

Lecture 16: Concurrency Control in Main-Memory DBMSs

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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

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

- 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.



Recap

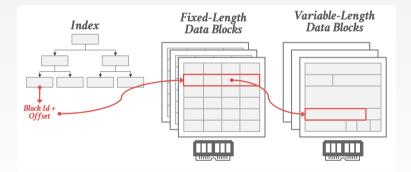
In-memory Data Organization

- 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.



Recap

In-memory Data Organization



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Concurrency Control

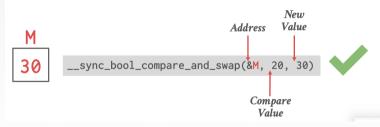
- For in-memory DBMSs, the cost of a txn acquiring a lock is the same as accessing data.
- New bottleneck is contention caused from txns trying access data at the same time.
- The DBMS can store locking information about each tuple together with its data.
 - ▶ This helps with CPU cache locality.
 - Mutexes are too slow. Need to use compare-and-swap (CAS) instructions.



Recap

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





Recap

Compare-and-Swap

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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.





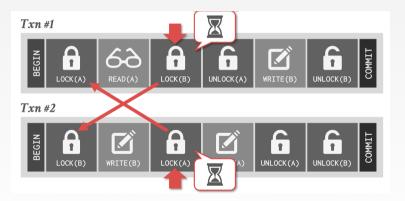
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Deadlock Detection

- 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

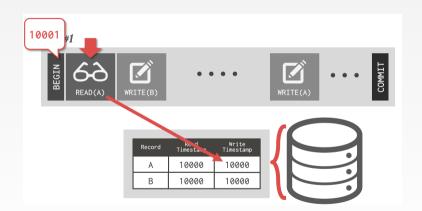
• Basic T/O

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

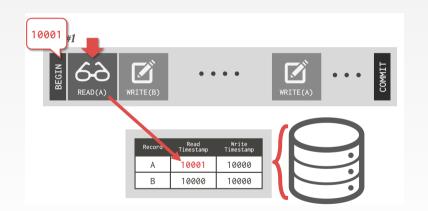
• Optimistic Currency Control (OCC)

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





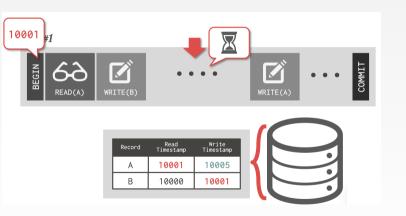


















• Timestamp-ordering scheme where txns copy data read/write into a private workspace that is not visible to other active txns.

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

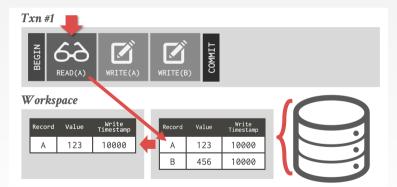


Concurrency Control in Main-Memory DBMSs Concurrency Control Schemes

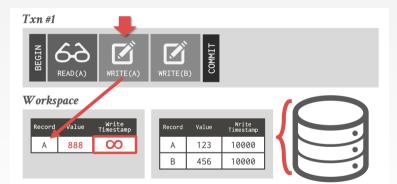
Optimistic Concurrency Control





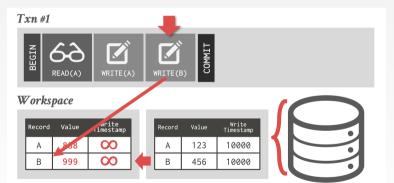






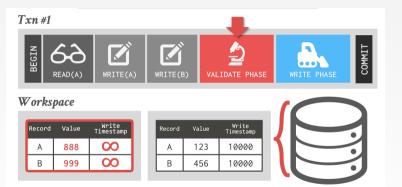
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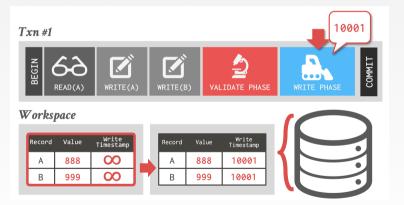




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Observation

- 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.

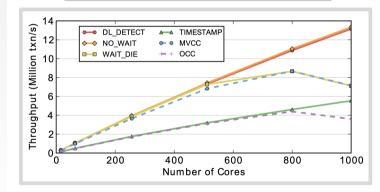


Concurrency Control Schemes

DL_DETECT	2PL w/ Deadlock Detection
NO_WAIT	2PL w/ Non-waiting Prevention
WAIT_DIE	2PL w/ Wait-and-Die Prevention
TIMESTAMP	Basic T/O Algorithm
TIMESTAMP MVCC	Basic T/O Algorithm Multi-Version T/O



Read-Only Workload



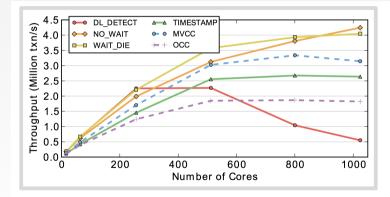


Read-Only Workload

- DL DETECT / NO WAIT No overhead. No extra work. Everybody can acquire the shared locks on tuples.
- WAIT DIE / MVCC Timestamp allocation bottleneck.
- *OCC / TIMESTAMP* Overhead of copying read tuples for repeatable reads.



Write-Intensive / Medium-Contention



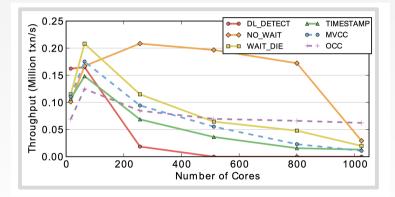


Write-Intensive / Medium-Contention

- 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 simple. Cost of restarting txns in DBx1000 is cheap.
- *OCC / TIMESTAMP* These protocols are roughly all the same because of copying.

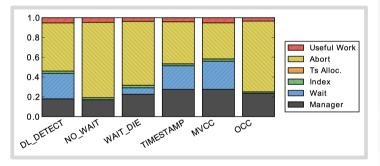


Write-Intensive / High-Contention





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.

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Bottlenecks

Lock Thrashing

► DL – DETECT, WAIT – DIE

• Timestamp Allocation

► All T/O algorithms + WAIT – DIE

Memory Allocations

OCC + MVCC

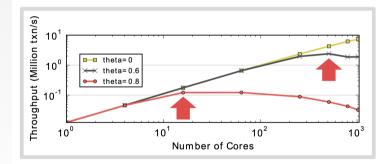


Lock Thrashing

- 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





Timestamp Allocation

• <u>Mutex</u>

- Worst option.
- Atomic Addition
 - Requires cache invalidation on write.

<u>Batched Atomic Addition</u>

Needs a back-off mechanism to prevent fast burn.

<u>Hardware Clock</u>

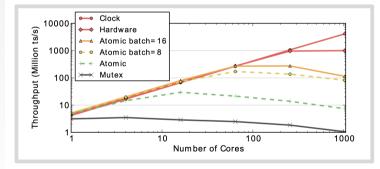
Not sure if it will exist in future CPUs.

<u>Hardware Counter</u>

Not implemented in existing CPUs.



Timestamp Allocation





Memory Allocations

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



Next Class

Multi-Version Concurrency Control

