

Why do These Problems Occur?

- *Conflicts* between transactions cause this inconsistency due to the order in which the operations are executed
 - If one transaction reads a data object, and another reads that same data object, there is not a conflict
 - If one transaction reads a data object, and another writes that same data object, there is a conflict
 - If one transaction writes a data object, and another writes that same data object, there is a conflict
- It's up to some *concurrency control* mechanism to allow interleaving, but keep the database / file consistent
 - Should allow high degree of concurrency
 - Should prevent intermediate values from being visible to other transactions

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Issues in Transactions and Concurrency Control

- Centralized transactions
 - Concurrency control
 - Locking algorithms
 - Static locking
 - Two-phase locking (2PL)
 - Strict two-phase locking (strict 2PL)
 - Optimistic concurrency control
 - Timestamp ordering
 - Handling deadlock for locking algorithms
 - Deadlock detection
 - Deadlock prevention
 - Lock timeouts
 - Transaction timestamps
- Distributed transactions
 - Simple distributed vs. nested
 - Atomic commit protocols
 - One-phase
 - Two-phase

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Concurrency Control Using Locks (Eswaran, Gray, Lorie, and Traiger, 1976)

- A *well-formed* transaction must:
 - Lock a data object before accessing it
 - Unlocks the data object before it completes (commit / abort)
 - Example:
lock B; read B; update B; unlock B
- Note that being well-formed is *not* sufficient to guarantee serializability
 - Well-formed doesn't say anything about *when* a transaction should lock / unlock
 - Lock sometime after transaction begins, but before object is accessed
 - Unlock after finished with object, but before transaction completes
 - Additional constraints are needed to specify when a lock can be acquired, and when it can be released
 - These constraints are expressed as *locking algorithms*

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Static Locking

- A transaction acquires locks on *all* the data objects it needs (at a single point in time) before executing *any* action on the data objects
 - Usually when transaction begins
- After using the data objects, it releases *all* of its locks at once
 - Usually when transactions completes, else intermediate values will be visible
- Evaluation:
 - ✓ Simple, yet preserves consistency (intermediate values are not visible to other transactions)
 - ✗ Requires *a priori* knowledge of all the data objects to be accessed
 - ✗ Wasteful of resources, severely limits the concurrency of the transactions

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Two-Phase Locking (2PL)

- A transaction acquires a lock when it needs to access a data object. If it releases the lock after that access, but before the transaction ends, data could become visible to other transactions
 - ➔ (Consistency constraint) A transaction cannot request a lock on any data object after it has unlocked a data object
- The algorithm has two phases:
 - *Growing phase* — transaction requests locks, but doesn't release any locks
 - The stage of a transaction when it holds locks on all the needed data objects is called the *lock point*
 - *Shrinking phase* — transaction releases locks, but doesn't request any more locks
- Increases concurrency over static locking because locks are held for less time

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Two-Phase Locking (2PL) (cont.)

- Problems with two-phase locking (2PL):
 - Prone to *cascaded roll-back*
 - With 2PL, after the transaction has released some of its locks, yet before it has committed the transaction, those intermediate results become visible
 - When a transaction is rolled back, all modified data objects are restored
 - What if another transaction reads those intermediate results, and this transaction later aborts?
 - All transactions that have read these data objects must also be rolled back (even if they've already completed!) — this is called *cascaded roll-back*
 - Prone to deadlock
 - A transaction can request a lock on a data object while holding locks on other data object, so a circular wait can result
 - Resolved (after detecting deadlock) by:
 - Abort deadlocked transaction, restore all modified data objects, release all its locks, and withdraw all pending lock requests

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Improvements to Two-Phase Locking

- Strict two-phase locking (strict 2PL)
 - A transaction holds all its locks until it completes, when it commits and releases all of its locks in a single atomic action
 - Similar for an abort
 - ✗ Reduces concurrency (transactions hold locks longer than in 2PL) — almost as bad as strict locking!
 - ✗ Doesn't avoid deadlock
 - ✓ Avoids cascaded roll-backs
 - Most common locking algorithm
- Improvements to these algorithms
 - Two kinds of locks:
 - Read lock — other readers are permitted, writers are excluded
 - Write lock — exclusive access
 - Reduce granularity where possible (more concurrency, also more locks)

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Deadlock Detection / Prevention for Locking Algorithms

- Deadlock detection
 - Lock manager is responsible for detection
 - It looks for cycles in its WFG
 - If it finds a cycle, it must select and abort a transaction
- Deadlock prevention
 - Lock all items when transaction starts
 - Overly restrictive, reduces concurrency
 - May not be possible to predict accesses
 - Request locks in predefined order
 - May cause premature locking, which reduces concurrency
 - Lock timeouts (enables preemption)
 - Each lock is invulnerable for a limited period, and vulnerable afterwards
 - If a transaction wants to access a data object protected by a vulnerable lock, the lock is broken and the transaction holding it is aborted

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Deadlock Detection / Prevention for Locking Algorithms (cont.)

- Deadlock prevention (cont.)
 - Transaction timestamps
 - Each transaction is assigned a unique timestamp when it starts (logical clock, using Lamport's algorithm)
 - If a transaction needs to access a data object that is locked by another transaction, the timestamps of the two transactions are compared
 - Older transaction (smaller timestamp) generally have priority
 - Wait-for edges are only allowed from older to younger, which prevents cycles
 - Wait-die: (non-preemptive)
 - If older transaction wants something held by younger transaction, it waits
 - If younger transaction wants something held by older transaction, it must die
 - Wound-wait: (preempts resource)
 - If older transaction wants something held by younger transaction, it preempts it (wounds it)
 - If younger transaction wants something held by older transaction, it waits

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Optimistic Concurrency Control (Kung and Robinson, 1981)

- Disadvantages of locking:
 - High lock maintenance overhead
 - Even read-only queries must lock
 - Possible deadlock and cascading aborts
 - Deadlock prevention reduces concurrency
 - Holding locks until the end to prevent cascading aborts reduces concurrency
- Alternative — optimism
 - Likelihood of conflict is low, so just ignore the problem for the most part
 - Allow transactions to proceed as if there is no possibility of conflict
 - Use private workspaces
 - Validation before closing — if none of the data objects were modified by other transactions, then the transaction can commit, otherwise it aborts
 - No deadlock, no cascading aborts

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Timestamp Ordering

- Each operation is validated when it is carried out
 - If it can not be validated, then the entire transaction is aborted
- Basic timestamp ordering algorithm:
 - Each transaction is assigned a unique timestamp when it starts (logical clock, using Lamport's algorithm)
 - A transaction's request to write a data item is valid only if that data item was last read and written by earlier transactions
 - A transaction's request to read a data item is valid only if that data item was last written by earlier transactions
 - If a transaction is aborted and restarts, it gets a new timestamp
 - No deadlock, no cascading aborts

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Comments on the Various Concurrency Control Methods

- Pessimistic
 - Two-phase locking and timestamp ordering are both pessimistic — detect conflicts as each data item is accessed
 - Static vs. dynamic ordering
 - Timestamp ordering decides serialization order statically — when each transaction starts
 - Two-phase locking decides serialization order dynamically — according to the order in which the data items are accessed
- Effect of conflict:
 - Timestamp ordering aborts immediately
 - Two-phase locking makes transaction wait
 - Optimistic concurrency lets all transactions proceed, but later aborts some (possibly after long execution)

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Distributed Transactions

- A *distributed transaction* invokes operations in several different servers
 - Simple distributed transaction
 - Client makes requests to more than one server
 - Each server carries out the client's requests without involvement by others
 - Nested distributed transaction
 - Client makes requests to more than one server
 - Some of those servers make requests of yet other servers to carry out the client's request, and some of those servers may...
 - Example:
 - Client A tells server M to transfer \$4 from account A to C, and \$3 from B to D
 - A is at server X, B is at server Y, and C and D are at server Z
 - M tells server X to withdraw \$4 from A
 - M tells server Y to withdraw \$3 from B
 - M tells server Z to deposit \$4 into C, and \$3 into D

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Atomic Commit Protocols

- Distributed transactions are still required to be completed atomically
- First server involved in the distributed transaction becomes the coordinator
 - Coordinator is responsible for committing or aborting the transaction
 - All transactions involved know the identity of the coordinator
- One-phase atomic commit protocol
 - Transaction ends when coordinator requests that it be committed or aborted
 - Coordinator tells all the servers in the transaction to commit / abort, and keeps repeating that request until all of them acknowledge that they have carried it out
 - Coordinator can commit / abort, but individual servers can not

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Atomic Commit Protocols (cont.)

- Two-phase atomic commit protocol
 - Allows any server to abort its part of the transaction; atomicity then requires the entire transaction to be aborted
 - Phase 1: (voting phase)
 - Coordinator asks each worker if it can commit its transaction
 - Worker replies to coordinator; if its answer is *no*, the worker immediately aborts
 - Phase 2: (completion phase)
 - Coordinator collects the votes (including its own)
 - If there are no failures, and all votes are *yes*, the coordinator sends a *commit* request to each worker
 - Otherwise, the coordinator sends an *abort* request to all workers that voted *yes*
 - Workers that voted *yes* wait for a *commit* or *abort* message, act accordingly, and in the case of *commit* send a *have_committed* message afterwards

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