#### Database Systems, Even 2020-21



- A database must provide a mechanism that will ensure that all possible schedules are both:
  - Conflict serializable
  - 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
- Concurrency-control schemes tradeoff between the amount of concurrency they allow and the amount of overhead that they incur
- Testing a schedule for serializability after it has executed is a little too late!
  - Tests for serializability help us understand why a concurrency control protocol is correct
- Goal: To develop concurrency control protocols that will assure serializability

- One way to ensure isolation is to require that data items be accessed in a mutually exclusive manner; that is, while one transaction is accessing a data item, no other transaction can modify that data item
  - Should a transaction hold a lock on the whole database
    - Would lead to strictly serial schedules: Very poor performance
- The most common method used to implement locking requirement is to allow a transaction to access a data item only if it is currently holding a lock on that item

## 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
- A transaction can unlock a data item Q by the unlock(Q) Instruction
- Lock requests are made to concurrency-control manager by the programmer
- 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
- 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
- Transaction  $T_i$  may unlock a data item that it had locked at some earlier point
- Note that a transaction must hold a lock on a data item as long as it accesses that item
- Moreover, it is not necessarily desirable for a transaction to unlock a data item immediately after its final access of that data item, since serializability may not be ensured

- Let A and B be two accounts that are accessed by transactions  $T_1$  and  $T_2$ 
  - Transaction T<sub>1</sub> transfers \$50 from account B to account A
  - Transaction  $T_2$  displays the total amount of money in accounts A and B, that is, the sum A + B
  - Suppose that the values of accounts A and B are \$100 and \$200, respectively

```
T_1:
                            T_2:
 lock-X(B);
                             lock-S(A);
 read(B);
                             read(A);
 B := B - 50:
                             unlock(A);
 write(B);
                             lock-S(B);
 unlock(B);
                             read(B);
 lock-X(A);
                             unlock(B);
                             display(A + B)
 read(A);
A := A + 50:
 write(A);
 unlock(A);
```

• If these transactions are executed serially, either as  $T_1$ ,  $T_2$  or the order  $T_2$ ,  $T_1$ , then transaction  $T_2$  will display the value \$300

- If, however, these transactions are executed concurrently, then schedule 1 is possible
- In this case, transaction  $T_2$  displays \$250, which is incorrect, and the reason for this mistake is that
  - The transaction  $T_1$  unlocked data item B too early, as a result of which  $T_2$  saw an inconsistent state
- Suppose we delay unlocking till the end

```
T_1:
                            T_2:
 lock-X(B);
                             lock-S(A);
 read(B);
                             read(A);
 B := B - 50:
                             unlock(A);
 write(B);
                             lock-S(B);
 unlock(B);
                             read(B);
 lock-X(A);
                             unlock(B);
 read(A);
                             display(A + B)
 A := A + 50;
 write(A);
 unlock(A);
```

$T_1$	$T_2$	concurrency-control manager
lock-X(B)		
,		grant- $X(B, T_1)$
read(B)		<b>3</b>
B := B - 50		
write(B)		
unlock(B)		
(- )	lock-S(A)	
	()	grant-S( $A, T_2$ )
	read(A)	3
	unlock(A)	
	lock-S(B)	
	, ,	grant-S( $B, T_2$ )
	read(B)	
	unlock(B)	
	display(A + B)	
lock-X(A)	, , ,	
. ,		grant- $X(A, T_1)$
read(A)		
A := A + 50		
write(A)		
unlock(A)		

Schedule 1

• Delaying unlocking till the end,  $T_1$  becomes  $T_3$  and  $T_2$  becomes  $T_4$ 

```
T_3:
                             lock-S(A);
 lock-X(B);
read(B);
                             read(A);
 B := B - 50;
                             lock-S(B);
 write(B);
                             read(B);
 lock-X(A);
                             display(A + B);
 read(A);
                             unlock(A);
 A := A + 50;
                             unlock(B)
 write(A);
 unlock(B);
 unlock(A)
```

- Hence, sequence of reads and writes as in Schedule 1 is no longer possible
- $T_4$  will correctly display \$300

$T_1$	$T_2$	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)	
1 1 3// 4)	display(A+B)	
lock-X(A)		
raad(1)		grant- $X(A, T_1)$
read(A) $A := A + 50$		
write(A)		
unlock(A)		

#### Schedule 1

- Given,  $T_3$  and  $T_4$ , consider Schedule 2 (partial)
- Since T<sub>3</sub> is holding an exclusive mode lock on B and T<sub>4</sub> is requesting a shared-mode lock on B, T<sub>4</sub> is waiting for T<sub>3</sub> to unlock B
- Similarly, since T<sub>4</sub> is holding a shared-mode lock on A and T<sub>3</sub> is requesting an exclusive-mode lock on A, T<sub>3</sub> is waiting for T<sub>4</sub> to unlock A
- Thus, we have arrived at a state where neither of these transactions can ever proceed with its normal execution
- This situation is called deadlock
- When deadlock occurs, the system must roll back one of the two transactions
- Once a transaction has been rolled back, the data items that were locked by that transaction are unlocked
- These data items are then available to the other transaction, which can continue with its execution

```
T_3:
                             lock-S(A);
 lock-X(B);
read(B);
                             read(A);
B := B - 50;
                             lock-S(B);
                             read(B);
write(B);
                             display(A + B);
 lock-X(A);
read(A);
                             unlock(A);
A := A + 50:
                             unlock(B)
write(A);
 unlock(B);
 unlock(A)
```

$T_3$	$T_4$
lock-X(B) read(B)	
B := B - 50	
write(B)	
	lock-S(A)
	read(A)
	lock-S(B)
lock-X(A)	

Schedule 2

#### Lock-Based Protocols

- If we do not use locking, or if we unlock data items too soon after reading or writing them, we may get inconsistent states
- On the other hand, if we do not unlock a data item before requesting a lock on another data item, deadlocks may occur
- Deadlocks are a necessary evil associated with locking, if we want to avoid inconsistent states
- Deadlocks are definitely preferable to inconsistent states, since they can be handled by rolling back transactions, whereas inconsistent states may lead to real-world problems that cannot be handled by the database system
- 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
- The set of all such schedules is a proper subset of all possible serializable schedules
- We present locking protocols that allow only conflict-serializable schedules, and thereby ensure isolation

## The Two-Phase Locking Protocol

- This protocol 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
  - That is, the point where a transaction acquired its final lock

# 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
    - o 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: Read

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

   if T<sub>i</sub> 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<sub>i</sub> a lock-S on D; read(D)
   end

#### Automatic Acquisition of Locks: Write

The operation **write**(D) is processed as:

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

All locks are released after commit or abort

#### Deadlocks

Two-phase locking does not ensure freedom from deadlocks

T <sub>3</sub> :	<i>T<sub>4</sub></i> :	$T_3$	$T_4$
lock-X( <i>B</i> );	lock-S(A);	13	<b>1</b> 4
read( <i>B</i> );	read(A);	lock-x(B)	
B := B - 50;	lock-S( <i>B</i> );	read (B)	
write(B);	read( <i>B</i> );	B := B - 50	
lock-X(A);	display(A + B);	write $(B)$	
read(A);	unlock( <i>A</i> );		lock-s(A)
A := A + 50;	unlock( <i>B</i> )		read (A)
write(A);			lock-s (B)
unlock(B);		lock-x(A)	A 50
unlock(A)			II.

• Observe that transactions  $T_3$  and  $T_4$  are two phase, but, in deadlock

#### Starvation

- In addition to deadlocks, there is a possibility of starvation
- **Starvation** occurs 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 manager can be designed to prevent starvation

# Cascading Roll-back

- The potential for deadlock exists in most locking protocols
  - Deadlocks are a necessary evil
- When a deadlock occurs there is a possibility of cascading roll-backs
- Cascading roll-back is possible under two-phase locking
- In the schedule here, each transaction observes the two-phase locking protocol, but the failure of  $T_5$  after the read(A) step of  $T_7$  leads to cascading rollback of  $T_6$  and  $T_7$

$T_5$	$T_6$	$T_7$
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)

## More Two Phase Locking Protocols

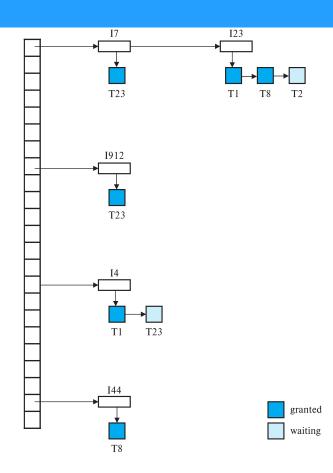
- To avoid Cascading roll-back, follow a modified protocol called strict two-phase locking
  - A transaction must hold all its exclusive locks till it commits/aborts
- Rigorous two-phase locking is even stricter
  - All locks are held till commit/abort
  - In this protocol transactions can be serialized in the order in which they commit

## 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

- Dark rectangles indicate granted locks, light colored 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



### Thank you for your attention...

Any question?

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