Concurrency Control Ensuring Isolation

Concurrency

To increase throughput and response time, a DBMS will execute multiple transactions at the same time.

Concurrency control ensures that transactions have the same effect as if they were executed in isolation

Problem: WR conflict

T_1	$\mid T_{2} \mid$
READ(A,s)	
s -= 100	
WRITE(A,s)	
	READ(A,t)
	t *= 1.06
	WRITE(A,t)
	READ(B,t)
	t *= 1.06
	WRITE(B,t)
READ(B,s)	
s += 100	
WRITE(B,s)	

Problem: WW conflict

$$T_1$$
 T_2
 $s = 100$

WRITE(A,s)

 $t = 200$

WRITE(A,t)

 $t = 200$

WRITE(B,t)

 $s = 100$

WRITE(B,s)

Definitions

- ullet An action is an expression of the form r(X) or w(X)
- A transaction is a sequence of actions.

We abstract away from the actual values read or written.

• A schedule is a sequence of actions belonging to multiple transactions. Subscripts indicate to which transaction an action belongs.

$$r_1(A), w_1(A), r_2(A), w_2(A), r_1(B), w_1(B), r_2(B), w_2(B)$$

• A serial schedule is a schedule in which transactions are not executed concurrently. In a serial schedule the actions hence occur grouped per transaction.

$$r_2(A), w_2(A), r_2(B), w_2(B), r_1(A), w_1(A), r_1(B), w_1(B)$$

Serializability

A schedule is called serializable if there exists an equivalent serial schedule.

Example

The following schedules are equivalent:

$$S_1 := r_1(A), w_1(A), r_2(A), w_2(A), r_1(B), w_1(B), r_2(B), w_2(B)$$

$$S_2 := r_1(A), w_1(A), r_1(B), w_1(B), r_2(A), w_2(A), r_2(B), w_2(B)$$

Hence S_1 is serializable.

Conflict-serializability

- Two actions in a schedule are in conflict if:
 - 1. they belong to the same transaction; or
 - 2. act upon the same element, and one of them is a write.

$$r_1(A), w_1(A), r_2(A), w_2(A), r_1(B), w_1(B), r_2(B), w_2(B)$$

• A schedule is conflict-serializable if we can obtain a serial schedule by (repeatedly) swapping non-conflicting actions.

Example

We can obtain S_2 by swapping only non-conflicting actions from S_1 :

$$S_1 := r_1(A), w_1(A), r_2(A), w_2(A), r_1(B), w_1(B), r_2(B), w_2(B)$$

$$S_2 := r_1(A), w_1(A), r_1(B), w_1(B), r_2(A), w_2(A), r_2(B), w_2(B)$$

Consequently S_1 is conflict-serializable.

Clearly, conflict-serializability implies serializability

The converse is not true

 S_1 is equivalent to S_2 , but S_2 cannot be obtained from S_1 by conflict-free swapping:

$$S_1 := w_1(Y), w_2(Y), w_2(X), w_1(X), w_3(X)$$

$$S_2 := w_1(Y); w_1(X); w_2(Y); w_2(X); w_3(X)$$

Hence S_1 is not conflict-serializable, but it is serializable.

In practice, a DBMS will only allow conflict-serializable schedules

A simple algorithm to check conflict-serializability

- Construct the precedence graph
- Check whether this graphs contains cycles. If so, output "no", otherwise output "yes"

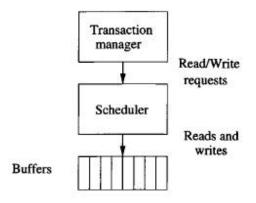
Example

Why does this work?

- If there exists a cycle $T_1 \to T_2 \to \cdots \to T_n \to T_1$ in the dependency graph then we there are actions from T_1 that (1) follow actions from T_n and (2) cannot be moved before the start of T_n by means of conflict-free swapping. Conversely, there are also actions of T_n that follow actions of T_n and that cannot be moved before T_{n-1} by means of conflict-free swapping. As a consequence, we can never obtain a serial schedule by means of conflict-free swapping (in a serial schedule all actions of T_n must occur together).
- If there is no cycle in the dependency graph then we can obtain an equivalent serial schedule by topologically sorting the dependency graph. Illustration on the blackboard.
- See Section 18.2.3 in the book

The scheduler in a DBMS

- It is the taks of the scheduler in a DBMS to create, given a number of transactions, a (conflict-)serializable schedule to be executed.
- New transactions arrive continuously, however, and the scheduler never fully knows the transactions (e.g., because the transactions are large and require a lot of time to run)
- The scheduler hence needs to construct its schedule dynamically, by allowing certain read and write requests; blocking others; and restarting transactions when necessary



Multiple kinds of schedulers:

- Based on locking
- Based on timestamping
- Based on validation

Lock-based schedulers

- ullet Add actions of the form l(X) and u(X) to schedules.
- Before an item can be read or written, a transaction must have a lock.
- If transaction i requests a lock that is already taken by another transaction j, the scheduler will pause the execution of i until j releases the lock. It is in particular impossible for two transaction to possess a lock on the same item at the same time.

Example:

Example:

$$l_1(A), r_1(A), w_1(A), u_1(A), l_2(A), r_2(A), w_2(A), u_2(A), u_2(A), l_2(B), r_2(B), w_2(B), u_2(B), l_1(B), r_1(B), w_1(B), u_1(B)$$

Question: is this conflict-serializable?

Two-phase locking

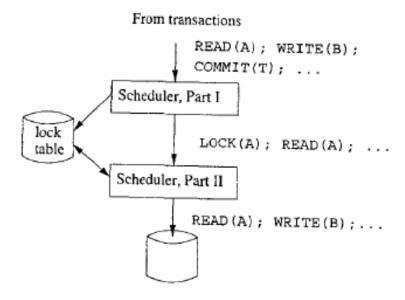
In order to always obtain a conflict-serializable schedule using locks, we require that in each transaction all lock requests precede all unlock requests.

Why is this sufficient to guarantee conflict-serializability?

Illustration on the blackboard. See Section 18.3.3 in book.

Observe:

- It is harmless for multiple transactions to read the same item at the same time.
 - \rightarrow shared and exclusive locks. See Section 18.4 in book.
- In practice transactions will only make read and write requests. They do not make lock and unlock requests. It is the task of the scheduler to add the latter to the schedule
 - \rightarrow see Section 18.5 in book



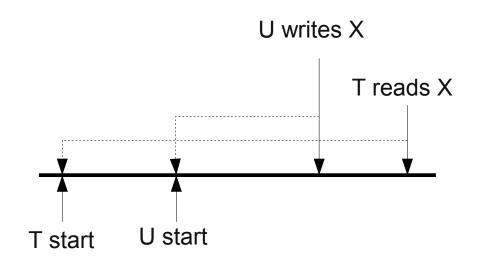
Schedulers based on timestamping

- Are optimistic schedulers
- Assume that we execute transactions T_1, T_2 , and T_3 where T_1 was started first, T_2 second, and T_3 third. A timestamping scheduler allows arbitrary reorderings of actions from these transactions, but checks at appropriate times if the reordering used are equivalent to the serial schedule T_1, T_2, T_3 . If not, certain transactions are aborted and restarted.

How does it work?

- Every transaction T receives a timestamp TS(T) upon creation. This can just be a counter that is incremented for each new transaction.
- ullet To each item X we associate two timestamps $\mathrm{RT}(X)$ and $\mathrm{WT}(X)$, and a boolean $\mathrm{C}(X)$.
 - $\circ \operatorname{RT}(X)$ is the highest timestamp of a transaction that has read X
 - $\circ \operatorname{WT}(X)$ is the highest timestamp of a transaction that has written X
 - $\circ \mathrm{C}(X)$ is true if, and only if, the most recent transaction to write X has already committed.

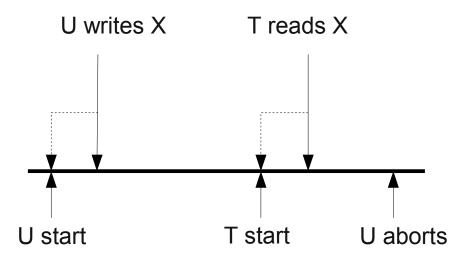
Unrealizable behavior that we want to avoid (1/4)



Hence

A read request $r_T(X)$ should only be granted if $TS(T) \geq WT(X)$.

Unrealizable behavior that we want to avoid (2/4)

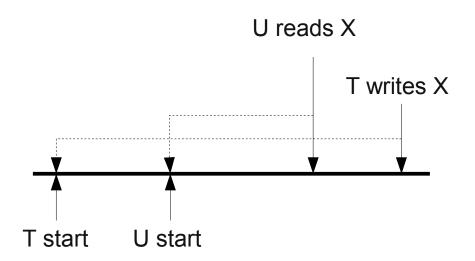


Hence

Read to X should be delayed until the transaction with timestamp $\mathrm{WT}(X)$ commits (i.e., $\mathrm{C}(X)$ becomes true).

Unrealizable behavior that we want to avoid (3/4)

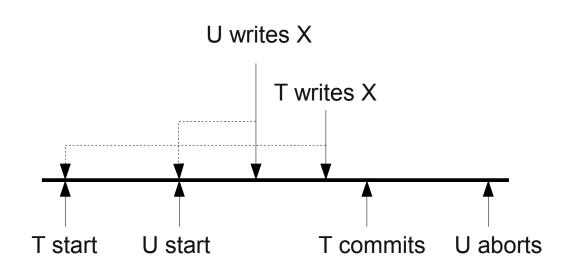
Suppose $TS(U) \geq WT(X)$ at the time when U requests $r_U(X)$.



Hence

A write request $w_T(X)$ should only be granted if $TS(T) \ge RT(X)$

Unrealizable behavior that we want to avoid (4/4)



Hence

Request $w_T(X)$ is realizable if $TS(T) \ge RT(X)$ and TS(T) < WT(X) **BUT**:

- ullet if $\mathrm{C}(X)$ is false then T must be delayed until the transaction with timestamp $\mathrm{WT}(X)$ commits (i.e. $\mathrm{C}(X)$ becomes true)
- ullet if $\mathrm{C}(X)$ is true then the write can be ignored

How does it work: conclusion

- Every transaction receives a timestamp upon creation. This can just be a counter that is incremented for each new transaction.
- ullet To each item X we associate two timestamps $\operatorname{RT}(X)$ and $\operatorname{WT}(X)$, and a boolean $\operatorname{C}(X)$.
- A transaction with timestamp t is allowed to read item X if $t \geq \operatorname{WT}(X)$. If $\operatorname{C}(X)$ is false then the execution is paused until $\operatorname{C}(X)$ becomes true or the transaction that has last written X aborts. If $t < \operatorname{WT}(X)$ then the transaction is aborted and restarted with a larger timestamp.
- A transaction with timestamp t is allowed to write item X if $RT(X) \leq t$ and $WT(X) \leq t$. If t < RT(X) then the transaction is aborted and restarted with a larger timestamp. If $RT(X) \leq t < WT(X)$ and C(X) is true then we keep the current value of X. Otherwise the execution is paused until C(X) becomes true, or until the transaction that last wrote X aborts.

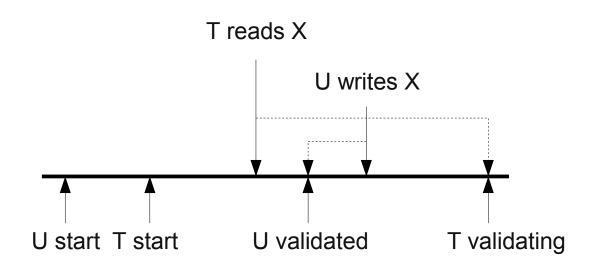
Locking versus timestamping

- Locking is very efficient when we have many transactions that both read and write. In that case, timestamping will need to abort and restart many transactions.
- Timestamping is very efficient when we have many transactions that make only read requests. In that case, many transactions would have to wait for locks when using a lock-based scheduler, while they can immediately proceed with timestamping-based schedulers.

Schedulers based on validation

- Are optimistic
- The scheduler records, for every transaction T, the set RS(T) of items read by T, and the set RS(T) of items written by T.
- ullet Transactions are executed in three phases. In the first phase a transaction reads all items in $\mathrm{RS}(T)$. In the second phase, the scheduler validates the transaction based on $\mathrm{RS}(T)$ and $\mathrm{WS}(T)$. If validation fails, the transaction is aborted and restarted. In the third phase the transaction writes all items in $\mathrm{WS}(T)$.
- The goal is again to obtain a schedule that is equivalent with the serial transaction schedule that orders transactions by their starting time.

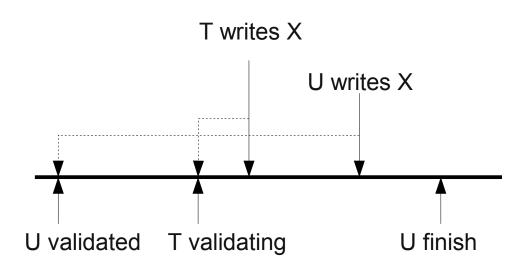
Unrealizable behavior that we want to avoid (1/2)



Hence

- ullet Record, for every transaction V, the time $\mathrm{START}(V)$, $\mathrm{VAL}(V)$, and $\mathrm{FIN}(V)$ at which V starts, validates, and finishes, respectively.
- ullet T can only successfully validate if $\mathrm{RS}(T)\cap\mathrm{WS}(U)=\emptyset$ for any previously validated transaction U that was not yet finished when T started, i.e., $\mathrm{FIN}(U)>\mathrm{START}(T)$.

Unrealizable behavior that we want to avoid (2/2)



Hence

T can only successfully validate if $\mathrm{WS}(T) \cap \mathrm{WS}(U) = \emptyset$ for every previously validated U that did not finish before T validated, i.e., $\mathrm{FIN}(U) > \mathrm{VAL}(T)$.

How does the scheduler validate?

A transaction T passes validation if:

- 1. $RS(T) \cap WS(U) = \emptyset$ for every transaction U that has already been validated, but was not finished when T started.
- 2. $WS(T) \cap WS(U) = \emptyset$ for every transaction U that has already been validated, but is currently not yet finished.

If T does not pass validation, it is aborted and restarted.

Interaction between crash recovery and concurrency control

- Crash recovery: recover from system errors by means of logging
- Concurrency control: prevent non-serializable schedules
- Combination?

Dirty reads

• Recovery problem: T_2 has committed, and can hence not be rolled back. T_1 , on the other hand, requires a rollback. But T_2 depends on T_1 !

Dirty reads

$$\begin{array}{c|ccccc} T_1 & T_2 & A & B \\ \hline l_1(A); r_1(A); & & 25 & 25 \\ A := A + 100; & & & \\ w_1(A); l_1(B); u_1(A); & & 125 \\ & & l_2(A); r_2(A); & & \\ A := A * 2; & & & \\ w_2(A); & & 250 \\ & l_2(B) \textbf{Denied} \\ \hline r_1(B); & & & \\ \textbf{Abort}; u_1(B); & & & \\ & & l_2(B); u_2(A); r_2(B); & \\ & & B := B * 2; & & \\ & & w_2(B); u_2(B); & 50 \\ \hline \end{array}$$

• Implies cascading rollbacks in lock-based schedulers.

Recoverable schedules

A schedule is called recoverable when every transaction in the schedule commits only when every other transaction from which it has read data, have already committed.

Example

- Recoverable and serial: $S_1 = w_1(A); w_1(B); w_2(A); r_2(B); c_1; c_2;$
- Recoverable, but not serializable: $S_2 = w_2(A); w_1(B); w_1(A); r_2(B); c_1; c_2;$
- Not recoverable, but serializable: $S_3 = w_1(A); w_1(B); w_2(A); r_2(B); c_2; c_1;$

Notice that

Recoverable schedules like S_1 may still require a cascading rollback!

Avoid Cascading Rollback (ACR) schedules

A schedule is said to avoid cascading rollbacks if transactions in the schedule only read data from transaction that have already committed. In other words: the transaction can never ready "dirty data".

Example

• ACR and serial: $S_4 = w_1(A); w_1(B); w_2(A); c_1; r_2(B); c_2;$

Observe:

Every ACR schedule is recoverable.

Strict schedules

A lock-based schedule is strict when every transaction only releases its exclusive locks when it has committed or aborted, and the commit or abort log record has been written to disk.

Observe:

- Every strict schedule is ACR.
- Every strict schedule is serializable.

Simplification

We need not wait until the commit or abort log record has been written to disk, provided that we are guaranteed that log records are written in the same order as they are created (group commit).