



# Chapter 10 : Concurrency Control

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# Chapter 10: Concurrency Control

- **Lock-Based Protocols**
- Timestamp-Based Protocols
- Validation-Based Protocols
- Multiple Granularity
- Multiversion Schemes
- Insert and Delete Operations
- Concurrency in Index Structures



# Intuition of Lock-based Protocols

- Transactions have to acquire locks on data items before accessing them
- If a lock is hold by one transaction on a data item this restricts the ability of other transactions to acquire locks for that data item
- By locking a data item we want to ensure that no access to that data item is possible that would lead to non-serializable schedules
- The trick is to design a lock model and protocol that guarantees that
- Lock-based concurrency protocols are a form of **pessimistic concurrency control mechanism**
  - We avoid ever getting into a state that can lead to a non-serializable schedule
- Alternative concurrency control mechanism do not avoid conflicts, but determine later on (at commit time) whether committing a transaction would cause a non-serializable schedule to be generated
  - **Optimistic concurrency control mechanism**



# Lock-Based Protocols

- A lock is a mechanism to control concurrent access to a data item
- Data items can be locked in two modes :
  1. *exclusive (X) mode*. Data item can be both read as well as written. X-lock is requested using **lock-X** instruction.
  2. *shared (S) mode*. Data item can only be read. S-lock is requested using **lock-S** instruction.
- Lock requests are made to concurrency-control manager.
  - Transaction do not access data items before having acquired a lock on that data item
  - Transactions release their locks on a data item only after they have accessed a data item



# Lock-Based Protocols (Cont.)

## ■ Lock-compatibility matrix

	S	X
S	true	false
X	false	false

- A transaction may be granted a lock on an item if the requested lock is compatible with locks already held on the item by other transactions
- Any number of transactions can hold shared locks on an item,
  - but if any transaction holds an exclusive lock on the item no other transaction may hold any lock on the item.
- If a lock cannot be granted, the requesting transaction is made to wait till all incompatible locks held by other transactions have been released. The lock is then granted.



# Lock-Based Protocols (Cont.)

- Example of a transaction performing locking:

```
T2: lock-S(A);  
      read (A);  
      unlock(A);  
      lock-S(B);  
      read (B);  
      unlock(B);  
      display(A+B)
```

- Locking as above is not sufficient to guarantee serializability — if *A* and *B* get updated in-between the read of *A* and *B*, the displayed sum would be wrong.
- A **locking protocol** is a set of rules followed by all transactions while requesting and releasing locks. Locking protocols restrict the set of possible schedules.



# Pitfalls of Lock-Based Protocols

- Consider the partial schedule

$T_3$	$T_4$
lock-x ( $B$ )	
read ( $B$ )	
$B := B - 50$	
write ( $B$ )	
	lock-s ( $A$ )
	read ( $A$ )
	lock-s ( $B$ )
lock-x ( $A$ )	

- Neither  $T_3$  nor  $T_4$  can make progress — executing **lock-S**( $B$ ) causes  $T_4$  to wait for  $T_3$  to release its lock on  $B$ , while executing **lock-X**( $A$ ) causes  $T_3$  to wait for  $T_4$  to release its lock on  $A$ .
- Such a situation is called a **deadlock**.
  - To handle a deadlock one of  $T_3$  or  $T_4$  must be rolled back and its locks released.



# Pitfalls of Lock-Based Protocols (Cont.)

- The potential for deadlock exists in most locking protocols. Deadlocks are a necessary evil.
- **Starvation** is also possible if the concurrency control manager is badly designed. For example:
  - A transaction may be waiting for an X-lock on an item, while a sequence of other transactions request and are granted an S-lock on the same item.
  - The same transaction is repeatedly rolled back due to deadlocks.
- Concurrency control managers can be designed to prevent starvation.





# The Two-Phase Locking Protocol

- This is a protocol which ensures conflict-serializable schedules.
- Phase 1: Growing Phase
  - transaction may obtain locks
  - transaction may not release locks
- Phase 2: Shrinking Phase
  - transaction may release locks
  - transaction may not obtain locks
- The protocol assures serializability. It can be proved that the transactions can be serialized in the order of their **lock points** (i.e. the point where a transaction acquired its final lock).



# The Two-Phase Locking Protocol (Cont.)

- Two-phase locking *does not* ensure freedom from deadlocks
- Cascading roll-back is possible under two-phase locking. To avoid this, follow a modified protocol called **strict two-phase locking (S2PL)**. Here a transaction must hold all its exclusive locks till it commits/aborts.
- **Rigorous two-phase locking (SS2PL)** is even stricter: here *all* locks are held till commit/abort. In this protocol transactions can be serialized in the order in which they commit.



# The Two-Phase Locking Protocol (Cont.)

- There can be conflict serializable schedules that cannot be obtained if two-phase locking is used.
- However, in the absence of extra information (e.g., ordering of access to data), two-phase locking is needed for conflict serializability in the following sense:

Given a transaction  $T_i$  that does not follow two-phase locking, we can find a transaction  $T_j$  that uses two-phase locking, and a schedule for  $T_i$  and  $T_j$  that is not conflict serializable.



# Lock Conversions

- Two-phase locking with lock conversions:
  - First Phase:
    - can acquire a lock-S on item
    - can acquire a lock-X on item
    - can convert a lock-S to a lock-X (upgrade)
  - Second Phase:
    - can release a lock-S
    - can release a lock-X
    - can convert a lock-X to a lock-S (downgrade)
- This protocol assures serializability. But still relies on the programmer to insert the various locking instructions.



# Automatic Acquisition of Locks

- A transaction  $T_i$  issues the standard read/write instruction, without explicit locking calls.
- The operation **read**( $D$ ) is processed as:
  - if**  $T_i$  has a lock on  $D$
  - then**
  - read( $D$ )
  - else begin**
  - if necessary wait until no other transaction has a **lock-X** on  $D$
  - grant  $T_i$  a **lock-S** on  $D$ ;
  - read( $D$ )
  - end**



# Automatic Acquisition of Locks (Cont.)

- **write**( $D$ ) is processed as:
  - if  $T_i$  has a **lock-X** on  $D$ 
    - then**
    - write( $D$ )
    - else begin**
      - if necessary wait until no other trans. has any lock on  $D$ ,
      - if  $T_i$  has a **lock-S** on  $D$ 
        - then**
        - upgrade** lock on  $D$  to **lock-X**
        - else**
        - grant  $T_i$  a **lock-X** on  $D$
      - write( $D$ )
    - end;**
- All locks are released after commit or abort

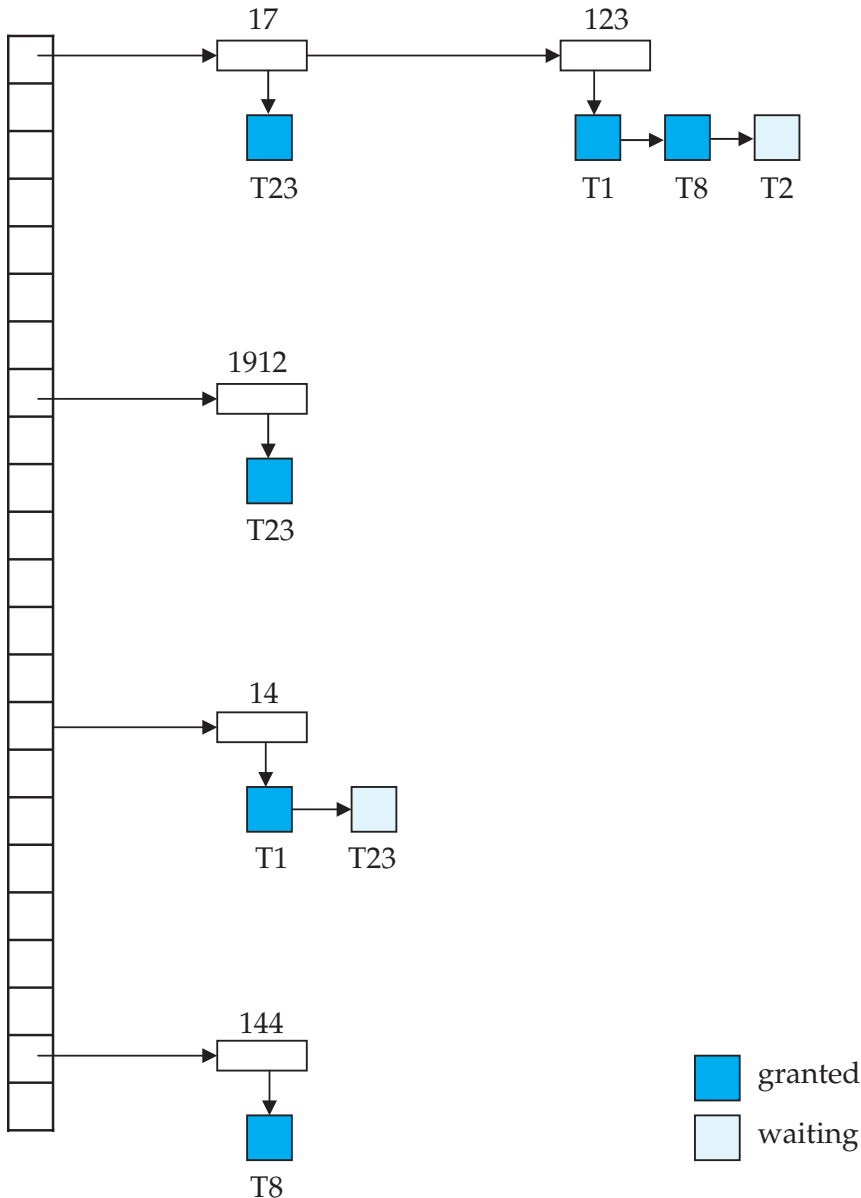


# Implementation of Locking

- A **lock manager** can be implemented as a separate process to which transactions send lock and unlock requests
- The lock manager replies to a lock request by sending a lock grant messages (or a message asking the transaction to roll back, in case of a deadlock)
- The requesting transaction waits until its request is answered
- The lock manager maintains a data-structure called a **lock table** to record granted locks and pending requests
- The lock table is usually implemented as an in-memory hash table indexed on the name of the data item being locked



# Lock Table



- Black rectangles indicate granted locks, white ones indicate waiting requests
- Lock table also records the type of lock granted or requested
- New request is added to the end of the queue of requests for the data item, and granted if it is compatible with all earlier locks
- Unlock requests result in the request being deleted, and later requests are checked to see if they can now be granted
- If transaction aborts, all waiting or granted requests of the transaction are deleted
  - lock manager may keep a list of locks held by each transaction, to implement this efficiently





# Deadlock Handling

- Consider the following two transactions:

$T_1$ :    write ( $X$ )                       $T_2$ :    write( $Y$ )  
          write( $Y$ )                              write( $X$ )

- Schedule with deadlock

$T_1$	$T_2$
<b>lock-X</b> on A write (A)	
	<b>lock-X</b> on B write (B) wait for <b>lock-X</b> on A
wait for <b>lock-X</b> on B	



# Deadlock Handling

- System is deadlocked if there is a set of transactions such that every transaction in the set is waiting for another transaction in the set.
- **Deadlock prevention** protocols ensure that the system will *never* enter into a deadlock state. Some prevention strategies :
  - Require that each transaction locks all its data items before it begins execution (predeclaration).
    - ▶ Not practical
  - Impose partial ordering of all data items and require that a transaction can lock data items only in the order specified by the partial order (graph-based protocol).



# More Deadlock Prevention Strategies

- Following schemes use transaction timestamps for the sake of deadlock prevention alone.
  - **Preemptive**: Transaction holding a lock is aborted to make lock available
- **wait-die** scheme — non-preemptive
  - older transaction may wait for younger one to release data item. Younger transactions never wait for older ones; they are rolled back instead.
  - a transaction may die several times before acquiring needed data item
- **wound-wait** scheme — preemptive
  - older transaction *wounds* (forces rollback) of younger transaction instead of waiting for it. Younger transactions may wait for older ones.
  - may be fewer rollbacks than *wait-die* scheme.



# Deadlock prevention (Cont.)

- Both in *wait-die* and in *wound-wait* schemes, a rolled back transactions is restarted with its original timestamp. Older transactions thus have precedence over newer ones, and starvation is hence avoided.
- **Timeout-Based Schemes:**
  - a transaction waits for a lock only for a specified amount of time. After that, the wait times out and the transaction is rolled back.
  - thus deadlocks are not possible
  - simple to implement; but starvation is possible. Also difficult to determine good value of the timeout interval.

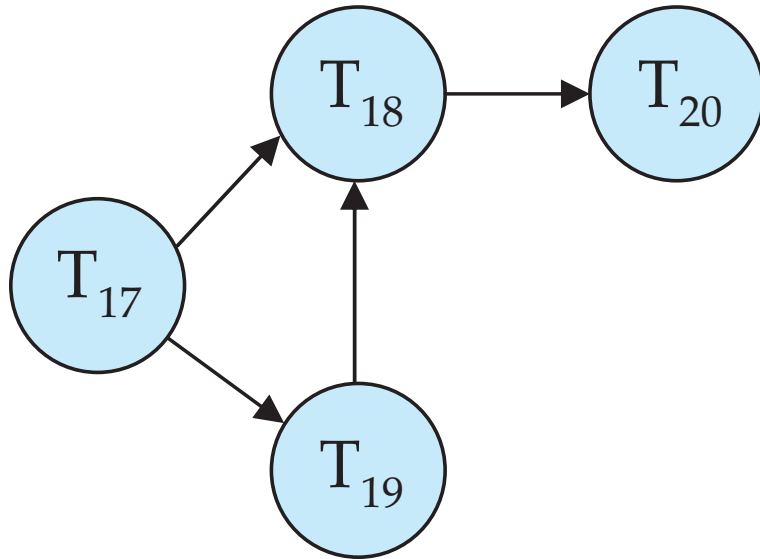


# Deadlock Detection

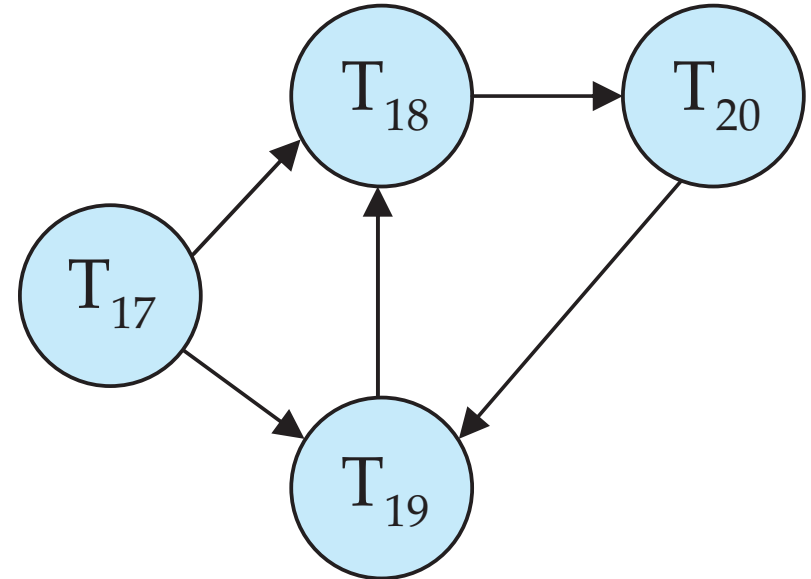
- Deadlocks can be described as a *wait-for graph*, which consists of a pair  $G = (V, E)$ ,
  - $V$  is a set of vertices (all the transactions in the system)
  - $E$  is a set of edges; each element is an ordered pair  $T_i \rightarrow T_j$ .
- If  $T_i \rightarrow T_j$  is in  $E$ , then there is a directed edge from  $T_i$  to  $T_j$ , implying that  $T_i$  is waiting for  $T_j$  to release a data item.
- When  $T_i$  requests a data item currently being held by  $T_j$ , then the edge  $T_i \rightarrow T_j$  is inserted in the wait-for graph. This edge is removed only when  $T_j$  is no longer holding a data item needed by  $T_i$ .
- The system is in a deadlock state if and only if the wait-for graph has a cycle. Must invoke a deadlock-detection algorithm periodically to look for cycles.



# Deadlock Detection (Cont.)



Wait-for graph without a cycle



Wait-for graph with a cycle



# Deadlock Recovery

- When deadlock is detected :
  - Some transaction will have to rolled back (made a victim) to break deadlock. Select that transaction as victim that will incur minimum cost.
  - Rollback -- determine how far to roll back transaction
    - ▶ **Total rollback**: Abort the transaction and then restart it.
    - ▶ More effective to roll back transaction only as far as necessary to break deadlock.
  - Starvation happens if same transaction is always chosen as victim. Include the number of rollbacks in the cost factor to avoid starvation



# Weak Levels of Consistency

- **Degree-two consistency:** differs from two-phase locking in that S-locks may be released at any time, and locks may be acquired at any time
  - X-locks must be held till end of transaction
  - Serializability is not guaranteed, programmer must ensure that no erroneous database state will occur]
- **Cursor stability:**
  - For reads, each tuple is locked, read, and lock is immediately released
  - X-locks are held till end of transaction
  - Special case of degree-two consistency





# Weak Levels of Consistency in SQL

- SQL allows non-serializable executions
  - **Serializable**: is the default
  - **Repeatable read**: allows only committed records to be read, and repeating a read should return the same value (so read locks should be retained)
    - ▶ However, the phantom phenomenon need not be prevented
      - T1 may see some records inserted by T2, but may not see others inserted by T2
  - **Read committed**: same as degree two consistency, but most systems implement it as cursor-stability
  - **Read uncommitted**: allows even uncommitted data to be read
- In many database systems, read committed is the default consistency level
  - has to be explicitly changed to serializable when required
    - ▶ **set isolation level serializable**



# Recap

## ■ Concurrency Control

- **Pessimistic**: Prevent bad things from happening
  - ▶ Locking Protocols
- **Optimistic**: Detect that bad things have happened and resolve the problem

## ■ Two-Phase Locking (2PL)

- Two types of locks:
  - ▶ Shared (S) locks for read-only access
  - ▶ Exclusive (X) locks for write + read access
- Lock compatibility
- Transactions cannot acquire locks after they have released a lock
  - ▶ Divides transaction into growing and shrinking phase
- **Ensures conflict-serializability**
- **Cascading rollbacks are possible**
- **Deadlocks are possible**



# Recap

- **Strict Two-Phase Locking (S2PL)**
  - Exclusive locks are held until transaction commit
  - **Prevents cascading rollbacks**
  - **Deadlocks are still possible**
- **Strict Strong Two-Phase Locking (SS2PL)**
  - All locks are held until transaction commit
  - **Enables serializability in commit order**
- **Deadlocks**
  - **Deadlock Prevention**
    - ▶ **Wait-die:** Younger transaction that waits for older is rolled back
    - ▶ **Wound-wait:** If older waits for younger, then younger is rolled back
  - **Deadlock Detection**
    - ▶ Cycle Detection in Waits-for graph
      - Expensive
    - ▶ Timeout



# End of Chapter

Thanks to Alan Fekete and Sudhir Jorwekar for Snapshot Isolation examples

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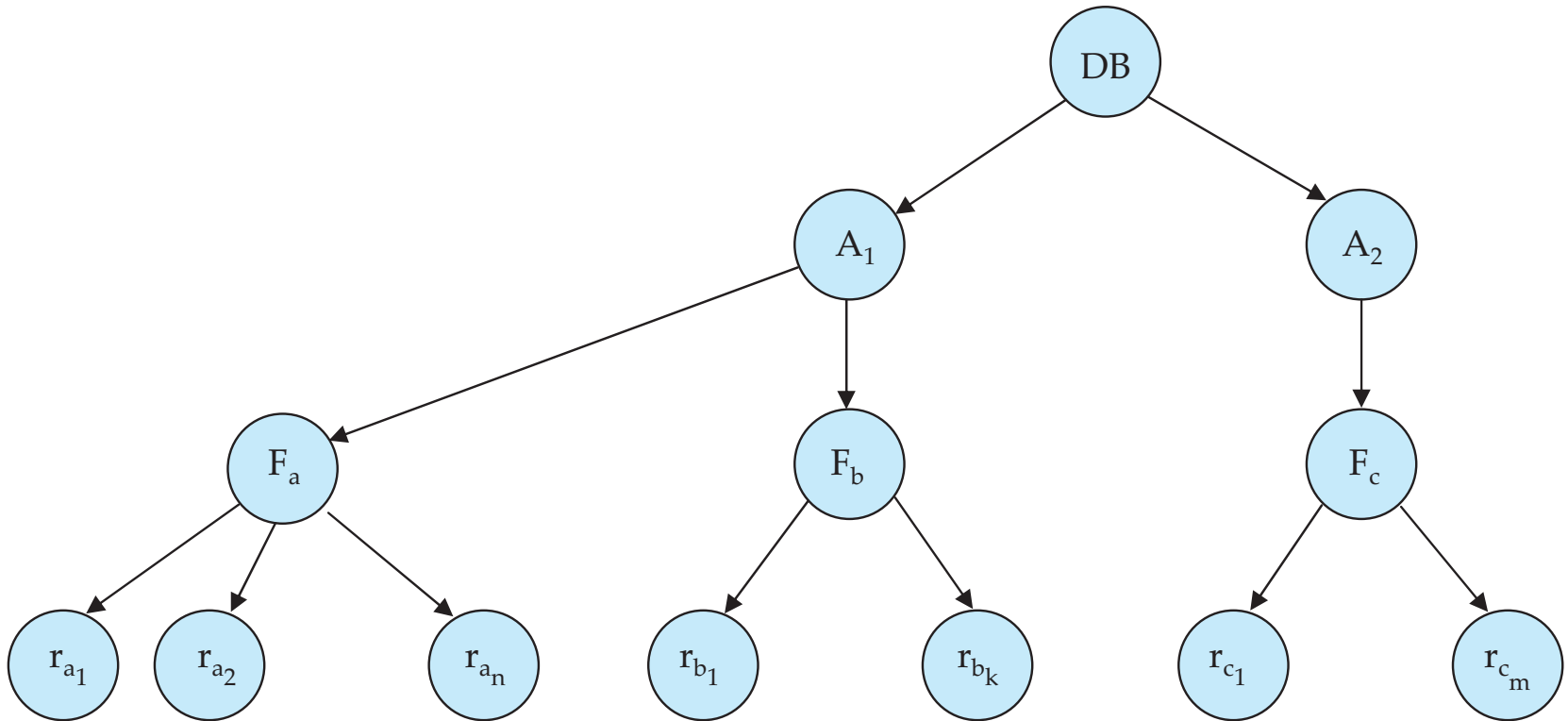


# Multiple Granularity

- Allow data items to be of various sizes and define a hierarchy of data granularities, where the small granularities are nested within larger ones
- Can be represented graphically as a tree (but don't confuse with tree-locking protocol)
- When a transaction locks a node in the tree *explicitly*, it *implicitly* locks all the node's descendents in the same mode.
- **Granularity of locking** (level in tree where locking is done):
  - **fine granularity** (lower in tree): high concurrency, high locking overhead
  - **coarse granularity** (higher in tree): low locking overhead, low concurrency



# Example of Granularity Hierarchy



The levels, starting from the coarsest (top) level are

- *database*
- *area*
- *file*
- *record*



# Intention Lock Modes

- In addition to S and X lock modes, there are three additional lock modes with multiple granularity:
  - ***intention-shared*** (IS): indicates explicit locking at a lower level of the tree but only with shared locks.
  - ***intention-exclusive*** (IX): indicates explicit locking at a lower level with exclusive or shared locks
  - ***shared and intention-exclusive*** (SIX): the subtree rooted by that node is locked explicitly in shared mode and explicit locking is being done at a lower level with exclusive-mode locks.
- intention locks allow a higher level node to be locked in S or X mode without having to check all descendent nodes.



# Compatibility Matrix with Intention Lock Modes

- The compatibility matrix for all lock modes is:

	IS	IX	S	SIX	X
IS	true	true	true	true	false
IX	true	true	false	false	false
S	true	false	true	false	false
SIX	true	false	false	false	false
X	false	false	false	false	false





# Multiple Granularity Locking Scheme

- Transaction  $T_i$  can lock a node  $Q$ , using the following rules:
  1. The lock compatibility matrix must be observed.
  2. The root of the tree must be locked first, and may be locked in any mode.
  3. A node  $Q$  can be locked by  $T_i$  in S or IS mode only if the parent of  $Q$  is currently locked by  $T_i$  in either IX or IS mode.
  4. A node  $Q$  can be locked by  $T_i$  in X, SIX, or IX mode only if the parent of  $Q$  is currently locked by  $T_i$  in either IX or SIX mode.
  5.  $T_i$  can lock a node only if it has not previously unlocked any node (that is,  $T_i$  is two-phase).
  6.  $T_i$  can unlock a node  $Q$  only if none of the children of  $Q$  are currently locked by  $T_i$ .
- Observe that locks are acquired in root-to-leaf order, whereas they are released in leaf-to-root order.
- **Lock granularity escalation**: in case there are too many locks at a particular level, switch to higher granularity S or X lock



# Timestamp-Based Protocols

- Each transaction is issued a timestamp when it enters the system. If an old transaction  $T_i$  has time-stamp  $TS(T_i)$ , a new transaction  $T_j$  is assigned time-stamp  $TS(T_j)$  such that  $TS(T_i) < TS(T_j)$ .
- The protocol manages concurrent execution such that the time-stamps determine the serializability order.
- In order to assure such behavior, the protocol maintains for each data  $Q$  two timestamp values:
  - **W-timestamp**( $Q$ ) is the largest time-stamp of any transaction that executed **write**( $Q$ ) successfully.
  - **R-timestamp**( $Q$ ) is the largest time-stamp of any transaction that executed **read**( $Q$ ) successfully.



# Timestamp-Based Protocols (Cont.)

- The timestamp ordering protocol ensures that any conflicting **read** and **write** operations are executed in timestamp order.
- Suppose a transaction  $T_i$  issues a **read**( $Q$ )
  1. If  $TS(T_i) \leq \mathbf{W}$ -timestamp( $Q$ ), then  $T_i$  needs to read a value of  $Q$  that was already overwritten.
    - Hence, the **read** operation is rejected, and  $T_i$  is rolled back.
  2. If  $TS(T_i) \geq \mathbf{W}$ -timestamp( $Q$ ), then the **read** operation is executed, and R-timestamp( $Q$ ) is set to  $\mathbf{max}$ (R-timestamp( $Q$ ),  $TS(T_i)$ ).



# Timestamp-Based Protocols (Cont.)

- Suppose that transaction  $T_i$  issues **write**( $Q$ ).
  1. If  $TS(T_i) < R\text{-timestamp}(Q)$ , then the value of  $Q$  that  $T_i$  is producing was needed previously, and the system assumed that that value would never be produced.
    - Hence, the **write** operation is rejected, and  $T_i$  is rolled back.
  2. If  $TS(T_i) < W\text{-timestamp}(Q)$ , then  $T_i$  is attempting to write an obsolete value of  $Q$ .
    - Hence, this **write** operation is rejected, and  $T_i$  is rolled back.
  3. Otherwise, the **write** operation is executed, and  $W\text{-timestamp}(Q)$  is set to  $TS(T_i)$ .



# Example Use of the Protocol

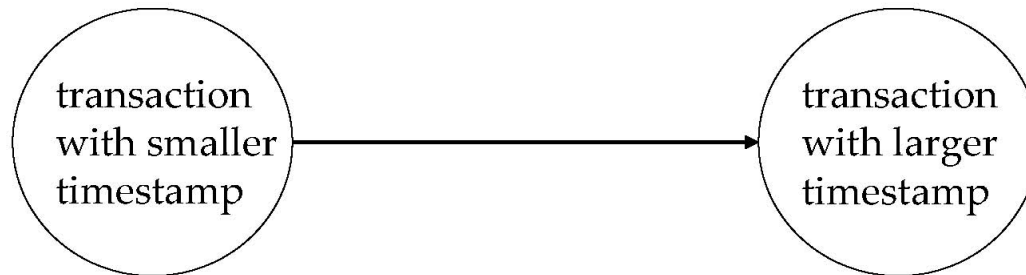
A partial schedule for several data items for transactions with timestamps 1, 2, 3, 4, 5

$T_1$	$T_2$	$T_3$	$T_4$	$T_5$
	read (Y)			read (X)
read (Y)		write (Y) write (Z)		
	read (Z) abort			read (Z)
read (X)		write (W) abort	read (W)	
				write (Y) write (Z)



# Correctness of Timestamp-Ordering Protocol

- The timestamp-ordering protocol guarantees serializability since all the arcs in the precedence graph are of the form:



Thus, there will be no cycles in the precedence graph

- Timestamp protocol ensures freedom from deadlock as no transaction ever waits.
- But the schedule may not be cascade-free, and may not even be recoverable.



# Recoverability and Cascade Freedom

- Problem with timestamp-ordering protocol:
  - Suppose  $T_i$  aborts, but  $T_j$  has read a data item written by  $T_i$
  - Then  $T_j$  must abort; if  $T_j$  had been allowed to commit earlier, the schedule is not recoverable.
  - Further, any transaction that has read a data item written by  $T_j$  must abort
  - This can lead to cascading rollback --- that is, a chain of rollbacks
- Solution 1:
  - A transaction is structured such that its writes are all performed at the end of its processing
  - All writes of a transaction form an atomic action; no transaction may execute while a transaction is being written
  - A transaction that aborts is restarted with a new timestamp
- Solution 2: Limited form of locking: wait for data to be committed before reading it
- Solution 3: Use commit dependencies to ensure recoverability



# Thomas' Write Rule

- Modified version of the timestamp-ordering protocol in which obsolete **write** operations may be ignored under certain circumstances.
- When  $T_i$  attempts to write data item  $Q$ , if  $TS(T_i) < W\text{-timestamp}(Q)$ , then  $T_i$  is attempting to write an obsolete value of  $\{Q\}$ .
  - Rather than rolling back  $T_i$  as the timestamp ordering protocol would have done, this **{write}** operation can be ignored.
- Otherwise this protocol is the same as the timestamp ordering protocol.
- Thomas' Write Rule allows greater potential concurrency.
  - Allows some view-serializable schedules that are not conflict-serializable.





# Validation-Based Protocol

- Execution of transaction  $T_i$  is done in three phases.
  1. **Read and execution phase:** Transaction  $T_i$  writes only to temporary local variables
  2. **Validation phase:** Transaction  $T_i$  performs a "validation test" to determine if local variables can be written without violating serializability.
  3. **Write phase:** If  $T_i$  is validated, the updates are applied to the database; otherwise,  $T_i$  is rolled back.
- The three phases of concurrently executing transactions can be interleaved, but each transaction must go through the three phases in that order.
  - Assume for simplicity that the validation and write phase occur together, atomically and serially
    - ▶ I.e., only one transaction executes validation/write at a time.
- Also called as **optimistic concurrency control** since transaction executes fully in the hope that all will go well during validation



# Validation-Based Protocol (Cont.)

- Each transaction  $T_i$  has 3 timestamps
  - $\text{Start}(T_i)$  : the time when  $T_i$  started its execution
  - $\text{Validation}(T_i)$ : the time when  $T_i$  entered its validation phase
  - $\text{Finish}(T_i)$  : the time when  $T_i$  finished its write phase
- Serializability order is determined by timestamp given at validation time, to increase concurrency.
  - Thus  $\text{TS}(T_i)$  is given the value of  $\text{Validation}(T_i)$ .
- This protocol is useful and gives greater degree of concurrency if probability of conflicts is low.
  - because the serializability order is not pre-decided, and
  - relatively few transactions will have to be rolled back.



# Validation Test for Transaction $T_j$

- If for all  $T_i$  with  $TS(T_i) < TS(T_j)$  either one of the following condition holds:
  - **finish**( $T_i$ ) < **start**( $T_j$ )
  - **start**( $T_j$ ) < **finish**( $T_i$ ) < **validation**( $T_j$ ) **and** the set of data items written by  $T_i$  does not intersect with the set of data items read by  $T_j$ .

then validation succeeds and  $T_j$  can be committed. Otherwise, validation fails and  $T_j$  is aborted.

- *Justification*: Either the first condition is satisfied, and there is no overlapped execution, or the second condition is satisfied and
  - the writes of  $T_j$  do not affect reads of  $T_i$  since they occur after  $T_i$  has finished its reads.
  - the writes of  $T_i$  do not affect reads of  $T_j$  since  $T_j$  does not read any item written by  $T_i$ .



# Schedule Produced by Validation

- Example of schedule produced using validation

$T_{25}$	$T_{26}$
read ( $B$ )	read ( $B$ ) $B := B - 50$ read ( $A$ ) $A := A + 50$
read ( $A$ ) $\langle \text{validate} \rangle$ display ( $A + B$ )	$\langle \text{validate} \rangle$ write ( $B$ ) write ( $A$ )



# Multiversion Schemes

- Multiversion schemes keep old versions of data item to increase concurrency.
  - Multiversion Timestamp Ordering
  - Multiversion Two-Phase Locking
- Each successful **write** results in the creation of a new version of the data item written.
- Use timestamps to label versions.
- When a **read**( $Q$ ) operation is issued, select an appropriate version of  $Q$  based on the timestamp of the transaction, and return the value of the selected version.
- **reads** never have to wait as an appropriate version is returned immediately.



# Multiversion Timestamp Ordering

- Each data item  $Q$  has a sequence of versions  $\langle Q_1, Q_2, \dots, Q_m \rangle$ . Each version  $Q_k$  contains three data fields:
  - **Content** -- the value of version  $Q_k$ .
  - **W-timestamp**( $Q_k$ ) -- timestamp of the transaction that created (wrote) version  $Q_k$
  - **R-timestamp**( $Q_k$ ) -- largest timestamp of a transaction that successfully read version  $Q_k$
- when a transaction  $T_i$  creates a new version  $Q_k$  of  $Q$ ,  $Q_k$ 's W-timestamp and R-timestamp are initialized to  $TS(T_i)$ .
- R-timestamp of  $Q_k$  is updated whenever a transaction  $T_j$  reads  $Q_k$ , and  $TS(T_j) > R\text{-timestamp}(Q_k)$ .



# Multiversion Timestamp Ordering (Cont)

- Suppose that transaction  $T_i$  issues a **read**( $Q$ ) or **write**( $Q$ ) operation. Let  $Q_k$  denote the version of  $Q$  whose write timestamp is the largest write timestamp less than or equal to  $TS(T_i)$ .
  1. If transaction  $T_i$  issues a **read**( $Q$ ), then the value returned is the content of version  $Q_k$ .
  2. If transaction  $T_i$  issues a **write**( $Q$ )
    1. if  $TS(T_i) < R\text{-timestamp}(Q_k)$ , then transaction  $T_i$  is rolled back.
    2. if  $TS(T_i) = W\text{-timestamp}(Q_k)$ , the contents of  $Q_k$  are overwritten
    3. else a new version of  $Q$  is created.
- Observe that
  - Reads always succeed
  - A write by  $T_i$  is rejected if some other transaction  $T_j$  that (in the serialization order defined by the timestamp values) should read  $T_i$ 's write, has already read a version created by a transaction older than  $T_i$ .
- Protocol guarantees serializability



# Multiversion Two-Phase Locking

- Differentiates between read-only transactions and update transactions
- *Update transactions* acquire read and write locks, and hold all locks up to the end of the transaction. That is, update transactions follow rigorous two-phase locking.
  - Each successful **write** results in the creation of a new version of the data item written.
  - each version of a data item has a single timestamp whose value is obtained from a counter **ts-counter** that is incremented during commit processing.
- *Read-only transactions* are assigned a timestamp by reading the current value of **ts-counter** before they start execution; they follow the multiversion timestamp-ordering protocol for performing reads.





# Multiversion Two-Phase Locking (Cont.)

- When an update transaction wants to read a data item:
  - it obtains a shared lock on it, and reads the latest version.
- When it wants to write an item
  - it obtains X lock on; it then creates a new version of the item and sets this version's timestamp to  $\infty$ .
- When update transaction  $T_i$  completes, commit processing occurs:
  - $T_i$  sets timestamp on the versions it has created to **ts-counter** + 1
  - $T_i$  increments **ts-counter** by 1
- Read-only transactions that start after  $T_i$  increments **ts-counter** will see the values updated by  $T_i$ .
- Read-only transactions that start before  $T_i$  increments the **ts-counter** will see the value before the updates by  $T_i$ .
- Only serializable schedules are produced.



# MVCC: Implementation Issues

- Creation of multiple versions increases storage overhead
  - Extra tuples
  - Extra space in each tuple for storing version information
- Versions can, however, be garbage collected
  - E.g. if Q has two versions Q5 and Q9, and the oldest active transaction has timestamp  $> 9$ , then Q5 will never be required again



# Snapshot Isolation

- Motivation: Decision support queries that read large amounts of data have concurrency conflicts with OLTP transactions that update a few rows
  - Poor performance results
- Solution 1: Give logical “snapshot” of database state to read only transactions, read-write transactions use normal locking
  - Multiversion 2-phase locking
  - Works well, but how does system know a transaction is read only?
- Solution 2: Give snapshot of database state to every transaction, updates alone use 2-phase locking to guard against concurrent updates
  - Problem: variety of anomalies such as lost update can result
  - Partial solution: snapshot isolation level (next slide)
    - ▶ Proposed by Berenson et al, SIGMOD 1995
    - ▶ Variants implemented in many database systems
      - E.g. Oracle, PostgreSQL, SQL Server 2005



# Snapshot Isolation

- A transaction T1 executing with Snapshot Isolation
  - takes snapshot of committed data at start
  - always reads/modifies data in its own snapshot
  - updates of concurrent transactions are not visible to T1
  - writes of T1 complete when it commits
  - **First-committer-wins rule:**
    - ▶ Commits only if no other concurrent transaction has already written data that T1 intends to write.

Concurrent updates not visible  
 Own updates are visible  
 Not first-committer of X  
 Serialization error, T2 is rolled back

T1	T2	T3
W(Y := 1) Commit		
	Start R(X) → 0 R(Y) → 1	
		W(X:=2) W(Z:=3) Commit
	R(Z) → 0 R(Y) → 1 W(X:=3) Commit-Req Abort	



# Snapshot Read

- Concurrent updates invisible to snapshot read

$X_0 = 100, Y_0 = 0$

$T_1$ deposits 50 in $Y$	$T_2$ withdraws 50 from $X$
$r_1(X_0, 100)$ $r_1(Y_0, 0)$	
$w_1(Y_1, 50)$ $r_1(X_0, 100)$ (update by $T_2$ not seen) $r_1(Y_1, 50)$ (can see its own updates)	$r_2(Y_0, 0)$ $r_2(X_0, 100)$ $w_2(X_2, 50)$
	$r_2(Y_0, 0)$ (update by $T_1$ not seen)

$X_2 = 50, Y_1 = 50$



# Snapshot Write: First Committer Wins

$X_0 = 100$

$T_1$ deposits 50 in $X$	$T_2$ withdraws 50 from $X$
$r_1(X_0, 100)$	$r_2(X_0, 100)$
$w_1(X_1, 150)$	$w_2(X_2, 50)$
$commit_1$	$commit_2$ (Serialization Error $T_2$ is rolled back)

$X_1 = 150$

- Variant: “**First-updater-wins**”
  - ▶ Check for concurrent updates when write occurs by locking item
    - But lock should be held till all concurrent transactions have finished
  - ▶ (Oracle uses this plus some extra features)
  - ▶ Differs only in when abort occurs, otherwise equivalent



# Benefits of SI

- Reading is *never* blocked,
  - and also doesn't block other txns activities
- Performance similar to Read Committed
- Avoids the usual anomalies
  - No dirty read
  - No lost update
  - No non-repeatable read
  - Predicate based selects are repeatable (no phantoms)
- Problems with SI
  - SI does not always give serializable executions
    - ▶ Serializable: among two concurrent txns, one sees the effects of the other
    - ▶ In SI: neither sees the effects of the other
  - Result: Integrity constraints can be violated



# Snapshot Isolation

- E.g. of problem with SI
  - T1:  $x:=y$
  - T2:  $y:=x$
  - Initially  $x = 3$  and  $y = 17$ 
    - ▶ Serial execution:  $x = ??, y = ??$
    - ▶ if both transactions start at the same time, with snapshot isolation:  $x = ??, y = ??$
- Called **skew write**
- Skew also occurs with inserts
  - E.g:
    - ▶ Find max order number among all orders
    - ▶ Create a new order with order number = previous max + 1





# Snapshot Isolation Anomalies

- SI breaks serializability when txns modify *different* items, each based on a previous state of the item the other modified
  - Not very common in practice
    - ▶ E.g., the TPC-C benchmark runs correctly under SI
    - ▶ when txns conflict due to modifying different data, there is usually also a shared item they both modify too (like a total quantity) so SI will abort one of them
  - But does occur
    - ▶ Application developers should be careful about write skew
- SI can also cause a read-only transaction anomaly, where read-only transaction may see an inconsistent state even if updaters are serializable
  - We omit details
- Using snapshots to verify primary/foreign key integrity can lead to inconsistency
  - Integrity constraint checking usually done outside of snapshot



# SI In Oracle and PostgreSQL

- **Warning:** SI used when isolation level is set to serializable, by Oracle, and PostgreSQL versions prior to 9.1
  - PostgreSQL's implementation of SI (versions prior to 9.1) described in Section 26.4.1.3
  - Oracle implements “first updater wins” rule (variant of “first committer wins”)
    - ▶ concurrent writer check is done at time of write, not at commit time
    - ▶ Allows transactions to be rolled back earlier
    - ▶ Oracle and PostgreSQL < 9.1 do not support true serializable execution
  - PostgreSQL 9.1 introduced new protocol called “Serializable Snapshot Isolation” (SSI)
    - ▶ Which guarantees true serializability including handling predicate reads (coming up)



# SI In Oracle and PostgreSQL

- Can sidestep SI for specific queries by using **select .. for update** in Oracle and PostgreSQL
  - E.g.,
    1. **select max(orderno) from orders for update**
    2. read value into local variable maxorder
    3. insert into orders (maxorder+1, ...)
  - Select for update (SFU) treats all data read by the query as if it were also updated, preventing concurrent updates
  - Does not always ensure serializability since phantom phenomena can occur (coming up)
- In PostgreSQL versions < 9.1, SFU locks the data item, but releases locks when the transaction completes, even if other concurrent transactions are active
  - Not quite same as SFU in Oracle, which keeps locks until all
  - concurrent transactions have completed



# Insert and Delete Operations

- If two-phase locking is used :
  - A **delete** operation may be performed only if the transaction deleting the tuple has an exclusive lock on the tuple to be deleted.
  - A transaction that inserts a new tuple into the database is given an X-mode lock on the tuple
- Insertions and deletions can lead to the **phantom phenomenon**.
  - A transaction that scans a relation
    - ▶ (e.g., find sum of balances of all accounts in Perryridge)and a transaction that inserts a tuple in the relation
    - ▶ (e.g., insert a new account at Perryridge)(conceptually) conflict in spite of not accessing any tuple in common.
  - If only tuple locks are used, non-serializable schedules can result
    - ▶ E.g. the scan transaction does not see the new account, but reads some other tuple written by the update transaction



# Insert and Delete Operations (Cont.)

- The transaction scanning the relation is reading information that indicates what tuples the relation contains, while a transaction inserting a tuple updates the same information.
  - The conflict should be detected, e.g. by locking the information.
- One solution:
  - Associate a data item with the relation, to represent the information about what tuples the relation contains.
  - Transactions scanning the relation acquire a shared lock in the data item,
  - Transactions inserting or deleting a tuple acquire an exclusive lock on the data item. (Note: locks on the data item do not conflict with locks on individual tuples.)
- Above protocol provides very low concurrency for insertions/deletions.
- Index locking protocols provide higher concurrency while preventing the phantom phenomenon, by requiring locks on certain index buckets.



# Index Locking Protocol

- Index locking protocol:
  - Every relation must have at least one index.
  - A transaction can access tuples only after finding them through one or more indices on the relation
  - A transaction  $T_i$  that performs a lookup must lock all the index leaf nodes that it accesses, in S-mode
    - ▶ Even if the leaf node does not contain any tuple satisfying the index lookup (e.g. for a range query, no tuple in a leaf is in the range)
  - A transaction  $T_i$  that inserts, updates or deletes a tuple  $t_i$  in a relation  $r$ 
    - ▶ must update all indices to  $r$
    - ▶ must obtain exclusive locks on all index leaf nodes affected by the insert/update/delete
  - The rules of the two-phase locking protocol must be observed
- Guarantees that phantom phenomenon won't occur



# Next-Key Locking

- Index-locking protocol to prevent phantoms required locking entire leaf
  - Can result in poor concurrency if there are many inserts
- Alternative: for an index lookup
  - Lock all values that satisfy index lookup (match lookup value, or fall in lookup range)
  - Also lock next key value in index
  - Lock mode: S for lookups, X for insert/delete/update
- Ensures that range queries will conflict with inserts/deletes/updates
  - Regardless of which happens first, as long as both are concurrent



# Concurrency in Index Structures

- Indices are unlike other database items in that their only job is to help in accessing data.
- Index-structures are typically accessed very often, much more than other database items.
  - Treating index-structures like other database items, e.g. by 2-phase locking of index nodes can lead to low concurrency.
- There are several index concurrency protocols where locks on internal nodes are released early, and not in a two-phase fashion.
  - It is acceptable to have nonserializable concurrent access to an index as long as the accuracy of the index is maintained.
    - ▶ In particular, the exact values read in an internal node of a B<sup>+</sup>-tree are irrelevant so long as we land up in the correct leaf node.





# Concurrency in Index Structures (Cont.)

- Example of index concurrency protocol:
- Use **crabbing** instead of two-phase locking on the nodes of the B<sup>+</sup>-tree, as follows. During search/insertion/deletion:
  - First lock the root node in shared mode.
  - After locking all required children of a node in shared mode, release the lock on the node.
  - During insertion/deletion, upgrade leaf node locks to exclusive mode.
  - When splitting or coalescing requires changes to a parent, lock the parent in exclusive mode.
- Above protocol can cause excessive deadlocks
  - Searches coming down the tree deadlock with updates going up the tree
  - Can abort and restart search, without affecting transaction
- Better protocols are available; see Section 16.9 for one such protocol, the B-link tree protocol
  - Intuition: release lock on parent before acquiring lock on child
    - ▶ And deal with changes that may have happened between lock release and acquire



# Figure 15.01

	S	X
S	true	false
X	false	false



# Figure 15.04

$T_1$	$T_2$	concurrency-control manager
lock-x ( $B$ )		grant-x ( $B, T_1$ )
read ( $B$ ) $B := B - 50$ write ( $B$ ) unlock ( $B$ )	lock-s ( $A$ )	grant-s ( $A, T_2$ )
	read ( $A$ ) unlock ( $A$ ) lock-s ( $B$ )	grant-s ( $B, T_2$ )
	read ( $B$ ) unlock ( $B$ ) display ( $A + B$ )	
lock-x ( $A$ )		grant-x ( $A, T_2$ )
read ( $A$ ) $A := A + 50$ write ( $A$ ) unlock ( $A$ )		



# Figure 15.07

$T_3$	$T_4$
lock-x ( $B$ )	
read ( $B$ )	
$B := B - 50$	
write ( $B$ )	
	lock-s ( $A$ )
	read ( $A$ )
	lock-s ( $B$ )
lock-x ( $A$ )	



# Figure 15.08

$T_5$	$T_6$	$T_7$
lock-x ( $A$ ) read ( $A$ ) lock-s ( $B$ ) read ( $B$ ) write ( $A$ ) unlock ( $A$ )	lock-x ( $A$ ) read ( $A$ ) write ( $A$ ) unlock ( $A$ )	lock-s ( $A$ ) read ( $A$ )

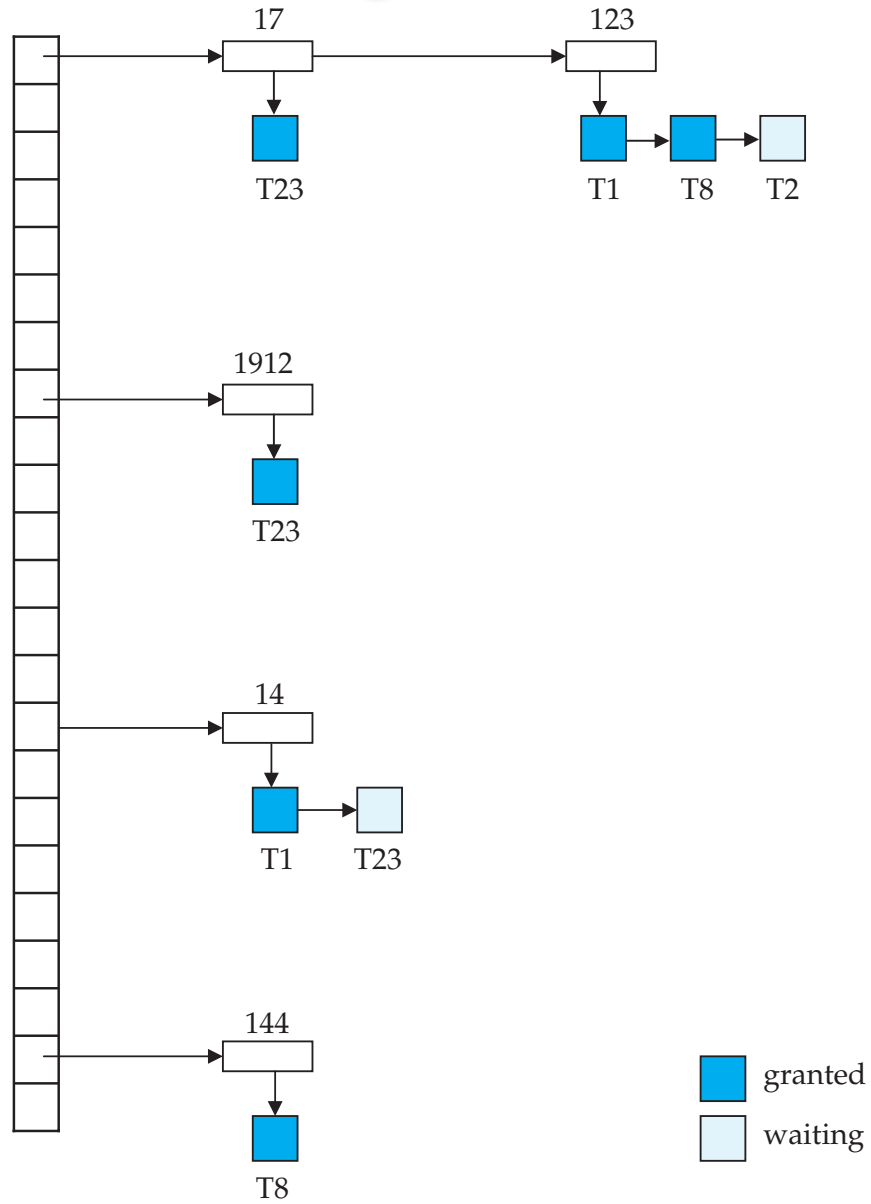


# Figure 15.09

$T_8$	$T_9$
lock-s ( $a_1$ )	lock-s ( $a_1$ )
lock-s ( $a_2$ )	lock-s ( $a_2$ )
lock-s ( $a_3$ )	
lock-s ( $a_4$ )	
	unlock-s ( $a_3$ )
	unlock-s ( $a_4$ )
lock-s ( $a_n$ )	
upgrade ( $a_1$ )	

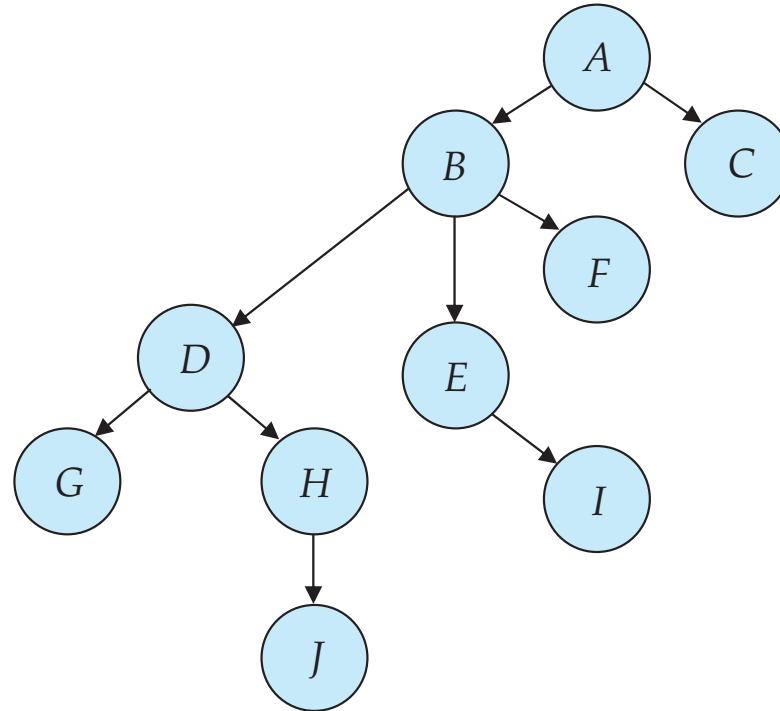


# Figure 15.10





# Figure 15.11





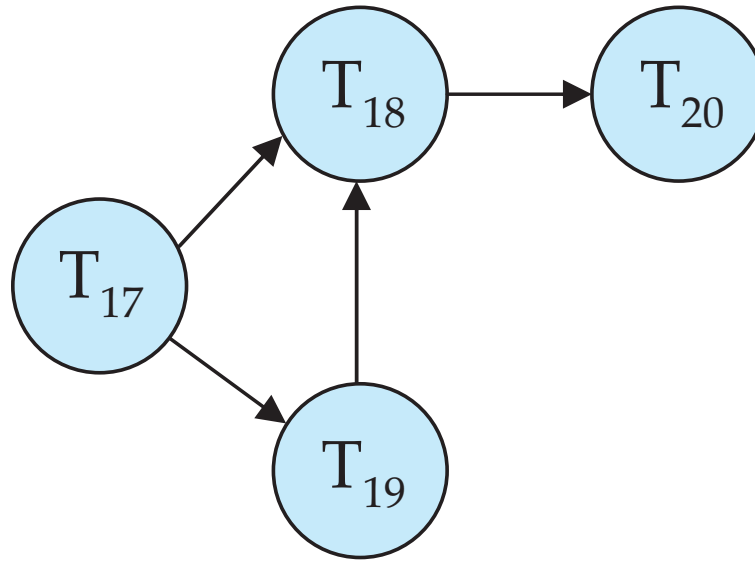


# Figure 15.12

$T_{10}$	$T_{11}$	$T_{12}$	$T_{13}$
lock-x ( <i>B</i> )	lock-x ( <i>D</i> ) lock-x ( <i>H</i> ) unlock ( <i>D</i> )		
lock-x ( <i>E</i> ) lock-x ( <i>D</i> ) unlock ( <i>B</i> ) unlock ( <i>E</i> )		lock-x ( <i>B</i> ) lock-x ( <i>E</i> )	
lock-x ( <i>G</i> ) unlock ( <i>D</i> )	unlock ( <i>H</i> )		lock-x ( <i>D</i> ) lock-x ( <i>H</i> ) unlock ( <i>D</i> ) unlock ( <i>H</i> )
unlock ( <i>G</i> )		unlock ( <i>E</i> ) unlock ( <i>B</i> )	

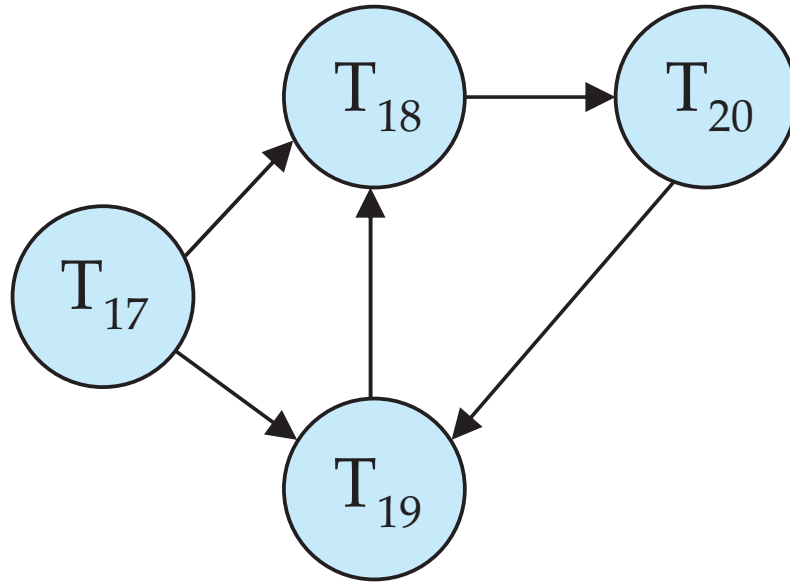


# Figure 15.13



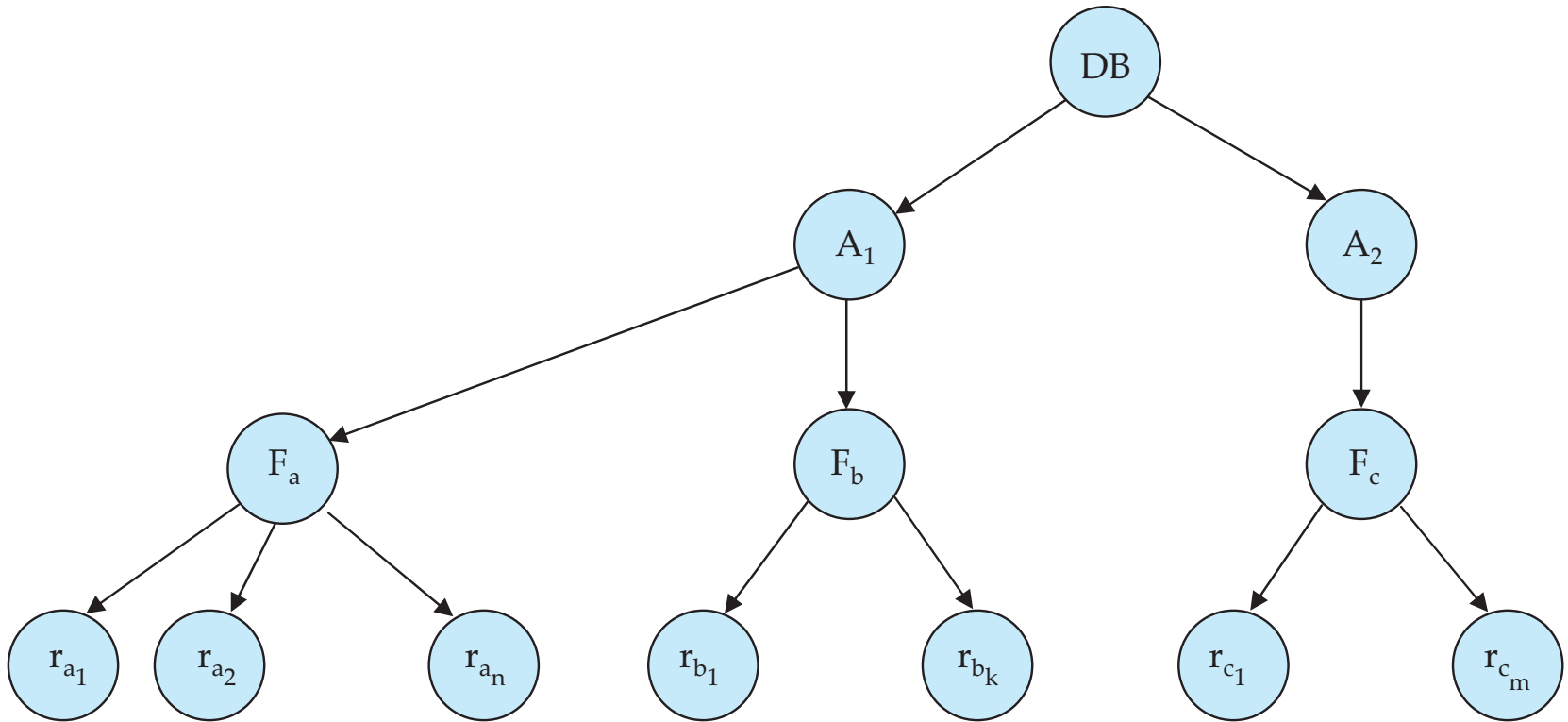


# Figure 15.14





# Figure 15.15





## Figure 15.16

	IS	IX	S	SIX	X
IS	true	true	true	true	false
IX	true	true	false	false	false
S	true	false	true	false	false
SIX	true	false	false	false	false
X	false	false	false	false	false



# Figure 15.17

$T_{25}$	$T_{26}$
read ( $B$ )	read ( $B$ ) $B := B - 50$ write ( $B$ )
read ( $A$ )	read ( $A$ )
display ( $A + B$ )	$A := A + 50$ write ( $A$ ) display ( $A + B$ )



# Figure 15.18

$T_{27}$	$T_{28}$
read ( $Q$ )	write ( $Q$ )
write ( $Q$ )	



# Figure 15.19

$T_{25}$	$T_{26}$
read ( $B$ )	read ( $B$ ) $B := B - 50$ read ( $A$ ) $A := A + 50$
read ( $A$ ) $\langle \text{validate} \rangle$ display ( $A + B$ )	$\langle \text{validate} \rangle$ write ( $B$ ) write ( $A$ )



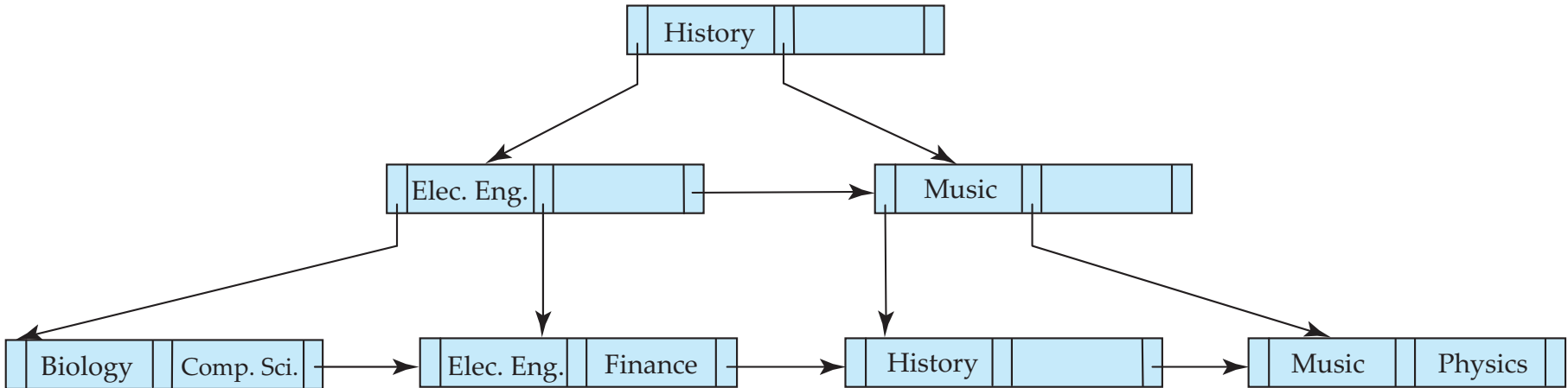


# Figure 15.20

$T_{32}$	$T_{33}$
lock-s ( $Q$ ) read ( $Q$ ) unlock ( $Q$ )	
	lock-x ( $Q$ ) read ( $Q$ ) write ( $Q$ ) unlock ( $Q$ )
lock-s ( $Q$ ) read ( $Q$ ) unlock ( $Q$ )	

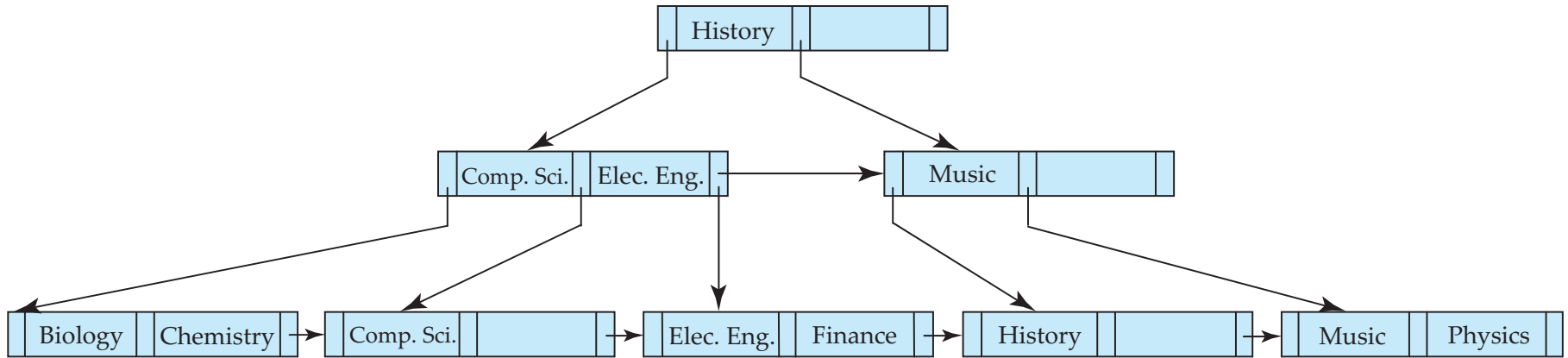


# Figure 15.21





# Figure 15.22





# Figure 15.23

	S	X	I
S	true	false	false
X	false	false	false
I	false	false	true



## Figure in-15.1

$T_{27}$	$T_{28}$	$T_{29}$
read ( $Q$ )	write ( $Q$ )	
write ( $Q$ )		
		write ( $Q$ )