Transactions: Concurrency Control

Amol Deshpande CMSC424

Spring 2020 – Online Instruction Plan

- Week 1: File Organization and Indexes
- Week 2: Query Processing
- Week 3: Query Optimization; Parallel Databases 1
- Week 4: Parallel Databases; Mapreduce; Transactions 1
- Week 5: Transactions 2 (Homework Due May 1)
 - Transactions: Serializability, Recoverability
 - Transactions: Concurrency 1
 - Transactions: Concurrency 2: Other Concurrency Schemes
 - Transactions: Recovery (MOVED TO NEXT WEEK)
- Week 6: Transactions: Recovery; Distributed Transactions; Miscellaneous Topics (Homework Due May 8)

Transactions: Concurrency 2

Book Chapters

†15.4, 15.5, 15.7, 15.9

Key topics:

Timestamp-based concurrency schemes

Optimistic (validation-based) concurrency control

- ★Snapshot isolation
- ★ Phantom Problem
- Weak levels of consistency in SQL

Other CC Schemes: Time-stamp Based

Time-stamp based

- ★ Transactions are issued time-stamps when they enter the system
- **★** The time-stamps determine the *serializability* order
- So if T1 entered before T2, then T1 should be before T2 in the serializability order
- Say timestamp(T1) < timestamp(T2)</p>
- ★ If T1 wants to read data item A
 - If any transaction with larger time-stamp wrote that data item, then this operation is not permitted, and T1 is *aborted*
- ★ If T1 wants to write data item A
 - If a transaction with larger time-stamp already read that data item or written it, then the write is *rejected* and T1 is aborted
- ★ Aborted transaction are restarted with a new timestamp
 - Possibility of starvation

Other CC Schemes: Time-stamp Based

★ Example

T_2	T_3	T_4	T_5
			read (X)
read (Y)			
	write (Y)		
	write (Z)		
1/7			read (Z)
read (Z) abort			
abolt			
		read (W)	
	write (W)		
	abort		turito ()
			write (T)
	T ₂ read (Y) read (Z) abort	T2T3read (Y)write (Y) write (Z)read (Z) abortwrite (W) abort	T2T3T4read (Y)write (Y) write (Z)

Other CC Schemes: Time-stamp Based

Time-stamp based

- ★ As discussed here, has too many problems
 - Starvation
 - Non-recoverable
 - Cascading rollbacks required
- ★ Most can be solved fairly easily
 - Read up
- Remember: We can always put more and more restrictions on what the transactions can do to ensure these things
 - The goal is to find the minimal set of restrictions to as to not hinder concurrency

- Optimistic concurrency control
 - ★ Also called validation-based
 - ★ Intuition
 - > Let the transactions execute as they wish
 - At the very end when they are about to commit, check if there might be any problems/conflicts etc
 - If no, let it commit
 - If yes, abort and restart

★ Optimistic: The hope is that there won't be too many problems/aborts

Each transaction T_i has 3 timestamps

- **\star** Start(T_i) : the time when T_i started its execution
- **\star** Validation(T_i): the time when T_i entered its validation phase
- **\star** Finish(T_i) : the time when T_i finished its write phase
- Serializability order is determined by timestamp given at validation time, to increase concurrency.
 - **\star** Thus TS(T_i) is given the value of Validation(T_i).
- This protocol is useful and gives greater degree of concurrency if probability of conflicts is low.
 - * because the serializability order is not pre-decided, and
 - ★ relatively few transactions will have to be rolled back.

- If for all T_i with TS $(T_i) < TS(T_j)$ either one of the following condition holds:
 - **finish**(T_i) < start(T_j)
 - **start**(T_j) < finish(T_i) < validation(T_j) and the set of data items written by T_i does not intersect with the set of data items read by T_j .

then validation succeeds and T_j can be committed. Otherwise, validation fails and T_j is aborted.

- Justification: Either the first condition is satisfied, and there is no overlapped execution, or the second condition is satisfied and
 - the writes of T_j do not affect reads of T_i since they occur after T_i has finished its reads.
 - the writes of T_i do not affect reads of T_j since T_j does not read any item written by T_i .

Example of schedule produced using validation

T_{25}	T_{26}
read (B)	
	read (B)
	B := B 50
	read (A)
	A := A + 50
read (A)	
< validate >	
display $(A + B)$	
1000 at	< validate >
	write (B)
	write (A)

Other CC Schemes: Snapshot Isolation

- Very popular scheme, used as the primary scheme by many systems including Oracle, PostgreSQL etc...
 - * Several others support this in addition to locking-based protocol
- A type of "optimistic concurrency control"
- Key idea:
 - For each object, maintain past "versions" of the data along with timestamps
 - > Every update to an object causes a new version to be generated

Other CC Schemes: Snapshot Isolation

Read queries:

- Let "t" be the "time-stamp" of the query, i.e., the time at which it entered the system
- When the query asks for a data item, provide a version of the data item that was latest as of "t"
 - > Even if the data changed in between, provide an old version
- * No locks needed, no waiting for any other transactions or queries
- ★ The query executes on a consistent snapshot of the database
- Update queries (transactions):
 - ★ Reads processed as above on a snapshot
 - ★ Writes are done in private storage
 - At commit time, for each object that was written, check if some other transaction updated the data item since this transaction started
 - If yes, then abort and restart
 - If no, make all the writes public simultaneously (by making new versions)

Snapshot Isolation

A transaction T1 executing with Snapshot Isolation

- ★ takes snapshot of committed data at start
- always reads/modifies data in its own snapshot
- updates of concurrent transactions are not visible to T1
- writes of T1 complete when it commits
- First-committer-wins rule:
 - Commits only if no other concurrent transaction has already written data that T1 intends to write.



T1	T2	Т3
W(Y := 1)		
Commit		
	Start	
	$R(X) \rightarrow 0$	
	R(Y)→ 1	
		W(X:=2)
		W(Z:=3)
		Commit
	$R(Z) \rightarrow 0$	
	R(Y) → 1	
	W(X:=3)	
	Commit-Req	
	Abort	

Other CC Schemes: Snapshot Isolation

Advantages:

- ★ Read query don't block at all, and run very fast
- ★ As long as conflicts are rare, update transactions don't abort either
- ★ Overall better performance than locking-based protocols
- Major disadvantage:
 - ★ Not serializable
 - ★ Inconsistencies may be introduced
 - * See the wikipedia article for more details and an example
 - http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Snapshot_isolation

Snapshot Isolation

Example of problem with SI

★ T1: x:=y

- ★ T2: y:= x
- **\star** Initially x = 3 and y = 17
 - Serial execution: x = ??, y = ??
 - if both transactions start at the same time, with snapshot isolation: x = ??, y = ??
- Called skew write
- Skew also occurs with inserts
 - ★ E.g:
 - > Find max order number among all orders
 - Create a new order with order number = previous max + 1

SI In Oracle and PostgreSQL

- Warning: SI used when isolation level is set to serializable, by Oracle, and PostgreSQL versions prior to 9.1
 - PostgreSQL's implementation of SI (versions prior to 9.1) described in Section 26.4.1.3
 - Oracle implements "first updater wins" rule (variant of "first committer wins")
 - > concurrent writer check is done at time of write, not at commit time
 - > Allows transactions to be rolled back earlier
 - Oracle and PostgreSQL < 9.1 do not support true serializable execution
 - PostgreSQL 9.1 introduced new protocol called "Serializable Snapshot Isolation" (SSI)
 - Which guarantees true serializability including handling predicate reads (coming up)

The "Phantom" problem

- An interesting problem that comes up for dynamic databases
- Schema: *accounts(acct_no, balance, zipcode, ...)*
- Transaction 1: Find the number of accounts in *zipcode = 20742*, and divide \$1,000,000 between them
- Transaction 2: Insert <acctX, ..., 20742, ...>
- Execution sequence:
 - T1 locks all tuples corresponding to "zipcode = 20742", finds the total number of accounts (= num_accounts)
 - ★ T2 does the insert
 - T1 computes 1,000,000/num_accounts
 - When T1 accesses the relation again to update the balances, it finds one new ("phantom") tuples (the new tuple that T2 inserted)
- Not serializable
- See this for another example

Weak Levels of Consistency

- Degree-two consistency: differs from two-phase locking in that S-locks may be released at any time, and locks may be acquired at any time
 - ★ X-locks must be held till end of transaction
 - Serializability is not guaranteed, programmer must ensure that no erroneous database state will occur]

Cursor stability:

- For reads, each tuple is locked, read, and lock is immediately released
- ★ X-locks are held till end of transaction
- ★ Special case of degree-two consistency

Weak Levels of Consistency in SQL

SQL allows non-serializable executions

- **Serializable:** is the default
- Repeatable read: allows only committed records to be read, and repeating a read should return the same value (so read locks should be retained)
 - > However, the phantom phenomenon need not be prevented
 - T1 may see some records inserted by T2, but may not see others inserted by T2
- Read committed: same as degree two consistency, but most systems implement it as cursor-stability
- **Read uncommitted**: allows even uncommitted data to be read
- In many database systems, read committed is the default consistency level
 - * has to be explicitly changed to serializable when required
 - set isolation level serializable



Concurrency control schemes help guarantee isolation while allowing for concurrent transactions

Many different schemes developed over the years
★ Lock-based, Timestamp-based, Snapshot Isolation, Optimistic

Lot of new work in the recent years because of shifting hardware trends

★ E.g., locking performance overheads quite significant

Many NoSQL systems still have limited concurrency

Important to consider recovery schemes at the same time