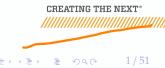


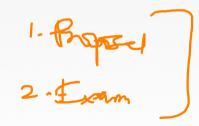
# Lecture 16: Concurrency Control in Main-Memory DBMSs



### **Today's Agenda**

### Concurrency Control in Main-Memory DBMSs

- 1.1 Recap
- 1.2 Concurrency Control Schemes
- 1.3 Concurrency Control Evaluation
- 1.4 Conclusion





# Recap

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## Background

- Much of the development history of DBMSs is about dealing with the limitations of hardware.
- Hardware was much different when the original DBMSs were designed:
  - Uniprocessor (single-core CPU)
  - RAM was severely limited.
  - The database had to be stored on disk.
  - Disks were even slower than they are now.





## Background

Py telle last getting But now DRAM capacities are large enough that most databases can fit in memory. Structured data sets are smaller. Unstructured or semi-structured data sets are larger. • We need to understand why we can't always use a "traditional" disk-oriented DBMS with a large cache to get the best performance. Buffor Kool Size

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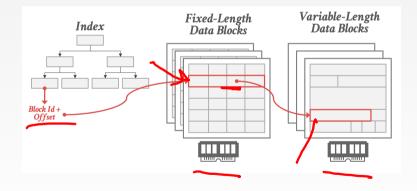


### **In-memory Data Organization**

- An in-memory DBMS does not need to store the database in slotted pages but it will still organize tuples in blocks/pages:
  - Direct memory pointers vs. record ids
    - Fixed-length vs. variable-length data pools
    - Use checksums to detect software errors from trashing the database.



### **In-memory Data Organization**



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### **Concurrency Control**

- For in-memory DBMSs, the cost of a txn acquiring a lock is the same as accessing data.
- New bottleneck is contention caused from txns trying access data at the same time.
- The DBMS can store locking information about each tuple together with its data.
  - ▶ This helps with CPU cache locality.

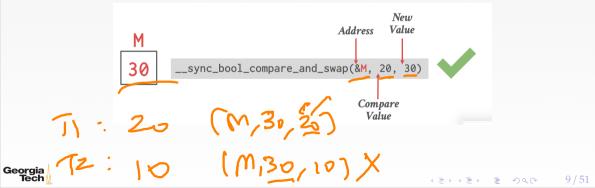
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Mutexes are too slow. Need to use compare-and-swap (CAS) instructions.



### Compare-and-Swap

- Atomic instruction that compares contents of a memory location M to a given value V
  - ► If values are equal, installs new given value V' in M
  - Otherwise operation fails



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# **Concurrency Control Schemes**

### **Concurrency Control Schemes**

### Two-Phase Locking (2PL)

Assume txns will conflict so they must acquire locks on database objects before they are allowed to access them.

#### Timestamp Ordering (T/O)

Assume that conflicts are rare so txns do not need to first acquire locks on database objects and instead check for conflicts at commit time.





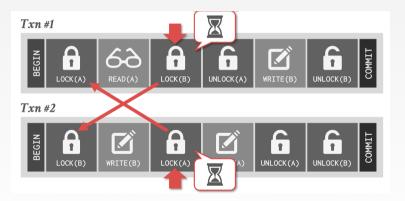
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### Deadlock Detection

- Each txn maintains a queue of the txns that hold the locks that it waiting for.
- A separate thread checks these queues for deadlocks.
  - If deadlock found, use a heuristic to decide what txn to kill in order to break deadlock.

#### <u>Deadlock Prevention</u>

- Check whether another txn already holds a lock when another txn requests it.
- If lock is not available, the txn will either (1) wait, (2) commit suicide, or (3) kill the other txn.



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### **Timestamp Ordering**

- Basic T/O
  - Check for conflicts on each read/write.
  - Copy tuples on each access to ensure repeatable reads.

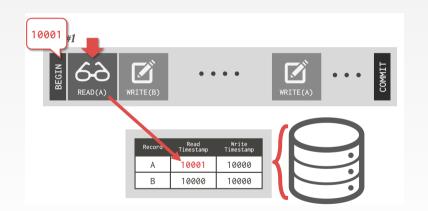
### • Optimistic Currency Control (OCC)

- Store all changes in private workspace.
- Check for conflicts at commit time and then merge.





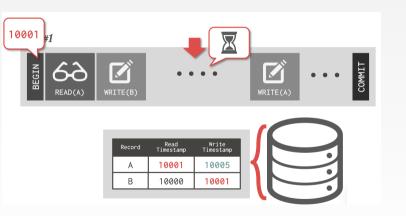


















• Timestamp-ordering scheme where txns copy data read/write into a private workspace that is not visible to other active txns.

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• When a txn commits, the DBMS verifies that there are no conflicts.

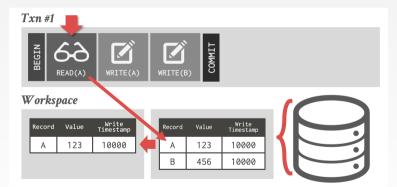


Concurrency Control in Main-Memory DBMSs Concurrency Control Schemes

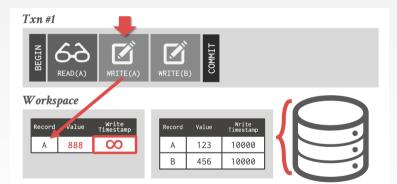
### **Optimistic Concurrency Control**





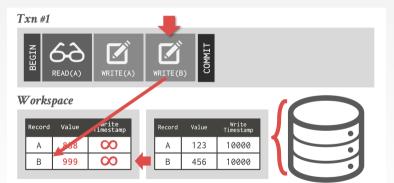






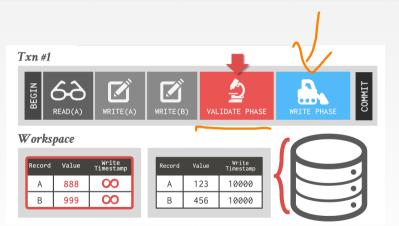
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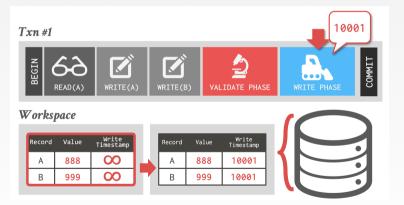


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### Observation

- When there is low contention, optimistic protocols perform better because the DBMS spends less time checking for conflicts.
- At high contention, the both classes of protocols <u>degenerate</u> to essentially the same serial execution.

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# **Concurrency Control Evaluation**

### **Concurrency Control Evaluation**

- Compare in-memory concurrency control protocols at high levels of parallelism.
  - Single test-bed system.
  - Evaluate protocols using core counts beyond what is available on today's CPUs.
    Reference
- Running in extreme environments exposes what are the main bottlenecks in the DBMS.

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### **1000-CORE CPU Simulator**

### • DBx1000 Database System

- In-memory DBMS with pluggable lock manager.
- No network access, logging, or concurrent indexes.
- All txns execute using stored procedures.

#### • MIT Graphite CPU Simulator

- Single-socket, tile-based CPU.
- Shared L2 cache for groups of cores.
- Tiles communicate over 2D-mesh network.
- NUCA (non-uniform cache access) architecture.

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### **Target Workload**

• Yahoo! Cloud Serving Benchmark (YCSB)

- 20 million tuples
- Each tuple is 1KB (total database is 20GB)

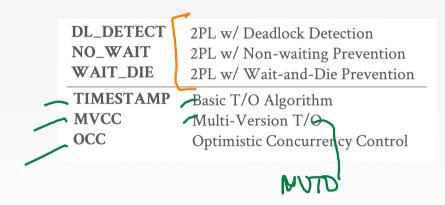
Each transactions reads/modifies 16 tuples.

• Varying skew in transaction access patterns.

Serializable isolation level.



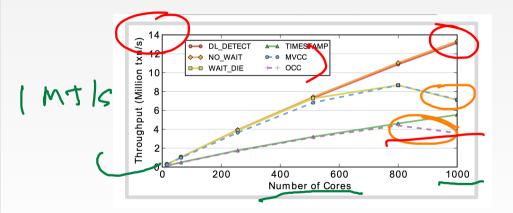
### **Concurrency Control Schemes**



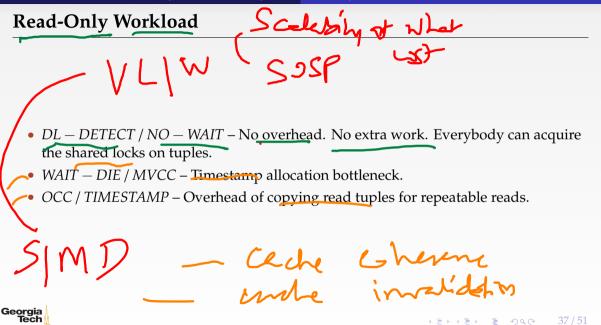
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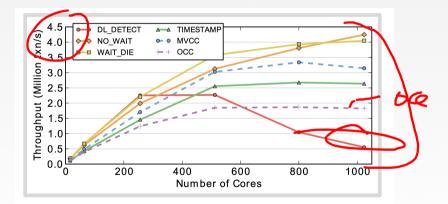
### **Read-Only Workload**







## Write-Intensive / Medium-Contention



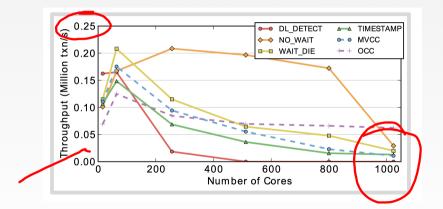


## Write-Intensive / Medium-Contention

- 60% of txns are accessing 20% of the database.
- *DL DETECT* The worst because more conflicts. Spend more time trying to find deadlocks. Longer stalls.
- *NO WAIT*/ *WAIT DIE* The best because they are <u>simple</u>. Cost of restarting txns in DBx1000 is cheap.
- OCC / TIMESTAMP These protocols are roughly all the same because of copying.

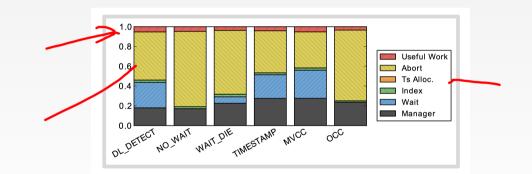


## Write-Intensive / High-Contention





## Write-Intensive / High-Contention



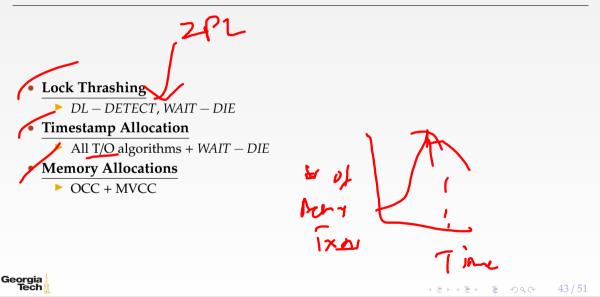


## Write-Intensive / High-Contention

- 90% of txns are accessing 10% of the database.
- All protocols flat-lined and converge to zero at 1000 cores. At high-contention, they all perform the same.
- *NO WAIT* does the best. Only executing 200k txn/sec which is not a lot compared to the previous graphs. Lots of restarts.



## Bottlenecks

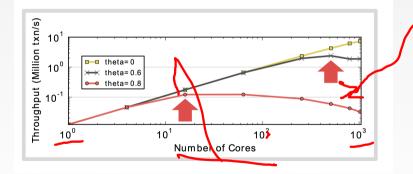


## Lock Thrashing

- Each txn waits longer to acquire locks, causing other txn to wait longer to acquire locks.
- Can measure this phenomenon by removing deadlock detection/prevention overhead.
  - Force txns to acquire locks in primary key order.
  - Deadlocks are not possible.



## Lock Thrashing





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## **Timestamp Allocation**

## • <u>Mutex</u>

Worst option.

#### • Atomic Addition

Requires cache invalidation on write.

### Batched Atomic Addition

Needs a back-off mechanism to prevent fast burn.

## • Hardware Clock

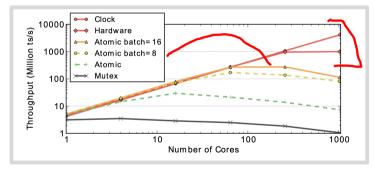
Not sure if it will exist in future CPUs.

#### Hardware Counter

Not implemented in existing CPUs.



## **Timestamp Allocation**



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## **Memory Allocations**

• Copying data on every read/write access slows down the DBMS because of contention on the memory controller.

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In-place updates and non-copying reads are not affected as much.

• Default libc <u>malloc</u> is slow. Never use it.

We will discuss this further later in the semester.



# Conclusion

## **Parting Thoughts**

- The design of an in-memory DBMS is significantly different than a disk-oriented system.
- The world has finally become comfortable with in-memory data storage and processing.
- Increases in DRAM capacities have stalled in recent years compared to SSDs...

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## Next Class

Multi-Version Concurrency Control

