CMPT 321 FALL 2017

Concurrent DB operations

Lecture 05.04 By Marina Barsky

Why concurrent execution

- It is possible for multiple queries to be submitted at approximately the same time
- Many queries are both complex and time consuming: finishing these queries would make other queries wait a long time for a chance to execute
- Disk usage can be optimized for several queries running in parallel (recall – elevator algorithm)

So, in practice, the DBMS may be running many different queries at about the same time (concurrently)

Interleaving

- DBMS has to *interleave* the actions of several transactions
- Interleaving of transactions may lead to anomalies even if each individual transaction preserves all the database constraints

Recording transactions

- To reason about the order of interleaving transactions, we can abstract each transaction into a sequence of reads and writes of disk data
- For example, withdrawing of money from the account can be written as:

r₁(A); w₁(A)

That means that transaction T_1 reads database element A, does something with it in main memory and writes it back to the database

Recording sequence of commands

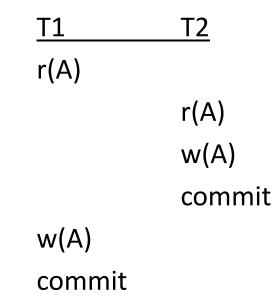
• Then we can record the sequence of commands from 2 transactions received by DBMS as:

r₁(A); w₁(A); r₂(A); w₂(A)

Transactions and Schedules: notation

- To ensure that interleaving does not lead to anomalies, DBMS schedules the execution of each action in a certain way
- A *schedule* is a list of actions for a set of interleaved transactions

Possible schedule:



Anomalies of interleaving: case 1

- Consider two transactions T1 and T2, each of which, when running alone preserves database consistency:
 - T1 transfers \$100 from A to B (e.g. from checking to saving account)
 - T2 increments both A and B by 1% (e.g. daily interest)
- The list of actions received by DBMS:

r1(A); w1(A);r1(B);w1(B);r2(A);w2(A);r2(B);w2(B)

Anomalies of interleaving transactions: possible schedule

DBMS decides on the following schedule:

Τ1 T2 r(A) w(A) r(A) w(A) r(B) w(B)commit r(B) What is the w(B) problem? commit

Anomalies of interleaving transactions: case 1

<u>T1</u>	<u>T2</u>	
r(A) w(A)		T1 deducted \$100 from A
	r(A) w(A) r(B) w(B) commit	T2 incremented both A and B by 1%
r(B) w(B) commit		T1 added \$100 to B

Anomalies of interleaving: reading uncommitted data

<u>T1</u>	T2	
r(A) w(A)		T1 deducted \$100 from A
	r(A) w(A) r(B) w(B) commit	T2 incremented both A and B by 1%
r(B) w(B) commit		T1 added \$100 to B

The problem is that the bank didn't pay interest on the \$100 that was being transferred. This happened because T2 was **reading uncommitted** values.

Anomalies of interleaving transactions: case 2

- Suppose that A is the number of copies available for a book.
- Transactions T1 and T2 both place an order for this book. First they check the availability of the book.
- Consider the following scenario:
 - 1. T1 checks whether A is greater than 1. Suppose T1 sees (reads) value 1.
 - 2. T2 also reads A and sees 1.
 - 3. T2 decrements A to 0.
 - 4. T2 commits.
 - 5. T1 tries to decrement A, which is now 0, and gets an error because some integrity check doesn't allow it.

Anomalies of interleaving: unrepeatable reads

- T1 checks whether A is greater than 1.
 Suppose T1 sees (reads) value 1.
- 2. T2 also reads A and sees 1.
- 3. T2 decrements A to 0.
- 4. T2 commits.
- 5. T1 tries to decrement A, which is now 0, and gets an error because some integrity check doesn't allow it.

The problem is that because value of A has been changed by T1, when T2 reads A for the second time, before updating it, **the value is different from that when T2 started.**

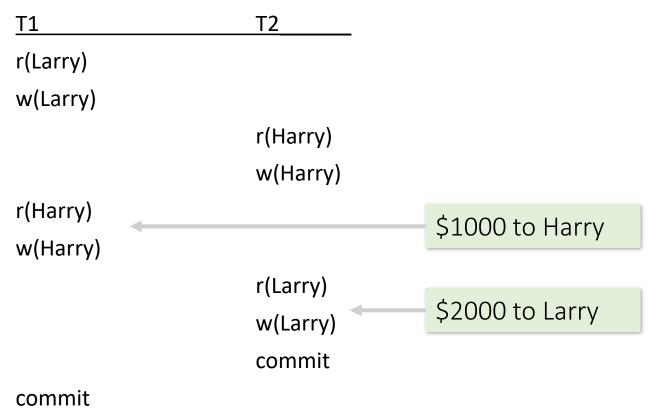
Anomalies of interleaving transactions: case 3

- Suppose that Larry and Harry are two employees, and their salaries **must be kept equal**. T1 sets their salaries to \$1000 and T2 sets their salaries to \$2000.
- Now consider the following schedule:

<u>T1</u>	T2	
r(Larry)		
w(Larry)		
	r(Harry)	
	w(Harry)	
r(Harry)		
w(Harry)		
	r(Larry)	What is the
	w(Larry)	problem?
	commit	
commit		

Anomalies of interleaving: overriding uncommitted data

- Suppose that Larry and Harry are two employees, and their salaries **must be kept equal**. T1 sets their salaries to \$1000 and T2 sets their salaries to \$2000.
- Now consider the following schedule:



Anomalies of interleaving

- Reading uncommitted data
- Unrepeatable reads
- Overriding uncommitted data

None of these would happen if we were executing transactions one after another: **serial schedules**

Notations

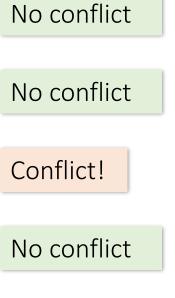
- A transaction (model) is a *sequence* of *r* and *w* requests on database elements
- A schedule is a *sequence* of reads/writes actions performed by a DBMS: to achieve interleaving and at the same time preserve consistency
- Serial Schedule = All actions for each transaction are consecutive.
 r1(A); w1(A); r1(B); w1(B); r2(A); w2(A); r2(B); w2(B); ...
- Serializable Schedule: A schedule whose "effect" is equivalent to that of some serial schedule.

Serializable schedules

Sufficient condition for serializability

Equivalent schedules and conflicts

- Two transactions *conflict* if they access the same data element and *at least one of the actions is a write*.
- $r_i(X); r_j(Y) \equiv r_j(Y); r_i(X)$ (even when X=Y) No cor
- We can flip r_i(X); w_i(Y) as long as X≠Y
- However, $r_i(X)$; $w_i(X) \neq w_i(X)$; $r_i(X)$
- We can flip w_i(X); w_i(Y); provided X≠Y
- However, w_i(X); w_j(X) ≠ w_j(X); w_i(X); Conflict!
 The final value of X may be different depending on which write occurs last.



Conflicts: summary

There is a **conflict** if one of these two conditions hold:

- 1. A read and a write of the same X, or
- 2. Two writes of the same X
- Such actions conflict in general and *may not be swapped in order*.
- All other events (reads/writes) of 2 different transactions may be swapped without changing the effect of the schedule.

Sufficient condition for serializable schedule

A schedule is *conflict-serializable* if it can be converted into a **serial** schedule by a series of **non-conflicting swaps** of adjacent elements

Example:

What can we say about the original schedule?

r₁(A); w₁(A); r₂(A); w₂(A); r₁(B); w₁(B); r₂(B); w₂(B)

Non-conflicting swaps:

 $r_{1}(A); w_{1}(A); r_{2}(A); \underline{r_{1}(B)}; \underline{w_{2}(A)}; w_{1}(B); r_{2}(B); w_{2}(B)$ $r_{1}(A); w_{1}(A); \underline{r_{1}(B)}; \underline{r_{2}(A)}; w_{2}(A); w_{1}(B); r_{2}(B); w_{2}(B)$ $r_{1}(A); w_{1}(A); r_{1}(B); r_{2}(A); \underline{w_{1}(B)}; \underline{w_{2}(A)}; r_{2}(B); w_{2}(B)$ $r_{1}(A); w_{1}(A); r_{1}(B); \underline{w_{1}(B)}; \underline{r_{2}(A)}; w_{2}(A); r_{2}(B); w_{2}(B)$

Result: serial schedule

Conflict-serializability

S2: w₁(Y); w₂(Y); w₂(X); w₁(X); w₃(X);

Sufficient condition for serializability but not necessary.

Example

S1:
$$w_1(Y)$$
; $w_1(X)$; $w_2(Y)$; $w_2(X)$; $w_3(X)$; — This is serial

This is called **view-serializable**, and requires from scheduler to understand what each action is doing, not just its type

S2 isn't conflict-serializable, but it is serializable. It has the same effect as S1.

Intuitively, the values of X written by T1 and T2 have no effect, since T3 overwrites them.

Serializability/precedence Graphs

- Non-swappable pairs of actions represent potential conflicts between transactions.
- The existence of non-swappable actions enforces an **ordering** on the transactions that include these actions.

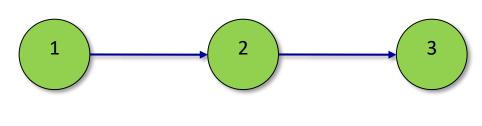
We can represent this order by a graph

- Nodes: transactions {T₁,...,T_k}
- Arcs: There is a directed edge from T_i to T_j if they have conflicting access to the same database element X and T_i is first:

written **T**_i <_s **T**_i.

Precedence graphs: example 1

Note the following:
•w₁(B) <_S r₂(B)
•r₂(A) <_S w₃(A)
> These are conflicts since they contain a read/write on the same element
> They cannot be swapped. Therefore T₁ < T₂ < T₃

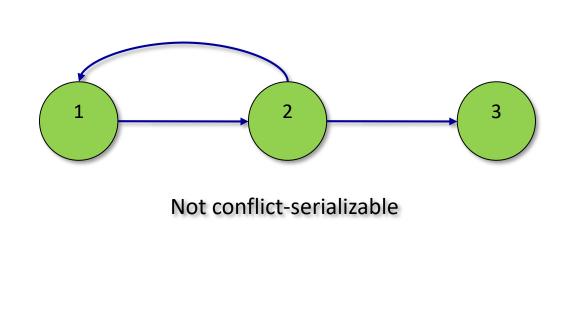


Conflict-serializable

Precedence graphs: example 2

$$r_2(A); r_1(B); w_2(A); r_2(B); r_3(A); w_1(B); w_3(A); w_2(B)$$

Note the following: $-r_1(B) <_{S} w_2(B)$ $-w_2(A) <_{S} w_3(A)$ $-r_2(B) <_{S} w_1(B)$ >Here, we have $T_1 < T_2 < T_3$, but we also have $T_{2} < T_{1}$



Precedence graphs: test for conflict-serializability

- If there is a cycle in the graph, then there is no serial schedule which is conflict-equivalent to S.
 - Each arc represents a requirement on the order of transactions in a conflict-equivalent *serial schedule*.
 - A cycle puts too many requirements on any *linear order* of transactions.
- If there is no cycle in the graph, then any topological order* of the graph suggests a conflict-equivalent schedule.

*A topological ordering of a directed acyclic graph (DAG) is a linear ordering of its nodes in which each node comes before all nodes to which it has outbound edges

Enforcing serializability by locks

- If scheduler allows multiple transactions access the same element, this may result in non-serializable schedule
- To prevent this, before reading or writing an element X, a transaction T_i requests a lock on X from the scheduler.
- The scheduler can either grant the lock to T_i or make T_i wait for the lock.
- If granted, T_i should eventually unlock (release) the lock on X.
- Notations:

L_i(X) = "transaction T_i requests a lock on X" u_i(X) (or uL_i(X)) = "T_i unlocks/releases the lock on X"

Legal schedule with locks

Schedule with locks - constraints:

Consistency of Transactions:

- Read or write X only when hold a lock on X.
 r_i(X) or w_i(X) must be preceded by some L_i(X) with no intervening u_i(X).
- If T_i locks X, T_i must eventually unlock X.
 Every L_i(X) must be followed by u_i(X).

Legality of Schedules:

• Two transactions may not have locked the same element X without one having first released the lock.

A schedule with $L_i(X)$ cannot have another $L_j(X)$ until $u_i(X)$ appears in between.

T ₁	T ₂	Α	В
		25	25
L ₁ (A); r ₁ (A)			
A = A + 100			
w ₁ (A); u₁(A)		125	
T1 under also	—L ₂ (A);r ₂ (A)		
T1 unlocks A so T2 is	A = A * 2		
- A so 12 is free to lock it	w ₂ (A); <mark>u₂(</mark> A)	250	
	L ₂ (B);r ₂ (B)		
	B = B * 2		
	w ₂ (B);u ₂ (B)		50
L ₁ (B);r ₁ (B)			
B = B + 100			
w ₁ (B); u₁(B)			150

Legal schedule doesn't mean serializable!

- T1 adds 100 to both A and B
- T2 doubles both A and B
- Expected result: A=B, and should be 250 for both by the end

Two-Phase Locking

There is a simple condition, which guarantees conflictserializability:

In every transaction, all lock requests (phase 1) precede all unlock requests (phase 2).

T ₁	T ₂	Α	В
		25	25
L ₁ (A); r ₁ (A)			
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) Denied		
r ₁ (B)			
B = B + 100			125
w ₁ (B); u₁(B)			
	L ₂ (B);u ₂ (A);r ₂ (B)		
	B = B * 2		
	w ₂ (B); <mark>u₂(B)</mark>		250

Simple locks are too restrictive

- While simple locks + 2PL guarantee conflict-serializability, they do not allow two readers of DB element X at the same time.
- But having multiple readers is not a problem for conflictserializability (since read actions commute)!

Shared/Exclusive Locks

Solution: Two types of locks:

- Shared lock sL_i(X) allows T_i to read, but not write X.
 It prevents other transactions from writing X but not from reading X.
- II. Exclusive lock xL_i(X) allows T_i to read and/or write X.
 No other transaction may read or write X.

Shared/Exclusive Locks: changes

Consistency of transactions:

- A read $r_i(X)$ must be preceded by $sL_i(X)$ or $xL_i(X)$, with no intervening $u_i(X)$.
- A write w_i(X) must be preceded by xL_i(X), with no intervening u_i(X).

Legal schedules:

• No two exclusive locks on the same element.

If $xL_i(X)$ appears in a schedule, then there cannot be a $xL_j(X)$ until after a $u_i(X)$ appears.

• No shared locks on exclusively locked element.

If $xL_i(X)$ appears, there can be no $sL_i(X)$ until after $u_i(X)$.

No writing in shared lock mode

If $sL_i(X)$ appears, there can be no $w_i(X)$ until after $u_i(X)$.

2PL condition:

• No transaction may have a **sL(X)** or **xL(X)** after a **u(Y)**.

Scheduler rules for shared/exclusive locks

- When there is more than one kind of lock, the scheduler needs a rule that says "if there is already a lock of type A on DB element X, can I grant a lock of type B on X?"
- The compatibility matrix answers the question.

Compatibility Matrix for Shared/Exclusive Locks

	S	X
S	\mathbf{yes}	no
Х	no	no

Scheduling with locks: example

r1(A); r2(B); r3(C); r1(B); r2(C); r3(D); w1(A); w2(B); w3(C);

<u>T1</u>	T2	T3
xl(A); r1(A)	xl(B); <mark>r2(B)</mark>	$\mathcal{A}(\mathcal{C})$, $\mathcal{A}(\mathcal{C})$
sl(B) denied		xl(C); r3(C)
w1(A);	sl(C) denied	sl(D); <mark>r3(D)</mark> ; ul(D)
vv I (A),	w2(B);	w3(C); ul(C)
sl(B); r1(B);	sl(C);	w3(C), ul(C)
···// // // D /		

ul(A); ul(B)

Upgrading Locks

• Instead of taking an exclusive lock immediately, a transaction can take a *shared* lock on X, read X, and then upgrade the lock to *exclusive* so that it can write X.

<u>T1</u>	T2	
sl1(A); r1(A);		
	sl2(A); r2(A); sl2(B); r2(B);	Upgrading Locks allows more concurrent operations:
sl1 (B); r1(B); xl1 (B) Denied	ul2(A); ul2(B);	Had T1 asked for an exclusive lock on B before reading B, the request would have been denied,
xl1 (B); <mark>w1(B)</mark> ; ul1(A); ul1(B);		because T2 already has a shared lock on B.

Scheduling with upgrade locks: example

r1(A); r2(B); r3(C); r1(B); r2(C); r3(D); w1(A); w2(B); w3(C);

<u>T1</u>	T2	Т3
sl(A); r1(A);	sl(B); <mark>r2(B);</mark>	
sl(B); r1(B);	sl(C); <mark>r2(C);</mark>	sl(C); r3(C);
xl (A);		sl(D); r3(D);
	xl(B); <mark>w2(B);</mark> ul(B); ul(C);	
		xl(C);

Compared to slide 38: no waiting

Possibility of Deadlocks

Example:T1 and T2 each reads X and later writes X.

T1	T2
sL1(X)	
	s∟2(X)
xL1(X) denied	
	x∟2(X) denied

Problem: when we allow upgrades, it is easy to get into a deadlock situation.

"When two trains approach each other at a crossing, both shall come to a full stop and neither shall start up again until the other has gone."

Possible solution: Update Locks

Update lock udL_i(X)

- Only an **update lock** (**not shared lock**) can be upgraded to **exclusive lock** (if there are no shared locks anymore).
- A transaction that will read and later on write some element A, asks initially for an update lock on A, and then asks for an exclusive lock on A. Such transaction doesn't ask for a shared lock on A.

Legal schedules

- Read action permitted when there is either a shared or update lock.
- An update lock can be granted while there is a shared lock, but the scheduler will not grant a shared lock when there is an update lock.

2PL condition

• No transaction may have an sl(X), udl(X) or xl(X) after a u(Y).

Update Locks: scheduler rules

Compatibility Matrix for Shared/Exclusive/Update Locks

	S	Х	U
S	\mathbf{yes}	no	yes
X	no	no	no
U	no	no	no

Schedule with update locks: example

<u>T1</u>	T2	Т3
sL(A); r(A)		
	<u>udı</u> (A); r <mark>(A)</mark>	sL(A) Denied
(-)	xL(A) Denied	SL(A) Demed
u(A)	xL(A); <mark>w(A)</mark>	
	u(A)	
		sL(A); r(A)
		u(A)

(No) Deadlock Example T_1 and T_2 each read X and later write X.

T1	T2
sL1(X);	
	sL2(X);
x∟1(X); denied	
x∟2(X); denied	

Deadlock when using SL and XL locks only.

T1	T2		
udl1(X); r(X);			
	udL2(X); denied		
xL1(X); w(X); u(X);			
	udl2(X); r2(X);		
	xl2(X); w2(X); u2(X)		

Fine when using update locks.

Scheduling with 3 types of locks: example

r1(A); r2(B); r3(C); r1(B); r2(C); r3(D); w1(A); w2(B); w3(C);

<u>T1</u>	T2	Т3
uL(A); <mark>r1(A);</mark>	uL(B); <mark>r2(B);</mark>	
sL(B); denied		uL(C); r3(C);
$\chi(\Lambda), \chi(1(\Lambda))$	sL(C); denied	sL(D); r3(D);
xl(A); w1(A);	xL(B); w2(B);	xL(C); w3(C);
	sL(C); <mark>r2(C);</mark>	uL(D); uL(C);
sL(B); <mark>r1(B);</mark> uL(A); uL(B);	uL(B); uL(C);	

