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# Distributed concurrency control

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These slides are a modified version of the slides provided with the book  
Özsu and Valduriez, *Principles of Distributed Database Systems* (3rd Ed.), 2011

The original version of the slides is available at: [extras.springer.com](http://extras.springer.com)

# Outline (distributed DB)

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- Introduction (Ch. 1) \*
- Distributed Database Design (Ch. 3) \*
- Distributed Query Processing (Ch. 6-8) \*
- Distributed Transaction Management (Ch. 10-12) \*
  - Introduction to transaction management (Ch. 10) \*
  - **Distributed Concurrency Control (Ch. 11) \***
  - Distributed DBMS Reliability (Ch. 12) \*

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\* Özsu and Valduriez, *Principles of Distributed Database Systems* (3rd Ed.), 2011

# Outline (today)

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- Distributed Concurrency Control (Ch. 11) <sup>\*</sup>
  - Serializability Theory
    - ◆ Formalization/ Abstraction of Transactions
    - ◆ Formalization/ Abstraction of Concurrent Transactions (Histories)
    - ◆ Serial Histories
  - Locking-based
    - ◆ (strict) 2-phase Locking (2PL)
  - Deadlock management

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<sup>\*</sup> Özsu and Valduriez, *Principles of Distributed Database Systems* (3rd Ed.), 2011

# Concurrency Control

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- The problem of synchronizing concurrent transactions such that the consistency of the database is maintained while, at the same time, maximum degree of concurrency is achieved
- This has to do with C(onsistency) and I(solation) from the ACID properties
- *Consistency*: assuming that each transaction is internally consistent (no integrity constraint violations) it is obtained by guaranteeing the right level of *isolation* (**serializability**)
- *Isolation*: isolating transactions from one another in terms of their effects on the DB. More precisely, in terms of the effect on the DB of intermediate operations (before commit)
- Tradeoff between isolation and parallel execution (concurrency)
- Assumptions
  - System is fully reliable (no failures) – we deal with reliability in Ch. 12\*
  - No data replication – discussion on data replication is in Ch. 13\* (we do not cover this chapter)
- Possible anomalies
  - Lost updates
    - ◆ The effects of some transactions are not reflected on the database
  - Inconsistent retrievals
    - ◆ A transaction, if it reads the same data item more than once, should always read the same value

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\* Özsu and Valduriez, *Principles of Distributed Database Systems* (3rd Ed.), 2011

# POSET's to Model Transactions

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- We treat a transaction as a POSET (aka partially ordered set, partial order)
- POSET's are pairs  $\langle \Sigma, \prec \rangle$  where
  - $\Sigma$  is a set (domain)
  - $\prec$  is a binary relation over  $\Sigma$  ( $\prec \subseteq \Sigma \times \Sigma$ ) that is
    - ♦ irreflexive (not  $a \prec a$ , for all  $a$ )
    - ♦ asymmetric ( $a \prec b$  implies not  $b \prec a$ , for all  $a, b$ )
    - ♦ transitive ( $a \prec b$  and  $b \prec c$  implies  $a \prec c$ , for all  $a, b, c$ )
- Operations are
  - DB operations (read or write):  $R(x), W(x)$  (where  $x$  is a data entity, e.g., a tuple) or
  - termination conditions (abort or commit):  $A, C$
- A transaction is modeled as a partially ordered set of operations containing **exactly one** termination condition

# Formalization/Abstraction of Transactions

- A transition is a POSET  $T = \langle \Sigma, \prec \rangle$  where
  - $\Sigma$  is finite: it is the set of **operations** of  $T$ 
    - ♦  $O$  is the set of DB operations in  $\Sigma$  (operation that are not termination conditions)
      - ✓ i.e., elements of  $O$  are of the kind  $R(x), W(x)$  where  $x$  is a data entity
    - ♦ Thus,  $\Sigma = O \cup \{N\}$ , where  $N \in \{A, C\}$  **(exactly 1 termination condition)**
    - ♦ 2 DB operations (elements of  $O$ ) **conflict** iff they act on the same data entity  $x$  and one of them is a write  $W$  operation
      - ✓  $W(x), R(x)$  are **in conflict**,  $W(x), W(x)$  are **in conflict**
      - ✓  $W(x), R(y)$  are **NOT in conflict**,  $W(x), W(y)$  are **NOT in conflict**,  $R(x), R(x)$  are **NOT in conflict**
    - ♦ **NOTICE:** it is possible to have 2 distinct  $W(x)$  operations
      - ✓ We assume implicit indices to make every operation unique
    - ♦ Operations are atomic (indivisible units)
  - $\prec$  is s.t.
    - ♦ order of conflicting operation is specified
      - ✓ for all  $o_1, o_2 \in O$ : if  $o_1$  and  $o_2$  conflict, then either  $o_1 \prec o_2$  or  $o_2 \prec o_1$
    - ♦ all DB operations precede the unique termination condition
      - ✓ for all  $o \in O$ :  $o \prec N$

# Formalization/Abstraction of Transactions – cont'd

- POSET's are DAG (directed acyclic graphs)
- We represent a transaction either way (as a POSET or as a DAG)
- The order of 2 conflicting operations is important and **MUST** be specified  
→ it specifies the execution order between the 2 operations
- Operations that are not related can be executed in parallel
- A transaction might force other precedence order relations besides the ones between conflicting operations
- These depend on application semantics

**Transaction  $T$ :** Read( $x$ )  
Read( $y$ )  
 $x \leftarrow x + y$   
Write( $x$ )  
Commit

**POSET representation of  $T$ :**

- $\Sigma = \{R(x), R(y), W(x), C\}$
- $< = \{ (R(x), W(x)), (R(y), W(x)), (W(x), C), (R(x), C), (R(y), C) \}$

POSET representation abstracts away application (non-DB) operations (e.g.,  $x \leftarrow x + y$ )

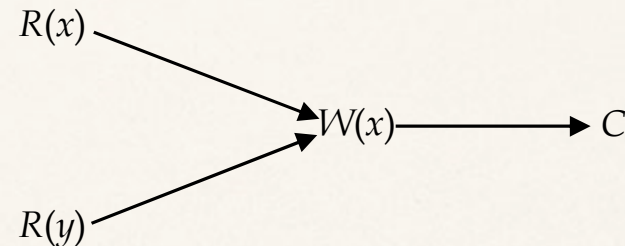
# DAG Representation

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Let  $T = \{ R(x) < W(x) , R(y) < W(x) , W(x) < C , R(x) < C , R(y) < C \}$

*(compact representation of a POSET)*

Corresponding *DAG representation*:



Transactions are DAG's (directed acyclic graphs)

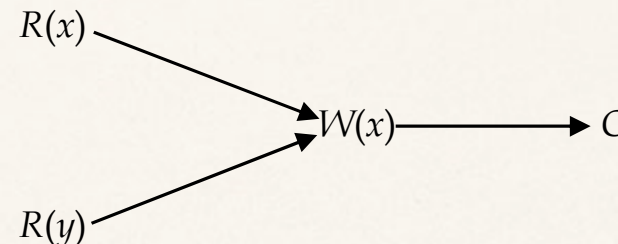


# DAG Representation

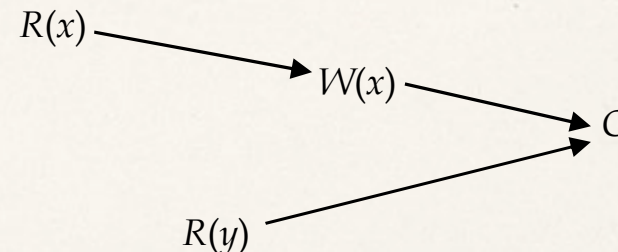
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*(compact representation of a POSET)*

Corresponding *DAG representation*:



Let  $T = \{ R(x) < W(x) , ~~R(y) < W(x)~~ , W(x) < C , R(x) < C , R(y) < C \}$



Order of  $R(y)$  and  $W(x)$  is irrelevant  
(order of 2 read operations is always irrelevant)

Transactions are DAG's (directed acyclic graphs)

# Transactions as Executions

- There is at least one (possibly several), at least one, **linear orders** (aka **total orders**) *compatible with* (i.e., *extending*) any given partial order
- Each of them is a possible execution of the transaction
- Therefore, a transaction that is a **linear order** is a **transaction execution**



# From Transactions to Histories

- **Informal definition:** A **history** is defined over a set of transactions and specifies possible interleaved executions of transactions in such set
  - The formalization of transaction as POSET's can be extended to sets of transactions to define histories
  - **Formal definition:**
    - Extend the notion of *conflicting operations* to pairs of operations  $O_i, O_j$  belonging to different transactions
    - Given a set  $T = \{T_1, \dots, T_n\}$  of transactions
      - ♦ (where  $T_i = \langle \Sigma_i, <_i \rangle$  for all  $i$  - we assume  $\Sigma_i \cap \Sigma_j = \emptyset$  for all  $i \neq j$ )
- A history  $H$  over  $T$  is a pair  $H = \langle \Sigma, < \rangle$  where
- ♦  $\Sigma = \bigcup_{T_i \in T} \Sigma_i$  is a finite set of read/write operations plus one termination condition (C or A) for each transaction)
  - ♦  $< \supseteq \bigcup_{T_i \in T} <_i$  is a partial order that extends  $<_i$  by including precedence constraints for conflicting operations belonging to different transactions (and, possibly, more precedence constraints for pairs of operations belonging to different transactions)
  - ♦ Still, the order of 2 conflicting operations is important and **MUST** be specified. Therefore
    - ✓ for all  $o_i \in \Sigma_i$  and all  $o_j \in \Sigma_j$  ( $i \neq j$ ): if  $o_i$  and  $o_j$  conflict, then either  $o_i < o_j$  or  $o_j < o_i$
- A history that is a **linear order** is a **concurrent transaction execution**
  - In the book <sup>\*</sup> the term *complete history* is used for what we call here *history*
    - because they use *histories* to refer to prefixes of histories (partial histories)

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\* Özsu and Valduriez, *Principles of Distributed Database Systems* (3rd Ed.), 2011

# History – Example

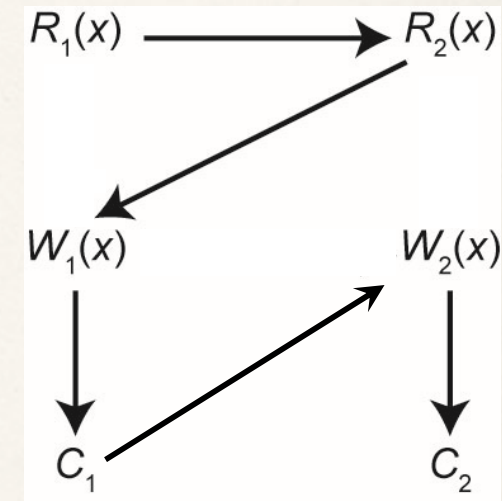
$T_1$ :  $R(x)$   
 $x \leftarrow x + 1$   
 $W(x)$   
 $C$

$T_2$ :  $R(x)$   
 $x \leftarrow x + 1$   
 $W(x)$   
 $C$

A history over  $T = \{ T_1, T_2 \}$  is the partial order:

$H = \{ R_1(x) < R_2(x) < W_1(x) < C_1 < W_2(x) < C_2 \}$

$H$  is actually a linear order,  
so it is a *concurrent execution*  
of transactions  $T_1$  and  $T_2$

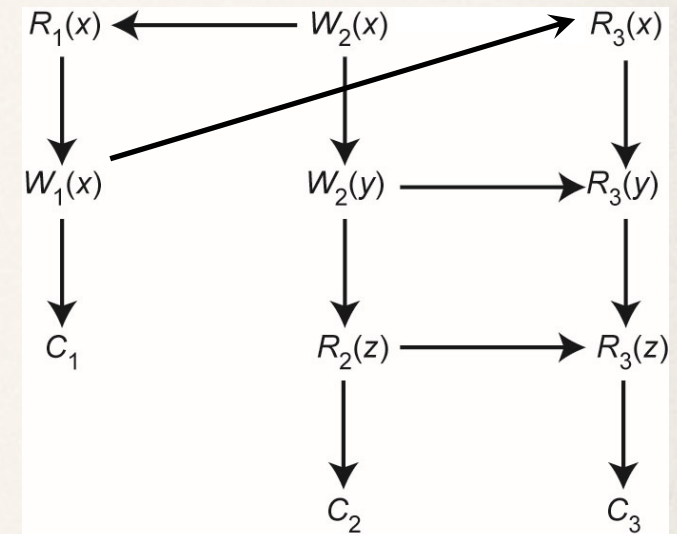


# Serial History

- A **serial history** (or **serial execution of concurrent transactions** or **serial execution**) is a concurrent transaction execution where operations of different transaction do not interleave
- A serial history defines a **linear order over transactions**, too (**serialization order**)

$T_1$ : Read( $x$ )	$T_2$ : Write( $x$ )	$T_3$ : Read( $x$ )
Write( $x$ )	Write( $y$ )	Read( $y$ )
Commit	Read( $z$ )	Read( $z$ )
	Commit	Commit

A serial history over  $T = \{ T_1, T_2 \}$  compatible with  $H$  is the linear order (we omit the termination conditions  $C_i$ ):

$$H' = \{ \underbrace{W_2(x) < W_2(y) < R_2(z)}_{T_2} < \underbrace{R_1(x) < W_1(x)}_{T_1} < \underbrace{R_3(x) < R_3(y) < R_3(z)}_{T_3} \}$$


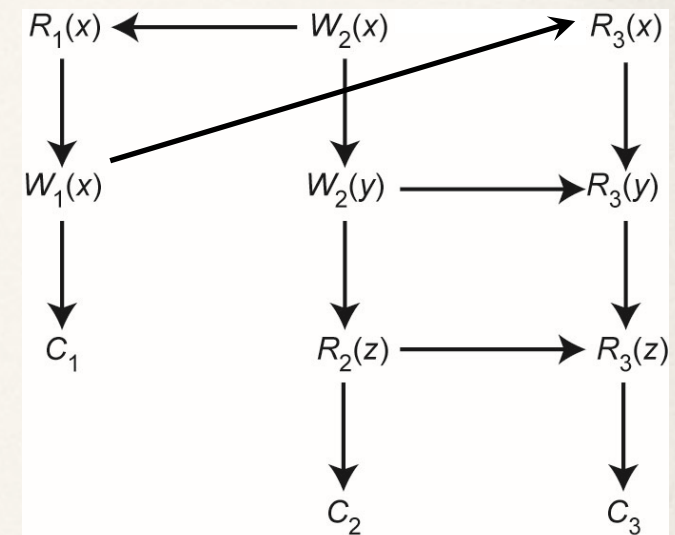
A history  $H$  over  $T = \{ T_1, T_2, T_3 \}$

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A history  $H$  over  $T = \{ T_1, T_2, T_3 \}$

**A serial history preserves DB consistency** (as transactions, when executed singularly, brings DB from a consistent state to another consistent state)

# Conflict equivalence

- **Definition.** Two histories over the same set of transactions are **conflict equivalent** (or, simply **equivalent**) iff they agree on the execution order of the conflicting operations
  - $H_1 = \langle \Sigma_1, \prec_1 \rangle$  and  $H_2 = \langle \Sigma_2, \prec_2 \rangle$  with  $O$  and  $O'$  conflicting operations
    - ♦ then  $O \prec_1 O'$  if and only if  $O \prec_2 O'$
  - (we are ignoring abort transaction to keep definition simpler)
- $H' = \{ W_2(x) \prec_{H'} W_2(y) \prec_{H'} R_2(z) \prec_{H'} R_1(x) \prec_{H'} W_1(x) \prec_{H'} R_3(x) \prec_{H'} R_3(y) \prec_{H'} R_3(z) \}$ 
  - is **NOT equivalent** to  $H_1 = \{ W_2(x) \prec_{H_1} R_1(x) \prec_{H_1} R_3(x) \prec_{H_1} W_1(x) \prec_{H_1} R_3(y) \prec_{H_1} R_3(z) \prec_{H_1} W_2(y) \prec_{H_1} R_2(z) \}$ 
    - ♦ because  $W_1(x) \prec_{H'} R_3(x)$  in  $H'$  but  $R_3(x) \prec_{H_1} W_1(x)$  in  $H_1$
  - is **equivalent** to  $H_2 = \{ W_2(x) \prec_{H_2} R_1(x) \prec_{H_2} W_1(x) \prec_{H_2} R_3(x) \prec_{H_2} W_2(y) \prec_{H_2} R_3(y) \prec_{H_2} R_2(z) \prec_{H_2} R_3(z) \}$
  - (actually  $H', H_1, H_2$  are all **concurrent transaction executions**)
- **Definition.** A history is **serializable** iff it is equivalent to a serial execution
  - Therefore,  $H_2$  is *serializable* (because  $H_2$  is equivalent to  $H'$ , which is a serial history)

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    - ♦ because  $W_1(x) \prec_{H'} R_3(x)$  in  $H'$  but  $R_3(x) \prec_{H_1} W_1(x)$  in  $H_1$
  - is **equivalent** to  $H_2 = \{ W_2(x) \prec_{H_2} R_1(x) \prec_{H_2} W_1(x) \prec_{H_2} R_3(x) \prec_{H_2} W_2(y) \prec_{H_2} R_3(y) \prec_{H_2} R_2(z) \prec_{H_2} R_3(z) \}$
  - (actually  $H', H_1, H_2$  are all **concurrent transaction executions**)
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  - Therefore,  $H_2$  is *serializable* (because  $H_2$  is equivalent to  $H'$ , which is a serial history)

Primary function of a **concurrency controller** is to **produce a serializable history** over the set of pending transactions



# Serializability in Distributed DBMS

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- Somewhat more involved. Two histories have to be considered:
  - local histories: histories over sets of transactions at the same site
  - global history: union of local histories
- For global transactions (i.e., global history) to be **serializable**, two conditions are necessary:
  - Each local history should be serializable
  - Identical local serialization order

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\* Özsu and Valduriez, *Principles of Distributed Database Systems* (3rd Ed.), 2011

# Example

- $T_1$  transfers 100 € from bank account  $x$  to  $y$

- $T_2$  reads balance of  $x$  and  $y$

- $x$  is stored at site  $s_1$

- $y$  is stored at site  $s_2$

- site  $s_1$ :  $T_{1,s_1} = \{ R_1(x) < W_1(x) \}$        $T_{2,s_1} = \{ R_2(x) \}$

- site  $s_2$ :  $T_{1,s_2} = \{ R_1(y) < W_1(y) \}$        $T_{2,s_2} = \{ R_2(y) \}$

- Local history at site  $s_1$ :  $H_{s_1} = \{ R_1(x) < W_1(x) < R_2(x) \}$

→  $H_{s_1}$  is **serial** with serialization order  $T_1 < T_2$

- Local history at site  $s_2$ :  $H_{s_2} = \{ R_1(y) < W_1(y) , R_2(y) < W_1(y) \}$

→  $H_{s_2}$  is **locally serializable**:  $R_2(y) < R_1(y) < W_1(y)$

→ but not globally (serialization order  $T_2 < T_1$ )

$T_1$ :    Read( $x$ )  
          $x \leftarrow x-100$   
         Write( $x$ )  
         Read( $y$ )  
          $y \leftarrow y+100$   
         Write( $y$ )  
         Commit

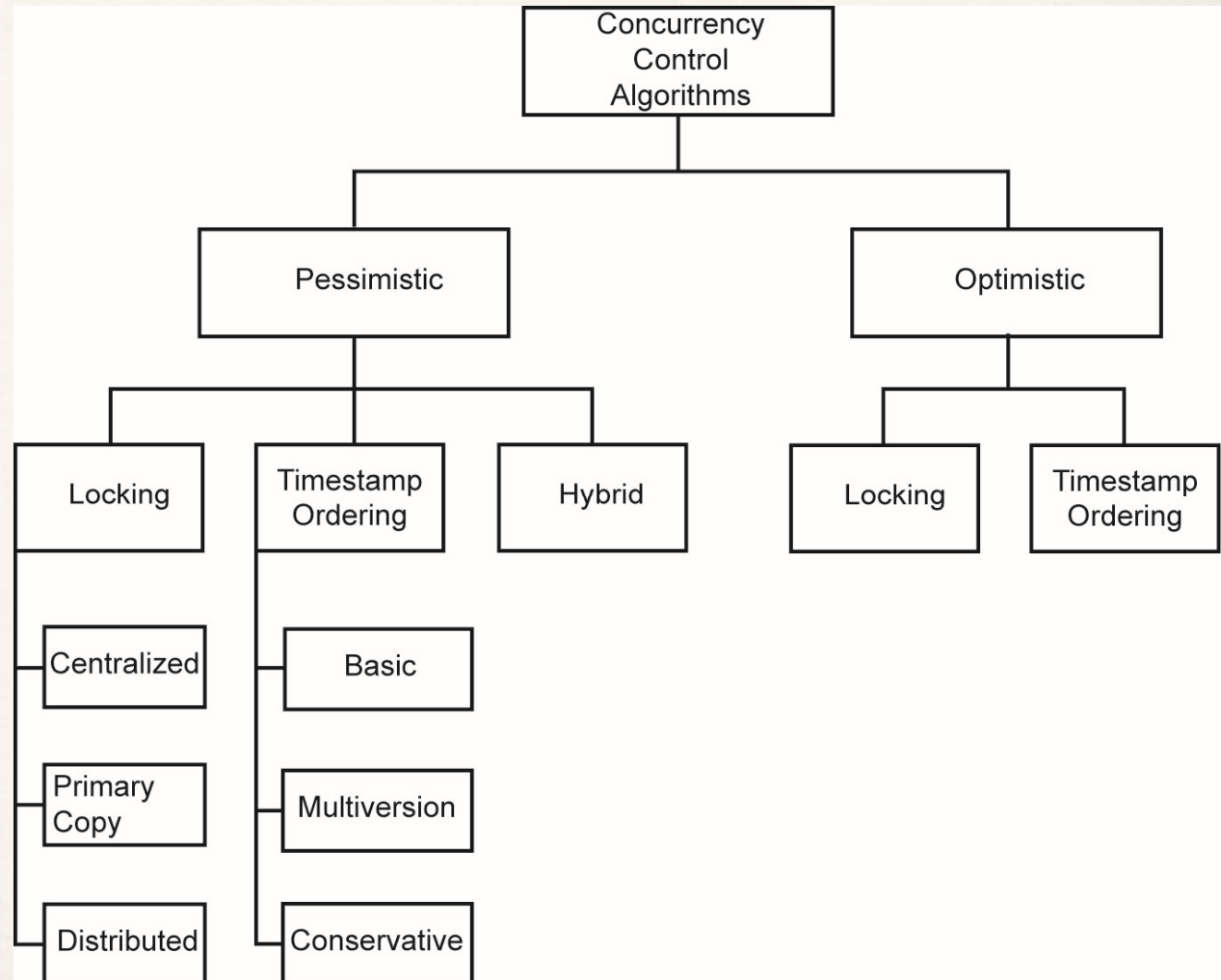
$T_2$ :    Read( $x$ )  
         Read( $y$ )  
         Commit

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# Taxonomy of concurrency control mechanism

## Classification

- based on synchronization primitives
  - locking vs. timestamp vs. hybrid
- pessimistic vs. optimistic

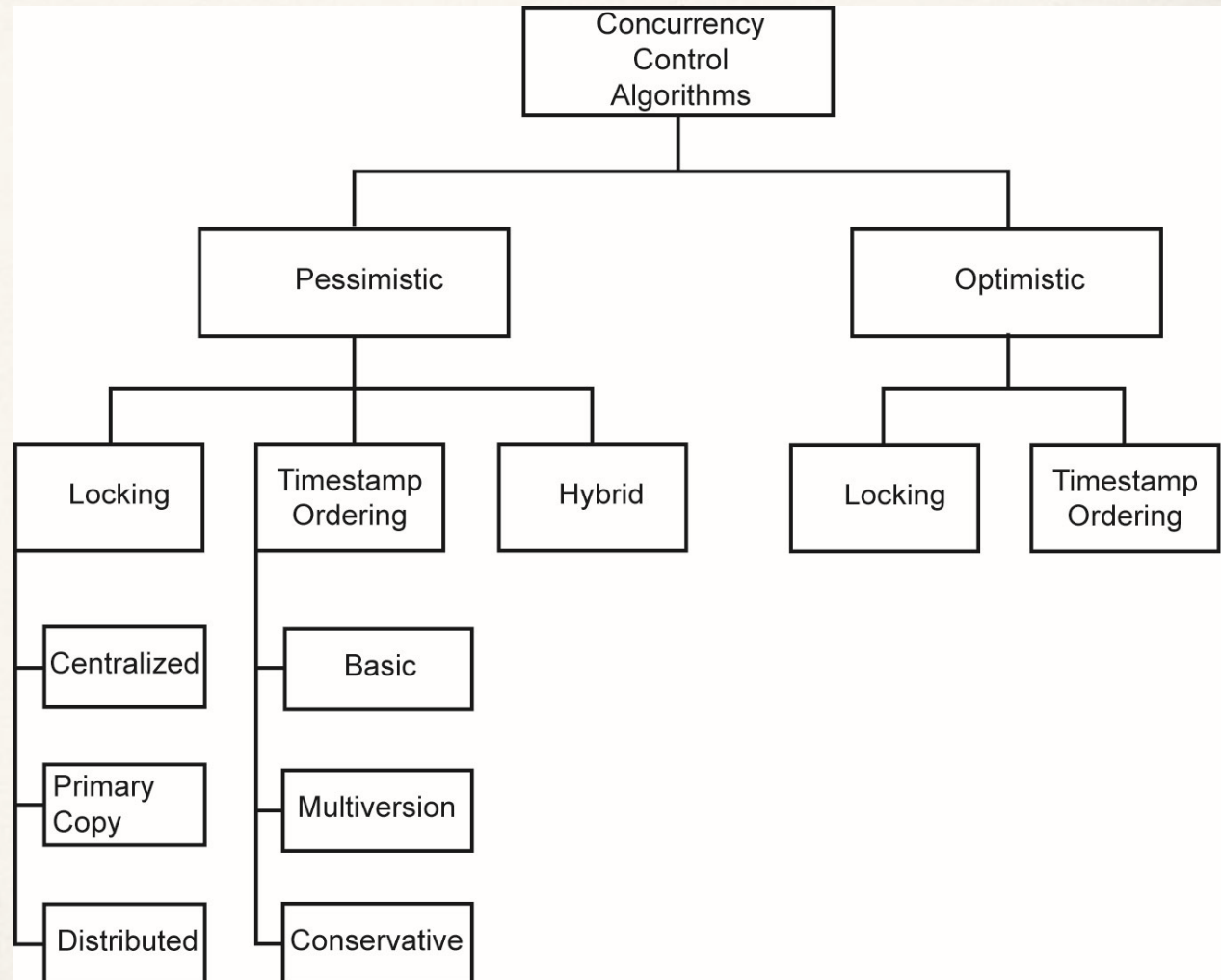


# Taxonomy of concurrency control mechanism

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- based on synchronization primitives
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We consider locking-based algorithm in the pessimistic scenario



# Locking-Based Algorithms

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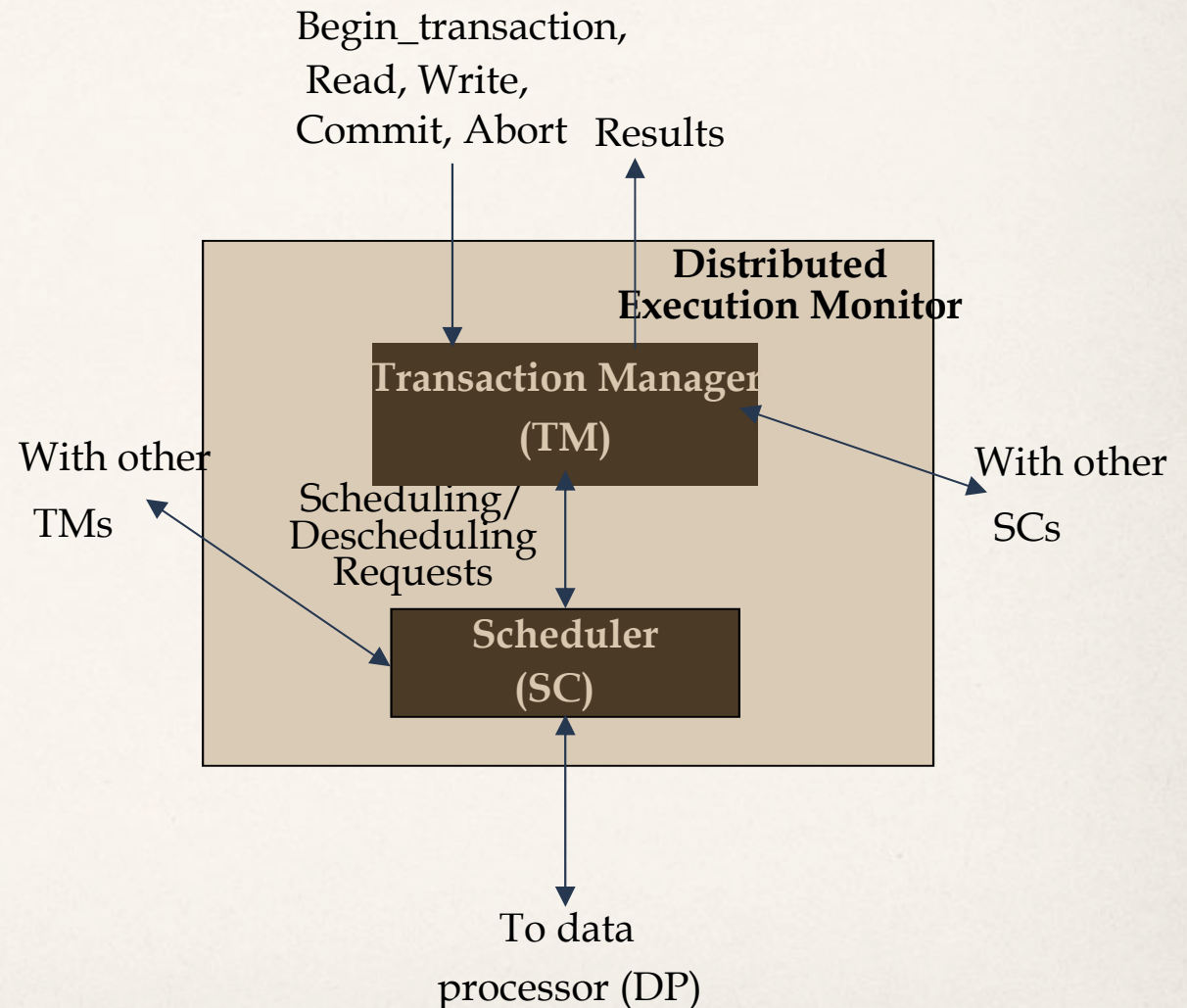
- Goal: to generate serializable histories
- Transactions indicate their intentions to read/write data item  $x$  by requesting suitable locks from the scheduler (called **lock manager**)
- Locks are either **read lock** ( $rl$ ) [also called **shared lock**] or **write lock** ( $wl$ ) [also called **exclusive lock**]
- Read locks and write locks conflict (because so do Read and Write operations)

	$rl$	$wl$
$rl$	no	yes
$wl$	yes	yes

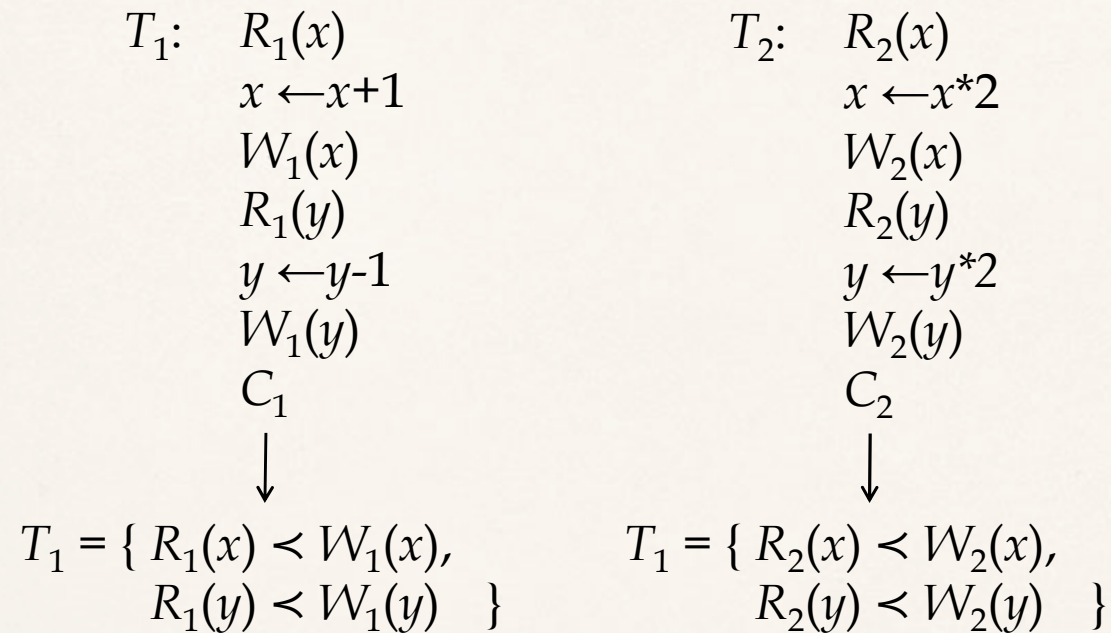
- Locking works nicely to allow concurrent processing of transactions

# Locking-Based Mechanism

- TM handles R/W requests coming from applications and passes them to SC (op. type R/W, transaction id., data unit)
- SC decides when to grant the lock according to compatibility access rules
- When SC grants lock, the DP executes the operation (R/W)
- SC is asked to release the lock
- TM is informed of successful operation
- Locking mechanism does not guarantee serializability (serial/serializable histories)
  - 2-phase locking (2PL) is the solution



# Locking-Based Mechanism - Example



$$H = \{ \underbrace{R_1(x) < W_1(x)}_{wl_1(x)} < \underbrace{R_2(x) < W_2(x)}_{wl_2(x)} < \underbrace{R_2(y) < W_2(y)}_{wl_2(y)} < \underbrace{R_1(y) < W_1(y)}_{wl_1(y)} \}$$

# Locking-Based Mechanism - Example

$T_1$ :  $R_1(x)$   
 $x \leftarrow x+1$   
 $W_1(x)$   
 $R_1(y)$   
 $y \leftarrow y-1$   
 $W_1(y)$   
 $C_1$

$T_1 = \{ R_1(x) < W_1(x),$   
 $R_1(y) < W_1(y) \}$

$T_2$ :  $R_2(x)$   
 $x \leftarrow x*2$   
 $W_2(x)$   
 $R_2(y)$   
 $y \leftarrow y*2$   
 $W_2(y)$   
 $C_2$

$T_2 = \{ R_2(x) < W_2(x),$   
 $R_2(y) < W_2(y) \}$

Expected results (starting with  $x=50, y = 20$ )

- $x=102$  and  $y = 38$  ( $T_1$  before  $T_2$ )
- $x=101$  and  $y = 39$  ( $T_2$  before  $T_1$ )

Actual results

- $x=102$  and  $y = 39$  ( $T_1$  and  $T_2$  interleave)

$H = \{ \underbrace{R_1(x) < W_1(x)}_{wl_1(x)} < \underbrace{R_2(x) < W_2(x)}_{wl_2(x)} < \underbrace{R_2(y) < W_2(y)}_{wl_2(y)} < \underbrace{R_1(y) < W_1(y)}_{wl_1(y)} \}$



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$T_2$ :  $R_2(x)$   
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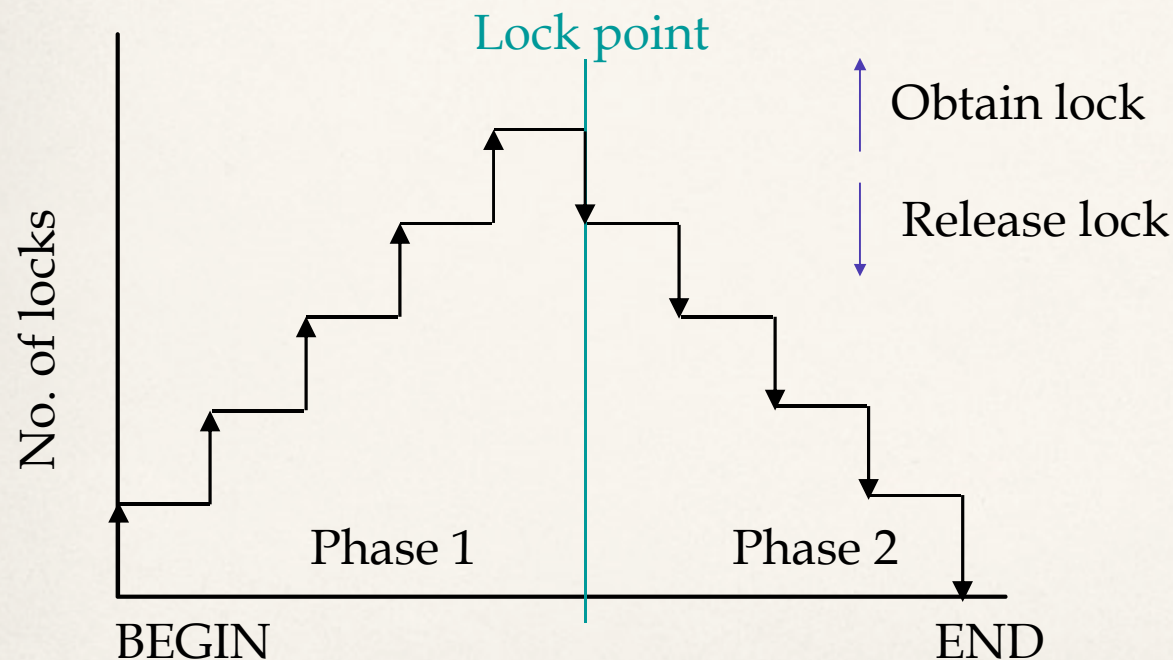
(simple) locking grants exclusive access to data item...

... but it does not grant isolation ( $T_1$  and  $T_2$  interleave)

$H = \{ \underbrace{R_1(x) < W_1(x)}_{wl_1(x)} < \underbrace{R_2(x) < W_2(x)}_{wl_2(x)} < \underbrace{R_2(y) < W_2(y)}_{wl_2(y)} < \underbrace{R_1(y) < W_1(y)}_{wl_1(y)} \}$

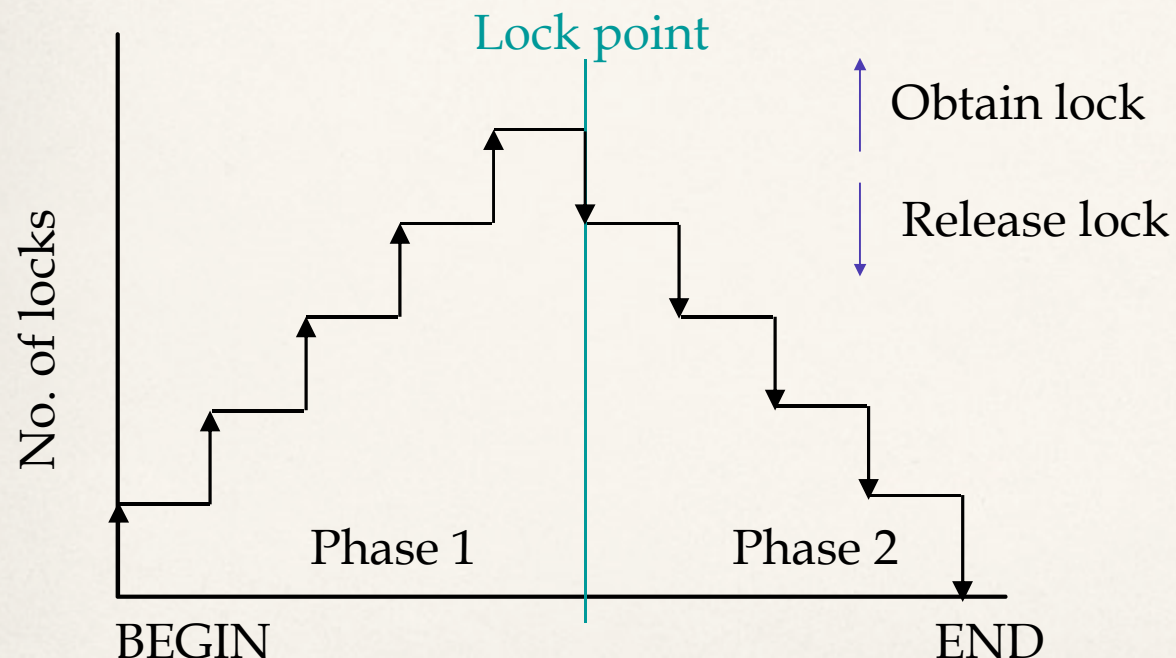
# Two-Phase Locking (2PL)

- 1 A Transaction locks an object before using it
- 2 When an object is locked by another transaction, the requesting transaction must wait (if conflicting)
- 3 When a transaction releases a lock, it may not request another lock.



# Two-Phase Locking (2PL)

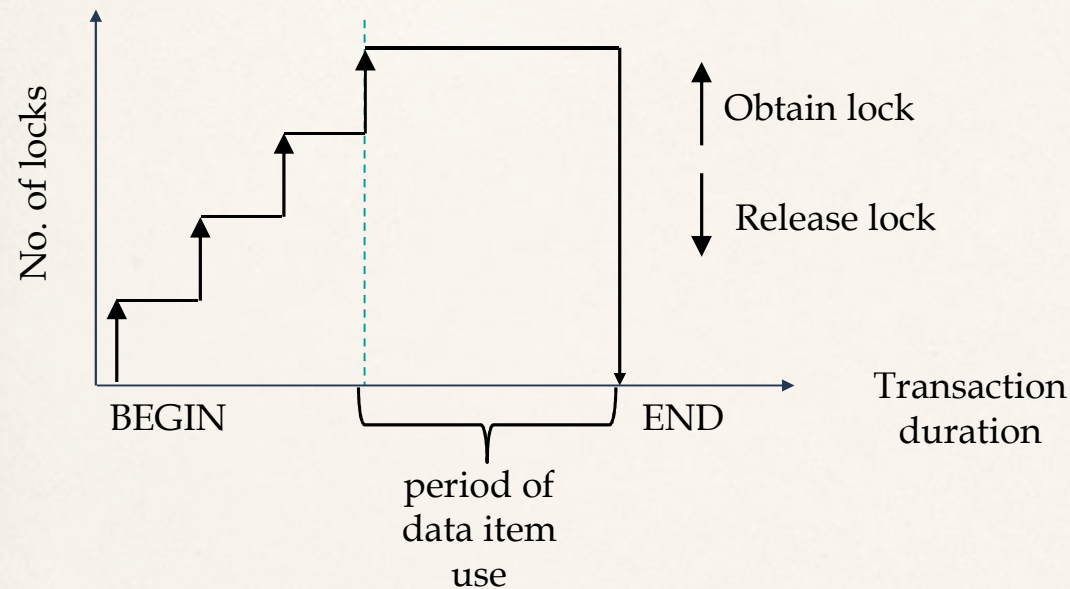
- 1 A Transaction locks an object before using it
- 2 When an object is locked by another transaction, the requesting transaction must wait (if conflicting)
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- 2PL guarantees serializable histories
- Implementation issues
  - TM must know not only when data item  $x$  will not be used anymore...
  - ... also when no more locks will be requested
  - Moreover, during descending phase other transactions get lock (dirty read)
    - Possibility of cascade aborts

# Strict 2PL

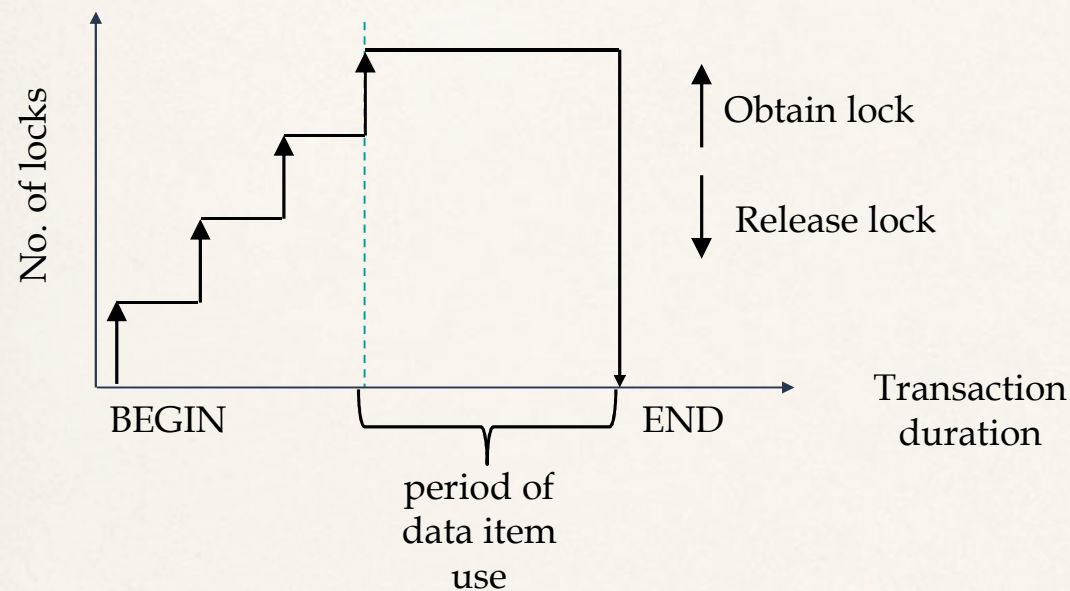
Hold locks until the end.



- Strict 2PL: all locks are released together after commit
- Higher degree of isolation
- Easier to implement
- Less concurrency

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Locking-based mechanisms can cause deadlocks

# 2PL: Implementation Alternatives

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Two possible implementation for (strict) 2PL in the distributed context

- centralized: 1 SC
- distributed: many SC

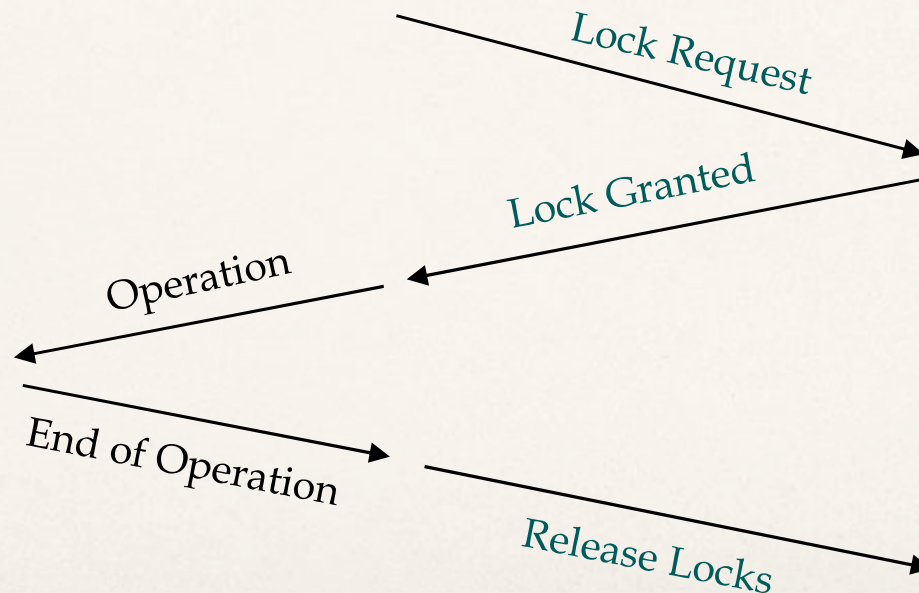
# Centralized 2PL

- There is only one 2PL scheduler in the distributed system
- Lock requests are issued to the central scheduler
- Coordinating TM is where the query is initiated

Data Processors at  
participating sites

Coordinating TM

Central Site LM



Issues with centralized 2PL

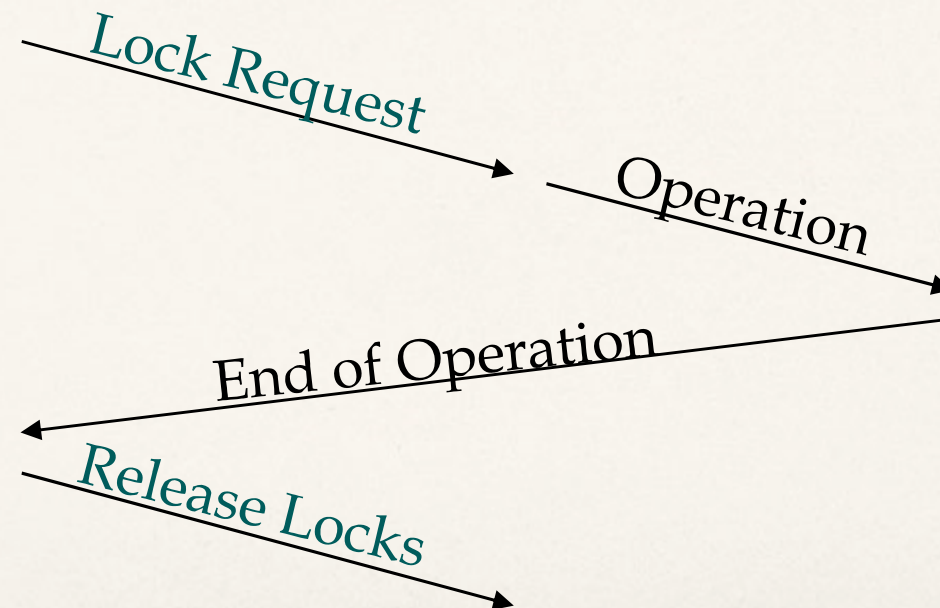
- Bottleneck at central LM for high workload at central LM
- Low reliability in case of failure of central LM

# Distributed 2PL

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- 2PL schedulers (LM's) are placed at each site
  - each scheduler handles lock requests for data at that site

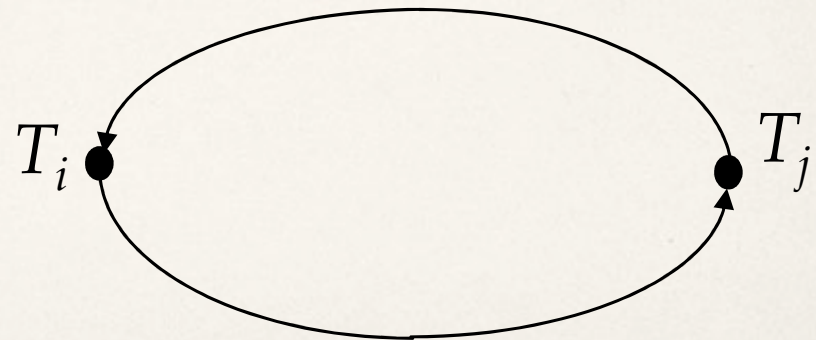
Coordinating TM      Participating LMs      Participating DPs





# Deadlock

- $T_1$  has write lock on  $x$   
 $T_2$  has write lock on  $y$   
 $T_1$  asks for write access to  $y$   
 $T_2$  asks for write access to  $x$
- Deadlock!!!
- Deadlock are modeled through wait-for graph (WFG)
  - If transaction  $T_i$  waits for another transaction  $T_j$  to release a lock on an entity, then  $T_i \rightarrow T_j$  in WFG
  - In distributed context the WFG is distributed across nodes
    - ♦ LWFG: a local graph at each site
    - ♦ GWFG: union of all LWFG



# Deadlock Management

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- Prevention (deadlock is avoided before transaction is started)
  - Guaranteeing that deadlocks can never occur in the first place
    - ♦ do not allow for risky transactions
    - ♦ e.g., a transaction starts if none of data is going to use is locked
- Avoidance (deadlock is avoided when a locked resource is requested)
  - Detecting potential deadlocks in advance and taking action to insure that deadlock will not occur. Requires run time support
    - ♦ Timestamps to prioritize transactions
    - ♦ Ordered resources
- Detection and Recovery
  - Allowing deadlocks to form and then finding and breaking them. As in the avoidance scheme, this requires run time support.

# Local versus Global WFG

Assume  $T_1$  and  $T_2$  run at site 1,  $T_3$  and  $T_4$  run at site 2. Also assume  $T_3$  waits for a lock held by  $T_4$  which waits for a lock held by  $T_1$  which waits for a lock held by  $T_2$  which, in turn, waits for a lock held by  $T_3$ .

Local WFG



Global WFG



# Deadlock Detection

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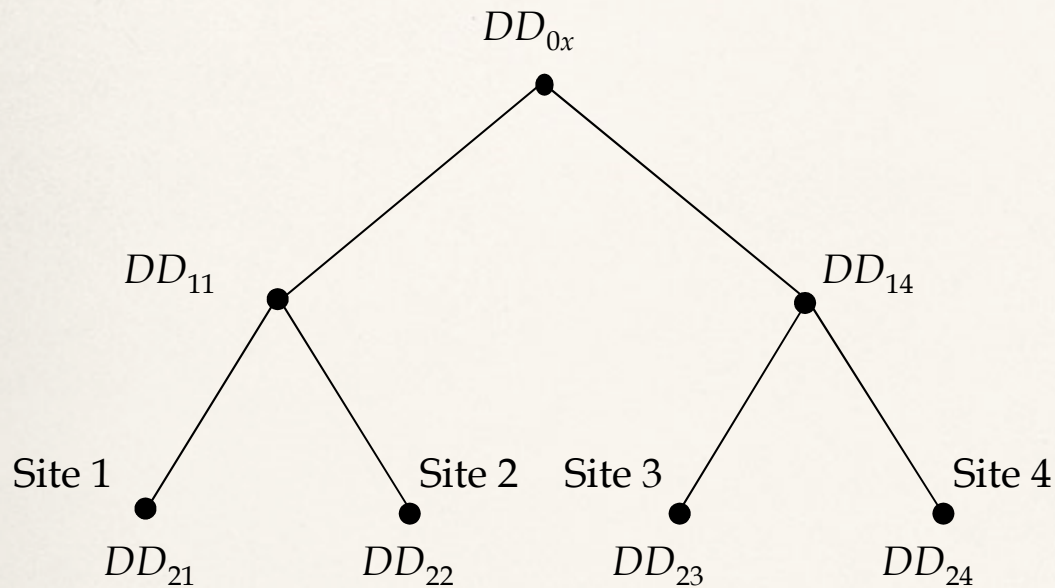
- Transactions are allowed to wait freely
- Wait-for graphs and cycles
- Topologies for deadlock detection algorithms
  - Centralized
  - Distributed
  - Hierarchical

# Centralized Deadlock Detection

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- One site is designated as the deadlock detector for the system. Each scheduler periodically sends its local WFG to the central site which merges them to a global WFG to determine cycles.
- How often to transmit?
  - Too often  $\Rightarrow$  higher communication cost but lower delays due to undetected deadlocks
  - Too late  $\Rightarrow$  higher delays due to deadlocks, but lower communication cost
- Would be a reasonable choice if the concurrency control algorithm is also centralized (centralized 2PL)

# Hierarchical Deadlock Detection



- Each site has a DD
- DD are arranged in a hierarchy (e.g., tree shaped)
- Each DD search for cycle in its and lower-level LWFG
- Each DD sends its LWFG to upper levels
- PRO: less dependence from central DD
  - less communication costs
- CONTRO: implementation issues

# Distributed Deadlock Detection

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- Each site has a DD that maintain an LWFG
- Sites cooperate in detection of global deadlocks
- One example:
  - The local WFGs are formed at each site and passed on to other sites. Each local WFG is modified as follows:
    - ① Since each site receives the potential deadlock cycles from other sites, these edges are added to the local WFGs
    - ② The edges in the local WFG which show that local transactions are waiting for transactions at other sites are joined with edges in the local WFGs which show that remote transactions are waiting for local ones
  - Each local deadlock detector:
    - ♦ looks for a cycle that does not involve the external edge. If it exists, there is a local deadlock which can be handled locally
    - ♦ looks for a cycle involving the external edge. If it exists, it indicates a **potential** global deadlock. Pass on the information to the next site