Database Concurrency Control

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Plan for Concurrency control topic

- Transaction schedules
- Basic locks and basic locking rules
- Lock conversion
- Lost update and locking
- Protocols to insure isolation property of concurrent transactions
- Dead lock and dead lock prevention protocols
- Starvation
- Phantom record
 - Readings from the textbook:
 - Chapter 21: Section 21.5,
 - Chapter 22 : Sections 22.1, 22.2, and 22.5
 - PostgreSQL Manulas



Database Concurrency Control

Purpose of Concurrency Control

- To enforce Isolation (through mutual exclusion) among conflicting transactions
- To preserve database consistency through consistency preserving execution of transactions
- To resolve read-write and write-write conflicts
- Example: In concurrent execution environment if T_1 conflicts with T_2 over a data item A, then the existing concurrency control decides if T_1 or T_2 should get the A and if the other transaction is rolled-back or waits



Transaction Schedules

- Transaction schedule or history: When transactions are executing concurrently in an interleaved fashion, the order of execution of operations from the various transactions forms what is known as a transaction schedule (or history)
- A **schedule** (or **history**) S of n transactions $T_1, T_2, ..., T_n$ is an ordering of the operations of the transactions subject to the constraint that, for each transaction T_i that participates in S, the operations of T_i in S must appear in the same order in which they occur in T_i
- Note, however, that operations from other transactions T_j can be interleaved with the operations of T_i in S



Transaction Schedules based on Serializability

- Serial schedule: A schedule *S* is serial if, for every transaction *T* participating in the schedule, all the operations of *T* are executed consecutively in the schedule. Otherwise, the schedule is called **nonserial** schedule
- Serializable schedule: A schedule S is serializable if it is equivalent to some serial schedule of the same n transactions
- Result equivalent: Two schedules are called result equivalent if they produce the same final state of the database



Schedules based on Serializability (3)

- Being serializable is not the same as being serial
- Being serializable implies that the schedule is a correct schedule
 - It will leave the database in a consistent state
 - The interleaving is appropriate and will result in a state as if the transactions were serially executed
 - will achieve efficiency due to concurrent execution



Transaction Schedules based on Serializability

Practical approach:

- Come up with methods (protocols) to ensure serializability
- It's not possible to determine when a schedule begins and when it ends
- Hence, we reduce the problem of checking the whole schedule to checking only a committed project of the schedule (i.e. operations from only the committed transactions.)
- Current approach used in most DBMSs:
 - Use of locks with two-phase locking



- Locking is the most frequent technique used to control concurrent execution of database transactions
- Operating systems provide a binary locking system (lock and unlock) that is too restrictive for database transactions
- That's why DBMS contains its own lock manager
- A lock_value(X) is variable associated with (each)
 database data item X
- The lock_value(X) describes the status of the data item X, by telling which operations can be applied to X



Kinds of Locks

- Generally, the lock manager of a DBMS offers two kinds of locks:
 - shared (read) lock
 - exclusive (write) lock
- If a transaction T issues a read_lock(X) command, it will be added to the list of transactions that share lock on item X, unless there is a transaction already holding write lock on X
- If a transaction T issues a write_lock(X) command, it will be granted an exclusive lock on X, unless another transaction is already holding lock on X
- Accordingly,
 lock_value ∈ { read_lock, write_lock, unlocked }

Basic Locking Rules

- The basic locking rules are:
 - 7 must issue a read_lock(X) or write_ lock(X) command before any read_item(X) operation
 - Tmust issue a write_lock(X) command before any write_item(X) operation
 - Tmust issue an unlock(X) command when all read_item(X) or write_item(X) operations are completed
- Some DBMS lock managers perform automatic locking by granting an appropriate database item lock to a transaction when it attempts to read or write an item into database
- So, an item lock request can be either explicit, or implicit

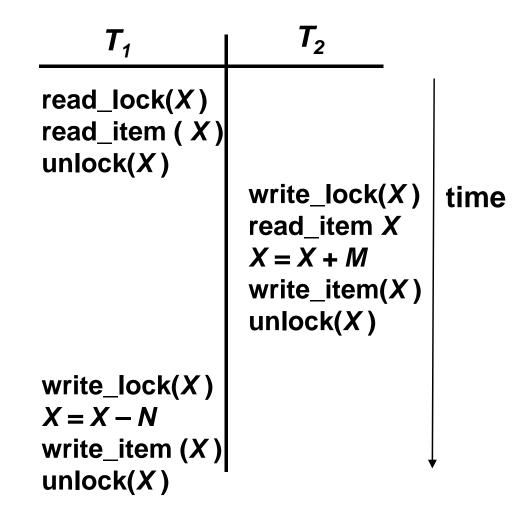
Lock Conversion

A transaction T that already holds a lock on item X can convert it to another state:

- T can upgrade a read_lock(X) to a write_lock(X)
 if it is the only one that holds a lock on the item X
 (otherwise, T has to wait)
- T can always downgrade a write_lock(X) to a read_lock(X)



Lost Update Problem and Locking



The problem is that T₁ releases lock on X too early, allowing T₂ to start updating X

 We need a protocol that will guarantee database consistency



Two-Phase Locking Techniques: The algorithm

Two Phases

- (a) Locking (Growing) Phase: A transaction applies locks (read or write) on desired data items one at a time.
- (b) Unlocking (Shrinking) Phase: A transaction unlocks its locked data items one at a time.
- Requirement: For a transaction these two phases must be mutually exclusively, that is, during locking phase unlocking phase must not start and during unlocking phase locking phase must not begin.



Strict Two-Phase Locking

Protocol:

- All lock operations of a transaction T must precede the first unlock operation
- A transaction T does not release any of exclusive locks until after it commits or aborts

Comments:

- No other transaction can read or write an item X that is written by Tunless Thas committed
- The strict two phase locking protocol is safe for all transaction anomalies mentioned so far
- It is also called read committed protocol, because transactions are allowed to read only committed database items

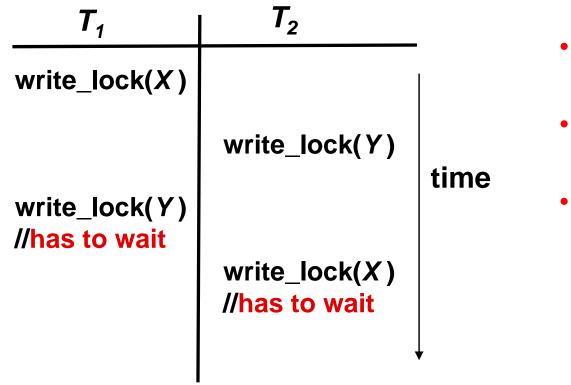


Undesirable Effects of Locking

- Two phase locking can introduce some undesirable effects:
 - waits,
 - deadlocks,
 - Starvation
- Waits relate to the fact that a transaction wanting to acquire a lock on a database item X has to wait if another transaction has already acquired an exclusive lock on X



- Deadlock is also called deadly embrace
- Typical sequence of operations is given in the following diagram



- T₁ acquired exclusive lock on X
- T₂ acquired exclusive lock on Y
- No one can finish, because both are in the waiting state



- Deadlock occurs when:
 - Each transaction T_i in a set of *two or more* transactions $T = \{T_1, T_2, ..., T_n\}$ is waiting for some item X that is locked by some other transaction T_i
- In other words:
 - A number of transactions (greater than one) hold lock on one item and wait to acquire another
 - None of the waiting transactions can acquire locks on all necessary items

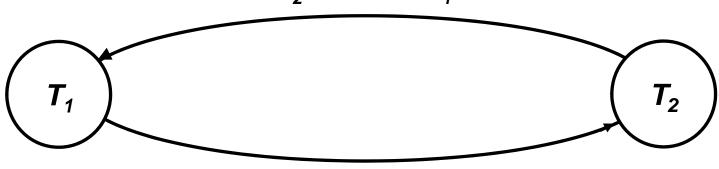


Deadlock Examples

- **a**)
- T₁ has locked X and waits to lock Y
- T₂ has locked Y and waits to lock Z
- T₃ has locked Z and waits to lock X

b)

- Both T₁ and T₂ have acquired sharable locks on X and wait to lock X exclusively
- A dead-lock may be represented using a cyclic wait-for graph
 T₂ waits for T₁



 T_1 waits for T_2



Deadlock Prevention Techniques (1)

- We distinguish between deadlock prevention and deadlock detection techniques
- Deadlock prevention techniques:
 - Conservative two-phase lock protocol: lock all items in advance, if any of them cannot be obtained, none of the item are locked; try again later
 - Timestamp techniques:
 - Wait-Die protocol: if TS(T_i) < TS(T_j) then T_i is allowed to wait. Otherwise abort T_i (dies) and restart it later with the same timestamp
 - Wound-Wait protocol: if TS(T_i) < TS(T_j), then abort T_j
 (T_i wounds T_j) and restart it later with the same timestamp. Otherwise T_i is allowed to wait



Deadlock Prevention Techniques (2)

- No Waiting (NW) protocol: if unable to get a lock, immediately abort and restart again after a certain time
- Cautious Waiting (CW) protocol: if T_j is not blocked, then T_i is blocked and allowed to wait; otherwise abort T_i



Conservative Two-Phase Locking Protocol

Protocol:

- A transaction has to lock all items it will access before it begins to execute
- If it cannot acquire any of its locks, it releases all items, aborts, and tries again,

Comments:

- Deadlock can't occur because no hold-and-wait
- Once it starts, a transaction can only release its locks

Problems:

- What if a transaction cannot predetermine all items it is going to use? (e.g. a sequence of interactive SQL statements comprising one database transaction)
- What if a database item that is already locked by another transaction will be released very soon? (i.e. the transaction is aborted in vane)



Deadlock Detection Schemes

- Deadlock prevention is justified if transactions are long and use many items, or transaction load is very heavy
- In many practical situations it is advantages to do no deadlock prevention but to detect dead locks and then abort at least one of the transactions involved
- Deadlock detection schemes are:
 - Deadlock detection using wait-for graph
 - Timeouts protocol



Deadlock Detection Protocols

- Deadlock detection using a wait-for graph:
 - Construct a wait-for graph where each transaction has its node
 - If T_i waits on T_j , construct a directed edge from T_i to T_j
 - If there is a cycle detected, select a `victim' and abort it
 - Victim selecting algorithm should select and abort transactions that made the least number of updates
- Timeouts protocol:
 - If a transaction waits longer than a specified amount of time, it gets aborted
 - Here, deadlock is only supposed, not proved



Starvation

- Starvation occurs when a transaction can not make any progress for an indefinite period of time, while other transactions proceed
 - Starvation can occur when waiting protocol for locked items is unfair (used stacks instead of queues)
 - In a deadlock resolution it is possible that the same transaction may consistently be selected as victim and rolled-back
 - This limitation is inherent in all priority based scheduling mechanisms
- Wound-Wait and Wait-Die schemes can avoid starvation, because the aborted transactions restart with the same original timestamp



Granularity of Items

- Until now, we used the term `data item' without specifying its exact meaning
- In the context of the concurrency control, a data item can be:
 - A field of a database record,
 - A database record,
 - A disk block,
 - A whole file,
 - A whole database
- The coarser data item granularity is, the more contention between transactions will occur, and less productive the DBMS will be (more waits or aborts)



Granularity of Items (continued)

- The finer data granularity, the higher locking overhead of the DBMS lock manager (due to many locks and unlocks)
- The best item size depends on the type of a transaction:
 - If a transaction accesses a small number of records, than

data item = record

 If a transaction accesses a large number of records in the same file, then

data item = file

 Some DBMS automatically change granularity level with regard to the number of records a transaction is accessing (attempting to lock)

Phantom Record

- A transaction locks database items that satisfy certain selection condition and updates them
- During that update, another transaction inserts a new item that satisfies the same selection condition
- After the update, but inside the same transaction, we suddenly discover the existence of a database item that has not been updated although it should have been (since it satisfies the selection condition)
- This database item, called a "phantom record", appeared because it did not exist when locking has been done



- Basic locks:
 - Shareable,
 - Exclusive
- To avoid all update anomalies:
 - Lost Update,
 - Unrepeatable Read, and
 - Dirty Read

locks should be released only just after the COMMIT point

- Two phase locking protocol may introduce:
 - Waits,
 - Deadlocks,
 - Starvation



Summary (continued)

- There are many deadlock prevention schemes, but no one is ideal
- In the context of the concurrency control, a database item can be:
 - a field of a database record (tuple),
 - a database record,
 - a disk block,
 - a whole table
 - a whole file,
 - a whole database
- Each data item granularity has advantages and disadvantages, but database record granularity is desirable
- Phantom record may appear if a finer granularity than a table is used