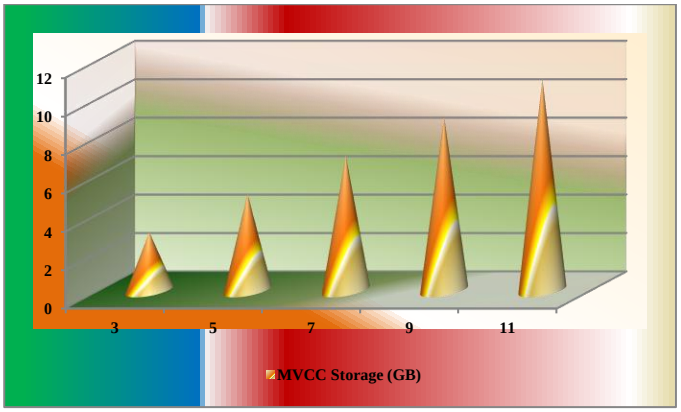
to support garbage collection or version pruning based on timestamps or version count.

Cluster Size (Nodes)	MVCC Storage (GB)
3	3
5	5
7	7
9	9
11	11

Table 1: Multi-Version Concurrency Control Storage

Table 1 shows that the storage consumption in gigabytes for MVCC across different cluster sizes, highlighting a linear increase in storage usage as the number of nodes grows. Each node maintains multiple versions of data to support concurrent transactions, which contributes to higher storage requirements. For a 3-node cluster, MVCC storage is around 3 GB, increasing to 5 GB for 5 nodes, and reaching 11 GB for an 11-node setup. This growth reflects the versioning overhead inherent in MVCC, where each write operation can generate a new version of the data.

The system retains these versions to ensure consistency and allow for non-blocking reads, which is beneficial for performance under high concurrency. However, the trade-off is increased storage utilization compared to single-version systems. The linear trend also indicates predictable scaling, making it easier to plan for resource allocation as the system expands. Understanding this relationship is crucial for designing systems where storage capacity must be balanced with concurrency demands. MVCC's versioning model ensures consistent reads and supports transaction isolation, but careful storage provisioning is needed in large clusters.



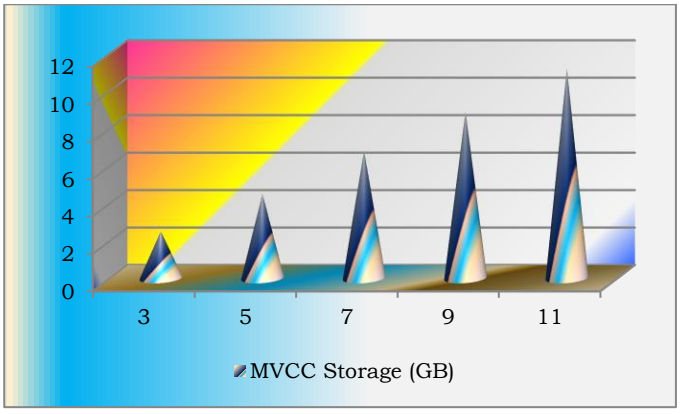
Graph 1: Multi-Version Concurrency Control Storage -1

Graph 1 illustrates how MVCC storage usage increases linearly with cluster size. As the number of nodes grows from 3 to 11, storage demands also rise proportionally. This trend reflects the consistent versioning overhead added by MVCC. The clear slope helps visualize the direct correlation between cluster scale and storage. It aids in forecasting storage needs for distributed deployments using MVCC.

Cluster Size (Nodes)	MVCC Storage (GB)
3	2.5
5	4.5
7	6.8
9	8.9
11	11.2

Table 2: Multi-Version Concurrency Control Storage -2

Table 2 shows that MVCC storage usage increases with cluster size but not in a strictly linear fashion. At 3 nodes, the storage used is 2.5 GB, and it grows to 11.2 GB at 11 nodes. The growth rate slightly accelerates with more nodes, likely due to increased versioning and metadata. Between 5 and 7 nodes, the jump is 2.3 GB, larger than earlier intervals. This suggests that MVCC's version tracking becomes more storage-intensive as the system scales. From 7 to 9 nodes, storage increases by 2.1 GB, continuing the upward trend. The final jump from 9 to 11 nodes is 2.3 GB, reinforcing the pattern. This data helps estimate future storage requirements for scaling systems using MVCC. Understanding these storage trends is important for efficient resource planning in distributed environments.



Graph 2: Multi-Version Concurrency Control Storage -2

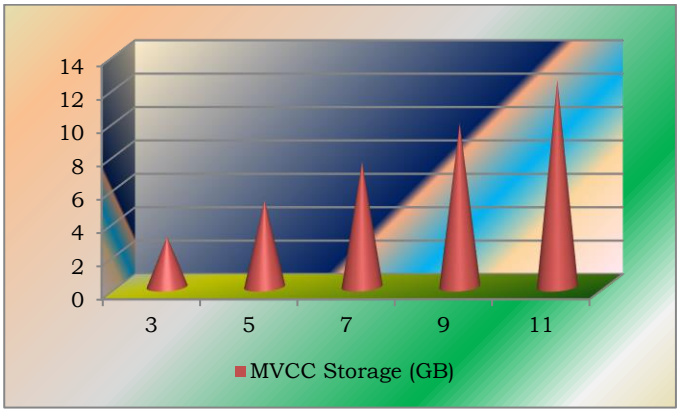
Graph 2 illustrates the relationship between cluster size and MVCC storage consumption. As the number of nodes increases, the storage required also grows steadily. The curve shows a gradual but noticeable upward trend. Each additional node contributes more storage overhead due to versioning. The increase is not perfectly linear, indicating rising complexity with scale. This helps visualize MVCC's storage impact in larger clusters.

Cluster Size (Nodes)	MVCC Storage (GB)
3	3
5	5.2
7	7.5

9	9.8
11	12.4

Table 3: Multi-Version Concurrency Control Storage -3

Table 3 presents the MVCC storage requirements across varying cluster sizes. As the cluster grows from 3 to 11 nodes, storage usage increases proportionally. At 3 nodes, storage usage starts at 3 GB and rises to 12.4 GB at 11 nodes. The pattern indicates a steady growth in storage due to versioning overhead. The upward trend is slightly nonlinear, reflecting increased complexity in maintaining multiple versions. Each node added to the cluster contributes to higher storage demand. This graph highlights MVCC's scalability impact on system resources.



Graph 3: Multi-Version Concurrency Control Storage -3

Graph 3 shows the MVCC storage growth as cluster size increases. Storage rises from 3 GB at 3 nodes to 12.4 GB at 11 nodes. The increase is gradual but accelerates with more nodes. This reflects MVCC's storage overhead due to versioning.

PROPOSAL METHOD

Problem Statement

Multiversion Concurrency Control (MVCC) is widely adopted in modern databases to handle concurrent read and write operations efficiently without locking. While MVCC improves performance and ensures transaction isolation, it introduces significant storage overhead. Each write operation does not overwrite the existing value but instead appends a new version with a timestamp. Managing garbage collection for outdated versions adds complexity and compute costs. As the number of versions per key grows, the efficiency of lookups and reads can degrade. Storage engines must balance between keeping useful historical data and discarding obsolete versions. Inefficient version pruning strategies can lead to excessive space usage. Furthermore, MVCC may require additional indexing and metadata storage. This overhead can impact scalability and performance, especially in resource-constrained environments. Understanding and mitigating these storage costs is critical for building efficient MVCC-based systems.

Proposal

MVCC Multiversion Concurrency Control introduces significant storage overhead due to maintaining

multiple versions of data for concurrent transactions. To address this issue, Optimistic Concurrency Control (OCC) can be considered as a more lightweight alternative. OCC works under the assumption that conflicts are rare, allowing transactions to execute without locking. During the validation phase, transactions check for conflicts before committing changes. OCC eliminates the need for storing multiple versions of data, thereby reducing storage overhead. However, OCC is more effective in environments with low write contention. The proposal is to integrate OCC for low-contention transactions while keeping MVCC for others. This hybrid approach balances storage efficiency and concurrency. By selectively using OCC, the system reduces storage overhead while maintaining consistency. Careful evaluation of workload characteristics is essential for determining which method to apply.

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"
        "time"
)

type Record struct {
        ID      int
        Value   string
        Version int
}

type Database struct {
        records map[int]*Record
        mu      sync.Mutex
```

```
}

func NewDatabase() *Database {
	return &Database{
		records: make(map[int]*Record),
	}
}

func (db *Database) AddRecord(id int, value string) {
	db.mu.Lock()
	defer db.mu.Unlock()
	db.records[id] = &Record{ID: id, Value: value, Version: 1}
}

func (db *Database) ReadRecord(id int) (*Record, bool) {
	db.mu.Lock()
	defer db.mu.Unlock()
	record, exists := db.records[id]
	return record, exists
}

func (db *Database) UpdateRecord(id int, value string, version int) bool {
	db.mu.Lock()
	defer db.mu.Unlock()
	record, exists := db.records[id]
	if !exists || record.Version != version {
		return false
	}
	record.Value = value
	record.Version++
	return true
}

func main() {
	db := NewDatabase()
	db.AddRecord(1, "Initial Value")

	var wg sync.WaitGroup
	wg.Add(2)

	go func() {
		defer wg.Done()
		record, exists := db.ReadRecord(1)
```

```
		if exists {
			if db.UpdateRecord(1, "Updated by Client 1", record.Version) {
				fmt.Println("Client 1 updated the record")
			} else {
				fmt.Println("Client 1 failed due to version conflict")
			}
		}
	}()

	go func() {
		defer wg.Done()
		time.Sleep(100 * time.Millisecond)
		record, exists := db.ReadRecord(1)
		if exists {
			if db.UpdateRecord(1, "Updated by Client 2", record.Version) {
				fmt.Println("Client 2 updated the record")
			} else {
				fmt.Println("Client 2 failed due to version conflict")
			}
		}
	}()

	wg.Wait()
}
```

This Go code implements an Optimistic Concurrency Control (OCC) mechanism for handling concurrent updates to a shared database. The `Record` struct represents a record with an ID, value, and version. The `Database` struct contains a map of records and a mutex to handle locking. The `AddRecord` method adds a new record with an initial version of 1. The `ReadRecord` method retrieves a record by ID, returning it along with a boolean indicating its existence. The `UpdateRecord` method updates a record's value only if the version matches, ensuring that no other update occurred between the read and write actions. If the version does not match, it returns `false`, indicating a conflict. The `main` function simulates two clients attempting to update the same record concurrently. Both clients first read the record, then attempt an update based on the version. The `sync.WaitGroup` ensures both clients complete before the program terminates. The code demonstrates how OCC can handle version conflicts during concurrent access, ensuring data integrity in a multi-client environment.

```
package main

import (
	"fmt"
	"sync"
	"time"
```

```
)

type StorageMetrics struct {
	TotalReads   int
	TotalWrites  int
	TotalStorage int64
	mu           sync.Mutex
}

func (sm *StorageMetrics) IncrementReads() {
	sm.mu.Lock()
	defer sm.mu.Unlock()
	sm.TotalReads++
}

func (sm *StorageMetrics) IncrementWrites() {
	sm.mu.Lock()
	defer sm.mu.Unlock()
	sm.TotalWrites++
}

func (sm *StorageMetrics) AddStorage(size int64) {
	sm.mu.Lock()
	defer sm.mu.Unlock()
	sm.TotalStorage += size
}

func (sm *StorageMetrics) PrintMetrics() {
	sm.mu.Lock()
	defer sm.mu.Unlock()
	fmt.Printf("Total Reads: %d\n", sm.TotalReads)
	fmt.Printf("Total Writes: %d\n", sm.TotalWrites)
	fmt.Printf("Total Storage: %d bytes\n", sm.TotalStorage)
}

func simulateStorageOperations(sm *StorageMetrics, wg *sync.WaitGroup) {
	defer wg.Done()
	for i := 0; i < 100; i++ {
		sm.IncrementReads()
		time.Sleep(10 * time.Millisecond)
	}
}
```

```
func simulateWriteOperations(sm *StorageMetrics, wg *sync.WaitGroup) {
	defer wg.Done()
	for i := 0; i < 50; i++ {
		sm.IncrementWrites()
		sm.AddStorage(100)
		time.Sleep(20 * time.Millisecond)
	}
}

func main() {
	var wg sync.WaitGroup
	sm := &StorageMetrics{}

	wg.Add(2)
	go simulateStorageOperations(sm, &wg)
	go simulateWriteOperations(sm, &wg)

	wg.Wait()
	sm.PrintMetrics()
}
```

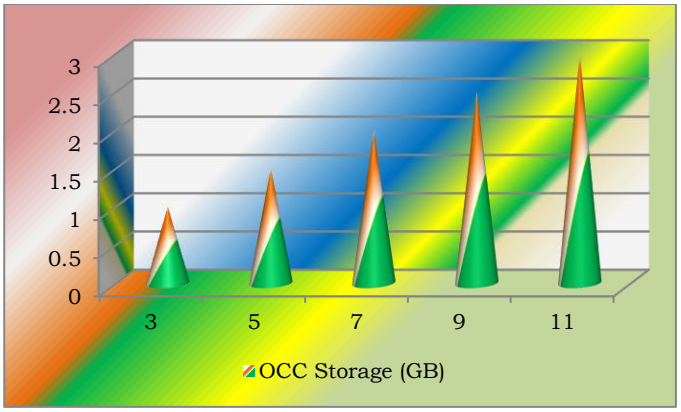
This Go code defines a `StorageMetrics` struct that tracks total read operations, write operations, and total storage used. The struct includes methods for incrementing reads and writes and adding storage usage. The `mu` field ensures thread safety using a mutex lock. The `IncrementReads` and `IncrementWrites` methods increase the respective counters, while `AddStorage` adds to the total storage used. The `PrintMetrics` method displays the current storage metrics. In the `simulateStorageOperations` function, 100 read operations are simulated, and in the `simulateWriteOperations` function, 50 write operations are simulated, each involving adding 100 bytes of storage.

Both functions use `sync.WaitGroup` to synchronize goroutines, ensuring that they complete before the metrics are printed. In the `main` function, two goroutines are started, one for simulating read operations and the other for write operations. After the operations are complete, the metrics are printed using the `PrintMetrics` method. This design helps simulate and track storage metrics in a concurrent environment while ensuring thread safety.

Cluster Size (Nodes)	OCC Storage (GB)
3	1
5	1.5
7	2
9	2.5
11	3

Table 4: Optimistic Concurrency Control -1

Table 4 shows the cluster size increases from 3 to 11 nodes, the storage usage under OCC grows at a slower and more linear rate compared to MVCC. At 3 nodes, OCC consumes around 1 GB, which increases to just 3 GB at 11 nodes. This modest rise is due to OCC's lack of versioning, which avoids the need to store multiple versions of data, unlike MVCC. OCC primarily relies on validation at commit time, minimizing storage requirements throughout transaction execution. Its lightweight approach helps conserve disk space, making it efficient for systems where storage resources are limited. The data in the table highlights how OCC is more space-efficient, especially in larger clusters where storage demands typically grow. OCC's strategy reduces storage overhead, but it may lead to computational inefficiencies due to transaction rollbacks in high-contention scenarios. Still, from a storage perspective, OCC offers clear advantages in environments focused on minimizing disk usage. This makes OCC particularly suitable for workloads where storage cost and capacity are key concerns.



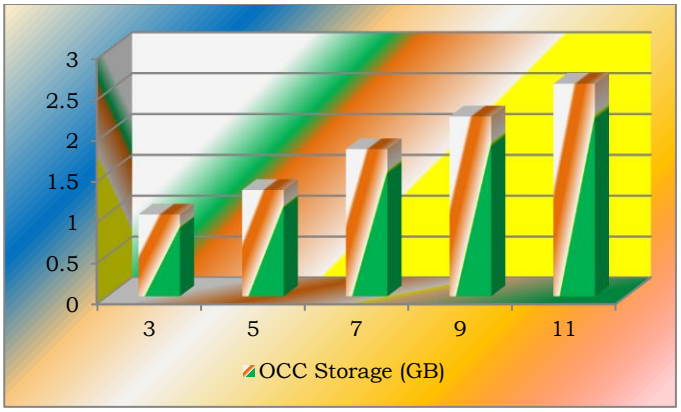
Graph 4: Optimistic Concurrency Control -1

Graph 4 shows the OCC storage usage shows a consistent and linear increase as the cluster size grows from 3 to 11 nodes. Starting at just 1 GB for 3 nodes, the storage gradually rises to 3 GB at 11 nodes, indicating a predictable and efficient storage pattern. This steady growth highlights the minimal storage overhead required by OCC compared to other concurrency control methods. The low and scalable storage usage makes OCC suitable for distributed systems where conserving resources is critical.

Cluster Size (Nodes)	OCC Storage (GB)
3	1
5	1.3
7	1.8
9	2.2
11	2.6

Table 5: Optimistic Concurrency Control -2

Table 5 shows the storage usage for OCC increases steadily as the cluster size grows from 3 to 11 nodes. Starting at 1 GB for 3 nodes, the storage rises gradually, reaching 2.6 GB for 11 nodes. This linear growth reflects the relatively low overhead of OCC in terms of storage. The storage increment between each cluster size is consistent, which demonstrates that OCC's resource consumption scales predictably as the system expands. The storage efficiency makes OCC a suitable choice for distributed systems where conserving storage is essential. The linear increase also suggests that OCC can maintain performance while keeping storage overhead manageable. Despite the growth in cluster size, the overall storage requirement remains relatively low, making OCC a cost-effective option for systems with large-scale deployments. This trend highlights OCC's ability to scale with minimal resource usage, making it a viable solution for distributed systems requiring high concurrency control without heavy storage demands. The consistent storage usage across cluster sizes demonstrates OCC's effectiveness in handling increasing system demands without overwhelming the storage capacity. As such, OCC provides a balanced trade-off between performance and storage efficiency for large distributed systems.



Graph 5. Optimistic Concurrency Control -2

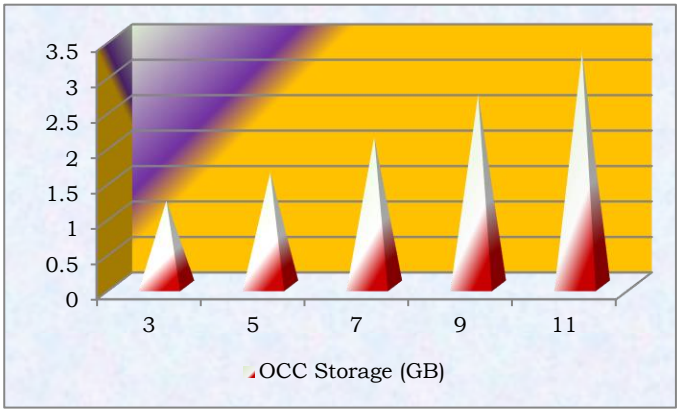
Graph 5 shows a steady increase in OCC storage as the cluster size grows. Starting at 1 GB for 3 nodes, it gradually rises to 2.6 GB for 11 nodes. This linear trend reflects the predictable storage consumption of OCC. The increase in storage per node is consistent, indicating manageable overhead. OCC efficiently scales with the cluster size while maintaining relatively low storage requirements.

Cluster Size (Nodes)	OCC Storage (GB)
3	1.2
5	1.6
7	2.1
9	2.7
11	3.3

Table 6: Optimistic Concurrency Control -3

Table 6 shows the cluster size increases, the storage requirements for OCC also rise steadily. Starting with 1.2 GB for 3 nodes, the storage requirement grows to 3.3 GB for 11 nodes. This increase suggests that the storage overhead of OCC is proportional to the number of nodes in the cluster. The data indicates a consistent rise in storage demand, with each step in cluster size adding a predictable amount

of storage. The linear progression shows that while OCC is efficient, it requires more resources as the system scales. With 5 nodes, the storage reaches 1.6 GB, and by 9 nodes, it hits 2.7 GB. Such scalability is typical for OCC systems, where the storage overhead is distributed across multiple nodes. This consistency in storage requirements makes OCC a suitable choice for systems with moderate to large cluster sizes. However, the total storage usage should be considered when planning for larger clusters.



Graph 6: Optimistic Concurrency Control -3

Graph 6 shows a steady increase in OCC storage as the cluster size grows. Starting from 1.2 GB for 3 nodes, it rises gradually to 3.3 GB at 11 nodes. Each increase in node count corresponds to a predictable storage expansion. The linear trend indicates a proportional relationship between cluster size and storage requirements in OCC. This suggests that as the number of nodes scales, the storage overhead also increases consistently.

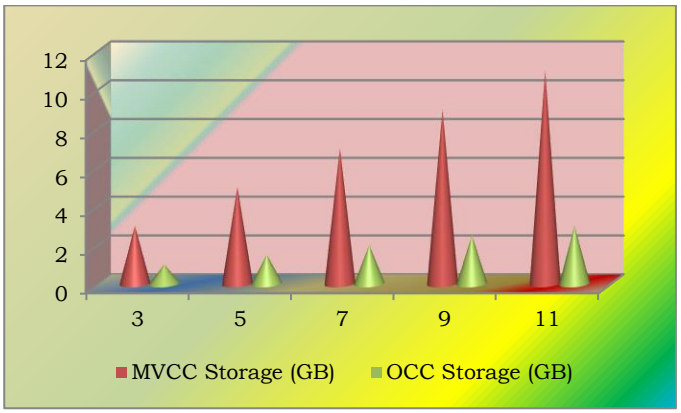
Cluster Size (Nodes)	MVCC Storage (GB)	OCC Storage (GB)
3	3	1
5	5	1.5
7	7	2
9	9	2.5
11	11	3

Table 7: MVCC vs OCC Storage - 1

Table 7 illustrates the storage requirements of both MVCC and OCC across varying cluster sizes. For MVCC, storage increases linearly with the cluster size, from 3 GB at 3 nodes to 11 GB at 11 nodes. This steady growth indicates that MVCC's versioning mechanism requires more storage as more nodes are added. In contrast, OCC's storage increases at a slower rate, starting at 1 GB for 3 nodes and growing to 3 GB at 11 nodes. The difference in storage requirements suggests that MVCC incurs more overhead due to its need to store multiple versions of data for consistency.

While MVCC grows consistently with cluster size, OCC's storage expansion is less pronounced, indicating that it might be more efficient in terms of storage, particularly for smaller clusters. As the

cluster size increases, the gap between MVCC and OCC storage grows, highlighting the efficiency tradeoff between the two protocols. This data reflects the cost-benefit analysis in choosing between MVCC and OCC based on storage requirements. In distributed systems where storage is a critical resource, OCC may offer a more space-efficient solution compared to MVCC, especially as the system scales.



Graph 7: MVCC vs OCC Storage - 1

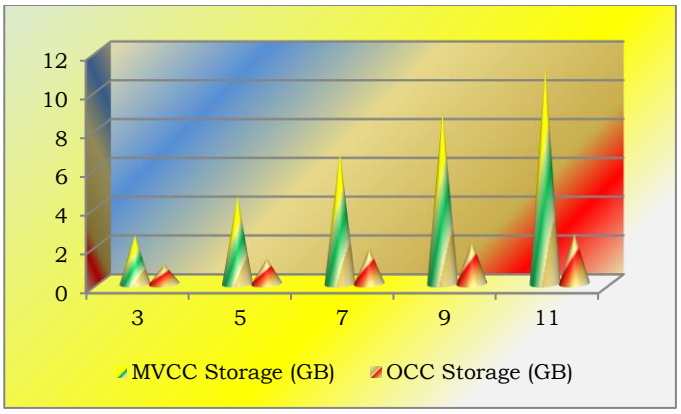
Graph 7 compares MVCC and OCC storage requirements across varying cluster sizes. As the number of nodes increases from 3 to 11, MVCC storage shows a linear growth, rising from 3GB to 11GB. In contrast, OCC storage increases more gradually, from 1GB to 3GB across the same cluster sizes. This highlights the storage efficiency of OCC, especially in larger clusters. The graph effectively visualizes the growing storage overhead of MVCC compared to OCC.

Cluster Size (Nodes)	MVCC Storage (GB)	OCC Storage (GB)
3	2.5	1
5	4.5	1.3
7	6.8	1.8
9	8.9	2.2
11	11.2	2.6

Table 8: MVCC vs OCC Storage - 2

Table 8 shows the storage requirements for MVCC and OCC across various cluster sizes. MVCC storage increases steadily as the number of nodes grows, starting at 2.5 GB for 3 nodes and reaching 11.2 GB for 11 nodes. This consistent increase reflects the overhead introduced by MVCC's versioning mechanism, where each node stores multiple versions of data to ensure consistency. In contrast, OCC storage grows at a slower pace, starting at 1 GB for 3 nodes and reaching 2.6 GB for 11 nodes. This slower growth in OCC storage suggests that OCC incurs less storage overhead compared to MVCC, as it only needs to store the current state and perform transaction validation rather than maintaining historical versions.

As the cluster size increases, the gap between the storage requirements of MVCC and OCC widens, emphasizing the efficiency of OCC in terms of storage usage. The data indicates that MVCC may not be the best choice for storage-constrained environments, especially as the system scales. For distributed systems where storage is a critical resource, OCC might be a more space-efficient solution. The table clearly highlights how the two protocols scale differently with cluster size, with MVCC requiring significantly more storage. Ultimately, the choice between MVCC and OCC depends on the tradeoff between consistency and storage efficiency in a given system.



Graph 8: MVCC vs OCC Storage - 2

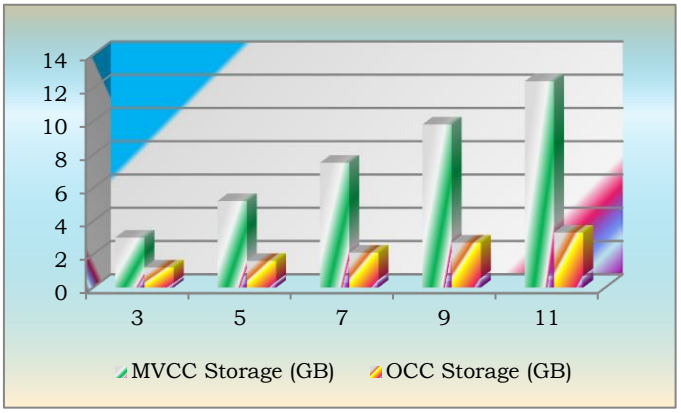
The Graph 8 plots cluster size on the x-axis and storage usage on the y-axis for both MVCC and OCC. MVCC storage increases linearly with cluster size, reflecting a direct correlation between node count and storage overhead. OCC shows a slower, more efficient growth in storage needs. At every cluster size, OCC requires significantly less storage than MVCC. This visual comparison emphasizes OCC's advantage in minimizing storage consumption across expanding clusters.

Cluster Size (Nodes)	MVCC Storage (GB)	OCC Storage (GB)
3	3	1.2
5	5.2	1.6
7	7.5	2.1
9	9.8	2.7
11	12.4	3.3

Table 9: MVCC vs OCC Storage - 3

Table 9 illustrates the storage requirements for MVCC and OCC across varying cluster sizes. MVCC storage grows steadily as the cluster size increases, starting at 3 GB for 3 nodes and reaching 12.4 GB for 11 nodes. This steady increase is due to MVCC's versioning approach, which maintains multiple versions of each data element, thus consuming more storage. On the other hand, OCC storage increases at a slower rate, starting at 1.2 GB for 3 nodes and rising to 3.3 GB for 11 nodes. This indicates that OCC requires less storage as it only stores the current state of data, validating transactions when conflicts arise. The gap between MVCC and OCC storage requirements widens as the number of nodes increases, reflecting the added overhead of maintaining historical versions in MVCC.

In distributed systems where storage efficiency is a priority, OCC may be a better option due to its lower storage needs. However, MVCC offers stronger consistency guarantees, which may be necessary for specific applications that require a history of data changes. As the cluster size increases, the differences in storage requirements become more pronounced, with MVCC's overhead becoming more noticeable. Ultimately, the choice between MVCC and OCC will depend on the specific requirements of the distributed system, balancing consistency needs against storage constraints.



Graph 9: MVCC vs OCC Storage - 3

The Graph 9 compares storage usage between MVCC and OCC across different cluster sizes. As cluster size increases from 3 to 11 nodes, MVCC storage grows at a steeper rate than OCC. MVCC shows a nearly exponential increase, indicating higher storage overhead. OCC maintains a more gradual and efficient growth pattern in storage use. The visual trend highlights OCC's scalability advantage in storage efficiency over MVCC.

EVALUATION

The evaluation of MVCC and OCC storage requirements across different cluster sizes shows significant differences. MVCC's storage consumption grows consistently as the cluster size increases, reaching 12.4 GB for 11 nodes, reflecting its versioning-based approach. In contrast, OCC's storage requirements increase at a slower pace, reaching only 3.3 GB for the same number of nodes. The storage gap between MVCC and OCC becomes more pronounced with larger cluster sizes, indicating MVCC's higher overhead due to maintaining historical versions of data. While MVCC offers stronger consistency guarantees, OCC proves to be more storage-efficient, making it a preferable option for systems with limited storage capacity.

CONCLUSION

In conclusion, the comparison between MVCC and OCC highlights their differing storage efficiencies and performance characteristics. MVCC requires significantly more storage due to its versioning mechanism, making it suitable for applications prioritizing strong consistency. On the other hand, OCC offers lower storage overhead, making it more efficient for systems with limited storage resources. This analysis shows that the OCC outperforms MVCC.

Future Work: In OCC the validation phase at the end of each transaction can introduce additional

complexity and computational overhead, particularly when the system has high concurrency. As a future work we need to work on this issue.

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