Transactions & Concurrency Control II

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Transaction Implementations



- Many available!
 - Targets different workloads
- We will focus on lock-based implementations
 - Others: use multiple versions of data and "optimistically" let transactions move forward
 - Abort when conflicts are detected
 - Some names to know/look up:
 - Optimistic Concurrency Control
 - Timestamp-Ordered Multiversion Concurrency Control
 - We will not study these schemes in this lecture

"Lock" data??

- Not by any crypto or hardware enforcement
 - There are no adversaries here ... this is all within the DBMS
- Recall locks / semaphores from 61c
 - These are synchronization primitives
 - Locking / unlocking has costs
- We lock by simple convention within the DBMS:
 - Each data element has a unique lock
 - Each transaction must first acquire the lock before reading/writing that element
 - If the lock is taken by another transaction, then wait
 - The transaction must release the lock(s) at some point
- Different *lock protocols / schemes* differ by:
 - When to lock / unlock each data element
 - What data element to lock
 - What happens when a txn waits for a lock



What are "data elements"?

Major differences between vendors:

- Lock on the entire database
 - SQLite
- Lock on individual records
 - SQL Server, DB2, etc
- Will see tradeoffs later on



Actions on Locks



 $Lock_i(A) / L_i(A) = transaction T_i acquires lock for element A$

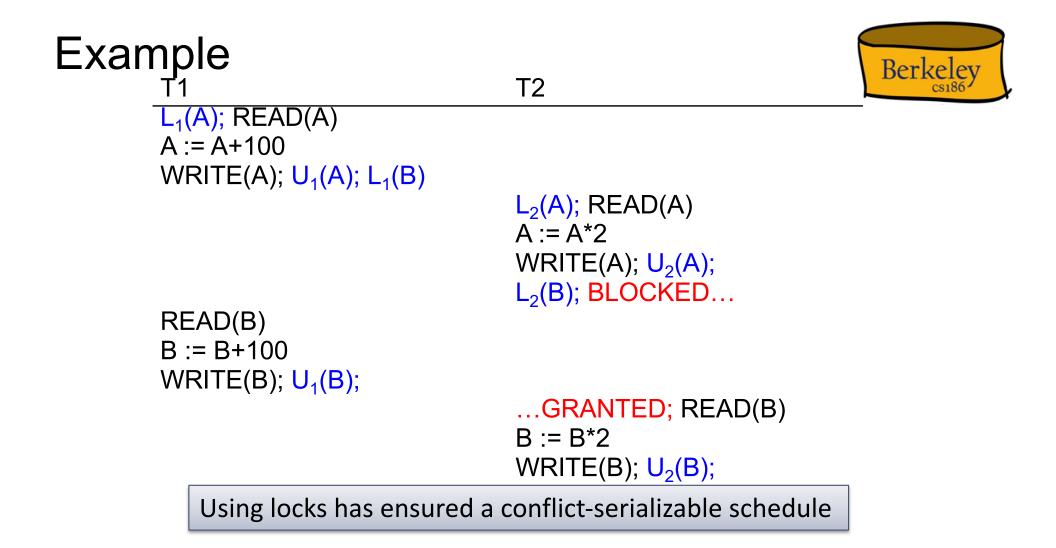
 $Unlock_i(A) / U_i(A) = transaction T_i$ releases lock for element A

Let's see this in action...

A Non-Serializable Schedule

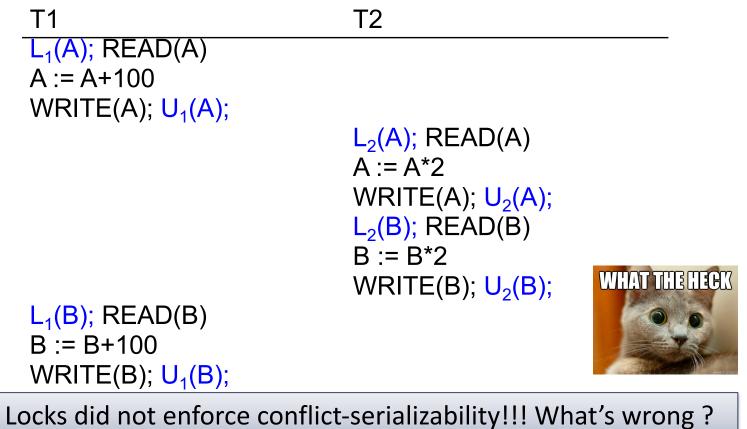


T1	T2
READ(A)	
A := A+100	
WRITE(A)	
	READ(A)
	A := A*2
	WRITE(A)
	READ(B)
	B := B*2
	WRITE(B)
READ(B)	
B := B+100	
WRITE(B)	



But...







The 2PL rule:

In every transaction, all lock requests must precede all unlock requests

Example: 2PL transactions



T2 T1 L₁(A); L₁(B); READ(A) A := A+100 WRITE(A); U₁(A) $L_2(A)$; READ(A) A := A*2 WRITE(A); L₂(B); BLOCKED... READ(B) B := B+100 WRITE(B); U₁(B); ...GRANTED; READ(B) B := B*2 Now it is conflict-serializable WRITE(B); $U_2(A)$; $U_2(B)$;

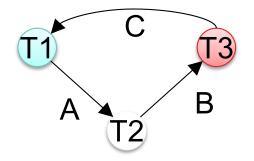


Theorem: 2PL ensures conflict serializability



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Proof. Suppose not: then there exists a cycle in the dependence graph.

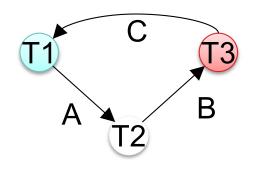




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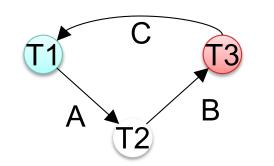
Then there is the following <u>temporal</u> cycle in the schedule:





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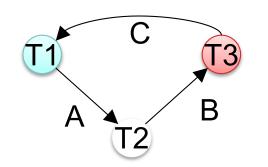


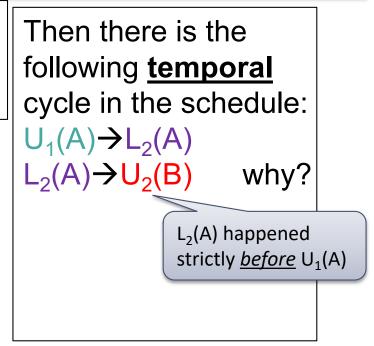
Then there is the following <u>temporal</u> cycle in the schedule: $U_1(A) \rightarrow L_2(A)$ why? $U_1(A)$ happened strictly <u>before</u> $L_2(A)$



Theorem: 2PL ensures conflict serializability

Proof. Suppose not: then there exists a cycle in the dependence graph.

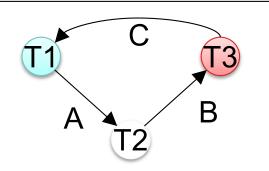






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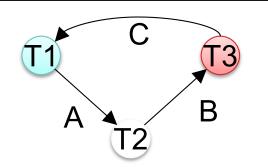


Then there is the following <u>temporal</u> cycle in the schedule: $U_1(A) \rightarrow L_2(A)$ $L_2(A) \rightarrow U_2(B)$ $U_2(B) \rightarrow L_3(B)$ why?



Theorem: 2PL ensures conflict serializability

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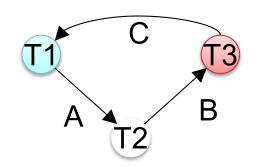


Then there is the following <u>temporal</u> cycle in the schedule: $U_1(A) \rightarrow L_2(A)$ $L_2(A) \rightarrow U_2(B)$ $U_2(B) \rightarrow L_3(B)$etc.....



Theorem: 2PL ensures conflict serializability

Proof. Suppose not: then there exists a cycle in the dependence graph.



Then there is the following <u>temporal</u> cycle in the schedule: $U_1(A) \rightarrow L_2(A)$ $L_2(A) \rightarrow U_2(B)$ $U_2(B) \rightarrow L_3(B)$ $L_3(B) \rightarrow U_3(C)$ $U_3(C) \rightarrow L_1(C)$ $L_1(C) \rightarrow U_1(A)$ Cycle in time: Contradiction



T1	T2	
L ₁ (A); L ₁ (B); READ(A)		
A :=A+100		
WRITE(A); U ₁ (A)		
	L ₂ (A); READ(A)	
	A := A*2	
	WRITE(A);	
	L ₂ (B); BLOCKE	D
READ(B)		
B :=B+100		
WRITE(B); U ₁ (B);		
	GRANTED; R	EAD(B)
	B := B*2	
	WRITE(B); U ₂ (A	.); U ₂ (B);
	Commit	
Rollback		Aka cascading aborts

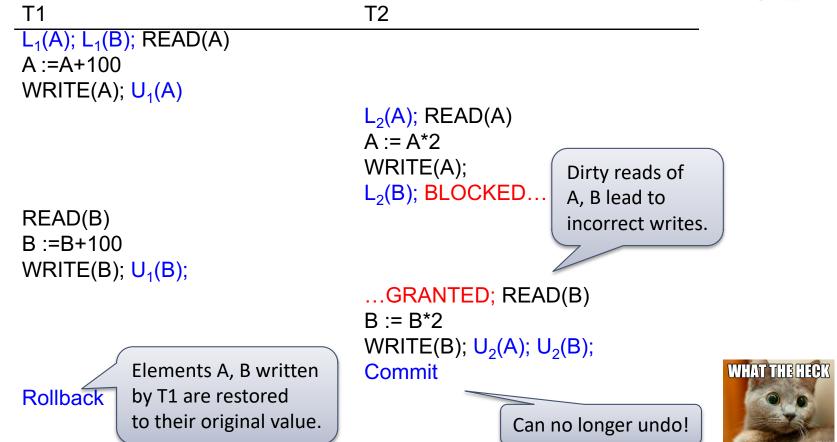


T1	T2
L ₁ (A); L ₁ (B); READ(A)	
A :=A+100	
WRITE(A); U ₁ (A)	
	$L_{2}(A)$; READ(A)
	A := A*2
	WRITE(A);
	L ₂ (B); BLOCKED
READ(B)	
B :=B+100	
WRITE(B); $U_1(B)$;	
$\mathbf{V}(\mathbf{T} \mathbf{L}(\mathbf{D}), \mathbf{U}_1(\mathbf{D}),$	GRANTED; READ(B)
	$B := B^{*}2$
	WRITE(B); U ₂ (A); U ₂ (B);
Elements A, B written	Commit
Rollback by T1 are restored	
to their original value.	



T1	T2
L ₁ (A); L ₁ (B); READ(A) A :=A+100	
WRITE(A); $U_1(A)$	
	$L_2(A)$; READ(A) A := A*2 WRITE(A); Dirty reads of
READ(B) B :=B+100	WRITE(A); L ₂ (B); BLOCKED Dirty reads of A, B lead to incorrect writes.
WRITE(B); U ₁ (B);	
	GRANTED; READ(B)
	B := B*2
Elements A, B written Rollback by T1 are restored	WRITE(B); U ₂ (A); U ₂ (B); Commit
to their original value.	





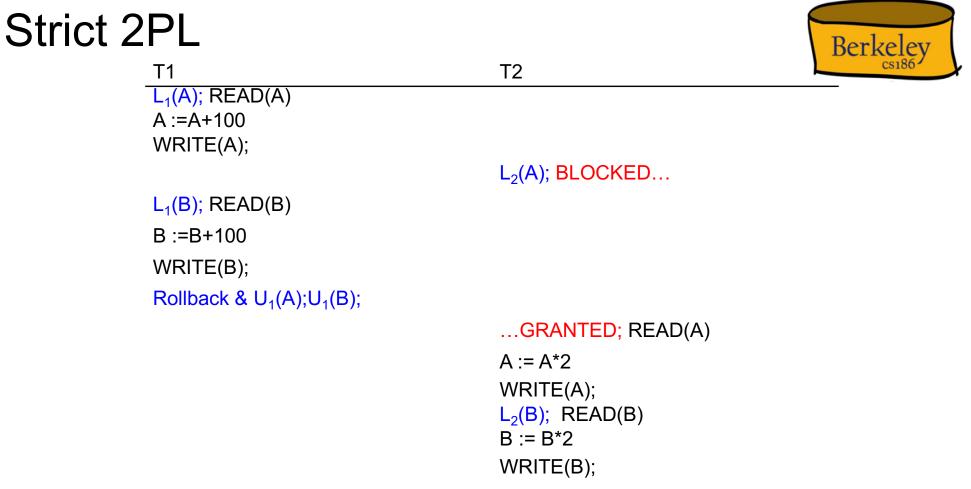
Strict 2PL



The Strict 2PL rule:

All locks are held until commit/abort: All unlocks are done together with commit/abort.

With strict 2PL, we will get schedules that are both conflict-serializable and recoverable



Commit & U₂(A); U₂(B);

Strict 2PL

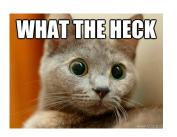


- Lock-based systems always use strict 2PL
- Easy to implement:
 - Before a transaction reads or writes an element A, insert an L(A)
 - When the transaction commits/aborts, then release all locks
- Ensures both conflict serializability and recoverability

Another problem: Deadlocks

- T₁: R(A), W(B)
- T₂: R(B), W(A)
- T₁ holds the lock on A, waits for B
- T₂ holds the lock on B, waits for A

This is a deadlock!





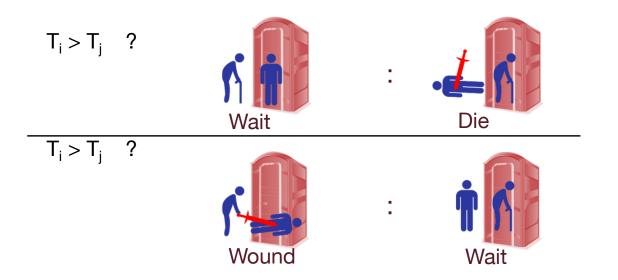
Deadlock Prevention



- Common technique in operating systems
- Standard approach: resource ordering
 - Screen < Network Card < Printer
- Why is this problematic for transactions?
 - What order would you impose?

Deadlock Avoidance

- Assign priorities based on age: (now start_time).
- Say T_i wants a lock that T_i holds. Two possible policies:
 - Wait-Die: If T_i has higher priority, T_i waits for T_j; else T_i aborts
 - Wound-Wait: If T_i has higher priority, T_j aborts; else T_i waits
 - Read each of these like a ternary operator (C/C++/java/javascript)

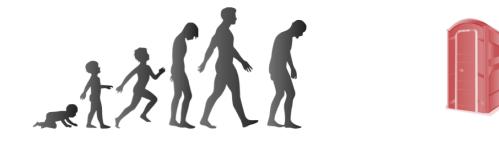




Deadlock Avoidance: Analysis



- Q: Why do these schemes guarantee no deadlocks?
 - Q: What do the previous images have in common?
- Important Detail: If a transaction re-starts, make sure it gets its original timestamp. Why?
- Note: other priority schemes make sense
 - E.g. measures of resource consumption, like #locks acquired



Deadlock Detection

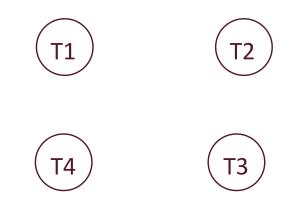


- Create and maintain a "waits-for" graph
- Periodically check for cycles in a graph

Deadlock Detection, Part 2 Example:



T4:





Deadlock Detection, Part 3 Example:

T1: R(A) T2: T3: T4:





Deadlock Detection, Part 4 Example:

T1: R(A) R(D) T2: T3: T4:





Deadlock Detection, Part 5 Example:

T1: R(A) R(D) T2: W(B) T3: T4:

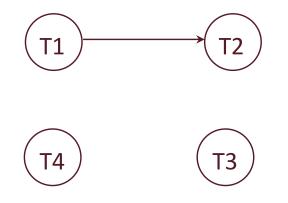




Deadlock Detection, Part 6 Example:

T1: R(A) R(D) R(B) T2: W(B) T3: T4:

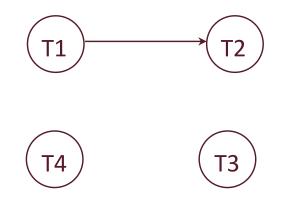




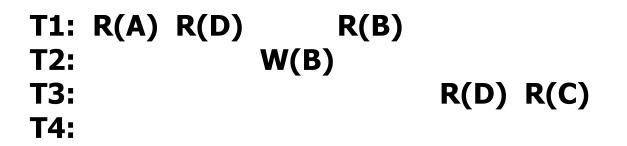
Deadlock Detection, Part 7 Example:



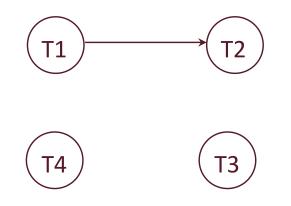




Deadlock Detection, Part 8 Example:







Deadlock Detection, Part 9 Example:

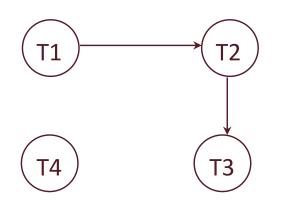


 T1: R(A) R(D)
 R(B)

 T2:
 W(B)
 W(C)

 T3:
 R(D) R(C)

 T4:
 W(D)
 W(C)



Deadlock Detection, Part 10 Example:

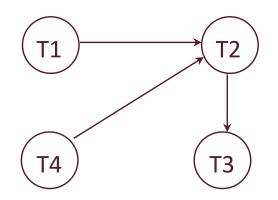


 T1: R(A) R(D)
 R(B)

 T2:
 W(B)
 W(C)

 T3:
 R(D) R(C)
 W(B)

 T4:
 W(B)
 W(B)





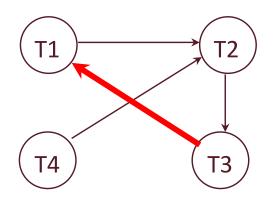


 T1: R(A) R(D)
 R(B)

 T2:
 W(B)
 W(C)

 T3:
 R(D) R(C)
 W(A)

 T4:
 W(B)



Deadlock!



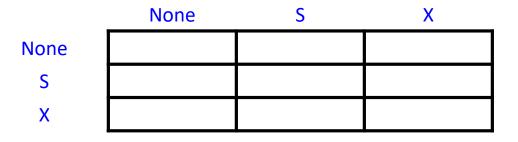
- T1, T2, T3 are deadlocked
 - Doing no good, and holding locks
- T4 still cruising
- In the background, run a deadlock detection algorithm
 - Periodically extract the waits-for graph
 - Find cycles
 - "Shoot" a transaction on the cycle
- Empirical fact
 - Most deadlock cycles are small (2-3 transactions)

Lock Modes



- **S** = shared lock (for READ)
- X = exclusive lock (for WRITE)
- Cannot get new locks after releasing any locks (strict 2PL)

Lock compatibility matrix:



Lock Modes



- **S** = shared lock (for READ)
- X = exclusive lock (for WRITE)
- Cannot get new locks after releasing any locks (strict 2PL)

Lock compatibility matrix:

	None	S	Х
None	~	~	v
S	 ✓ 	~	*
X	v	*	*

Lock Management

- Lock and unlock requests handled by Lock Manager
- LM maintains a hashtable, keyed on names of objects being locked.
- LM keeps an entry for each currently held lock
- Entry contains
 - Granted set: Set of txns currently granted access to the lock
 - Lock mode: Type of lock held (shared or exclusive)
 - Wait Queue: Queue of lock requests

	Granted Set	Mode	Wait Queue
А	{T1, T2}	S	T3(X) ← T4(X)
В	{T6}	Х	T5(X) ← T7(S)



Lock Management (continued)



• When lock request arrives:

- Does any txn in Granted Set or Wait Queue want a conflicting lock?
 - · If no, put the requester into "granted set" and let them proceed
 - If yes, put requester into wait queue (typically FIFO)

Lock upgrade:

• Txn with shared lock can request to upgrade to exclusive

	Granted Set	Mode	Wait Queue
А	{T1, T2}	S	T3(X) ← T4(X)
В	{T6}	Х	T5(X) ← T7(S)

Lock Granularity

- Fine granularity locking (e.g., tuples)
 - High concurrency
 - High overhead in managing locks
 - E.g., SQL Server
- Coarse grain locking (e.g., tables, entire database)
 - Many false conflicts
 - Less overhead in managing locks
 - E.g., SQL Lite
- Solution: lock escalation changes granularity as needed



Lock Granularity, cont

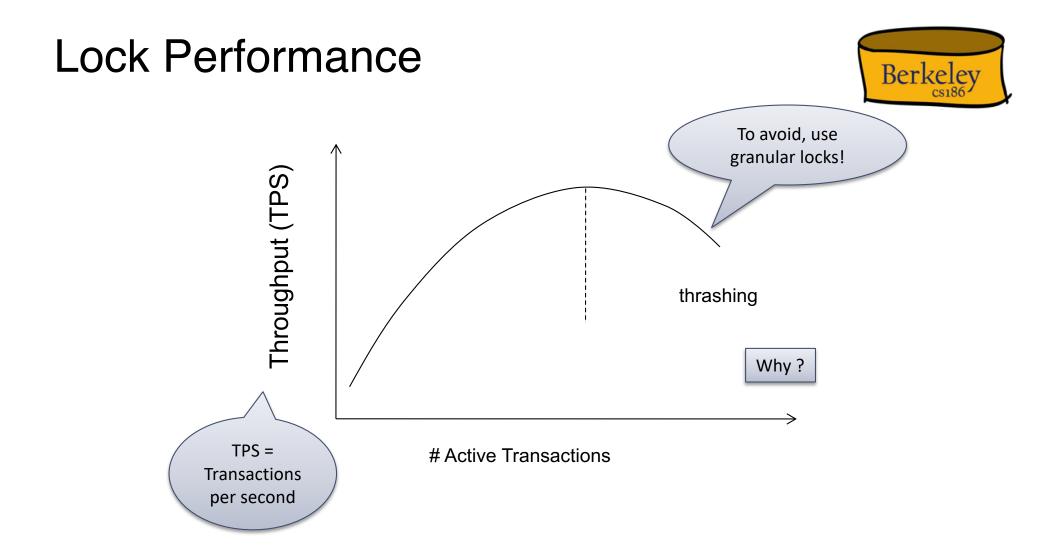


- Hard to decide what granularity to lock
 - Tuples vs Pages vs Tables?
- What is the tradeoff?
 - Fine-grained availability of resources would be nice (e.g. lock per tuple)
 - Small # of locks to manage would also be nice (e.g. lock per table)
 - Can't have both!
 - Or can we???

Multiple Locking Granularity

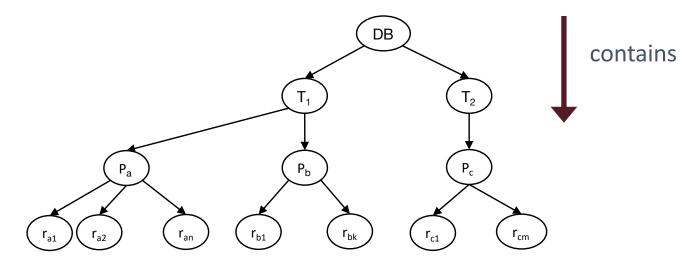


- Shouldn't have to make same decision for all transactions!
- Allow data items to be of various sizes
- Define a hierarchy of data granularities, small nested within large
 - Can be represented graphically as a tree.



Example of Granularity Hierarchy

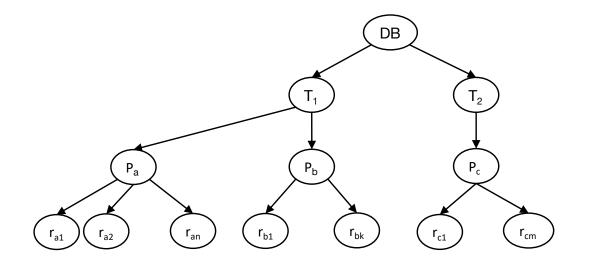
- Data "containers" can be viewed as nested.
- The levels, starting from the coarsest (top) level are
 - Database, Tables, Pages, Records
- When a transaction locks a node in the tree *explicitly*, it *implicitly* locks all the node's descendants in the same mode.





Multiple Locking Granularity

- Granularity of locking (level in tree where locking is done):
 - Fine granularity (lower in tree): High concurrency, lots of locks (overhead)
 - Coarse granularity (higher in tree): Few locks (low overhead), lost concurrency
 - Lost potential concurrency if you don't need everything inside the coarse grain





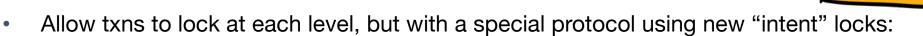
Real-World Locking Granularities

Resource	Description
RID	A row identifier used to lock a single row within a heap.
KEY	A row lock within an index used to protect key ranges in serializable transactions.
PAGE	An 8-kilobyte (KB) page in a database, such as data or index pages.
EXTENT	A contiguous group of eight pages, such as data or index pages.
HoBT	A heap or B-tree. A lock protecting a B-tree (index) or the heap data pages in a table that does not have a clustered index.
TABLE	The entire table, including all data and indexes.
FILE	A database file.
APPLICATION	An application-specified resource.
METADATA	Metadata locks.
ALLOCATION_UNIT	An allocation unit.
DATABASE	The entire database.



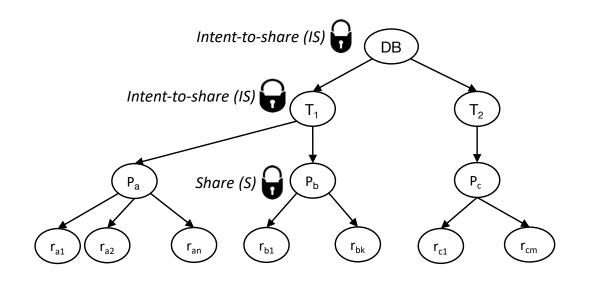
From MS SQL Server https://technet.microsoft.com/enus/library/jj856598(v=sql.110).aspx

New Lock Modes and Protocol



Berkeley

• Before getting S or X lock, txn must have proper intent locks on all its ancestors in the granularity hierarchy.



New Lock Modes – Intention Lock Modes

Berkelev

- 3 additional lock modes:
 - **IS:** Intent to get S lock(s) at finer granularity.
 - **IX:** Intent to get X lock(s) at finer granularity.
 - SIX: Like S & IX at the same time. Why useful?
- Intention locks allow a higher level node to be locked in S or X mode without having to check all descendent nodes

Page P	Tuple t1	
	Tuple t2	

Multiple Granularity Locking Protocol

- Each txn starts from the root of the hierarchy.
- To get S or IS lock on a node, must hold IS or IX on parent node.
- To get X or IX or SIX on a node, must hold IX or SIX on parent node.
- Must release locks in bottom-up order.
- Enforce (strict) 2-phase locking as before
- Protocol is correct in that it is equivalent to directly setting locks at leaf levels of the hierarchy.
- What does the lock compatibility matrix look like?



Tables

Pages

Tuples

Lock Compatibility Matrix

- IS Intent to get S lock(s) at finer granularity.
- IX Intent to get X lock(s) at finer granularity.
- SIX mode: Like S & IX at the same time.

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





Handy simple case to remember: Could 2 intent locks be compatible?

Page P	Tuple t1	S	IS
	Tuple t2	Х	IX

Lock Compatibility Matrix, Cont

- IS Intent to get S lock(s) at finer granularity.
- IX Intent to get X lock(s) at finer granularity.
- SIX mode: Like S & IX at the same time.

	IS	IX	S	SIX	Х
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

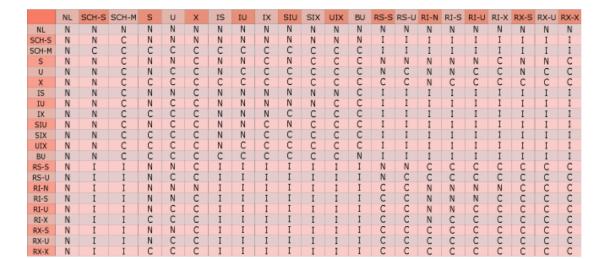




Handy simple case to remember: Could 2 intent locks be compatible?

Page P	Tuple t1	S	IS
	Tuple t2	Х	IX

Real-World Lock Compatibility Matrix





Key

N	No Conflict	SIU	Share with Intent Update
I	Illegal	SIX	Shared with Intent Exclusive
С	Conflict	UIX	Update with Intent Exclusive
		BU	Bulk Update
NL	No Lock	RS-S	Shared Range-Shared
SCH-S	Schema Stability Locks	RS-U	Shared Range-Update
SCH-M	Schema Modification Locks	RI-N	Insert Range-Null
S	Shared	RI-S	Insert Range-Shared
U	Update	RI-U	Insert Range-Update
Х	Exclusive	RI-X	Insert Range-Exclusive
IS	Intent Shared	RX-S	Exclusive Range-Shared
IU	Intent Update	RX-U	Exclusive Range-Update
IX	Intent Exclusive	RX-X	Exclusive Range-Exclusive

From MS SQL Server

https://technet.microsoft.com/enus/library/jj856598(v=sql.110).aspx **Phantom Problem**



- So far we have assumed the database to be a *static* collection of elements (=tuples)
- If tuples are inserted/deleted then the *phantom problem* appears

Suppose there are two blue products, A1, A2:

T2

Phantom Problem



T1 SELECT * FROM Product WHERE color='blue'

> INSERT INTO Product(name, color) VALUES ('A3','blue')

SELECT * FROM Product WHERE color='blue'

Is this schedule serializable ?

Suppose there are two blue products, A1, A2:

T2

Phantom Problem



T1 SELECT * FROM Product WHERE color='blue'

> INSERT INTO Product(name, color) VALUES ('A3','blue')

SELECT * FROM Product WHERE color='blue'

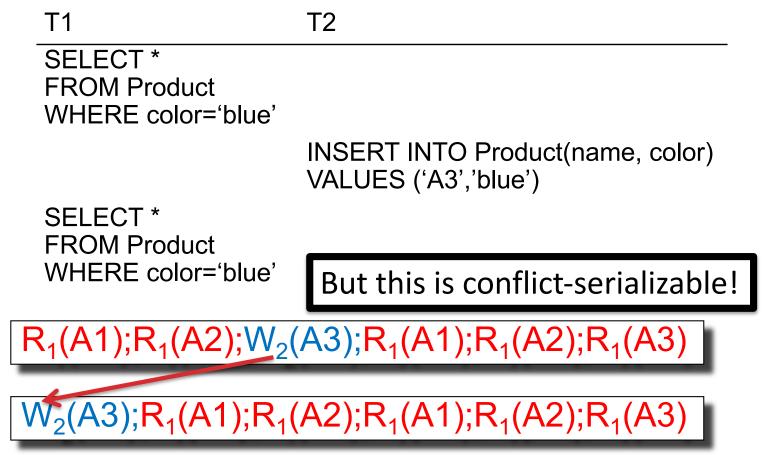
Is this schedule serializable ?

No: T1 sees a "phantom" product A3

Suppose there are two blue products, A1, A2:

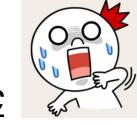
Phantom Problem





Phantom Problem

- A "phantom" is a tuple that is invisible during part of a transaction execution but not invisible during the entire execution
- In our example:
 - T1: reads list of products
 - T2: inserts a new product
 - T1: re-reads: a new product appears !
- Conflict-serializability assumes DB is <u>static</u>



When DB is <u>dynamic</u> then c-s is not serializable.



Dealing With Phantoms

- Lock the entire table
- Lock the index entry for 'blue'
 - If index is available
- Or use predicate locks
 - A lock on an arbitrary predicate

Dealing with phantoms is expensive !



Summary of Serializability



- Serializable schedule = equivalent to a serial schedule
- (strict) 2PL guarantees conflict serializability
 - What is the difference?
- Static database:
 - Conflict serializability implies serializability
- Dynamic database:
 - This no longer holds

Summary, cont.



- Correctness criterion for isolation is "serializability".
 - In practice, we use "conflict serializability" which is conservative but easy to enforce
- Two Phase Locking and Strict 2PL: Locks implement the notions of conflict directly
 - The lock manager keeps track of the locks issued.
 - **Deadlocks** may arise; can either be prevented or detected.
- Multi-Granularity Locking:
 - Allows flexible tradeoff between lock "scope" in DB, and # of lock entries in lock table
- More to the story
 - Optimistic/Multi-version/Timestamp CC
 - Index "latching", phantoms
 - Actually, there's much much more ©