CMSC 461, Database Management Systems
Spring 2018

Lecture 21 – Concurrency Control Part 1

These slides are based on "Database System Concepts" 6th edition book (whereas some quotes and figures are used from the book) and are a modified version of the slides which accompany the book (http://codex.cs.yale.edu/avi/db-book/db6/slide-dir/index.html), in addition to the 2009/2012 CMSC 461 slides by Dr. Kalpakis

Dr. Jennifer Sleeman https://www.csee.umbc.edu/~jsleem1/courses/461/spr18

Logistics

- Homework #5 due 4/20/2018
- Phase 4 due 4/23/2018

Motivation - Transactions

- Isolation fundamental with transactions
- Multiple transactions are allowed to run concurrently in the system
- **Concurrency control schemes** – mechanisms to achieve isolation
- **Schedule** – a sequences of instructions that specify the chronological order in which instructions of concurrent transactions are executed

Motivation - Transactions

Schedule A

T_1	T_2
read (A)	
$A := A - 50$	
write (A)	
read (B)	
$B := B + 50$	
write (B)	
commit	
	read (A)
	$temp := A * 0.1$
	$A := A - temp$
	write (A)
	read (B)
	$B := B + temp$
	write (B)
	commit

Serial Schedule

Schedule B

T_1	T_2
read (A)	
$A := A - 50$	
	read (A)
	$temp := A * 0.1$
	$A := A - temp$
	write (A)
	read (B)
write (A)	
read (B)	
$B := B + 50$	
write (B)	
commit	
	$B := B + temp$
	write (B)
	commit

Non-preserving Concurrent Schedule

Based on and image from "Database System Concepts" book and slides, 6th edition

Motivation - Transactions

- If a schedule S can be transformed into a schedule S´ by a series of swaps of non-conflicting instructions, we say that S and S´ are conflict equivalent.
- We say that a schedule S is conflict serializable if it is conflict equivalent to a serial schedule

Concurrency Control

- A database must provide a mechanism that will ensure that all possible schedules are
  - conflict serializable, and
  - are recoverable and preferably cascadeless
- A policy in which only one transaction can execute at a time generates serial schedules, but provides a poor degree of concurrency
  - Are serial schedules recoverable/cascadeless?

Concurrency Control

- Testing a schedule for serializability *after* it has executed is a little too late!
- **Goal** – to develop concurrency control protocols that will assure serializability.

Lock-Based Protocols

- A lock is a mechanism to control concurrent access to a data item
- Data items can be locked in two modes :
  - *exclusive (X) mode*. Data item can be both read as well as written. X-lock is requested using **lock-X** instruction.
  - *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 can proceed only after request is granted.

Lock-Based Protocols

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

Lock-Based Protocols

- Any number of transactions can hold shared locks on an item,
  - but if any transaction holds an exclusive 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.

	S	X
S	true	false
X	false	false

Lock-Based Protocols

- Example of a transaction performing locking:

  T_2: **lock-S**(*A*);
  read (*A*);
  unlock(*A*);
  lock-S(*B*);
  read (*B*);
  unlock(*B*);
  display(*A*+*B*)

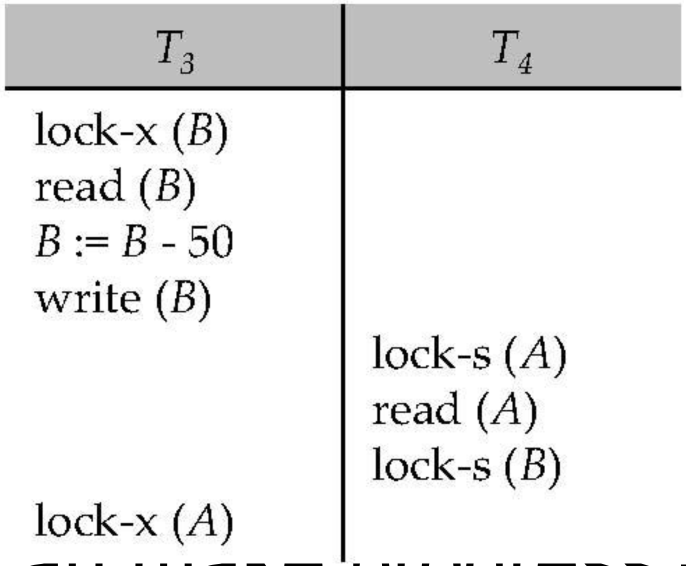
- Locking as above is not sufficient to guarantee serializability — if *A* and *B* get updated in-between the read of *A* and *B*, the displayed sum would be wrong.

Lock-Based Protocols

- 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:



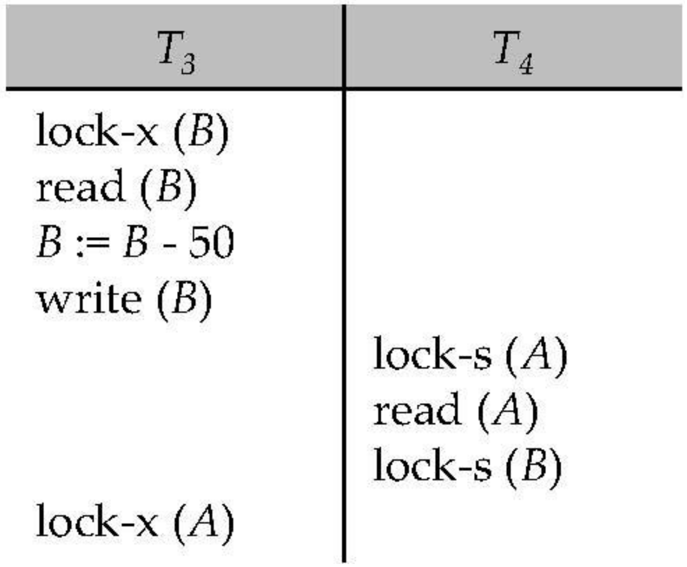
T_3	T_4
lock-x (B)	
read (B)	
$B := B - 50$	
write (B)	
	lock-s (A)
	read (A)
	lock-s (B)
lock-x (A)	

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*.

Pitfalls of Lock-Based Protocols

- 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.

The potential for deadlock exists in most locking protocols. Deadlocks are a necessary evil.



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)	

Based on and image from "Database System Concepts" book and slides, 6th edition

Pitfalls of Lock-Based Protocols

- **Starvation** is also possible if 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 manager 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 ensures 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

- 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**. Here a transaction must hold all its exclusive locks till it commits/aborts.
- **Rigorous two-phase locking** 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

- 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 ensures 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

- **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

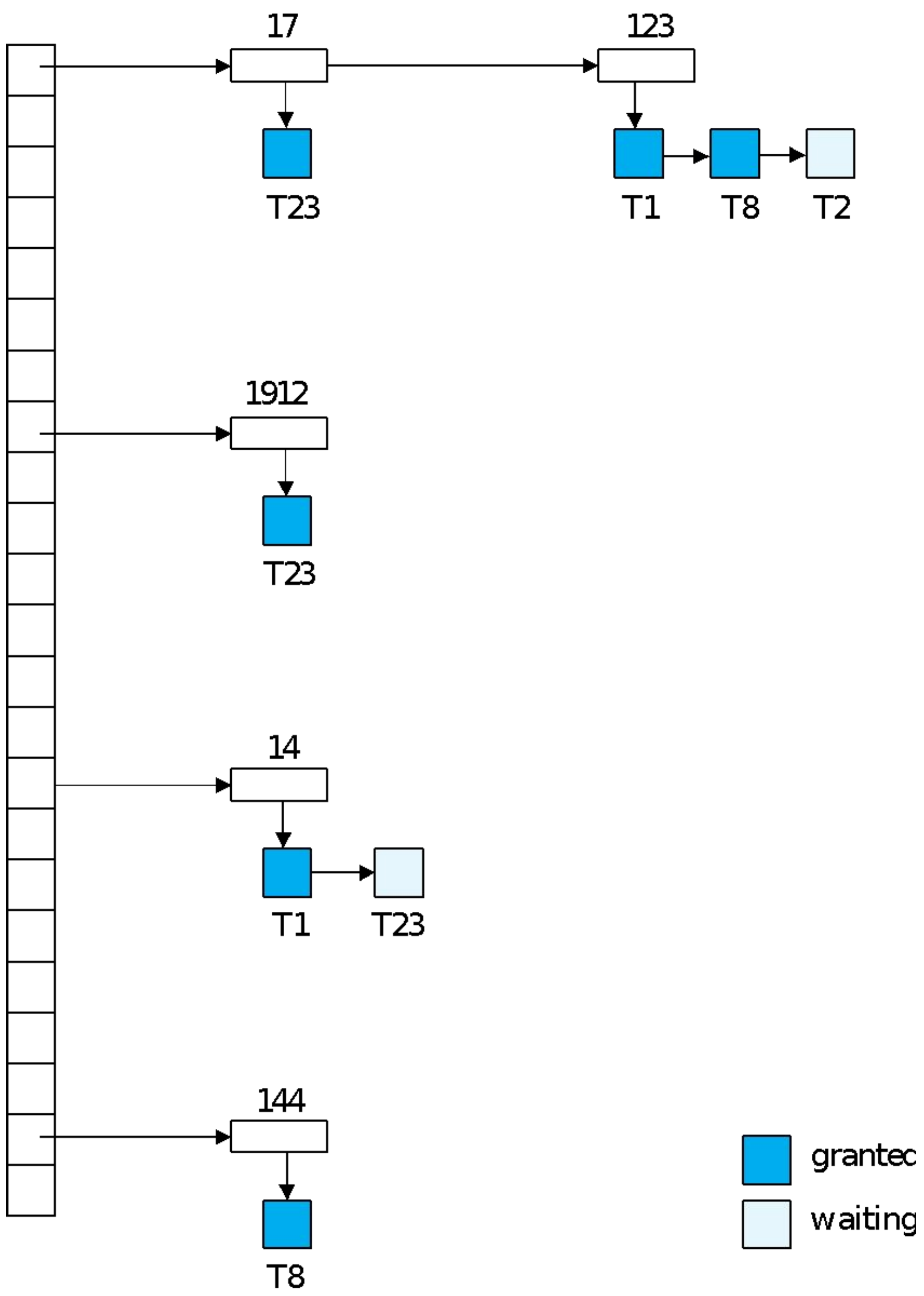
Implementation of Locking

- 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

Implementation of Locking

- 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



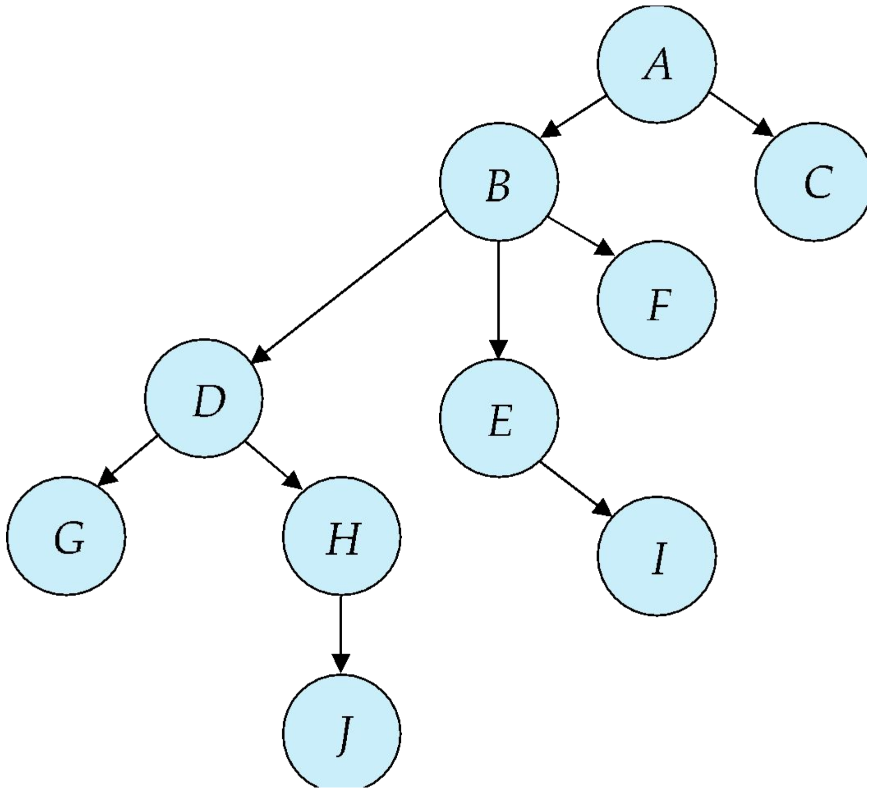
- Black rectangles indicate granted locks, white ones indicate waiting requests
- Lock table also records the type of lock granted or requested
- New request is added to the end of the queue of requests for the data item, and granted if it is compatible with all earlier locks
- Unlock requests result 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

Graph-Based Protocols

- Graph-based protocols are an alternative to two-phase locking
- Impose a partial ordering $\rightarrow$ on the set **D** = $\{d_1, d_2, \ldots, d_h\}$ of all data items.
  - If $d_i \rightarrow d_j$ then any transaction accessing both d_i and d_j must access d_i before accessing d_j.
  - Implies that the set **D** may now be viewed as a directed acyclic graph, called a *database graph*.
- The *tree-protocol* is a simple kind of graph protocol.

Tree Protocol

1. Only exclusive locks are allowed.
2. The first lock by T_i may be on any data item. Subsequently, a data Q can be locked by T_i only if the parent of Q is currently locked by T_i.
3. Data items may be unlocked at any time.
4. A data item that has been locked and unlocked by T_i cannot subsequently be relocked by T_i



Graph-Based Protocols

- The tree protocol ensures conflict serializability as well as freedom from deadlock.
- Unlocking may occur earlier in the tree-locking protocol than in the two-phase locking protocol.
  - shorter waiting times, and increase in concurrency
  - protocol is deadlock-free, no rollbacks are required

Graph-Based Protocols

- Drawbacks
  - Protocol does not guarantee recoverability or cascade freedom
    - Need to introduce commit dependencies to ensure recoverability
  - Transactions may have to lock data items that they do not access.
    - increased locking overhead, and additional waiting time
    - potential decrease in concurrency
- Schedules not possible under two-phase locking are possible under tree protocol, and vice versa.

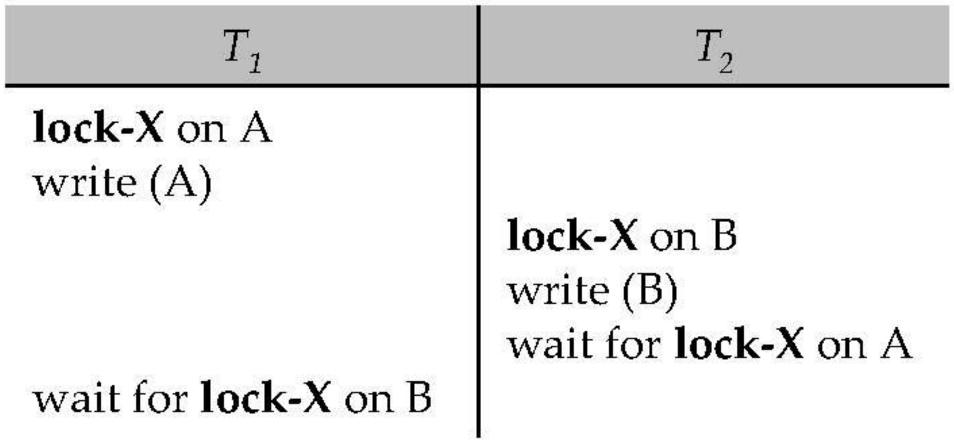
Deadlock Handling

- Consider the following two transactions:

  T_1: write(X) write(Y)

  T_2: write(Y) write(X)

- Schedule with deadlock



T_1	T_2
lock-X on A	
write (A)	
	lock-X on B
	write (B)
	wait for **lock-X** on A
wait for **lock-X** 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).
  - 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.
- **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.

More Deadlock Prevention Strategies

- 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.

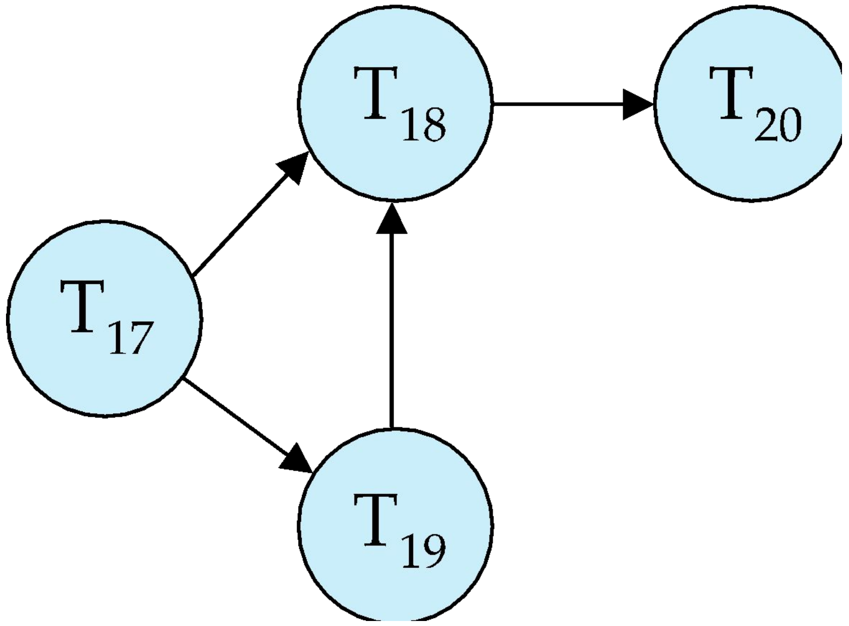
Deadlock Detection

- 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.

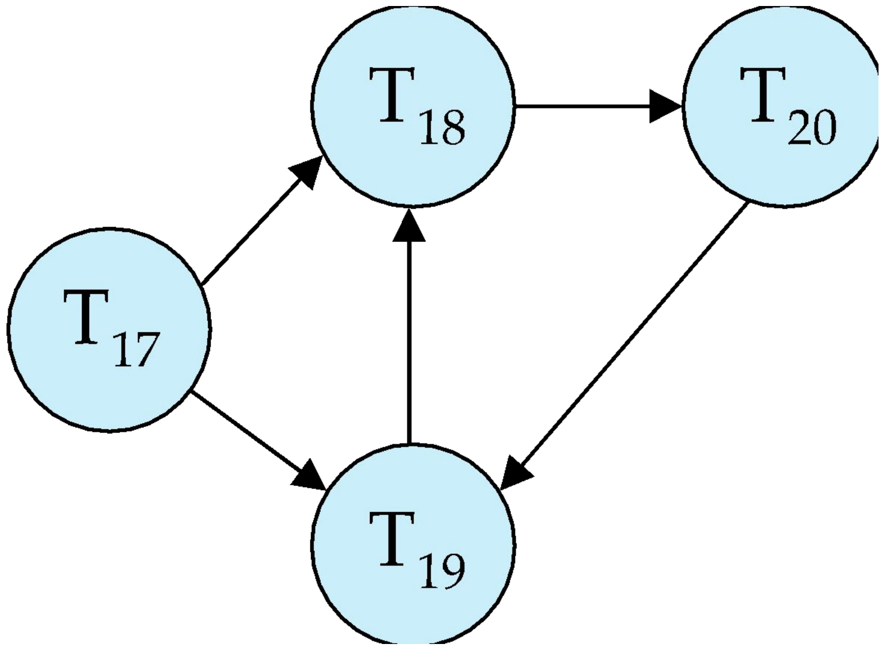
Deadlock Detection

- When T_i requests a data item currently being held by T_j, then the edge T_i 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


$$\begin{tikzcd} & T_{18} \arrow[r] & T_{20} \\ T_{17} \arrow[ur] \arrow[dr] & & \\ & T_{19} \arrow[uu] & \end{tikzcd}$$

Wait-for graph without a cycle


$$\begin{tikzcd} & T_{18} \arrow[r] & T_{20} \arrow[dl] \\ T_{17} \arrow[ur] \arrow[dr] & & \\ & T_{19} \arrow[uu] & \end{tikzcd}$$

Wait-for graph with a cycle

Based on and image from "Database System Concepts" book and slides, 6th edition

Deadlock Recovery

- When a 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

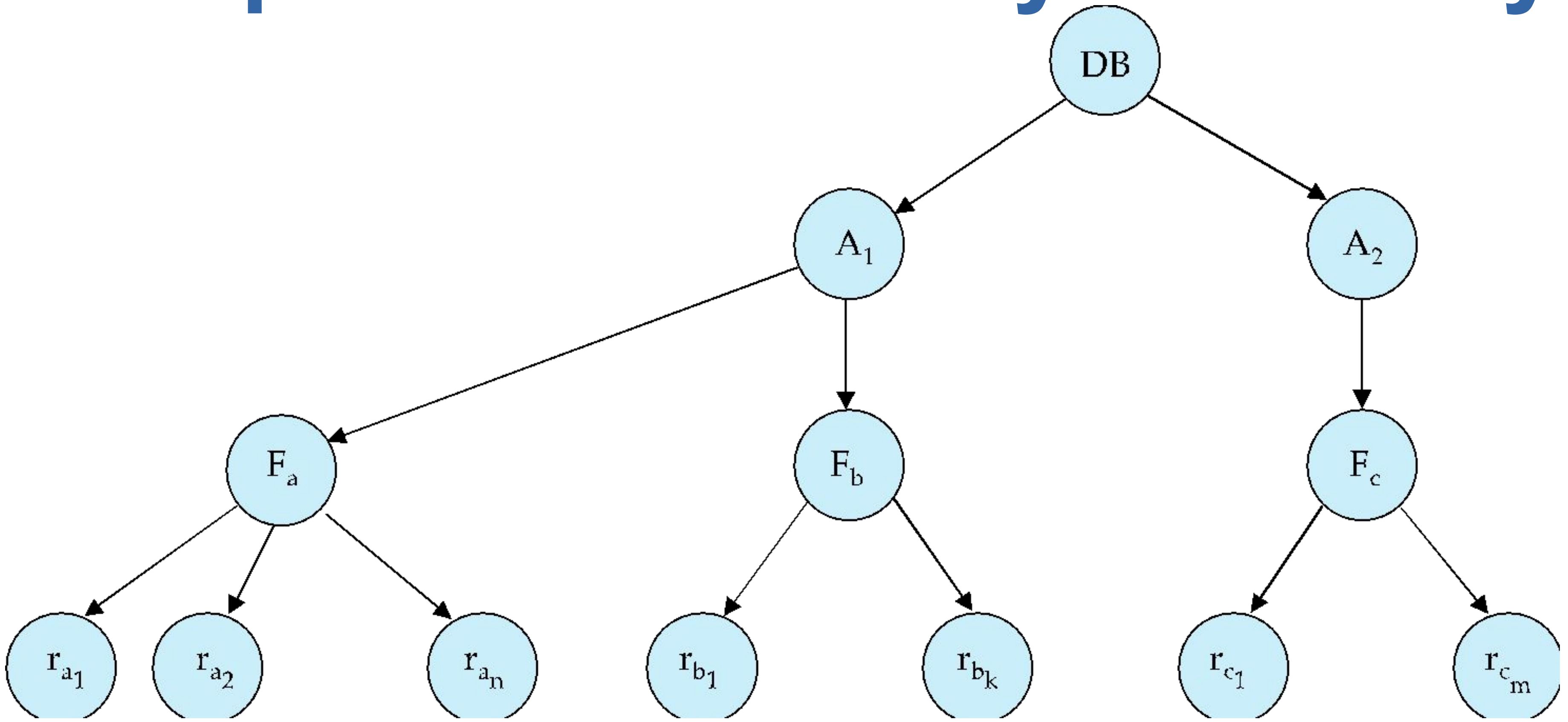
Multiple Granularity

- 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)

Multiple Granularity

- 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


$$\begin{tikzcd}[column sep=small] & & & & & DB \arrow[dl] \arrow[dr] & \\ & & & & A_1 \arrow[dlll] \arrow[d] & & A_2 \arrow[d] \\ & F_a \arrow[dl] \arrow[d] \arrow[dr] & & & F_b \arrow[dl] \arrow[dr] & & F_c \arrow[dl] \arrow[dr] \\ r_{a_1} & r_{a_2} & r_{a_n} & r_{b_1} & & r_{b_k} \quad r_{c_1} & & r_{c_m} \end{tikzcd}$$

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

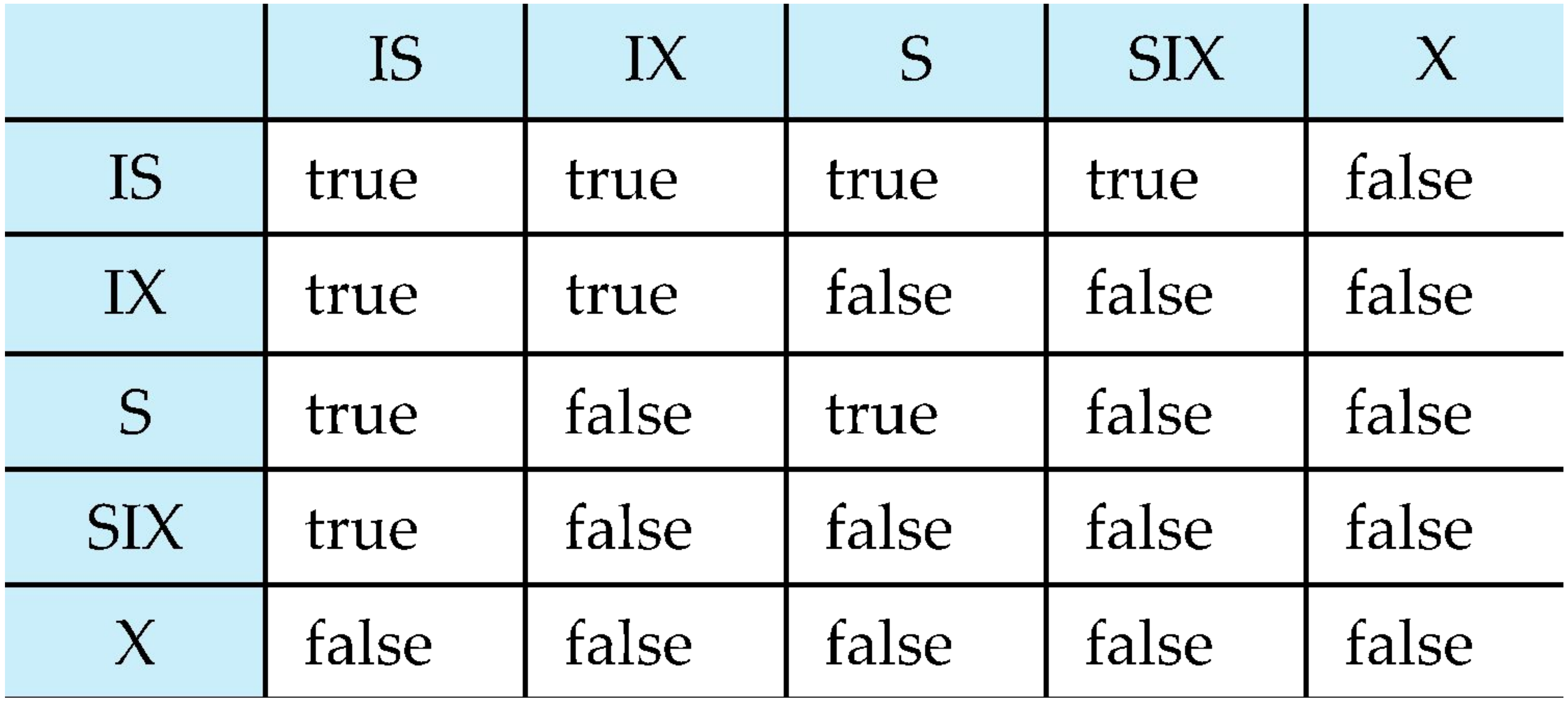
- *database*
- *area*
- *file*
- *record*

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 descendant 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.

Multiple Granularity Locking Scheme

- 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