

#### Transaction Overview and Concurrency Control

CSC 375 Fall 2019, Chapters 16 & 17

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There are three side effects of acid. Enhanced long term memory, decreased short term memory, and I forget the third. - Timothy Leary

## **Structure of a DBMS**



## **Transactions**

- A transaction is a collection of operations treated as a single logical operation
  - Typically carried out by a single user or an application program
  - Reads or updates the contents of a database
- A transaction can have one of two outcomes:
  - Success transaction commits and database reaches a new consistent state.
  - Failure transaction aborts, and database must be restored to a consistent state before it started.
    - Such a transaction is rolled back or undone.
- Committed transaction cannot be aborted.

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# Transactions

- Concurrent execution essential for good performance.
  - Because disk accesses are frequent, and relatively slow, it is important to keep the CPU humming by working on several user programs concurrently.
  - Trends are towards lots of cores and lots of disks.
    - e.g., IBM Watson has 2880 processing cores
    - Tegra K1, latest GPU from NVidia, has 192 processing cores
- A program may carry out many operations, but the DBMS is only concerned about what data is read/written from/to the database.
- A transaction is the DBMS's abstract view of a user program: a sequence of reads and writes.

## **Atomicity of Transactions**

- A transaction might *commit* after completing all its actions, or it could *abort* (or be aborted by the DBMS) after executing some actions.
- Atomic Transactions: a user can think of a transaction as always either executing all its actions, or not executing any actions at all.
  - One approach: DBMS *logs* all actions so that it can undo the actions of aborted transactions.
  - Another approach: Shadow Pages
  - Logs approach won because of need for audit trail and for efficiency reasons.

#### **Transactions in SQL**

- Commit makes permanent any database changes you made during the current transaction. Until you commit your changes, other users cannot see them.
- Rollback ends the current transaction and undoes any changes made since the transaction began.

#### **Transaction – Example**

BEGIN; --BEGIN TRANSACTION UPDATE accounts SET balance = balance -100.00 WHERE name = 'Alice'; UPDATE branches SET balance = balance -100.00 WHERE name = (SELECT branch\_name FROM accounts WHERE name = 'Alice'); UPDATE accounts SET balance = balance + 100.00 WHERE name = 'Bob'; UPDATE branches SET balance = balance + 100.00 WHERE name = (SELECT branch\_name FROM accounts WHERE name = 'Bob');

#### **Transaction Example (with Savepoint)**

BEGIN; UPDATE accounts SET balance = balance - 100.00 WHERE name = 'Alice'; SAVEPOINT my\_savepoint; UPDATE accounts SET balance = balance + 100.00 WHERE name = 'Bob'; -- oops ... forget that, and use Wally's Account ROLLBACK TO my\_savepoint; UPDATE accounts SET balance = balance + 100.00 WHERE name = 'Wally'; COMMIT;

#### **Transactions in MySQL**

```
START TRANSACTION
1
2
        [transaction_characteristic [, transaction_characteristic] ...]
3
   transaction_characteristic:
4
5
        WITH CONSISTENT SNAPSHOT
6
      READ WRITE
7
      READ ONLY
8
9 BEGIN [WORK]
10 COMMIT [WORK] [AND [NO] CHAIN] [[NO] RELEASE]
11 ROLLBACK [WORK] [AND [NO] CHAIN] [[NO] RELEASE]
12 SET autocommit = {0 | 1}
```

- START TRANSACTION or BEGIN
  - start a new transaction.
- COMMIT
  - commits the current transaction, making its changes permanent.
- ROLLBACK
  - rolls back the current transaction, canceling its changes.
- SET autocommit = {o | 1}
  - disables or enables the default autocommit mode for the current session.

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#### **Transactions in MySQL**

```
1 START TRANSACTION;
2 SELECT @A:=SUM(salary) FROM table1 WHERE type=1;
3 UPDATE table2 SET summary=@A WHERE type=1;
4 COMMIT;
```

 To disable autocommit mode implicitly for a single series of statements, use the START TRANSACTION statement

## The ACID properties of Transactions

- Atomicity: All actions in the transaction happen, or none happen.
- Consistency: If each transaction is consistent, and the DB starts consistent, it ends up consistent.
- Isolation: Execution of one transaction is isolated from that of all others.
- Durability: If a transaction commits, its effects persist.

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#### **Transaction Consistency**

- Data in DBMS is accurate in modeling real world, follows integrity constraints
  - User must ensure transaction consistent by itself
  - If DBMS is consistent before transaction, it will be after also.
- System checks ICs and if they fail, the transaction rolls back (i.e., is aborted).
  - DBMS enforces some ICs, depending on the ICs declared in CREATE TABLE statements.
  - Beyond this, DBMS does not understand the semantics of the data. (e.g., it does not understand how the interest on a bank account is computed).

## Isolation (Concurrency)

- Multiple users can submit transactions.
- Each transaction executes <u>as if</u> it was running by itself.
  - Concurrency is achieved by DBMS, which interleaves actions (reads/writes of DB objects) of various transactions.
- Many techniques have been developed. Fall into two basic categories:
  - Pessimistic don't let problems arise in the first place
  - Optimistic assume conflicts are rare, deal with them *after* they happen.

## **Durability - Recovering From a Crash**

- System Crash short-term memory lost (disk okay)
  - This is the case we will handle.
- Disk Crash "stable" data lost
  - ouch --- need back ups; raid-techniques can help avoid this.
- There are 3 phases in ARIES recovery (and most others):
  - ARIES = Algorithms for Recovery and Isolation Exploiting Semantics
  - <u>Analysis</u>: Scan the log forward (from the most recent *checkpoint*) to identify all Xacts that were active, and all dirty pages in the buffer pool at the time of the crash.
  - <u>*Redo*</u>: Redoes all updates to dirty pages in the buffer pool, as needed, to ensure that all logged updates are in fact carried out.
  - <u>Undo</u>: The writes of all Xacts that were active at the crash are undone (by restoring the *before value* of the update, as found in the log), working backwards in the log.
- At the end, all committed updates and only those updates are reflected in the database.
  - Some care must be taken to handle the case of a crash occurring during the recovery process!

#### Plan of attack (ACID properties)

- First we will deal with "I", by focusing on concurrency control.
- Then will address "A" and "D" by looking at recovery.
- What about "C"?
- Well, if you have the other three working, and you set up your integrity constraints correctly, then you get this for free (!?).

	Original	Table "student	ble "students"	
ransaction A (Add Josh)	name	grade		
	Tyler	3.2		
UES ('Josh', 3.5):	Grant	3.4		

Transaction B (Improve Grade)
UPDATE students SET grade = grade + 0.5;

A then B		
name	grade	
Tyler	3.7	
Grant	3.9	
Josh	4.0	

B then A	
name	grade
Tyler	3.7
Grant	3.9
Josh	3.5

#### Which is the correct final table? Both are Okay!

Trans	Transaction A (Add		
Suuce		. dan da a	1 7
VALUES	G ('Josh')	, 3.5);	C
INSER	TINTO stu	udents	J
VALUES	3 ('Charle	es', 2.2);	C
Transaction B (Improve			
Grade)			
UPDATE students SET grade = grade + 0.5:			
(			
Original Table "students"			
n	ame	grade	(
Ту	/ler	3.2	

3.4

Grant

A then B		
name	grade	
Tyler	3.7	
Grant	3.9	
Josh	4.0	
Charles	27	

B then A	
name	grade
Tyler	3.7
Grant	3.9
Josh	3.5
Charles	2.2

A(1) then B then A(2)		
name	grade	
Tyler	3.7	
Grant	3.9	
Josh	4.0	
Charles	2.2	

#### This is bad! Josh got an improved grade, but Charles didn't. This violates the ACID test!



- There is no guarantee that T1 will execute before T2 or vice-versa, if both are submitted together. However, the net effect *must* be equivalent to these two transactions running serially in some order.
  - Assume at first A and B each have \$1000. What are the legal outcomes of running T1 and T2???

```
* $2000 *1.06 = $2120
```

#### Example (Contd.)

- Legal outcomes: A=1166,B=954 or A=1160,B=960
- Consider a possible interleaving (*schedule*):



- Result: A=1166, B=960; A+B = 2126, bank loses \$6
- The DBMS' s view of the second schedule:

 T1:
 R(A), W(A),
 R(B), W(B)

 T2:
 R(A), W(A), R(B), W(B)
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## **Scheduling Transactions**

- <u>Serial schedule</u>: A schedule that does not interleave the actions of different transactions.
  - i.e., you run the transactions serially (one at a time)
- <u>Equivalent schedules</u>: For any database state, the effect (on the set of objects in the database) and output of executing the first schedule is identical to the effect of executing the second schedule.
- <u>Serializable schedule</u>: A serializable schedule is a schedule that is equivalent to some serial execution of the transactions.
  - Intuitively: with a serializable schedule you only see things that could happen in situations where you were running transactions one-at-a-time.

#### **Serial Schedule**

A schedule that <u>does not interleave</u> the actions of different transactions. i.e., you run the transactions serially (one at a time)

- Actual transaction does have the whole database to itself
- This is not a solution for the real world
  - Cannot overlap I/O operations and computation
  - Multiple cores or processors are sitting idle
  - Workload may just be really heavy
  - Response times get long as well as variable
  - Short transactions must wait for long ones to finish

#### Is this a Serializable Schedule?

T1	T2
R(A)	
W(A)	
	R(B)
	W(B)
R(C)	
W(C)	
Commit	
	Commit

Yes, the two transactions do not have operations on the same data item, so the schedule is serializable.

### Is this a Serializable Schedule?

T1	T2
R(A)	
W(A)	
	R(B)
	W(B)
	Commit
R(B)	
W(B)	
Commit	

Yes, because it is equivalent to the serial schedule T2, T1. The results are equivalent to T2 running first in it's entirety, then T1 running.

#### Is this a Serializable Schedule?

T1	T2
R(A)	
	R(B)
W(A)	
	W(B)
	Commit
R(B)	
W(B)	
Commit	

Yes, this is still equivalent to the serial schedule T2, T1

## Is this a Serializable Schedule?

T1	T2
R(A)	
W(A)	
	R(A)
	W(A)
	R(B)
	W(B)
	Commit
R(B)	
W(B)	
Commit	

Two possibilities: the schedule cannot be T2, T1 because T2 is reading the result of T1's write. The schedule cannot be T1, T2 because T1 is reading the result of T2's write. So the schedule is not serializable Reading uncommitted data (called a dirty read)

#### Serializable Schedule

A schedule that is equivalent to some serial execution of the transactions.

In other words, a serializable schedule is an alternative to simple serial schedule

#### Non-serializable schedule

- Not all schedules are serializable.
- Non-serializable schedules can produce states / effects on the database that would not have occurred if transactions weren't interweaved.
- This violates the Isolation principle in ACID.

#### **Characterizing Schedules Based on Serializability**

- A serializable schedule is <u>not</u> the same as a serial schedule
- Being serializable implies that the schedule is a <u>correct</u> 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, yet will achieve efficiency due to concurrent execution.
- Serializability is hard to check.
  - Interleaving of operations occurs in an operating system through some scheduler
  - Difficult to determine beforehand how the operations in a schedule will be interleaved.

### **Concurrency Control**

- Process of managing simultaneous operations on the database without having them interfere with one another.
- Concurrent execution of user programs is essential for good DBMS performance.
  - Since disk accesses are frequent and relatively slow, it is important to keep the CPU humming by working on several user programs concurrently.
- Interleaving actions of different user programs can lead to inconsistency: e.g., check is cleared while account balance is being computed.
- Transaction processing ensures such problems do not arise: users can pretend they are using a single-user system.

#### **Anomalies with Interleaved Execution**

• Reading Uncommitted Data (WR Conflicts, "dirty reads"):

T1: R(A), W(A), R(B), W(B), AbortT2:  $\longrightarrow R(A), W(A), C$ 

- Problem
  - T1 may write some value into A that makes the database inconsistent
  - As long as T1 overwrites this value with a 'correct' value of A before committing, no harm is done if T1 and T2 run in some serial order, because T2 would then not see the (temporary) inconsistency
  - On the other hand, interleaved execution can expose this inconsistency and lead to an inconsistent final database state

### **Anomalies with Interleaved Execution**

• Unrepeatable Reads (RW Conflicts):



 Transaction T2 changes the value of an object A that has been read by a transaction T1, while T1 is still in progress

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#### **Anomalies: Overwriting Uncommitted Data**

• Overwriting Uncommitted Data (WW Conflicts, blind writes):



 Transaction T<sub>2</sub> overwrites the value of an object A, which has already been modified by a transaction T<sub>1</sub> while T<sub>1</sub> is still in progress

#### **Detecting anomalies systematically**

- Schedules can be checked automatically for conflict serializability by means of a precedence graph
- Conflict serializable graphs are also serializable
- Locking protocols can guarantee conflict serializable schedules
- However, locking may introduce deadlocks, which can be detected with waits-for graphs

# **Conflict Serializable Schedules**

- Two operations a1 and a2 are said to conflict, iff
  - They belong to different transactions
  - Both read or write the same object, e.g. A
  - And either a1 or a2 is a write operation
- Two schedules are conflict equivalent iff:

They involve the same actions of the same transactions, *and* 

every pair of conflicting actions is ordered the same way

#### **Conflict Serializable Schedules**

- If a schedule S can be transformed into a schedule S' by a series of swaps of nonconflicting instructions, we say that S and S are conflict equivalent
- Schedule S is conflict serializable if S is conflict equivalent to some serial schedule.
  - Note, some "serializable" schedules are NOT conflict serializable.

#### **Dependency Graph**

- <u>Dependency graph</u>: One node per Xact; edge from *Ti* to *Tj* if an operation of Ti conflicts with an operation of Tj and Ti's operation appears earlier in the schedule than the conflicting operation of Tj.
- It follows that a dependency graph is a graph whose edges Ti →Tj meet one of the following three conditions:
  - Ti executes write(A) before Tj executes read(A).
  - Ti executes read(A) before Tj executes write(A).
  - Ti executes write(A) before Tj executes write(A).
- <u>Theorem</u>: Schedule is conflict serializable if and only if its dependency graph is acyclic

#### Example

• A schedule that is not conflict serializable:



• The cycle in the graph reveals the problem. The output of T1 depends on T2, and viceversa.

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#### Example

• A schedule that is conflict serializable:



• No Cycle Here!

#### Locks

- We use "locks" to control access to items.
- Shared (S) locks multiple transactions can hold these on a particular item at the same time.
- Exclusive (X) locks only one of these and no other locks, can be held on a particular item at a time.



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# **Scheduling Concurrent Transactions**

DBMS ensures that execution of {T1, ..., Tn} is equivalent to some <u>serial</u> execution T1, ... Tn.

- Before reading/writing an object, a transaction requests a lock on the object, and waits till the DBMS gives it the lock.
- All locks are released at the end of the transaction. (Strict 2-Phase locking protocol)



### **Two-Phase Locking (2PL)**

#### 1) Each transaction must obtain:

- a S (*shared*) or an X (exclusive) lock on object before reading,
- an X (exclusive) lock on object before writing.
- 2) A transaction can not request additional locks <u>once it</u> <u>releases</u> any locks.

Thus, each transaction has a "growing phase" followed by a "shrinking phase".



#### **Two-Phase Locking (2PL)**

- 2PL on its own is sufficient to guarantee conflict serializability.
  - Doesn't allow dependency cycles! (note: see "Deadlock" discussion a few slides hence)
  - Schedule of conflicting transactions is conflict equivalent to a serial schedule ordered by "lock point".

The two phase locking rule can be summarized as: never acquire a lock after a lock has been released

## Ex 1: A= 1000, B=2000, Output =?

Lock_X(A) <granted></granted>				
Read(A)	Lock_S(A)			
A: = A-50				
Write(A)				
Unlock(A)	<pre> <granted></granted></pre>			
	Read(A)			
	Unlock(A)			
	Lock_S(B) <granted></granted>			
Lock_X(B)				
	Read(B)			
<pre> <granted></granted></pre>	Unlock(B)			
	PRINT(A+B)			
Read(B)				
B := B +50				
Write(B)				
Unlock(B)				

Is it a 2PL schedule?

No, and it is not serializable.

# Ex 2: A= 1000, B=2000, Output =?

Lock_X(A) <granted></granted>				
Read(A)	Lock_S(A)			
A: = A-50				
Write(A)				
Lock_X(B) <granted></granted>				
Unlock(A)	✓ <granted></granted>			
	Read(A)			
	Lock_S(B)			
Read(B)				
B := B +50				
Write(B)				
Unlock(B)	<pre> <granted></granted></pre>			
	Unlock(A)			
	Read(B)			
	Unlock(B)			
	PRINT(A+B)			

Is it a 2PL schedule? Yes: so it is serializable.<sup>46</sup>

#### Avoiding Cascading Aborts – Strict 2PL

- Problem with 2PL: Cascading Aborts
- Example: rollback of T1 requires rollback of T2!

T1: R(A), W(A), R(B), W(B), Abort T2: R(A), W(A)

- Solution: Strict Two-phase Locking (Strict 2PL):
  - Same as 2PL, except:
  - All locks held by a transaction are released only when the transaction completes

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## Strict 2PL

- Strict Two-phase Locking (Strict 2PL) Protocol:
  - Each Xact must obtain a S (*shared*) lock on object before reading, and an X (*exclusive*) lock on object before writing.
  - All locks held by a transaction are released when the transaction completes
  - If a Xact holds an X lock on an object, no other Xact can get a lock (S or X) on that object.

#### Strict 2PL (continued)

#### All locks held by a transaction are released only when the transaction completes

- Like 2PL, Strict 2PL allows only schedules whose precedence graph is acyclic, but it is actually stronger than needed for that purpose.
- In effect, "shrinking phase" is delayed until:
  - a) Transaction has committed (commit log record on disk), or
  - b) Decision has been made to abort the transaction (then locks can be released after rollback).

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#### Strict 2PL (Papadimitrou)

- Strict Two-phase Locking (Strict 2PL) Protocol:
  - Each Xact must obtain a S (shared) lock on object before reading, and an X (exclusive) lock on object before writing.
  - All locks held by a transaction are released when the transaction completes (abort or commit)
  - A Xact cannot lock the same object if one of its locks is a write lock held by another transaction
  - A Xact cannot lock an object with a write lock if a read lock on that Xact is held by another Xact
- Read locks can be held by several transactions.
- If a write lock has been set, no read lock can be set and vice versa.
- Strict 2PL allows only schedules whose precedence graph is acyclic → it enforces conflict serializable schedules

## Ex 3: A= 1000, B=2000, Output =?

Lock_X(A) <granted></granted>				
Read(A)	Lock_S(A)			
A: = A-50				
Write(A)				
Lock_X(B) <granted></granted>				
Read(B)				
B := B +50				
Write(B)				
Unlock(A)				
Unlock(B)	✓ <granted></granted>			
	Read(A)			
	Lock_S(B) <granted></granted>			
	Read(B)			
	PRINT(A+B)			
	Unlock(A)			
	Unlock(B)			
le it a 2PL schodulo2	Strict 2DI 2 51			

IS IT a ZPL schedule?

Strict 2PL?

#### Ex 2: Revisited

Lock_X(A) <granted></granted>				
Read(A)	Lock_S(A)			
A: = A-50				
Write(A)				
Lock_X(B) <granted></granted>				
Unlock(A)	✓ <granted></granted>			
	Read(A)			
	Lock_S(B)			
Read(B)				
B := B +50				
Write(B)				
Unlock(B)	✓ <granted></granted>			
	Unlock(A)			
	Read(B)			
	Unlock(B)			
	PRINT(A+B)			

Is it Strict 2PL?

No: Cascading Abort  $P\delta^2$ ss.

### Lock Management

- Lock and unlock requests are handled by the Lock Manager.
- LM contains an entry for each currently held lock.
- Lock table entry:
  - Ptr. to list of transactions currently holding the lock
  - Type of lock held (shared or exclusive)
  - Pointer to queue of lock requests
- When lock request arrives see if anyone else holds a conflicting lock.
  - If not, create an entry and grant the lock.
  - Else, put the requestor on the wait queue
- Locking and unlocking have to be atomic operations
- Lock upgrade: transaction that holds a shared lock can be upgraded to hold an exclusive lock
  - Can cause deadlock problems

# Lock\_X(A) <granted> Lock\_S(B) <granted> Read(B) Lock\_S(A) Read(A) A: = A-50 Write(A) Lock\_X(B) 54

#### Ex 4: Output = ?

Is it a 2PL schedule?

Strict 2PL?

#### Deadlocks

- Deadlock: Cycle of transactions waiting for locks to be released by each other.
- Two ways of dealing with deadlocks:
  - Deadlock prevention
  - Deadlock detection
- Many systems just punt and use Timeouts

#### **Deadlock Prevention**

- Assign priorities based on timestamps. Assume Ti wants a lock that Tj holds. Two policies are possible:
  - Wait-Die: If Ti is older, Ti waits for Tj; otherwise Ti aborts
  - Wound-wait: If Ti is older, Tj aborts; otherwise Ti waits
- If a transaction re-starts, make sure it gets its original timestamp

#### **Deadlock Detection**

- Alternative is to allow deadlocks to happen but to check for them and fix them if found.
- Create a waits-for graph:
  - Nodes are transactions
  - There is an edge from Ti to Tj if Ti is waiting for Tj to release a lock
- Periodically check for cycles in the waits-for graph
- If cycle detected find a transaction whose removal will break the cycle and kill it.

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#### **Deadlock Detection (Continued)**

- Example:
- T1: S(A), S(D), S(B)
- T2: X(B)
- T3:
- T4:

X(C) S(D), S(C),

**X(B)** 

X(A)



# The "Phantom" Problem

- With Insert and Delete, even Strict 2PL (on individual items) will not assure serializability:
- Consider T1 "Find oldest sailor"
  - T1 locks all records, and finds <u>oldest</u> sailor (*age* = 71).
  - Next, T2 inserts a new sailor; age = 96 and commits.
  - T1 (within the same transaction) checks for the oldest sailor again and finds sailor aged 96!!
- The sailor with age 96 is a "phantom tuple" from T1's point of view --- first it's not there then it is.
- No serial execution where T1's result could happen!

# The "Phantom" Problem – example 2

- Consider T<sub>3</sub> "Find oldest sailor for each rating"
  - T<sub>3</sub> locks all pages containing sailor records with *rating* = 1, and finds <u>oldest</u> sailor (say, *age* = 71).
  - Next, T4 inserts a new sailor; rating = 1, age = 96.
  - T<sub>4</sub> also deletes oldest sailor with rating = 2 (and, say, age = 80), and commits.
  - T<sub>3</sub> now locks all pages containing sailor records with rating = 2, and finds <u>oldest</u> (say, age = 6<sub>3</sub>).
- T3 saw only part of T4' s effects!
- No serial execution where T<sub>3</sub>'s result could happen!

# **The Problem**

- T1 and T3 implicitly assumed that they had locked the set of all sailor records satisfying a predicate.
  - Assumption only holds if no sailor records are added while they are executing!
  - Need some mechanism to enforce this assumption. (Index locking and predicate locking.)
- Examples show that conflict serializability on reads and writes of individual items guarantees serializability only if the set of objects is fixed!



### **Multiple-Granularity Locks**

- Hard to decide what granularity to lock (tuples vs. pages vs. tables).
- Shouldn't have to make same decision for all transactions!
- Data "containers" are nested:



#### Solution: New Lock Modes, Protocol

- Allow Xacts to lock at each level, but with a special protocol using new "intention" locks:
- Still need S and X locks, but before locking an item, Xact must have proper intension locks on all its ancestors in the granularity hierarchy.
  - 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. Why useful?

				rup	nes
	IS	IX	SIX	S	X
IS	$\checkmark$	$\checkmark$	$\checkmark$	$\checkmark$	l
IX		$\checkmark$	l	l	l
SIX		1	I		-
S	$\checkmark$	-	I	$\checkmark$	-
X	-	_	l	64	-

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Database

Tables

Pages

Treelas

# Multiple Granularity Lock Protocol

Tables

Pages

- Each Xact starts from the root of the hierarchy.
- To get S or IS lock on a node, must hold IS or IX on parent node.
  - What if Xact holds SIX on parent? S on parent?
- 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.

Protocol is correct in that it is equivalent to directly setting locks at the leaf levels of the hierarchy.

# **Examples – 2 level hierarchy** Tables

#### • T1 scans R, and updates a few tuples:

- T1 gets an SIX lock on R, then get X lock on tuples that are updated.
- T2 uses an index to read only part of R:
  - T2 gets an IS lock on R, and repeatedly gets an S lock on tuples of R.
- T3 reads all of R:
  - T3 gets an S lock on R.
  - OR, T3 could behave like T2; can use lock escalation to decide which.
  - Lock escalation dynamically asks for courser-grained locks when too many low level locks acquired

	IS	IX	SIX	S	X
IS					
IX					
SIX	$\checkmark$				
S					
X					
				66	

Tuples

## **Isolation Levels**

- SQL standard offers several isolation levels
  - Each transaction can have level set separately
  - Problematic definitions, but in best practice done with variations in lock holding
- Serializable
  - (ought to be default, but not so in practice)
  - Traditionally done with Commit-duration locks on data and indices (to avoid phantoms)
- Repeatable Read
  - Commit-duration locks on data
  - Phantoms can happen

#### Read Committed

- short duration read locks, commit-duration write locks
- non-repeatable reads possible

#### Read Uncommitted

no read locks, commit-duration write locks

# **Optimistic CC (Kung-Robinson)**

Locking is a conservative approach in which conflicts are prevented. Disadvantages:

- Lock management overhead.
- Deadlock detection/resolution.
- Lock contention for heavily used objects.
- Locking is "pessimistic" because it assumes that conflicts will happen.
- If conflicts are rare, we might get better performance by not locking, and instead checking for conflicts at commit.

# **Kung-Robinson Model**

- Xacts have three phases:
  - READ: Xacts read from the database, but make changes to private copies of objects.
  - VALIDATE: Check for conflicts.
  - WRITE: Make local copies of changes public.



# Validation

- Test conditions that are sufficient to ensure that no conflict occurred.
- Each Xact is assigned a numeric id.
  - Just use a timestamp (call it T<sub>i</sub>).
- Timestamps are assigned at end of READ phase, just before validation begins.
- ReadSet(Ti): Set of objects read by Xact T<sub>i</sub>
- WriteSet(Ti): Set of objects modified by T<sub>i</sub>



## **Test 2 – No Write Phase Conflict**

For all i and j such that Ti < Tj, check that: • Ti completes before Tj begins its Write phase and WriteSet(Ti)  $\cap$  ReadSet(Tj) is empty.



# Test 3 – Overlapping Write Phases



# Applying Tests 1 & 2: Serial Validation

#### • To validate Xact T:

valid = true; // S = set of Xacts that committed after Begin(T) // (above defn implements Test 1) // The following is done in critical section < foreach Ts in S do { if ReadSet(T) intersects WriteSet(Ts) then valid = false; } if valid then { install updates; // Write phase Commit T } else Restart T

end of critical section

#### **Comments on Serial Validation**

- Applies Test 2, with T playing the role of Tj and each Xact in Ts (in turn) being Ti.
- Assignment of Xact id, validation, and the Write phase are inside a critical section!
  - Nothing else goes on concurrently.
  - So, no need to check for Test 3 --- can't happen.
  - If Write phase is long, major drawback.
- Optimization for Read-only Xacts:
  - Don't need critical section (because there is no Write phase).

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# **Overheads in Optimistic CC**

- Must record read/write activity in ReadSet and WriteSet per Xact.
  - Must create and destroy these sets as needed.
- Must check for conflicts during validation, and must make validated writes ``global''.
  - Critical section can reduce concurrency.
  - Scheme for making writes global can reduce clustering of objects.
- Optimistic CC restarts Xacts that fail validation.
  - Work done so far is wasted; requires clean-up.

### **Snapshot Isolation (SI)**

- A multiversion concurrency control mechanism was described in SIGMOD '95 by H. Berenson, P. Bernstein, J. Gray, J. Melton, E. O' Neil, P. O' Neil
  - Does not guarantee serializable execution!
- Supplied by Oracle DB, and PostgreSQL (before rel 9.1), for "Isolation Level Serializable"
- Available in Microsoft SQL Server 2005 as "Isolation Level Snapshot"

#### **Snapshot Isolation (SI)**

- Read of an item may not give current value
- Instead, use old versions (kept with timestamps) to find value that had been most recently committed at the time the txn started
  - Exception: if the txn has modified the item, use the value it wrote itself
- The transaction sees a "snapshot" of the database, at an earlier time
  - Intuition: this should be consistent, if the database was consistent before

### First committer wins (FCW)

- T will not be allowed to commit a modification to an item if any other transaction has committed a changed value for that item since T's start (snapshot)
- Similar to optimistic CC, but only write-sets are checked
- T must hold write locks on modified items at time of commit, to install them.
  - In practice, commit-duration write locks may be set when writes execute.

## **Benefits of SI**

- Reading is never blocked, and reads don't block writes
- Avoids common anomalies
  - No dirty read
  - No lost update
  - No inconsistent read
  - Set-based selects are repeatable (no phantoms)
- Matches common understanding of isolation: concurrent transactions are not aware of one another's changes
- On the downside it turns out that it doesn't fully guarantee Serializablity (but Prof. Alan Fekete & team have fixed this in PostgreSQL 9.1+)

## **Other Techniques**

- Timestamp CC: Give each object a read-timestamp (RTS) and a write-timestamp (WTS), give each Xact a timestamp (TS) when it begins:
  - If action ai of Xact Ti conflicts with action aj of Xact Tj, and TS(Ti) < TS(Tj), then ai must occur before aj. Otherwise, restart violating Xact.
- Multiversion CC: Let writers make a "new" copy while readers use an appropriate "old" copy.
  - Advantage is that readers don't need to get locks
  - Oracle and PostgreSQL use a simple form of this.

#### Summary

- Correctness criterion for isolation is "serializability".
  - In practice, we use "conflict serializability", which is somewhat more restrictive but easy to enforce.
- Two Phase Locking, and Strict 2PL: Locks directly implement the notions of conflict.
  - The lock manager keeps track of the locks issued. Deadlocks can either be prevented or detected.
- Must be careful if objects can be added to or removed from the database ("phantom problem").
- Index locking common, affects performance significantly.
  - Needed when accessing records via index.
  - Needed for locking logical sets of records (index locking/predicate locking).

## Summary (Contd.)

- Multiple granularity locking reduces the overhead involved in setting locks for nested collections of objects (e.g., a file of pages);
  - should not be confused with tree index locking!
- Optimistic CC aims to allow progress when conflicts are rare or getting locks is expensive (e.g. distributed sys)
- Optimistic CC has its own overheads however; most real systems use locking or Snapshot Isolation.
- Snapshot Isolation is a practical approach that let's readers run without locks, by looking at (possibly) older snapshots.