We saw in Chapter 17 that one of the fundamental properties of a transaction is isolation. When several transactions execute concurrently in the database, however, the isolation property may no longer be preserved. To ensure that it is, the system must control the interaction among the concurrent transactions; this control is achieved through one of a variety of mechanisms called concurrency-control schemes. In this chapter, we consider the management of concurrently executing transactions, and we ignore failures. In Chapter 19, we shall see how the system can recover from failures.

As we shall see, there are a variety of concurrency-control schemes. No one scheme is clearly the best; each one has advantages. In practice, the most frequently used schemes are two-phase locking and snapshot isolation.

Bibliographical Notes

[Gray and Reuter (1993)] provides detailed textbook coverage of transaction-processing concepts, including concurrency-control concepts and implementation details. [Bernstein and Newcomer (2009)] provides textbook coverage of various aspects of transaction processing including concurrency control.

The two-phase locking protocol was introduced by [Eswaran et al. (1976)]. The tree-locking protocol is from [Silberschatz and Kedem (1980)]. Other non-two-phase locking protocols that operate on more general graphs are described in [Yannakakis et al. (1979)], [Kedem and Silberschatz (1983)], and [Buckley and Silberschatz (1985)]. [Korth (1983)] explores various lock modes that can be obtained from the basic shared and exclusive lock modes.

The locking protocol for multiple-granularity data items is from [Gray et al. (1975)]. A detailed description is presented by [Gray et al. (1976)]. [Kedem and Silberschatz (1983)] formalizes multiple-granularity locking for an arbitrary collection of lock modes (allowing for more semantics than simply read and write). This approach includes a class of lock modes called update modes to deal with lock conversion. [Carey (1983)] extends the multiple-granularity idea to timestamp-based concurrency con-
An extension of the protocol to ensure deadlock freedom is presented by [Korth (1982)].

The timestamp-based concurrency-control scheme is from [Reed (1983)]. A timestamp algorithm that does not require any rollback to ensure serializability is presented by [Buckley and Silberschatz (1983)]. The validation concurrency-control scheme is from [Kung and Robinson (1981)].

Multiversion timestamp order was introduced in [Reed (1983)]. A multiversion tree-locking algorithm appears in [Silberschatz (1982)].

Degree-two consistency was introduced in [Gray et al. (1975)]. The levels of consistency—or isolation—offered in SQL are explained and critiqued in [Berenson et al. (1995)]; the snapshot-isolation technique was also introduced in the same paper. Serializable snapshot-isolation was introduced by [Cahill et al. (2009)]; [Ports and Grittner (2012)] describes the implementation of serializable snapshot isolation in PostgreSQL.

[Fekete et al. (2005)] describes how to ensure serializable executions under snapshot isolation, by rewriting certain transactions to introduce conflicts; these conflicts ensure that the transactions cannot run concurrently under snapshot isolation; [Jowkar et al. (2007)] describes an approach, that given a set of (parameterized) transactions running under snapshot isolation, can check if the transactions are vulnerable to nonserializability.

Concurrency in B⁺-trees was studied by [Bayer and Schkolnick (1977)] and [Johnson and Shasha (1993)]. The techniques presented in Section 18.10.2 are based on [Kung and Lehman (1980)] and [Lehman and Yao (1981)]. The technique of key-value locking used in ARIES provides for very high concurrency on B⁺-tree access and is described in [Mohan (1990)] and [Mohan and Narang (1992)]. [Ellis (1987)] presents a concurrency-control technique for linear hashing.

[Faerber et al. (2017)] provide a survey of main-memory databases, including coverage of concurrency control in main-memory databases. Main memory concurrency control is discussed in [Larson et al. (2011)] and [Neumann et al. (2015)]. While many techniques for avoiding phantoms in validation based techniques perform a rescan of indices to check if there are any new records that were missed in the earlier scan, [Neumann et al. (2015)] take a different approach optimized for large in-memory scans which are common in main-memory databases. In their technique, scan predicates are recorded, and all updates performed by concurrent transactions are checked against the scan predicates to check if they satisfy the predicate. Since updates are generally far fewer than record reads, this approach is usually more efficient. The Bw-Tree data structure [Levandoski et al. (2013)] provides latch-free access to indices that can be main-memory resident, or resident on flash.

### Bibliography


Bibliographical Notes


Credits

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