



# 并发控制 **Concurrency Control**

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#### ▶ 课程概要



#### Part 0: Overview

Ch1: Introduction

#### Part 1 Relational Databases

- Ch2: Relational model
- Ch3: Introduction to SQL
- Ch4: Intermediate SQL
- Ch5: Advanced SQL

#### Part 2 Database Design

- Ch6: Database design based on E-R model
- Ch7: Relational database design

#### Part 3 Application Design & Development

- Ch8: Complex data types
- Ch9: Application development

#### Part 4 Big data analytics

- Ch10: Big data
- Ch11: Data analytics

#### Part 5 Data Storage & Indexing

- Ch12: Physical storage system
- Ch13: Data storage structure
- Ch14: Indexing

#### Part 6 Query Processing & Optimization

- Ch15: Query processing
- Ch16: Query optimization

#### Part 7 Transaction Management

- Ch17: Transactions
- Ch18: Concurrency control
- Ch19: Recovery system

#### Part 8 Parallel & Distributed Database

- Ch20: Database system architecture
- Ch21-23: Parallel & distributed storage, query processing & transaction processing

#### Part 9

DB Platform: OceanBase, MongoDB, Neo4J

#### ▶目录



- 并发控制中的问题
- · 基于锁的协议
- · 基于图的协议
- 死锁处理
- ・多粒度

#### 并发控制中的问题



#### Problems caused by concurrent transactions

- Lost Update (丢失修改)
- Non-repeatable Read (不可重复读)
- Dirty Read (读 "脏" 数据 )

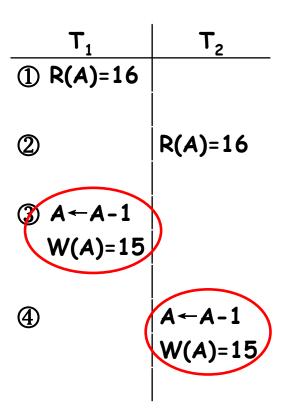
#### Symbols

- -R(x): read x
- W(x): write x

# ► 丢失修改 (Lost Update)



- Transactions T<sub>1</sub> and T<sub>2</sub> read the same data item A and modify it
- The committed result of T<sub>2</sub> eliminates the update of T<sub>1</sub>



### 不可重复读 (Non-repeatable Read)



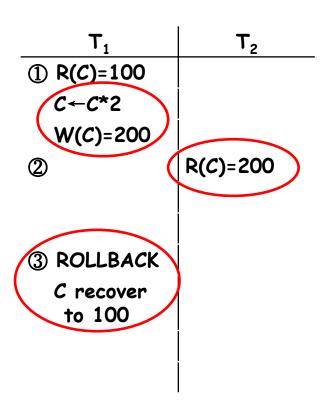
| $T_1$       | $T_{2}$  |
|-------------|----------|
| ① R(A)=50   |          |
| R(B)=100    |          |
| sum=150     |          |
| 2           | R(B)=100 |
|             | B←B*2    |
|             | W(B)=200 |
| 3 R(A)=50   |          |
| R(B)=200    |          |
| sum=250     |          |
| (sum is not |          |
| correct)    |          |

- T<sub>1</sub> reads B=100
- T<sub>2</sub> reads B, then updates B=200, and writes B back
- T<sub>1</sub> reads B again, and B=200, not the same as the first read
- Phantom Phenomenon (幻影现象)
  - records disappear or new records appear for the same query

# ▶ 脏读 (Dirty Read)



- T<sub>1</sub> modifies C to 200, T<sub>2</sub> reads C as 200
- T<sub>1</sub> rolls back for some reason and its modification also rolls back. Then C recovers to 100
- T<sub>2</sub> reads C as 200, which is not consistent with the database



#### ▶目录



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#### ▶ 基于锁的协议



#### Lock-based protocols

- a mechanism to control concurrent access to a data item
- Data items can be locked in two modes
  - exclusive (X) mode (排他型): Data item can be read and written. X-lock is requested using lock-X instruction
  - shared (S) mode (共享型): Data item can only be read. S-lock is requested using lock-S instruction

#### Lock requests

- Made to the concurrency control manager (并发控制管理器)
- Transaction can proceed only after the lock request is granted

# ▶ 基于锁的协议 (续)



Lock-compatibility matrix (锁相容性矩阵)

|   | S     | X     |  |
|---|-------|-------|--|
| S | true  | false |  |
| Χ | false | false |  |

- A transaction may be granted a lock on a data item if the requested lock is compatible with the locks already held on the data item by other transactions
- If a lock cannot be granted, the requesting transaction waits till all the incompatible locks have been released

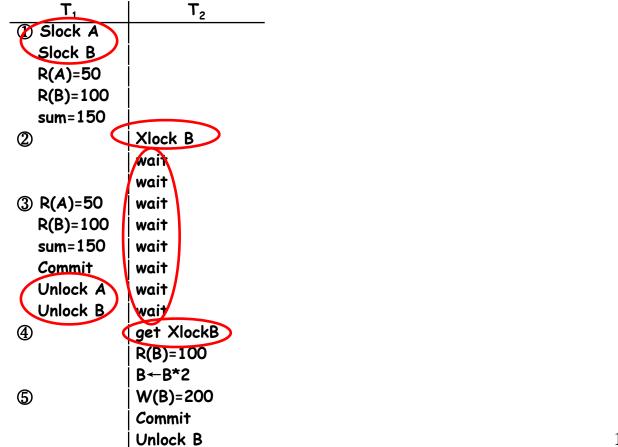
# ▶ 解决丢失修改



| $T_1$     | T <sub>2</sub> |
|-----------|----------------|
| ① Xlock A |                |
| ② R(A)=16 |                |
|           | Xlock A        |
| ③ A←A-1   | wait           |
| W(A)=15   | wait           |
| Commit    | wait           |
| Unlock A  | wait           |
| 4         | Get Xlock A    |
|           | R(A)=15        |
|           | A←A-1          |
| <b>⑤</b>  | W(A)=14        |
|           | Commit         |
|           | Unlock A       |

# 解决不可重复读





# ▶ 解决脏读



| $T_1$         | T <sub>2</sub> |  |  |
|---------------|----------------|--|--|
| ① Xlock C     |                |  |  |
| R(C)=100      |                |  |  |
| <i>C←C</i> *2 |                |  |  |
| W(C)=200      |                |  |  |
| 2             | Slock C        |  |  |
|               | wait           |  |  |
| ③ ROLLBACK    | wait           |  |  |
| (C rec. 100)  | wait           |  |  |
| Unlock C      | vait           |  |  |
| 4             | get Slock C    |  |  |
|               | R(C)=100       |  |  |
| <b>⑤</b>      | Commit C       |  |  |
|               | Unlock C       |  |  |

# ▶ 基于锁的协议 (续)



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

- This locking is not sufficient to guarantee serializability. If A and B get updated inbetween 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

#### · 两阶段锁协议(Two-Phase Locking Protocol)



- A protocol which ensures conflict-serializable schedules
  - Phase 1: Growing Phase (增长阶段)
    - transaction can obtain locks but cannot release locks
  - Phase 2: Shrinking Phase (缩减阶段)
    - transaction can release locks but cannot obtain locks
- The protocol assures serializability. It can be proved that the transactions can be serialized in the order of their lock points (封锁点)
  - Lock point: 事务获得最后加锁的位置

#### ▶ 两阶段锁协议(续)



Satisfy 2PL

Slock A Slock B Xlock C Unlock B Unlock A Unlock C;

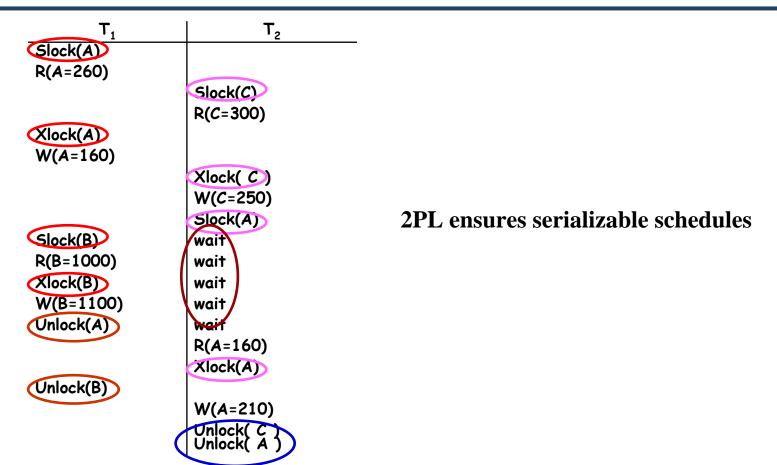
 $\mid \leftarrow$  Growing  $\rightarrow \mid \mid \leftarrow$  Shrinking  $\rightarrow \mid$ 

Not satisfy 2PL

Slock A Unlock A Slock B Xlock C Unlock C Unlock B;

#### ▶ 两阶段锁协议(续)





#### > 两阶段锁协议(续)



- Strict two-phase locking(严格两阶段封锁)
  - Cascading roll-back is possible under two-phase locking
  - In strict two-phase locking, a transaction must hold all its exclusive locks till it commits
- Rigorous two-phase locking (强两阶段封锁)
  - All locks are held till the transaction commits
  - Transactions can be serialized in the order in which they commit

# 锁转换 (Lock Conversions)



- Two-phase locking with lock conversions
  - Upgrade (升级)
    - lock-S -> lock-X
  - Downgrade (降级)
    - lock-X -> lock-S
- This protocol assures serializability

```
T8: read(a_1)
read(a_2)
...
read(a_n)
write(a_1)
```

**T9:** read(
$$a_1$$
)  
read( $a_2$ )  
display( $a_1+a_2$ )

#### 锁的自动获取



- A transaction  $T_i$  issues the standard read/write instruction, without explicit locking calls
- read(D) is processed as:

```
 \begin{tabular}{ll} \it{if} $T_i$ has a lock on $D$, then \\ \it{read}(D)$; \\ \it{else} \\ \it{wait until no other transactions have a lock-X on $D$;} \\ \it{grant} $T_i$ a lock-S on $D$; \\ \it{read}(D) \end{tabular}
```

#### ▶ 锁的自动获取(续)



write(D) is processed as:

```
if T<sub>i</sub> has a lock-X on D, then
    write(D);
else
    wait until no other transactions have any lock on D;
    if T<sub>i</sub> has a lock-S on D, then
        upgrade lock on D to lock-X;
    else
        grant T<sub>i</sub> a lock-X on D;
    write(D);
```

All locks are released after the transaction commits

#### ▶ 锁的实现



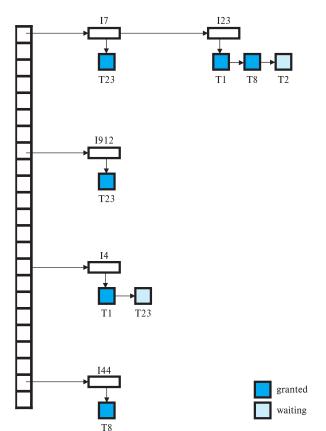
#### Lock manager (锁管理器)

- Usually 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 (锁表) 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

### ▶ 锁表 (Lock Table)



- Dark blue rectangles indicate granted locks, and light blue 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 operation efficiently



### ▶ 死锁 (Deadlock)



Consider the following 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)   |           |

- Such a situation is called a deadlock
  - To handle the deadlock, T<sub>3</sub> or T<sub>4</sub> must be rolled back and release its locks
  - Deadlock exists in most locking protocols
  - Two-phase locking, including the strict and rigorous versions, cannot avoid deadlocks

#### ▶ 饥饿 (Starvation)



#### Starvation

- E.g., a transaction may be waiting for an X-lock on a data item, while a sequence of other transactions request and are granted an S-lock on the same data item
- The same transaction is repeatedly rolled back due to deadlocks
- Concurrency control manager can be designed to prevent starvation

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### 基于图的协议



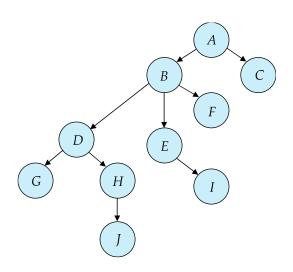
- Graph-based protocols are an alternative to two-phase locking
  - Impose a partial ordering →(偏序) on the set  $D = \{d_1, d_2, ..., d_h\}$  of all data items
    - **Partial ordering**: according to the logical or the physical organization of the data, or it may be imposed solely for the purpose of concurrency control
  - If  $d_i \rightarrow d_j$ , then any transaction accessing both  $d_i$  and  $d_j$  must access  $d_i$  before accessing  $d_i$
  - The set D can be viewed as a directed acyclic graph, called database graph
- The tree-protocol is a simple kind of graph protocol

### ▶ 树协议 (Tree Protocol)



#### Only exclusive locks are allowed in tree protocol

- 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  $T_i$
- Data items may be unlocked at any time
- An unlocked data item cannot be relocked by  $T_i$



### ▶ 基于图的协议(续)



#### Advantages

- The tree protocol ensures conflict serializability as well as freedom from deadlock
- Unlocking may occur earlier than two-phase locking protocol, hence shorter waiting time and higher concurrency

#### Disadvantages

- The abort of a transaction can still lead to cascading rollbacks
- May have to lock data items that it does not access, thus increasing locking overhead, and incurring additional waiting time

#### **基于时间戳的协议**



#### Timestamp of a transaction

- Each transaction is issued a timestamp when it enters the system. If an old transaction  $T_i$  has timestamp  $TS(T_i)$ , a new transaction  $T_j$  is assigned timestamp  $TS(T_i)$  such that  $TS(T_i) < TS(T_i)$ .

#### Timestamp-based protocol

- The protocol manages concurrent execution such that the timestamps determine the serializability order
- To assure such behavior, the protocol maintains two timestamp values for each data
   Q:
  - W-timestamp(Q): the largest time-stamp of any transaction that executed write(Q) successfully
  - R-timestamp(Q): the largest time-stamp of any transaction that executed read(Q) successfully

# ▶ 基于时间戳的协议(续)



- The timestamp-based protocol ensures that any conflicting read and write operations are executed in timestamp order
- Suppose that transaction T<sub>i</sub> issues a read(Q)
  - If  $TS(T_i) \le W$ -timestamp(Q), then  $T_i$  needs to read a value of Q that was already overwritten
    - the read operation is rejected, and  $T_i$  is rolled back
  - If  $TS(T_i) \ge W$ -timestamp(Q), then the read operation is executed, and R-timestamp(Q) is set to max(R-timestamp(Q),  $TS(T_i)$ )

# ▶ 基于时间戳的协议(续)



- Suppose that transaction T<sub>i</sub> issues write(Q)
  - If TS(T<sub>i</sub>) < R-timestamp(Q), then the value of Q that T<sub>i</sub> is producing was needed previously, and the system assumed that the value would never be produced
    - the write operation is rejected, and  $T_i$  is rolled back
  - If  $TS(T_i)$  < W-timestamp(Q), then  $T_i$  is attempting to write an obsolete value of Q
    - this write operation is rejected, and  $T_i$  is rolled back
  - Otherwise, the write operation is executed, and W-timestamp(Q) is set to  $\mathsf{TS}(T_i)$

# ▶ 基于时间戳的协议(续)



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



- 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

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#### 死锁的处理



Consider the following two transactions:

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

Schedule with deadlock

| <b>T</b> <sub>1</sub>                      | T <sub>2</sub>                                   |
|--|--|
| lock-X on X write (X) wait for lock-X on Y | lock-X on Y<br>write (Y)<br>wait for lock-X on X |

# ▶ 死锁的处理 (续)



- 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.
  - Require that each transaction locks all its data items before it starts 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)

#### > 死锁预防



- Following schemes use transaction timestamps for the sake of deadlock prevention
  - wait-die scheme non-preemptive(非抢占)
    - older transactions wait for younger ones to release data items. Younger transactions never wait for older ones and roll back instead
    - one transaction may die several times before acquiring the needed data item
  - wound-wait scheme preemptive(抢占)
    - older transactions would force the rollback of younger transactions instead of waiting for them. Younger transactions may wait for older ones.
    - may be fewer rollbacks than wait-die scheme

### > 死锁预防(续)



- 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 (基于超时的机制)

- a transaction waits for a lock for a specified amount of time. After that, the transaction is rolled back, thus deadlocks are not possible
- simple to implement but starvation is possible. Also difficult to determine the good value of the timeout interval.

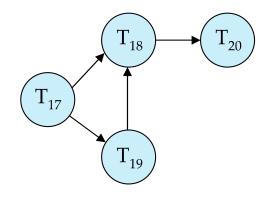
### > 死锁检测



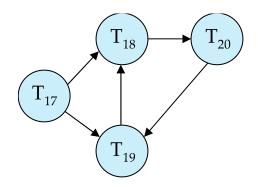
- Deadlocks can be described as a wait-for graph(等待图) G = (V,E)
  - V is a set of vertices corresponding to all the transactions in the system
  - E is a set of edges and each edge is an ordered pair  $T_i \to T_j$  indicating that  $T_i$  is waiting for  $T_i$  to release a data item
- The system is in a deadlock state iff the wait-for graph has a cycle.
   Must invoke a deadlock-detection algorithm periodically to look for cycles

### > 死锁检测(续)





Wait-for graph without a cycle



Wait-for graph with a cycle

#### 死锁恢复



#### When deadlock is detected

- Some transaction needs to roll back
- Rollback -- determine how far to roll back the transaction
  - Total rollback: abort the transaction and then restart it
  - Partial rollback: more effective to roll back transaction only as far as necessary to break the deadlock
- Starvation happens if the same transaction is always chosen as victim
- Include the number of rollbacks in the cost factor to avoid starvation

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# 多粒度

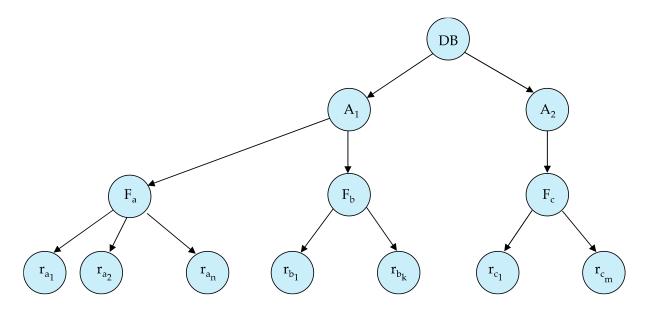


- Allow data items to be of various sizes and define a hierarchy of data granularities
- Can be represented as a tree. When a transaction locks a node in the tree explicitly, it implicitly locks all the node's descendants in the same mode
- Granularity of locking
  - fine granularity (lower in tree): high concurrency, high locking overhead
  - coarse granularity (higher in tree): low concurrency, low locking overhead

### > 多粒度举例



- The highest level in the example hierarchy is the entire database
- The levels below are of type area, file and record in that order



# ▶ 意向锁 (Intention Lock)



- Three additional lock modes with multiple granularity
  - intention-shared (IS): 意向共享模式锁
    - indicates explicit locking at a lower level of the tree but only with shared locks
  - intention-exclusive (IX): 意向排他模式锁
    - indicates explicit locking at a lower level with exclusive or shared locks
  - shared intention-exclusive (SIX): 共享意向排他锁
    - 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





|     | 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 |

# > 多粒度锁模式



- Transaction  $T_i$  can lock a node Q, using the following rules:
  - The lock compatibility matrix must be followed
  - The root of the tree must be locked first, and may be locked in any mode
  - A node Q can be locked by T<sub>i</sub> in S or IS mode only if the parent of Q is currently locked by T<sub>i</sub> in either IX or IS mode.
  - 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.
  - $T_i$  can lock a node only if it has not previously unlocked any node (that is,  $T_i$  is two-phase).
  - $T_i$  can unlock a node Q only if none of the children of Q are currently locked by  $T_i$ .
- Locks are acquired in root-to-leaf order, whereas they are released in leaf-to-root order