

## Lecture #17

# Two-Phase Locking



# LAST CLASS

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## Conflict Serializable

- Verify using either the “swapping” method or dependency graphs.
- Any DBMS that says that they support “serializable” isolation does this.

## View Serializable

- No efficient way to verify.
- No DBMS that supports this.

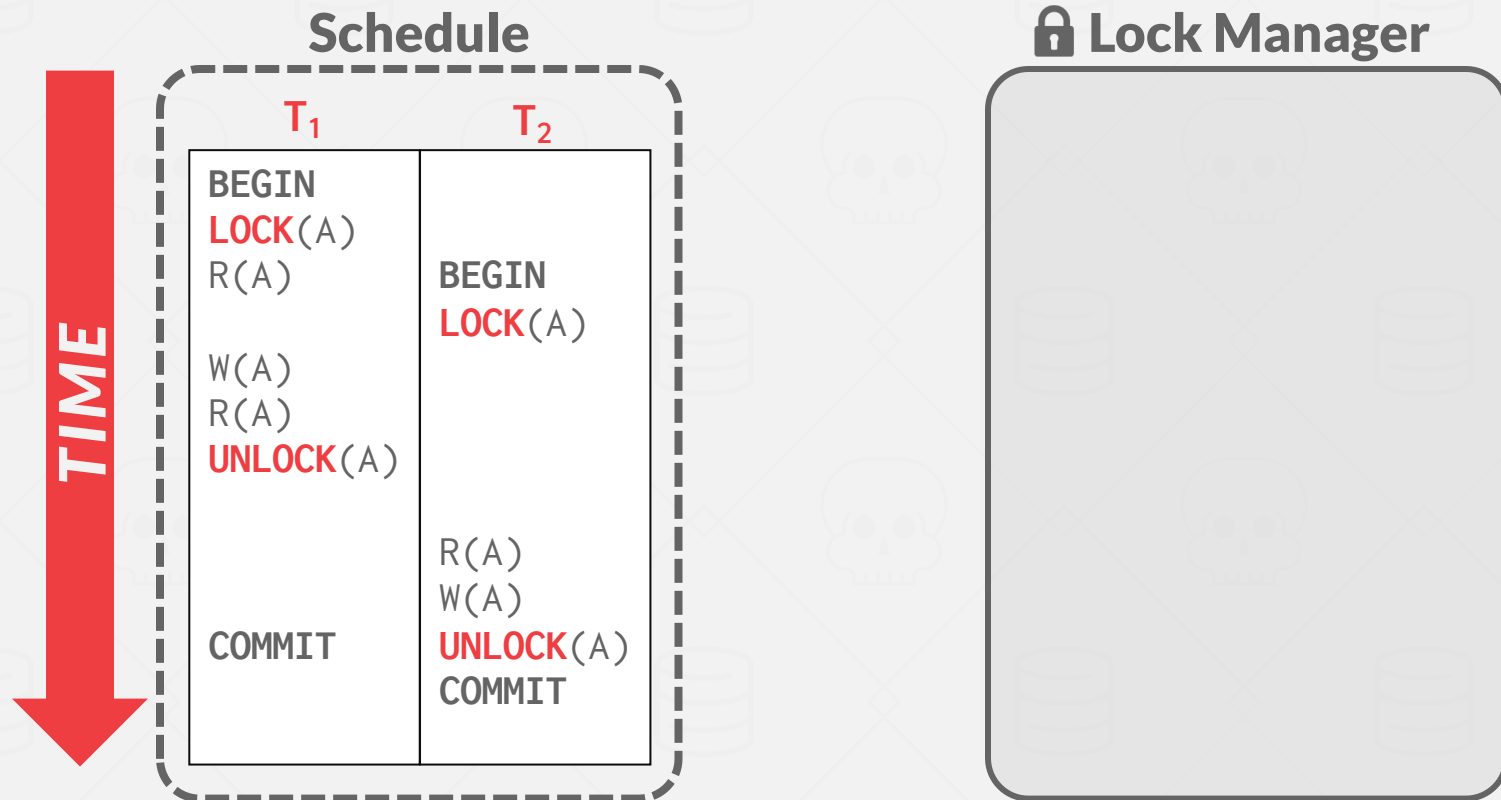
# OBSERVATION

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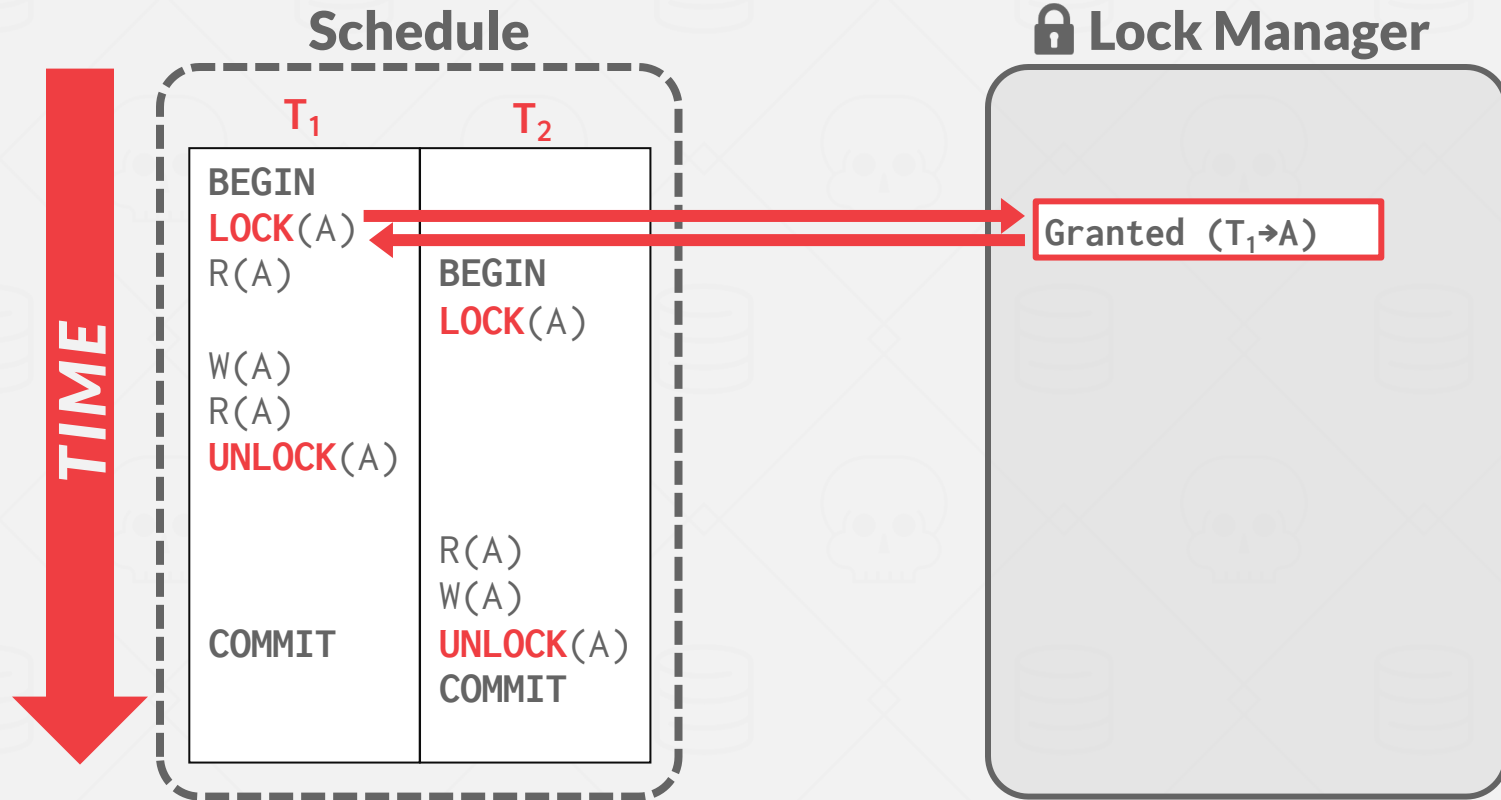
We need a way to guarantee that all execution schedules are correct (i.e., serializable) without knowing the entire schedule ahead of time.

Solution: Use locks to protect database objects.

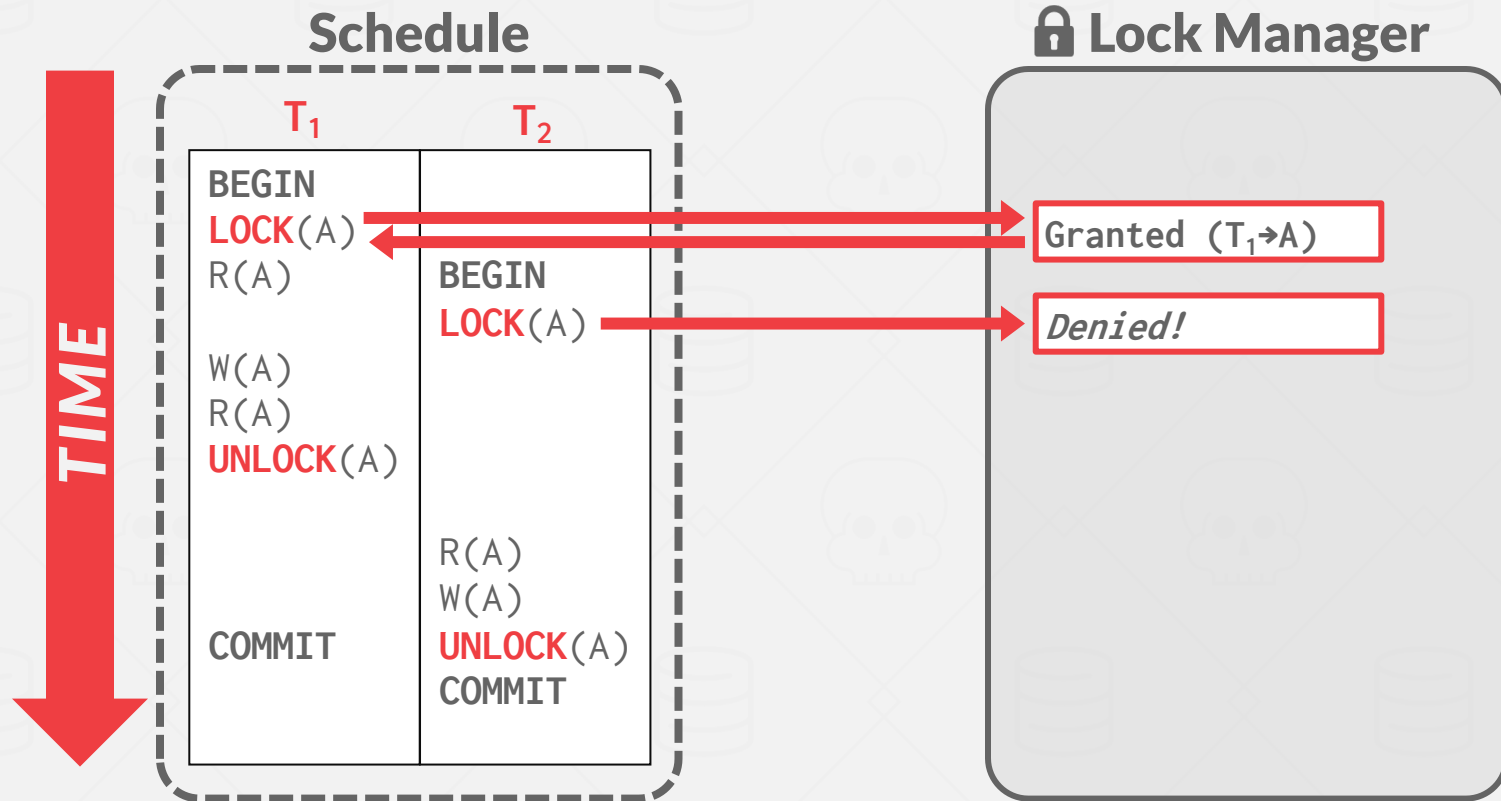
# EXECUTING WITH LOCKS



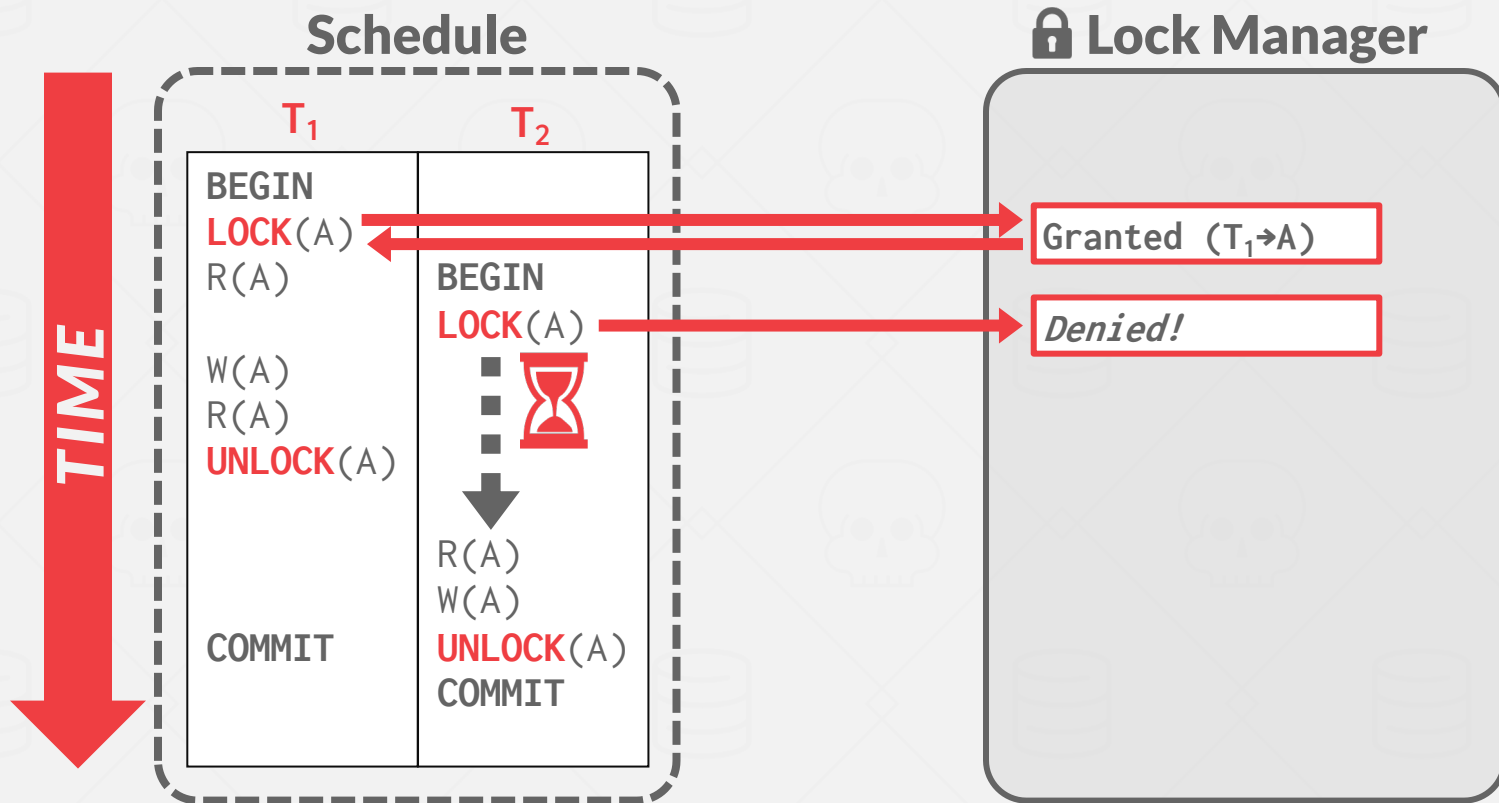
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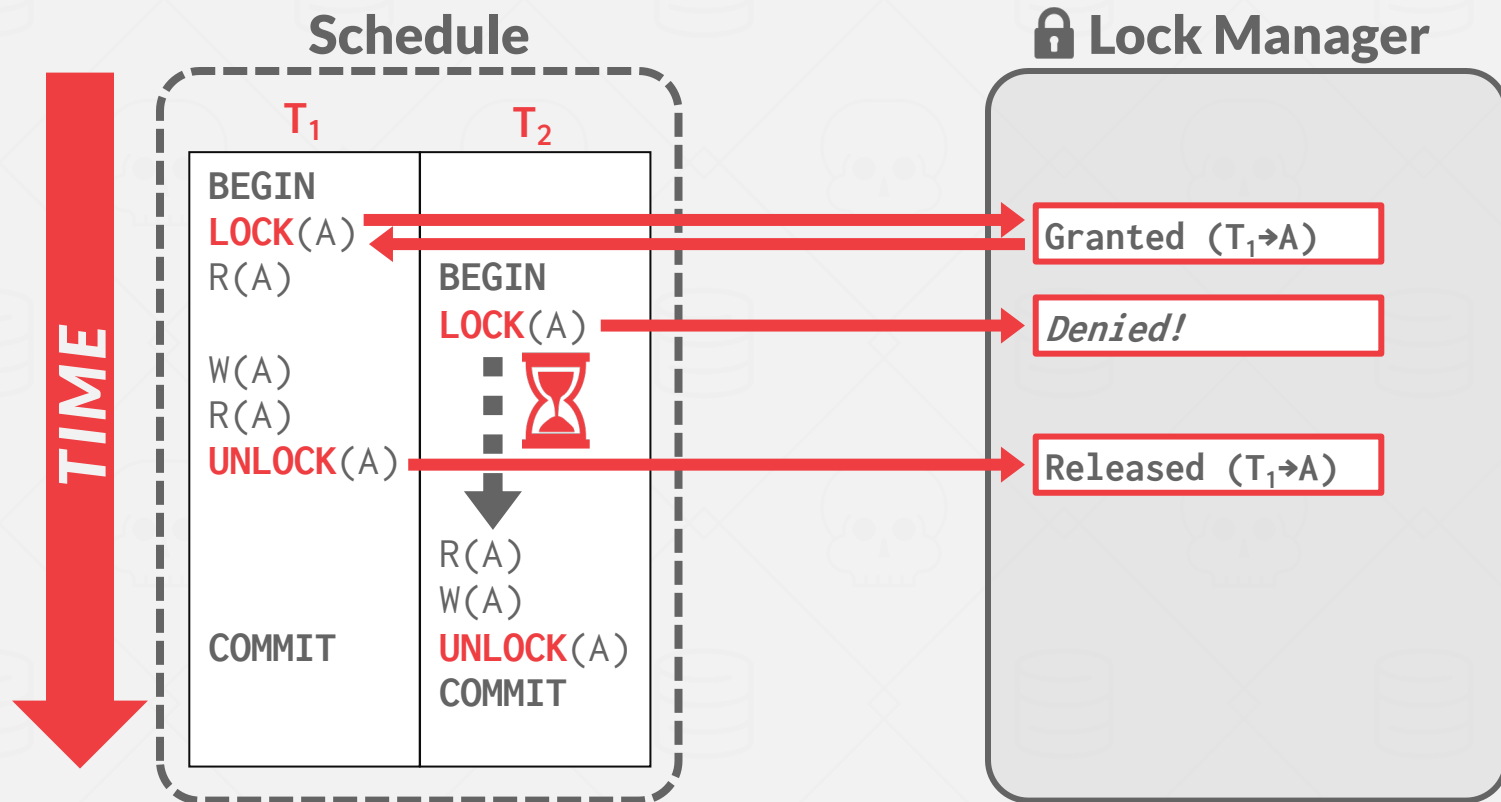
# EXECUTING WITH LOCKS



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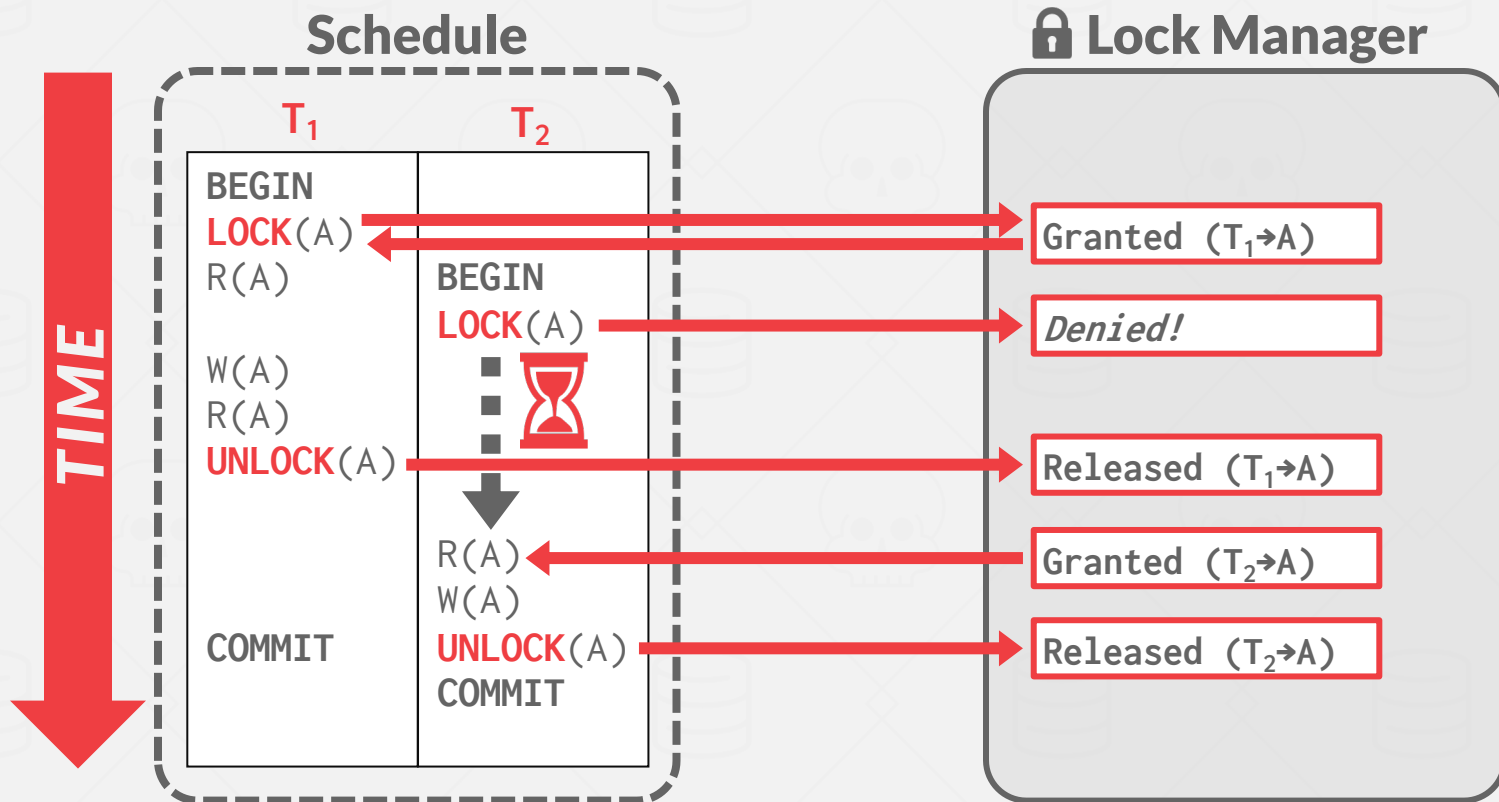


# EXECUTING WITH LOCKS





# EXECUTING WITH LOCKS



# TODAY'S AGENDA

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Lock Types

Two-Phase Locking

Deadlock Detection + Prevention

Hierarchical Locking

# LOCKS VS. LATCHES

	<i>Locks</i>	<i>Latches</i>
<b>Separate...</b>	User transactions	Threads
<b>Protect...</b>	Database Contents	In-Memory Data Structures
<b>During...</b>	Entire Transactions	Critical Sections
<b>Modes...</b>	Shared, Exclusive, Update, Intention	Read, Write
<b>Deadlock</b>	Detection & Resolution	Avoidance
<b>...by...</b>	Waits-for, Timeout, Aborts	Coding Discipline
<b>Kept in...</b>	Lock Manager	Protected Data Structure

# BASIC LOCK TYPES

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**S-LOCK:** Shared locks for reads.

**X-LOCK:** Exclusive locks for writes.

## Compatibility Matrix

	Shared	Exclusive
Shared	✓	X
Exclusive	X	X

# Compatibility of lock modes

The following table shows the compatibility of any two modes for page and row locks. No question of compatibility arises between page and row locks, because a partition or table space cannot use both page and row locks.

Table 1. Compatibility matrix of page lock and row lock modes

Lock mode	Share (S-lock)	Update (U-lock)
Share (S-lock)	Yes	Yes
Update (U-lock)	Yes	No
Exclusive (X-lock)		



Compatibility for table space locks modes for partition, table space, or...

Table 2. Compatibility of table and...

Lock Mode	IS	IX	S
IS	Yes	Yes	Yes
IX	Yes	Yes	No
S	Yes	No	Yes
U	Yes	No	Yes
SIX	Yes	No	No
X	No	No	No

## Existing granted mode

Requested mode

Intent shared (IS)

Shared (S)

Update (U)

Intent exclusive (IX)

Shared with intent exclusive (SIX)

IS S U

Yes Yes

Yes Yes  
Yes Yes

Yes No

Yes No

No No



Table 13-3 Summary of Table Locks

SQL Statement	Mode of Table Lock	Lock Modes Permitted?				
		RS	RX	S	SRX	X
SELECT ... FROM table...	none	Y	Y	Y	Y	X
INSERT INTO table ...	RX	Y	Y	N	N	N
UPDATE table ...	RX	Y*	Y*	N	N	N
DELETE FROM table ...	RX	Y*	Y*	N	N	N
SELECT ... FROM table FOR UPDATE OF ...	RS	Y*	Y*	Y*	Y*	N
LOCK TABLE table IN ROW SHARE MODE	RS	Y	Y	Y	Y	N
LOCK TABLE table IN ROW EXCLUSIVE MODE	RX	Y	Y	N	N	N
LOCK TABLE table IN SHARE MODE	S	Y	N	Y	N	N
LOCK TABLE table IN SHARE ROW EXCLUSIVE MODE	SRX	Y	N	N	N	N
LOCK TABLE table IN EXCLUSIVE MODE	X	N	N	N	N	N



Table 13.2. Conflicting Lock Modes

Requested Lock Mode	Existing Lock Mode						
	ACCESS SHARE	ROW SHARE	ROW EXCL.	SHARE UPDATE EXCL.	SHARE ROW EXCL.	EXCL.	ACCESS EXCL.
ACCESS SHARE							X
ROW SHARE						X	X
ROW EXCL.				X	X	X	X
SHARE UPDATE EXCL.			X	X	X	X	X
SHARE ROW EXCL.		X	X	X	X	X	X
EXCL.	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
ACCESS EXCL.	X	X	X	X	X	X	X



Table-level lock type compatibility is summarized in the following matrix

	X	IX	S	IS
X	Conflict	Conflict	Conflict	Conflict
IX	Conflict	Compatible	Conflict	Conflict
S	Conflict	Conflict	Compatible	Compatible
IS	Conflict	Compatible	Compatible	Compatible



# EXECUTING WITH LOCKS

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Transactions request locks (or upgrades).

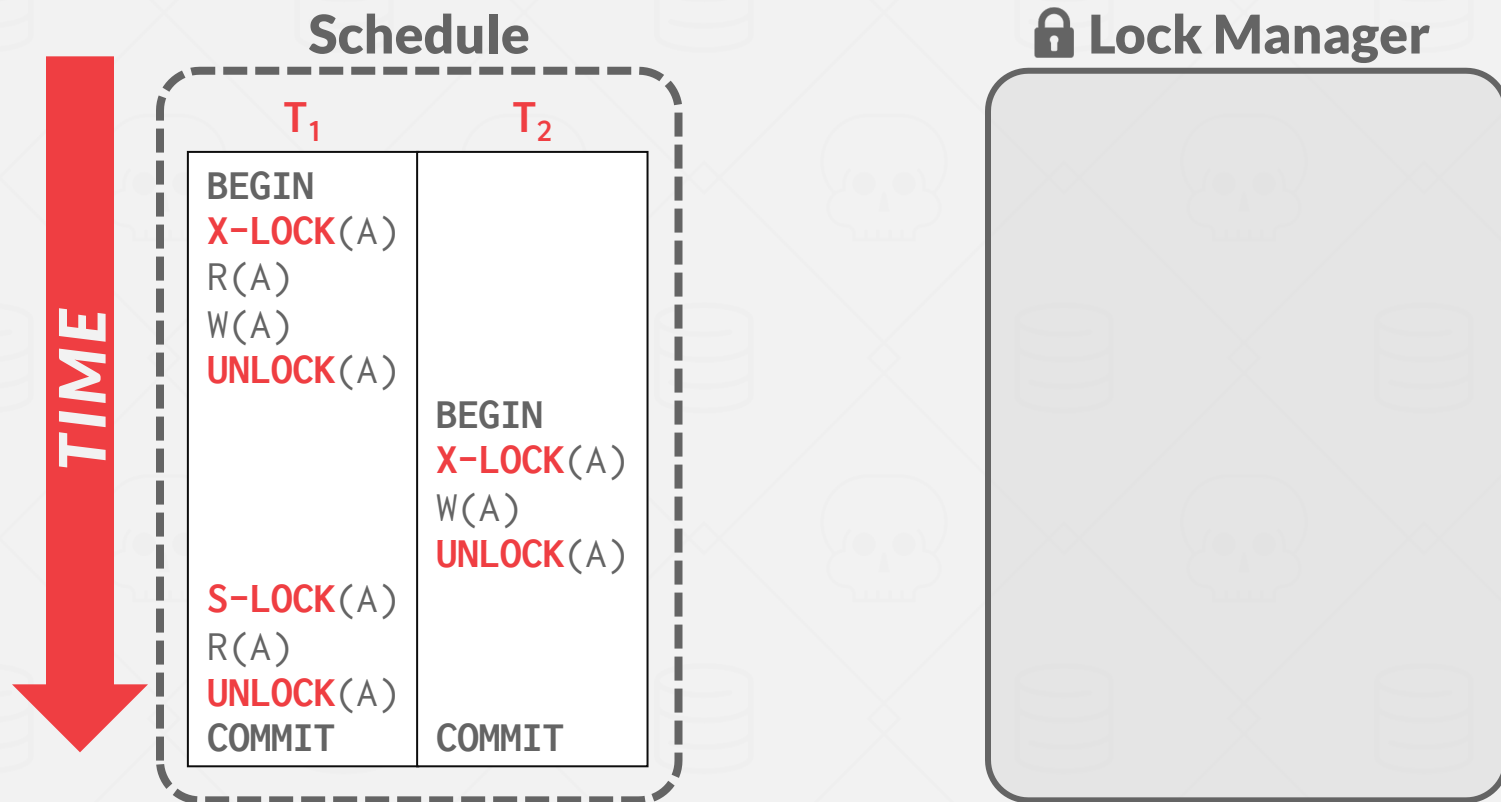
Lock manager grants or blocks requests.

Transactions release locks.

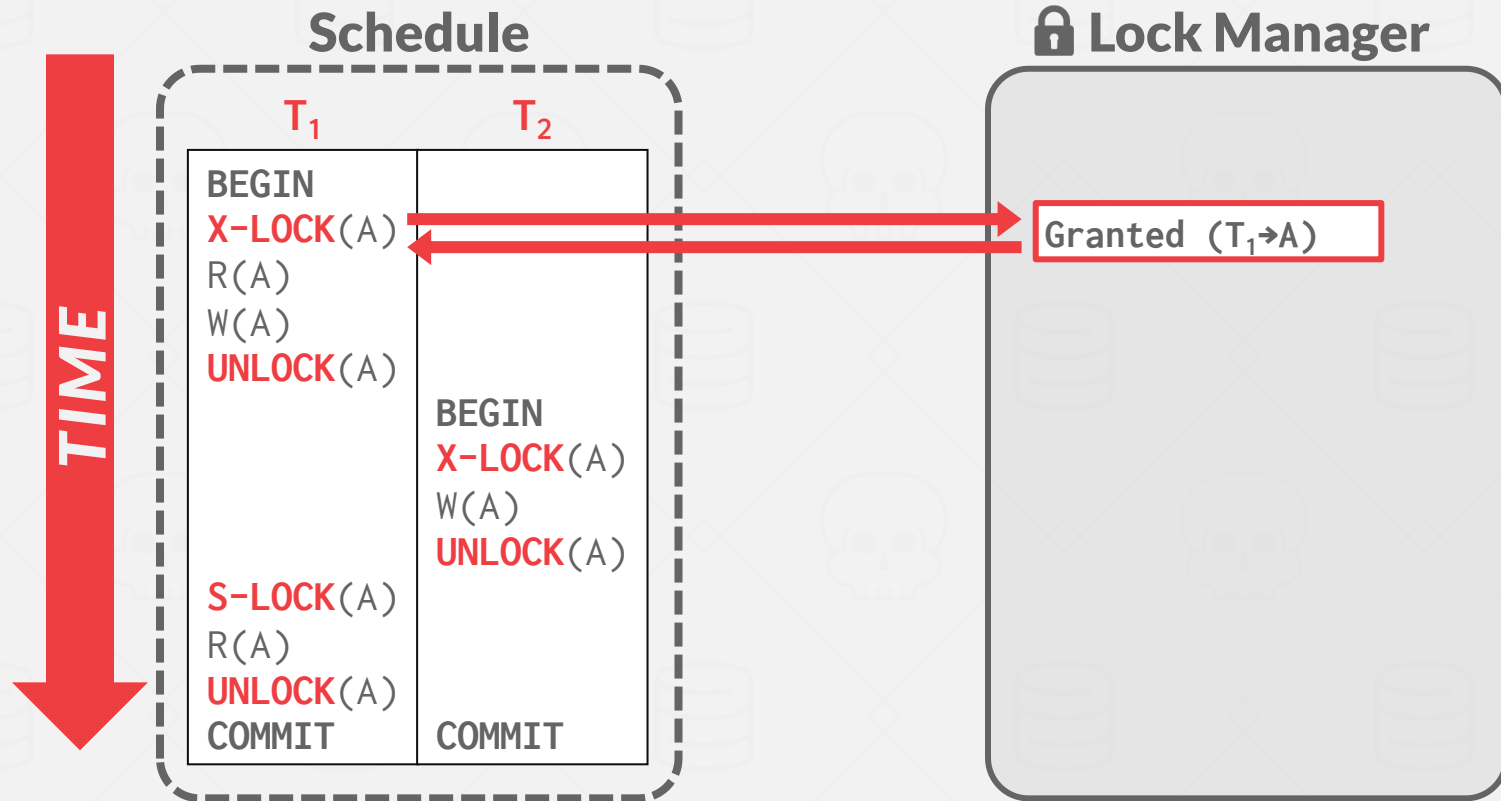
Lock manager updates its internal lock-table.

→ It keeps track of what transactions hold what locks and what transactions are waiting to acquire any locks.

# EXECUTING WITH LOCKS

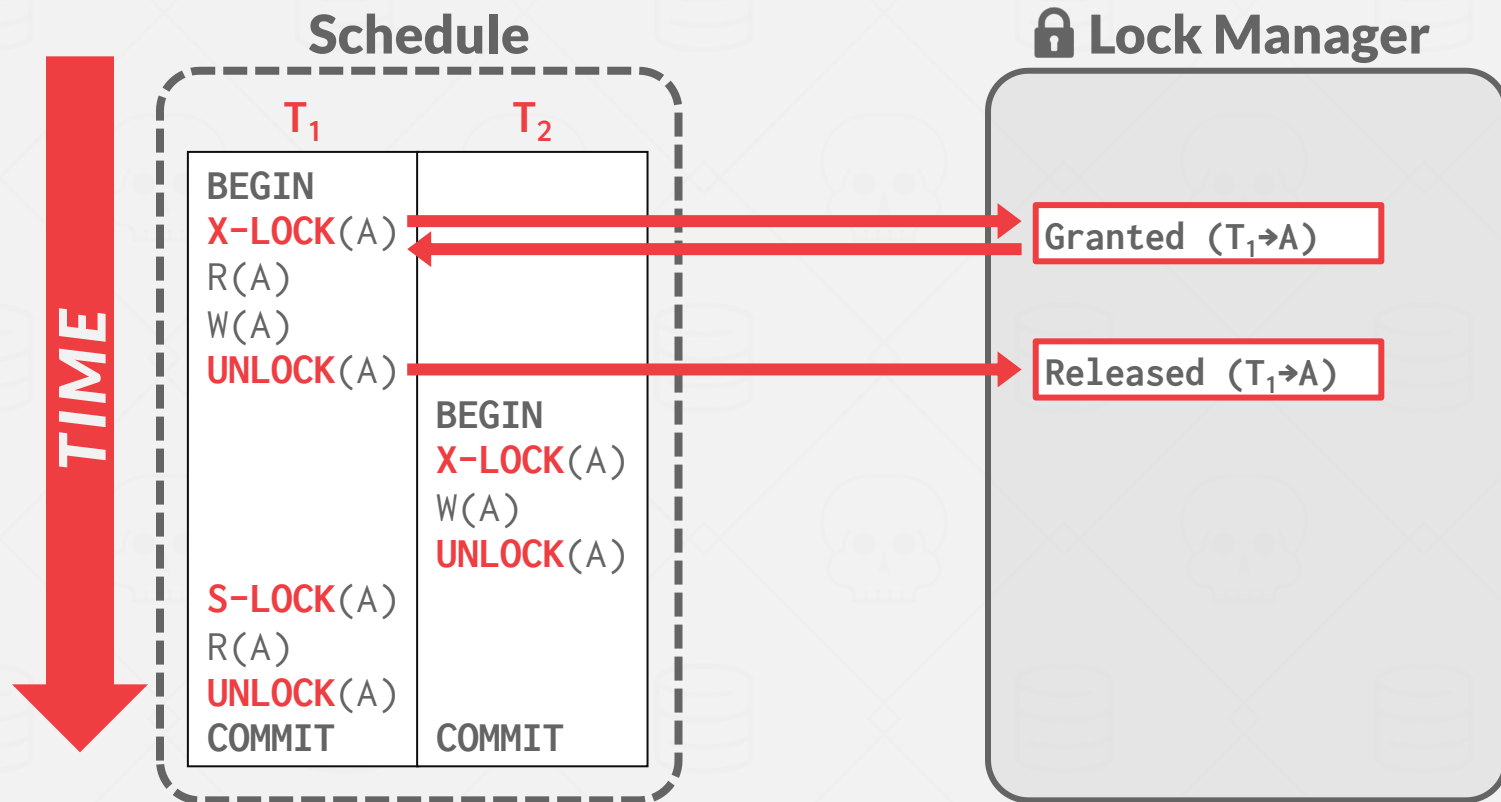


# EXECUTING WITH LOCKS

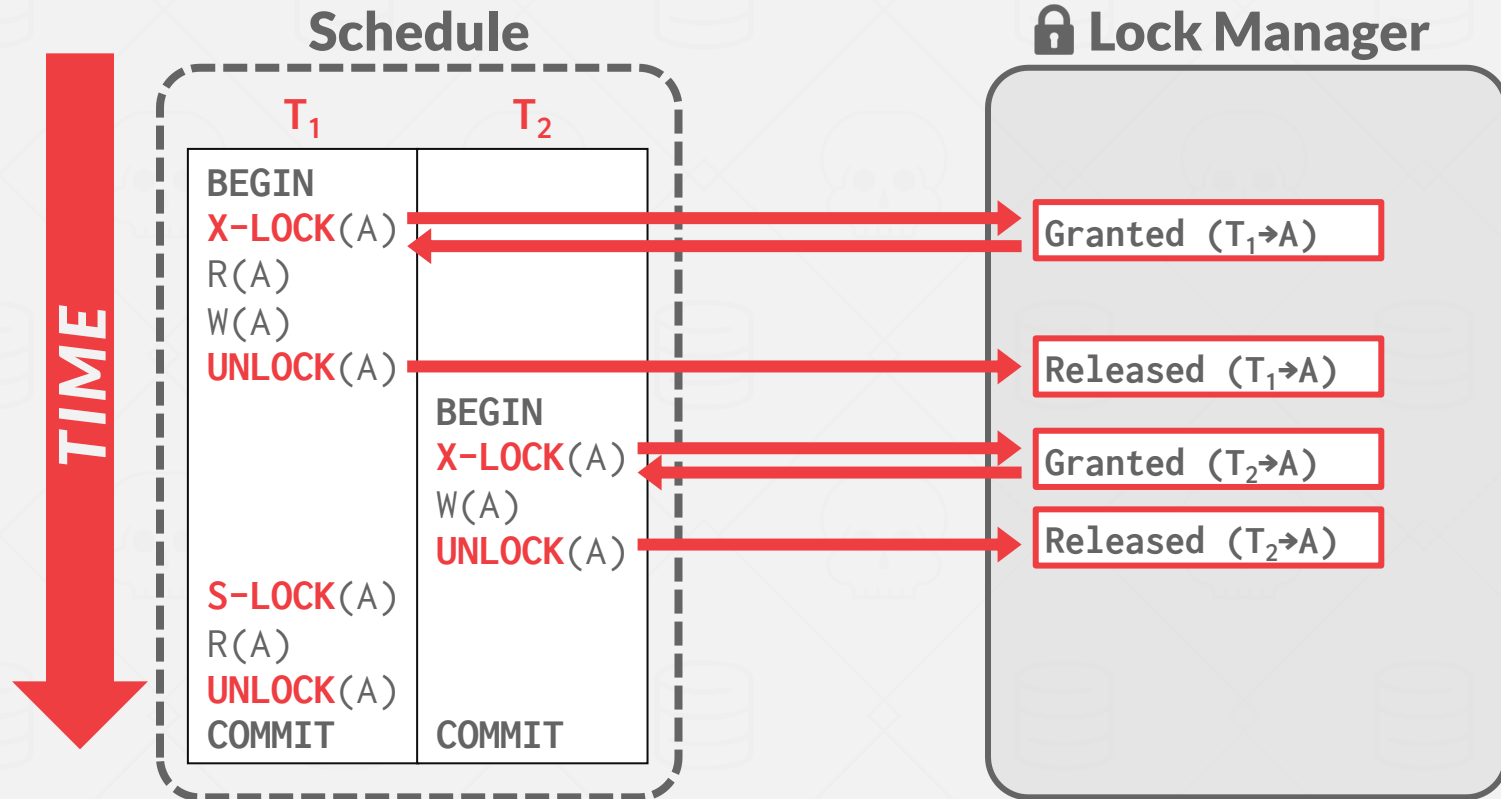




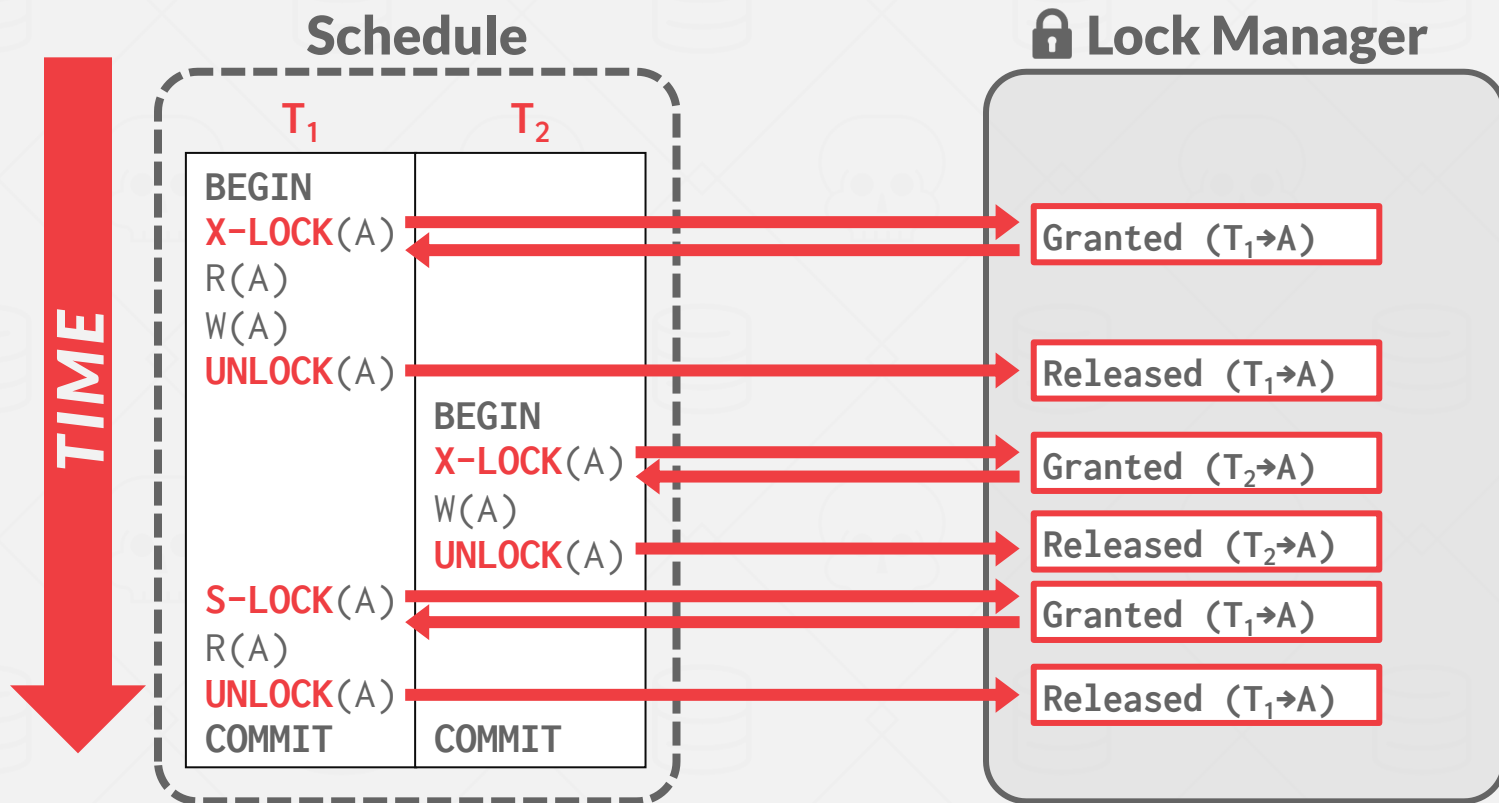
# EXECUTING WITH LOCKS



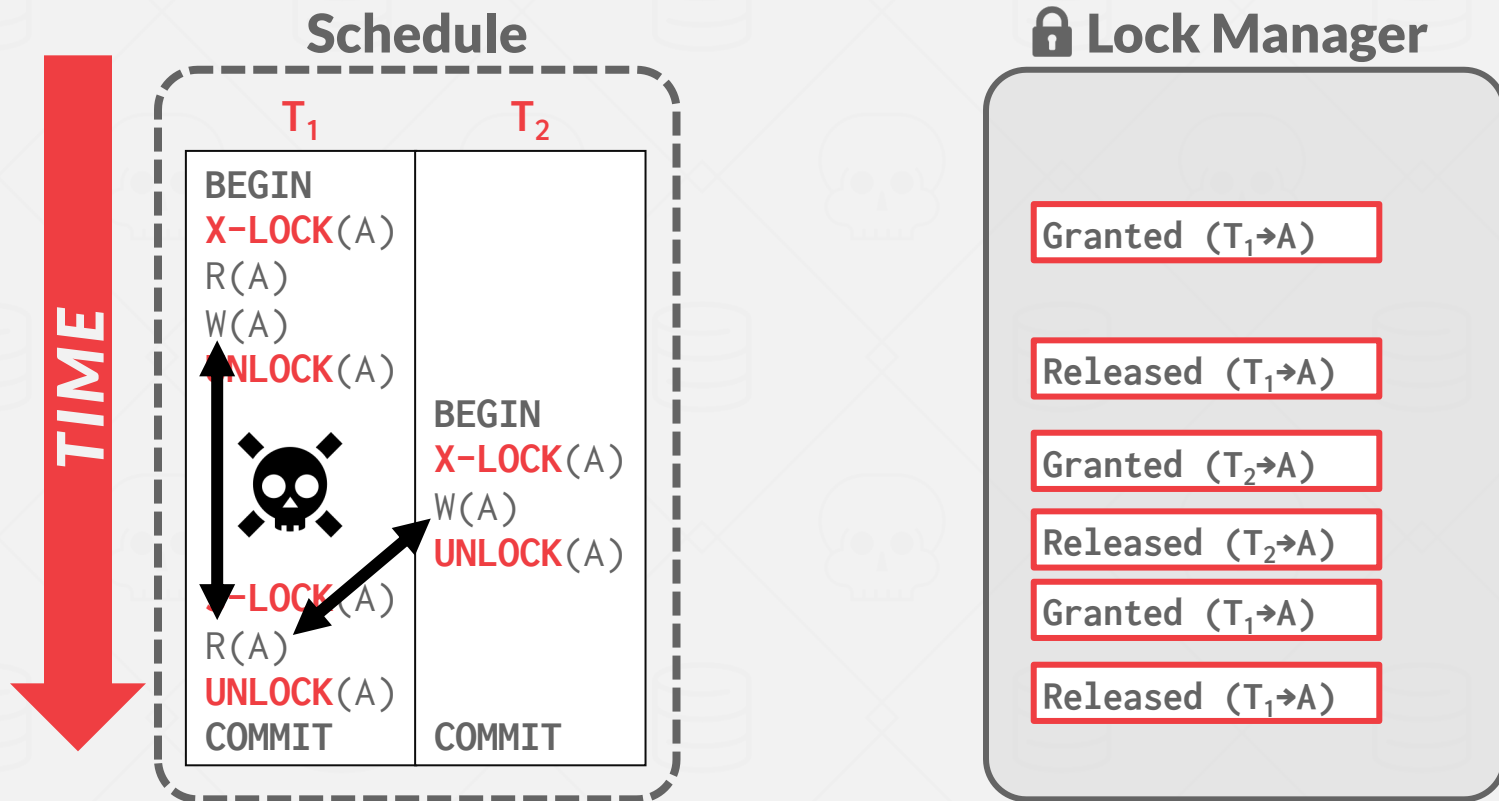
# EXECUTING WITH LOCKS



# EXECUTING WITH LOCKS



# EXECUTING WITH LOCKS



# CONCURRENCY CONTROL PROTOCOL

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Two-phase locking (2PL) is a concurrency control protocol that determines whether a txn can access an object in the database at runtime.

The protocol does not need to know all the queries that a txn will execute ahead of time.

# TWO-PHASE LOCKING

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## Phase #1: Growing

- Each txn requests the locks that it needs from the DBMS's lock manager.
- The lock manager grants/denies lock requests.

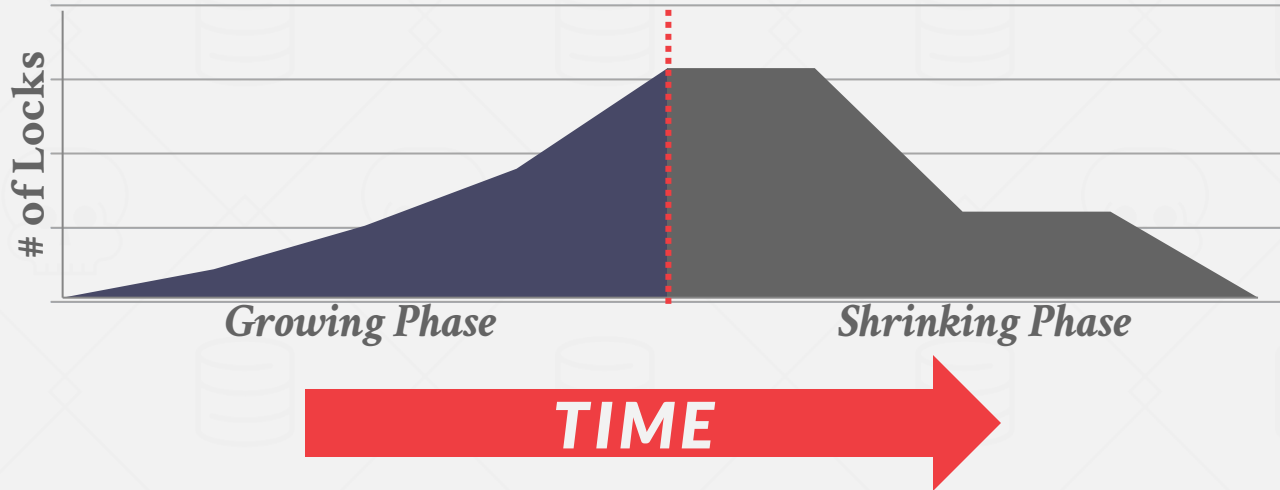
## Phase #2: Shrinking

- The txn is allowed to only release/downgrade locks that it previously acquired. It cannot acquire new locks.

# TWO-PHASE LOCKING

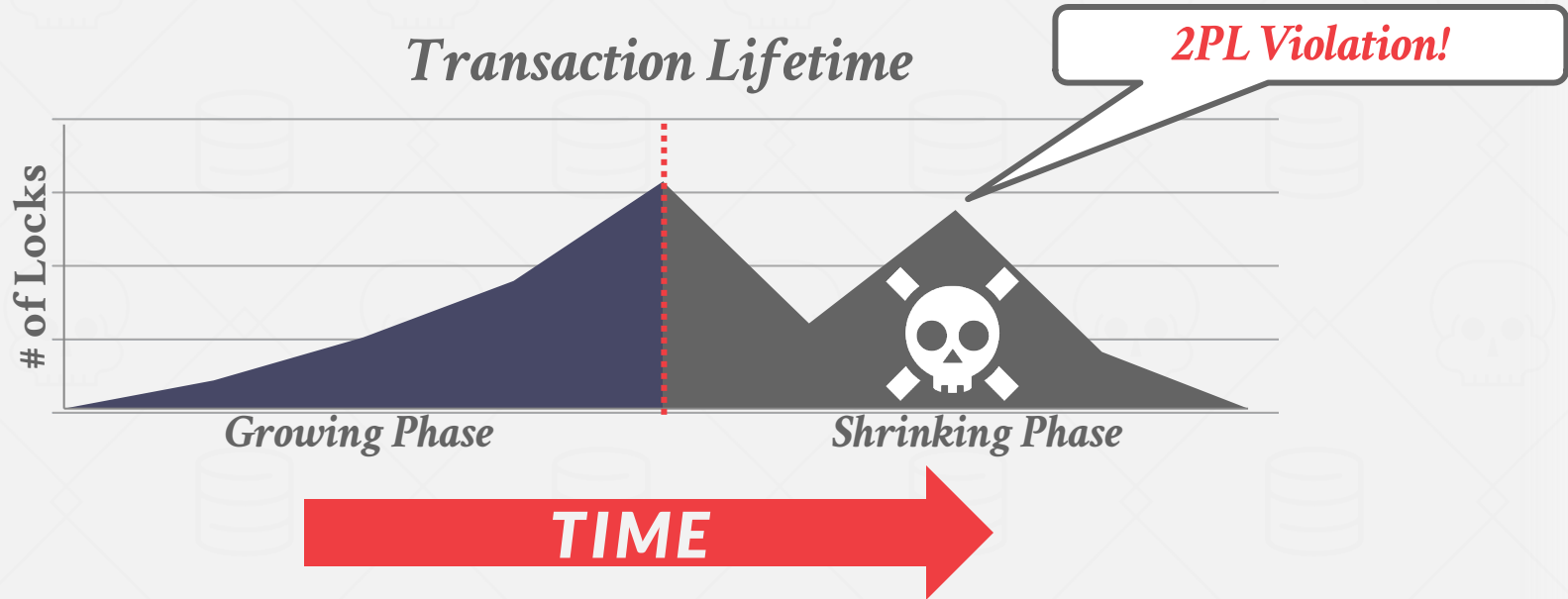
The txn is not allowed to acquire/upgrade locks after the growing phase finishes.

## *Transaction Lifetime*



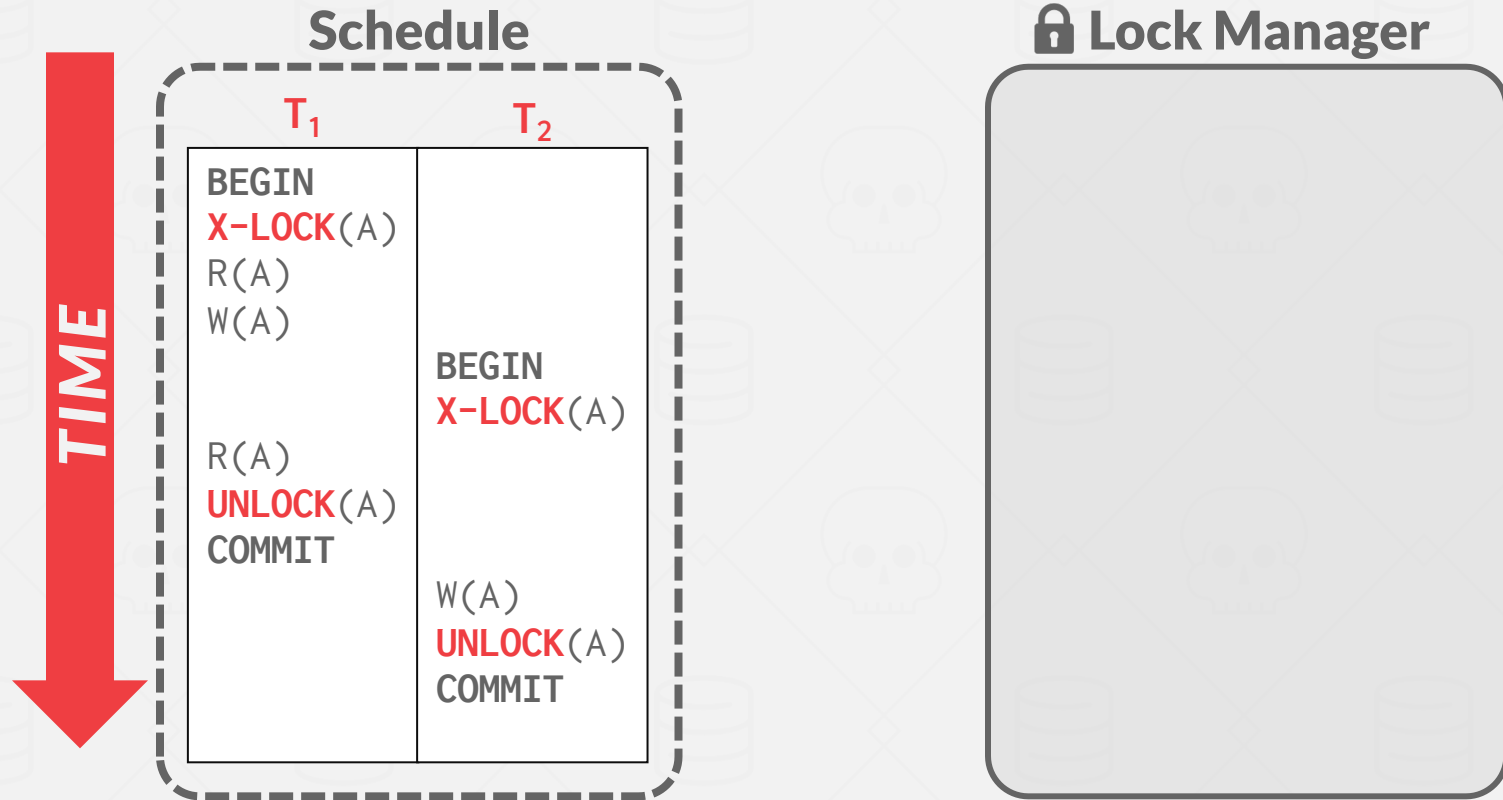
# TWO-PHASE LOCKING

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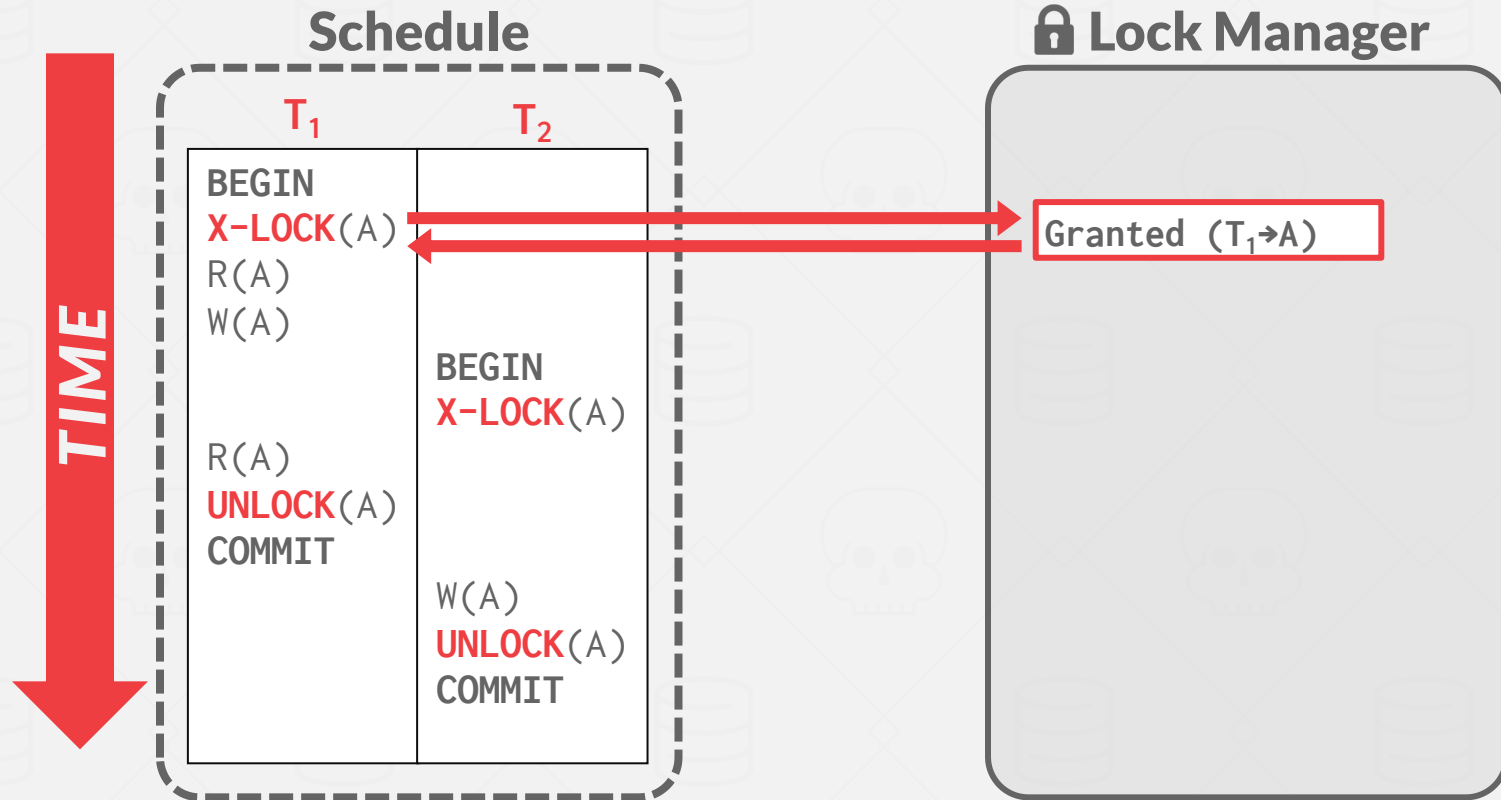




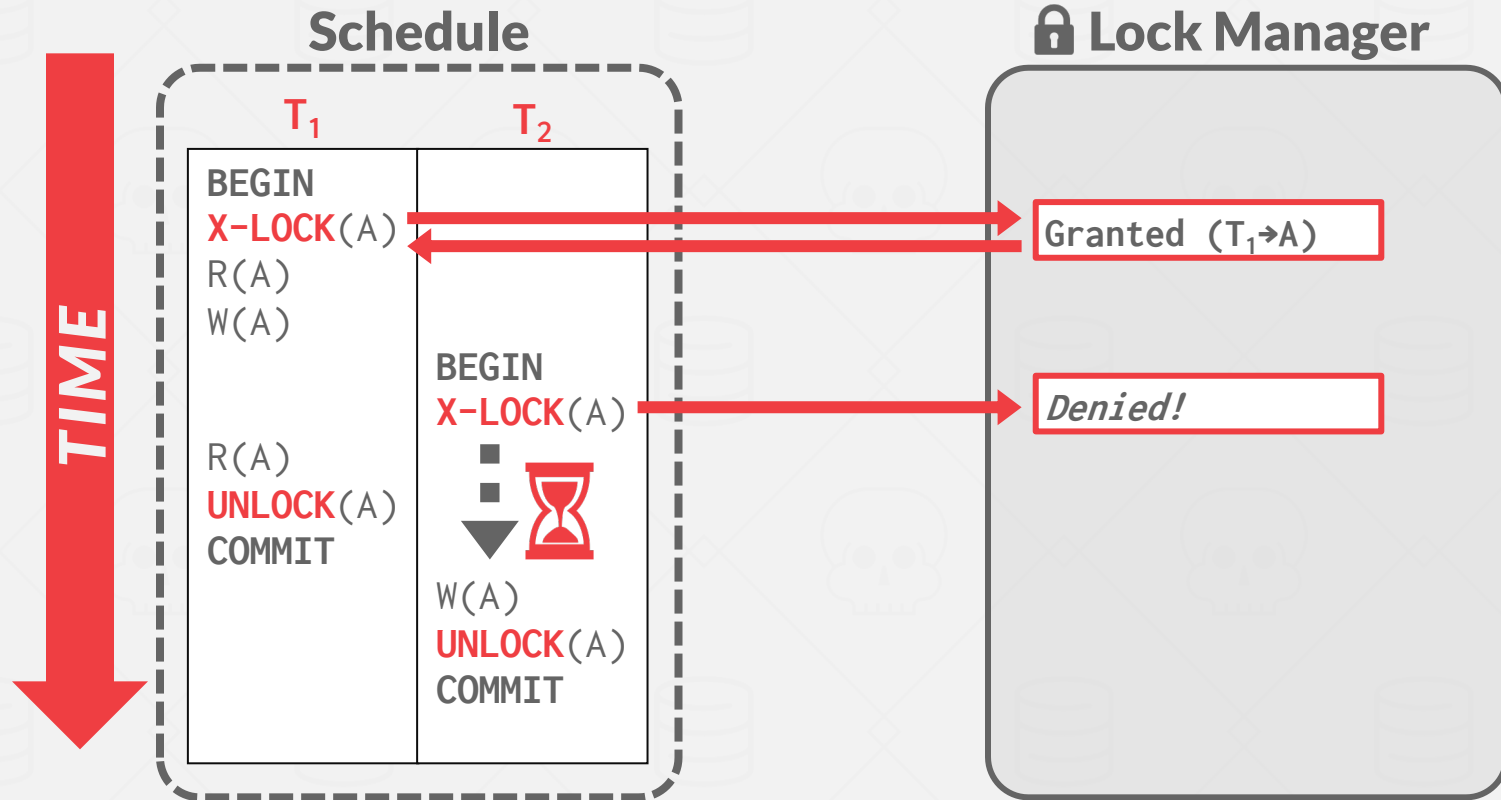
# EXECUTING WITH 2PL



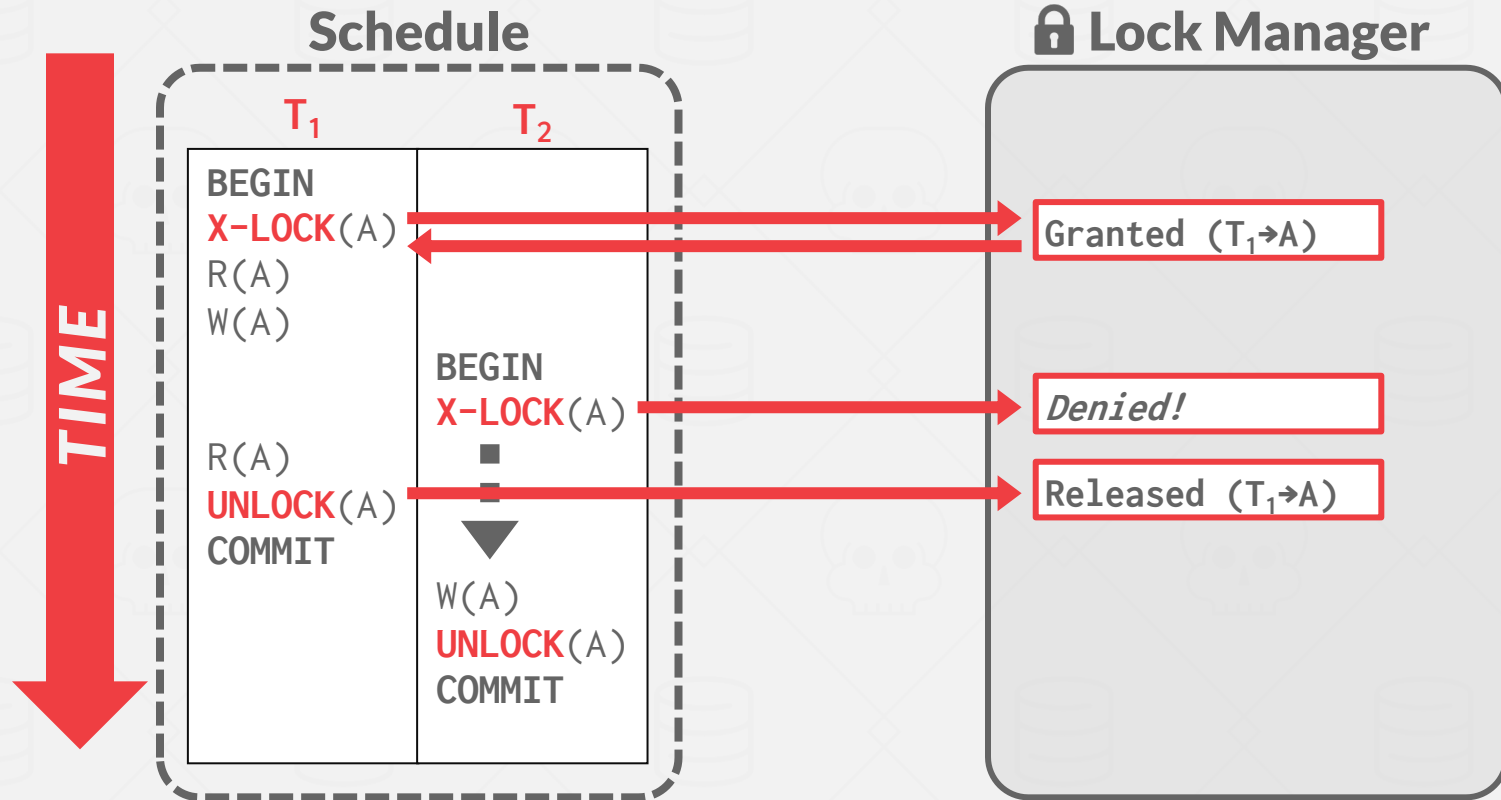
# EXECUTING WITH 2PL



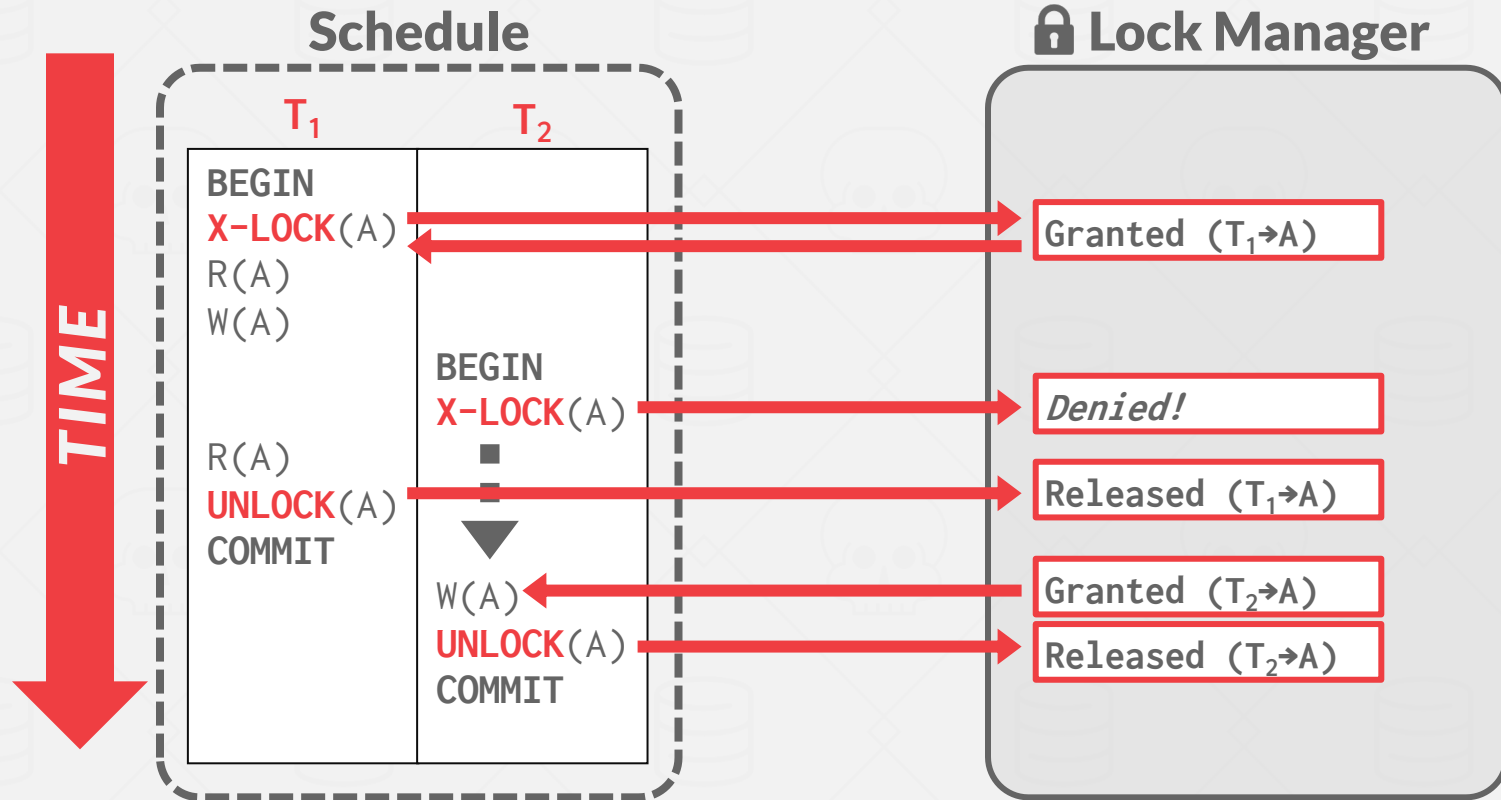
# EXECUTING WITH 2PL



# EXECUTING WITH 2PL



# EXECUTING WITH 2PL



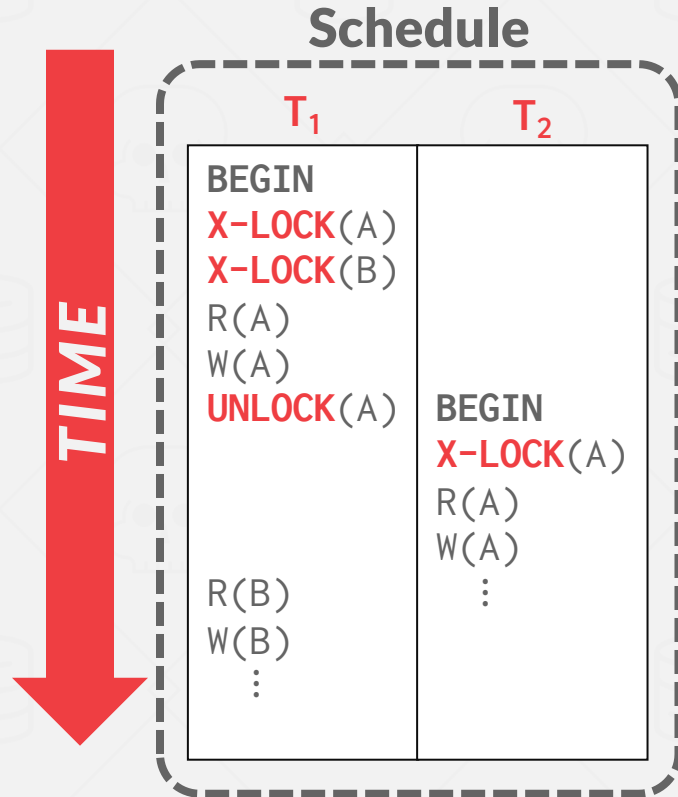
# TWO-PHASE LOCKING

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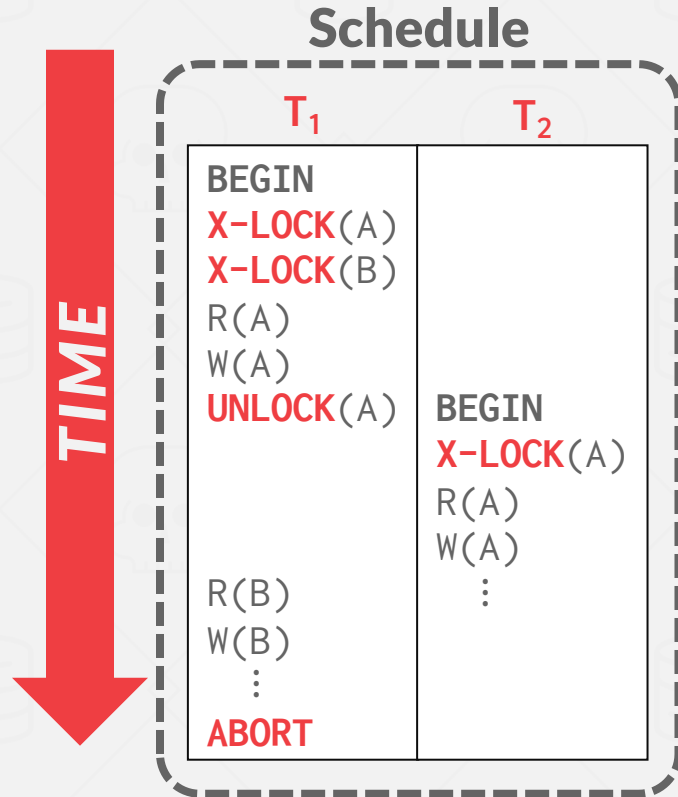
2PL on its own is sufficient to guarantee conflict serializability because it generates schedules whose precedence graph is acyclic.

But it is subject to **cascading aborts**.

# 2PL - CASCADING ABORTS

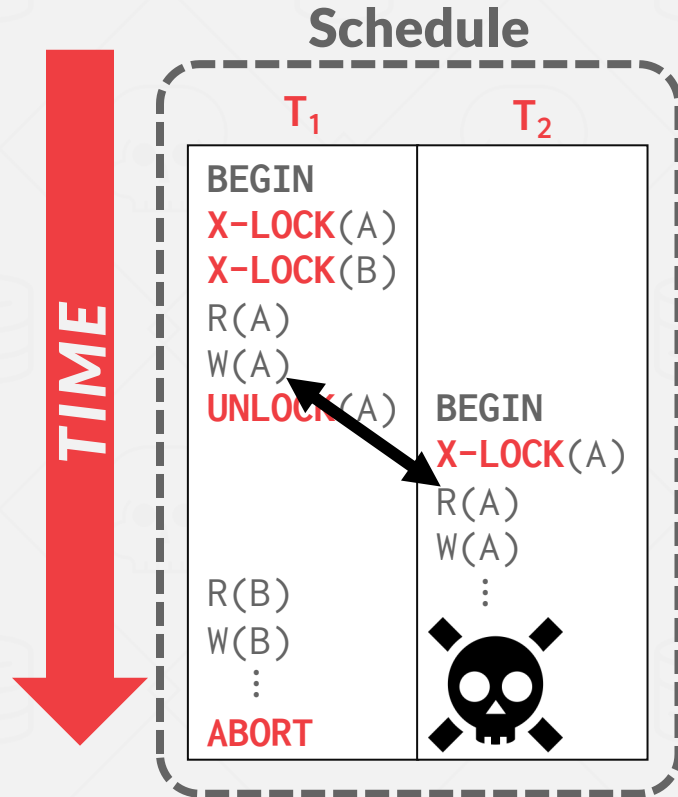


# 2PL - CASCADING ABORTS

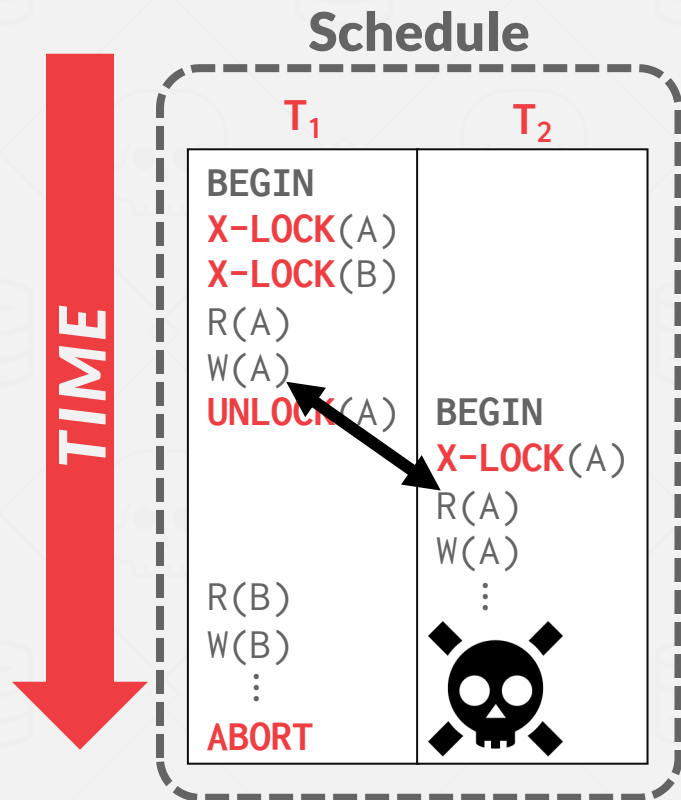




# 2PL - CASCADING ABORTS



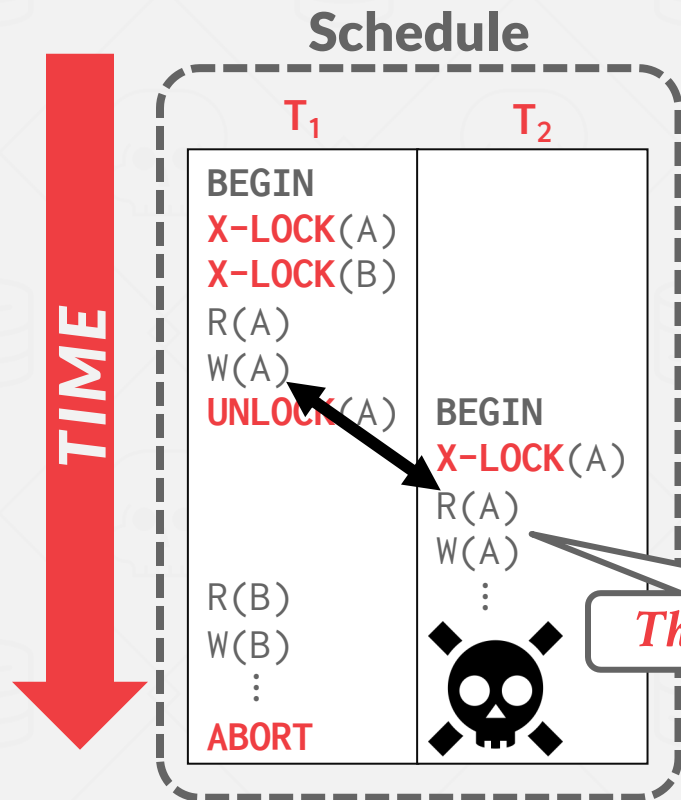
## 2PL - CASCADING ABORTS



This is a permissible schedule in 2PL, but the DBMS has to also abort  $T_2$  when  $T_1$  aborts.

Any information about  $T_1$  cannot be “leaked” to the outside world.

# 2PL - CASCADING ABORTS



This is a permissible schedule in 2PL, but the DBMS has to also abort  $T_2$  when  $T_1$  aborts.

Any information about  $T_1$  cannot be “leaked” to the outside world.

## 2PL OBSERVATIONS

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There are potential schedules that are serializable but would not be allowed by 2PL because locking limits concurrency.

→ Most DBMSs prefer correctness before performance.

May still have “dirty reads”.

→ Solution: **Strong Strict 2PL (aka Rigorous 2PL)**

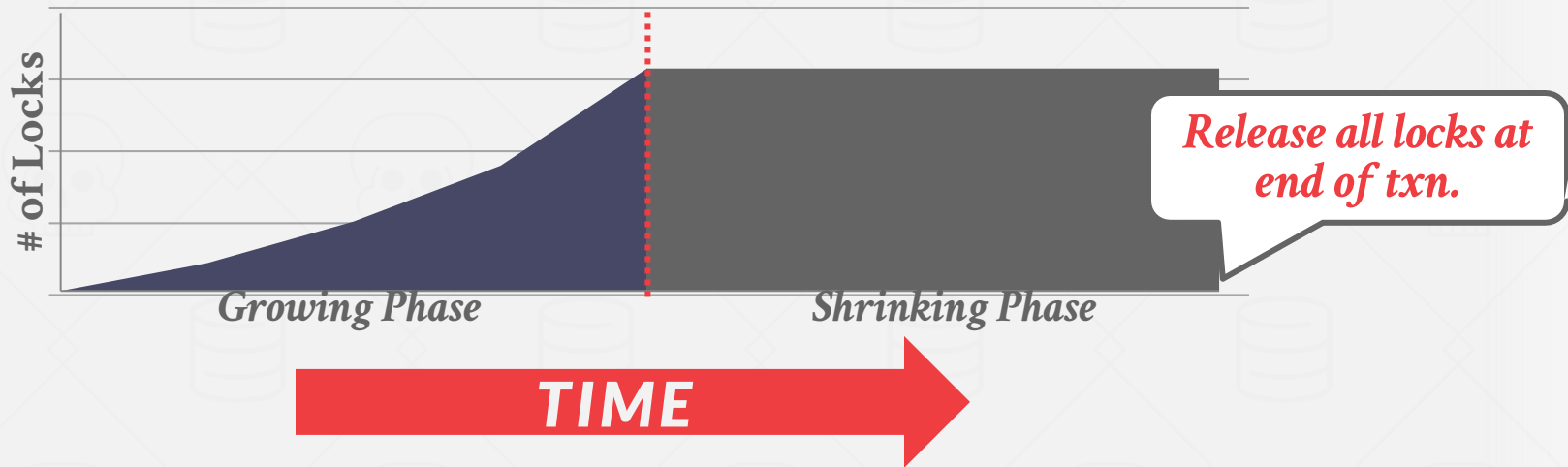
May lead to deadlocks.

→ Solution: **Detection** or **Prevention**

# STRONG STRICT TWO-PHASE LOCKING

The txn is only allowed to release locks after it has ended (i.e., committed or aborted).

Allows only conflict serializable schedules, but it is often stronger than needed for some apps.



# STRONG STRICT TWO-PHASE LOCKING

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A schedule is strict if a value written by a txn is not read or overwritten by other txns until that txn finishes.

## Advantages:

- Does not incur cascading aborts.
- Aborted txns can be undone by just restoring original values of modified tuples.

# EXAMPLES

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$T_1$  – Move \$100 from Andy's account (**A**) to his bookie's account (**B**).

$T_2$  – Compute the total amount in all accounts and return it to the application.

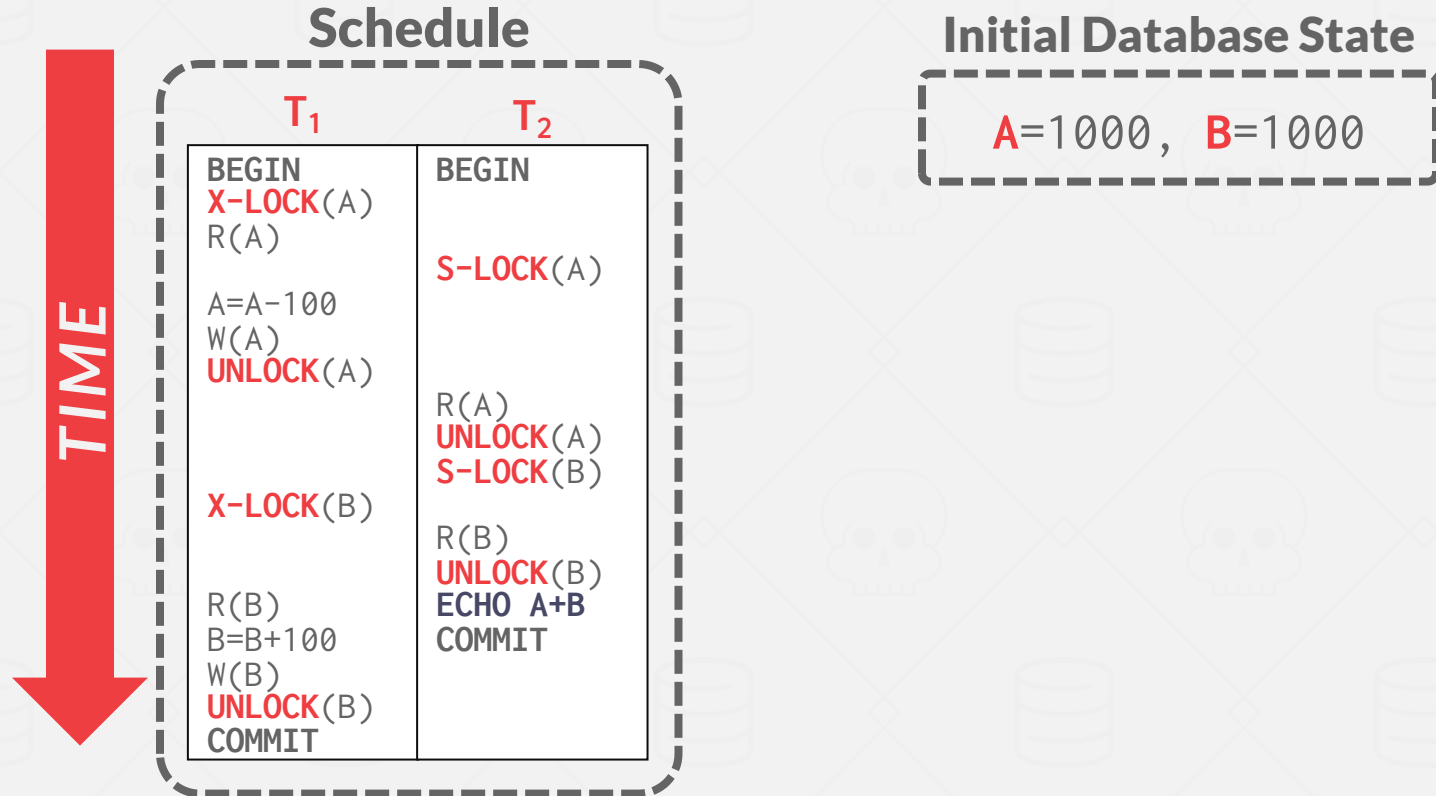
$T_1$

```
BEGIN
A=A-100
B=B+100
COMMIT
```

$T_2$

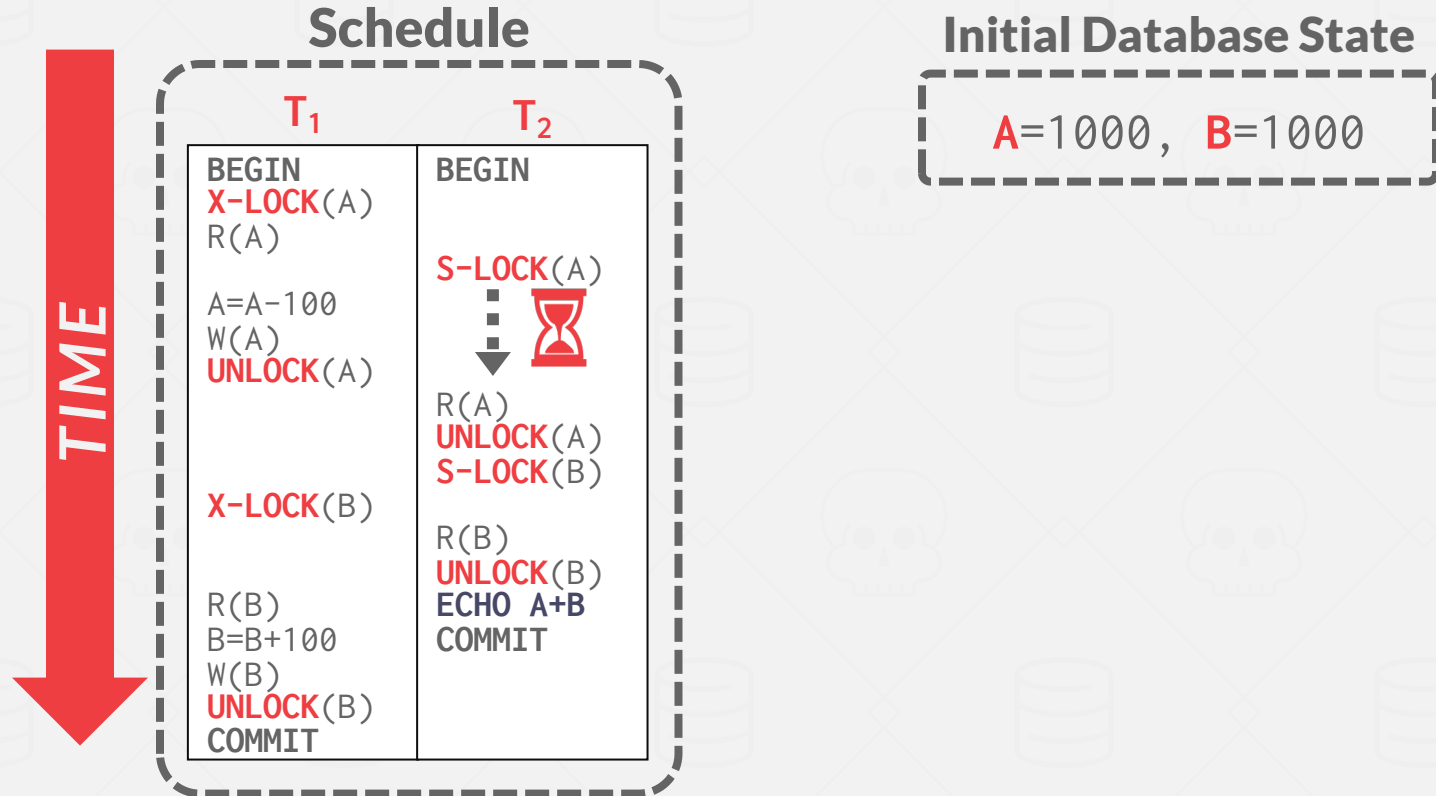
```
BEGIN
ECHO A+B
COMMIT
```

# NON-2PL EXAMPLE

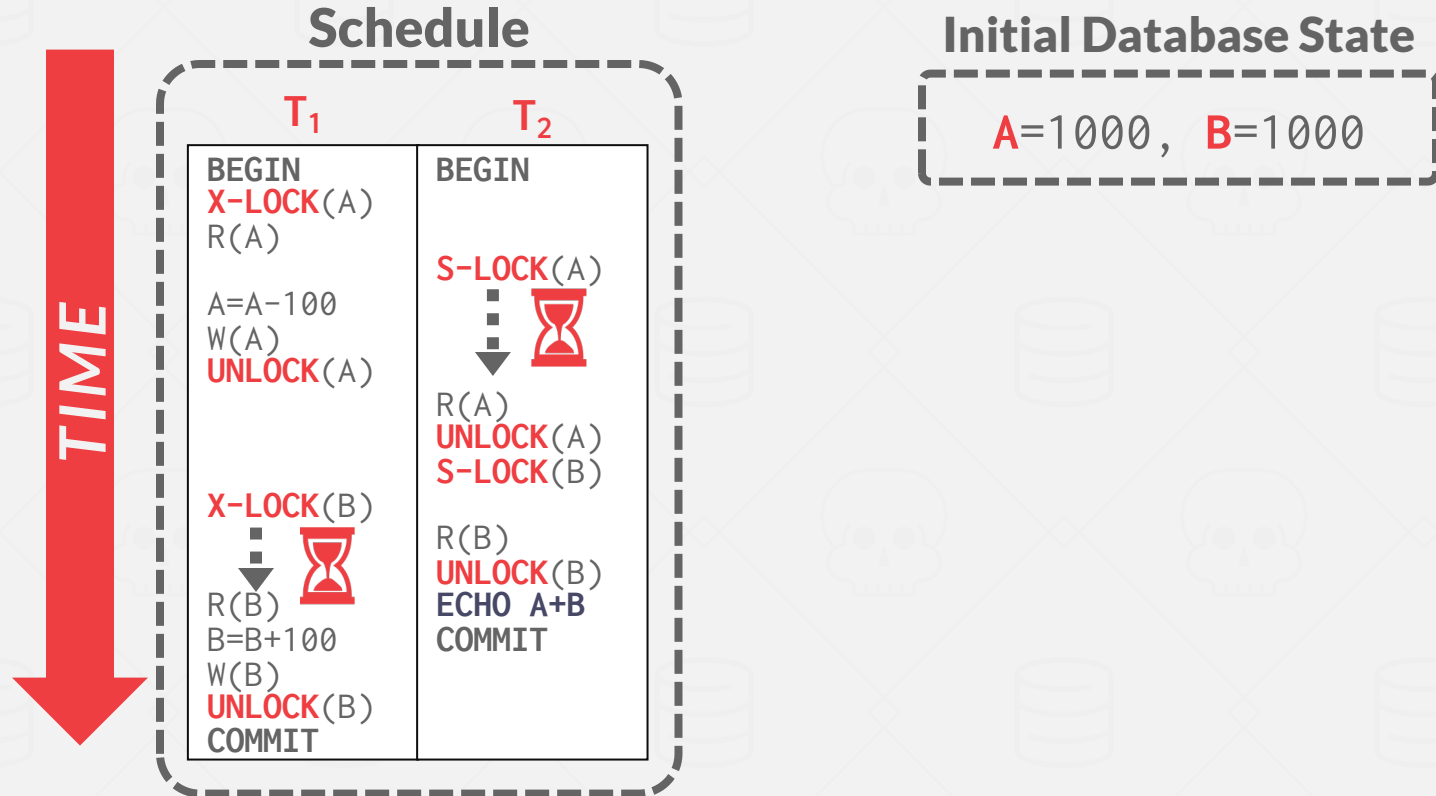




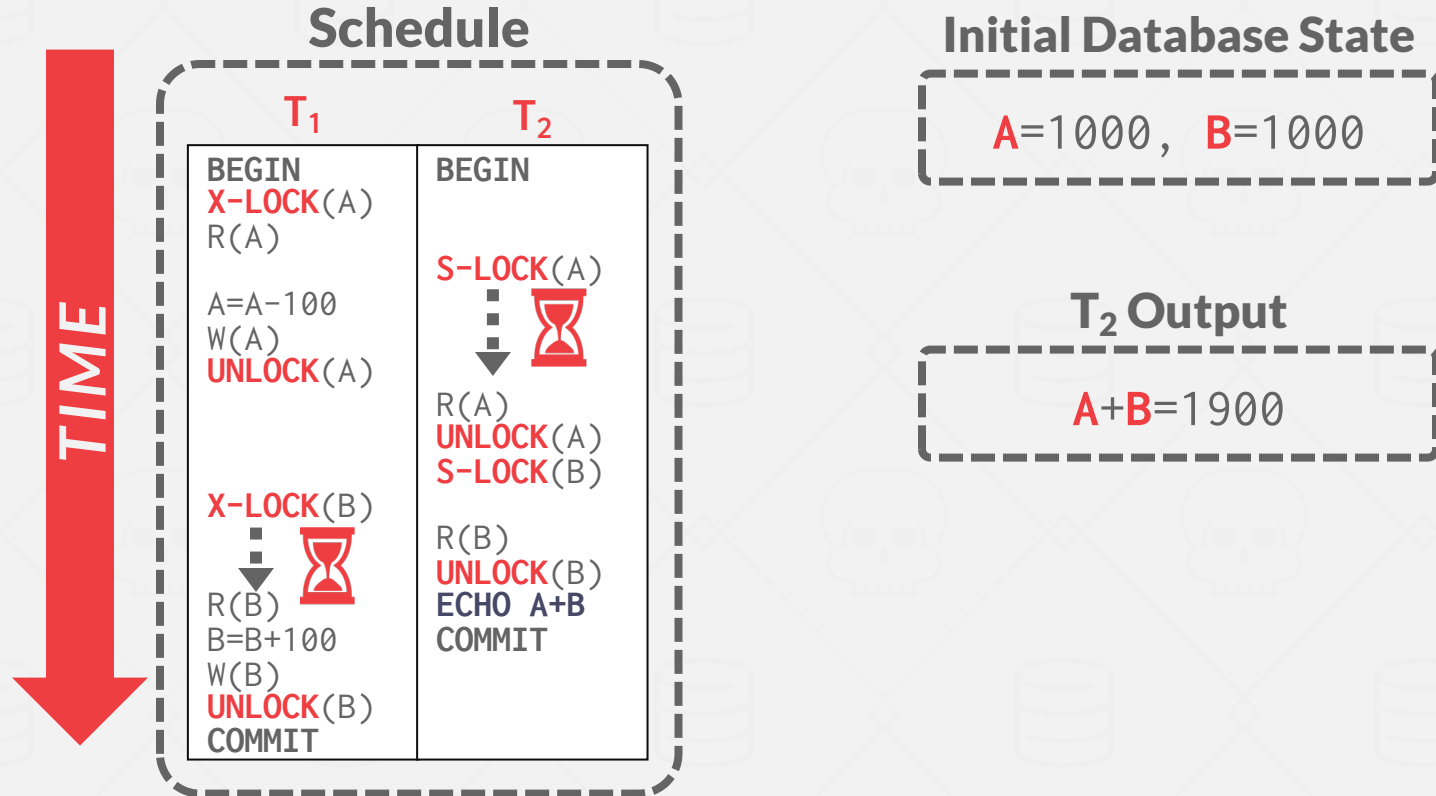
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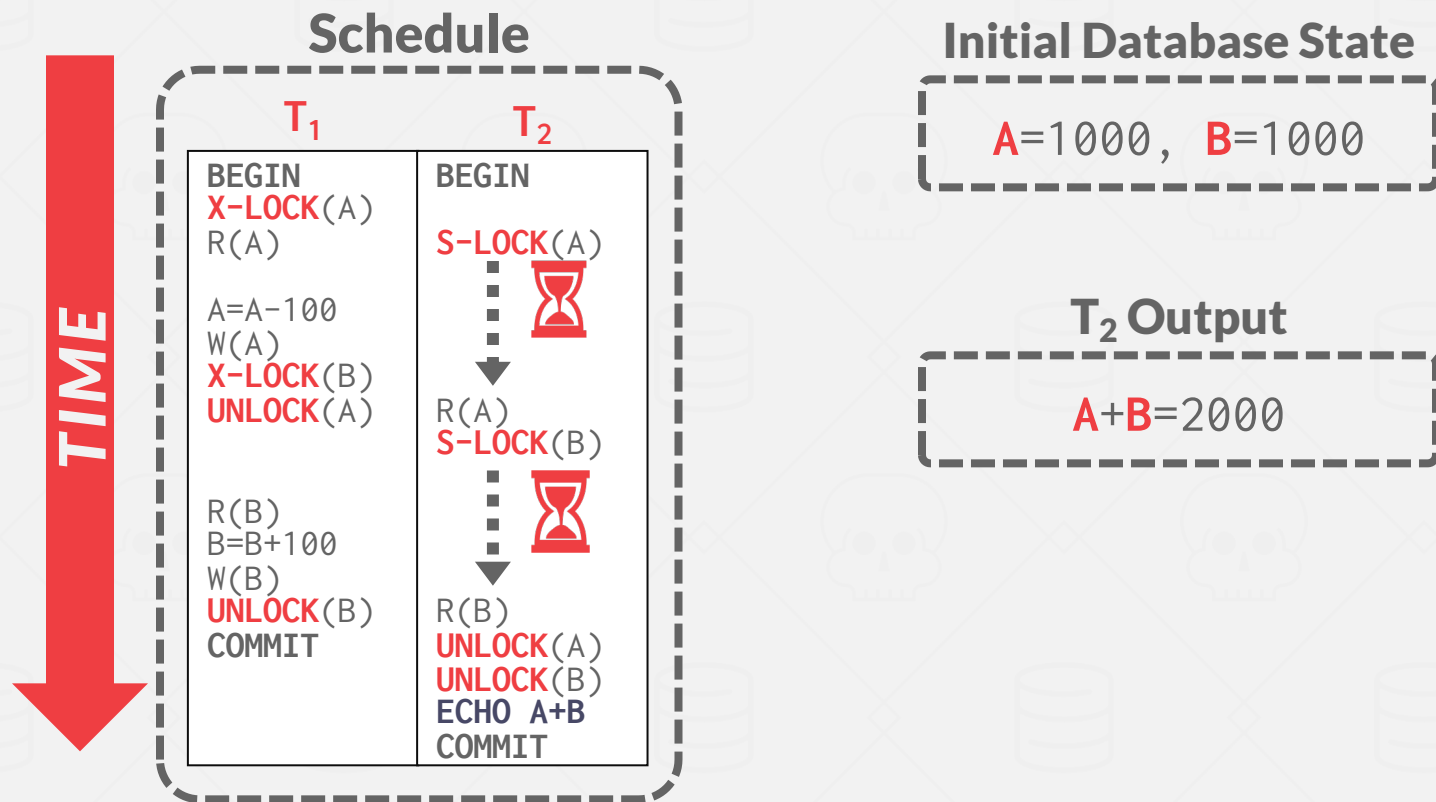
# NON-2PL EXAMPLE



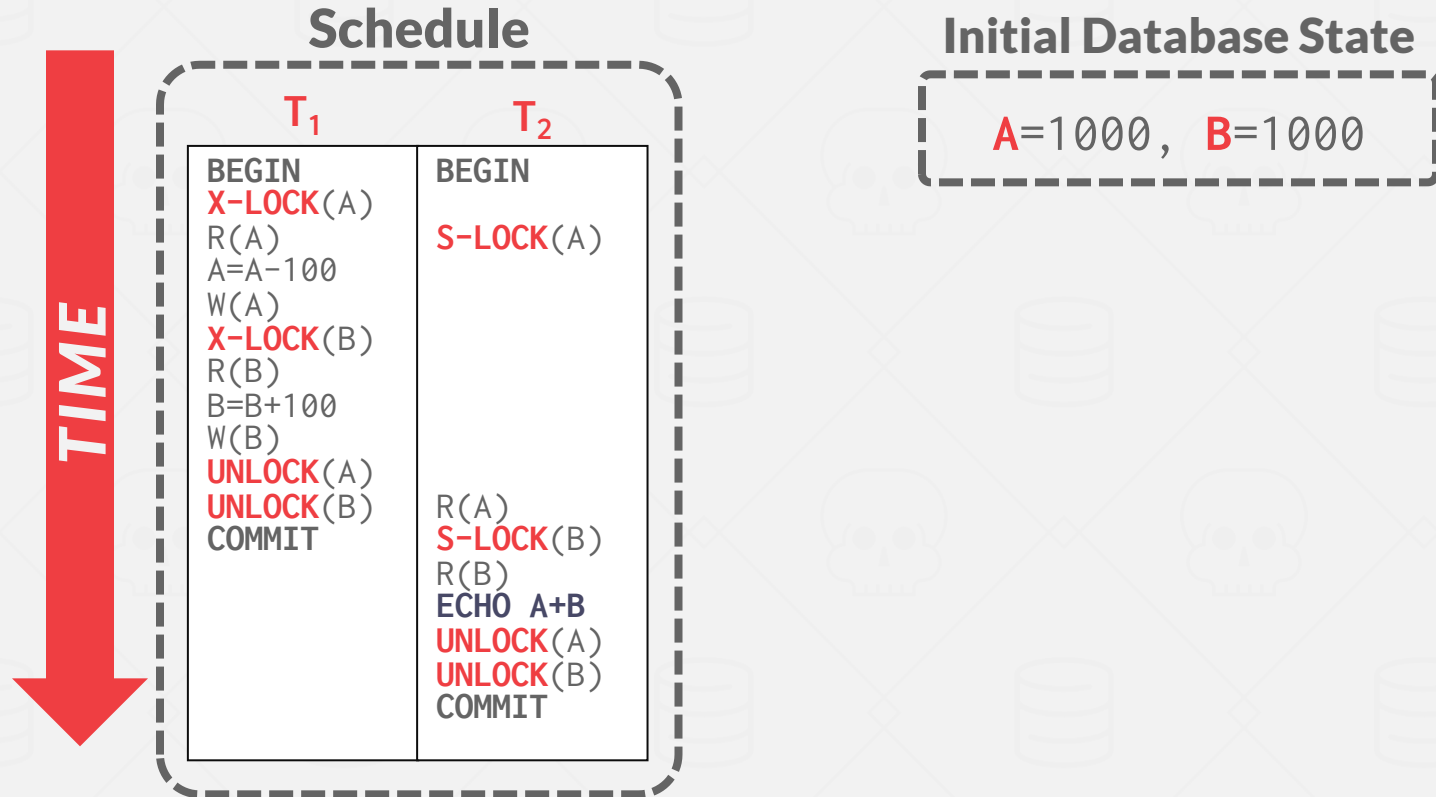
# NON-2PL EXAMPLE



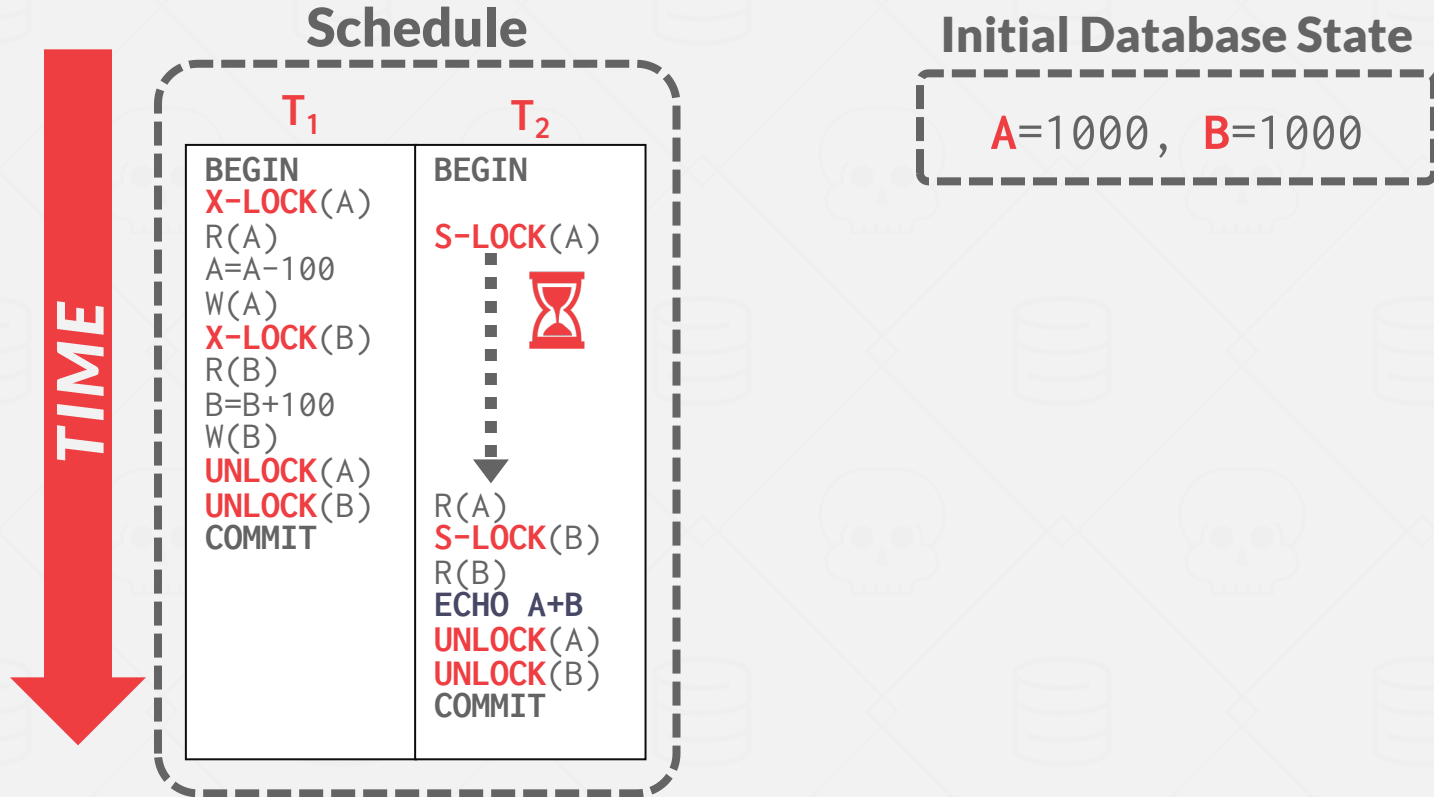
# 2PL EXAMPLE



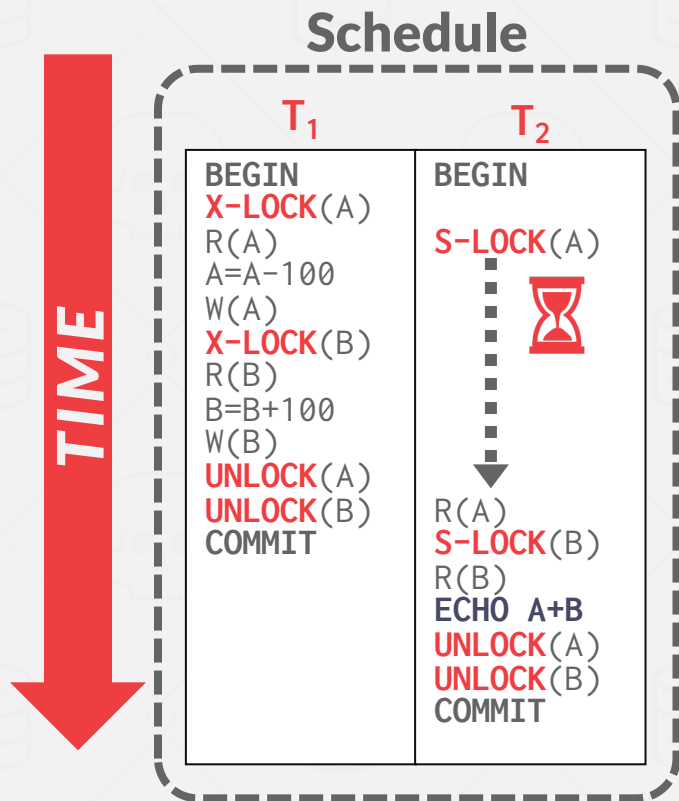
# STRONG STRICT 2PL EXAMPLE



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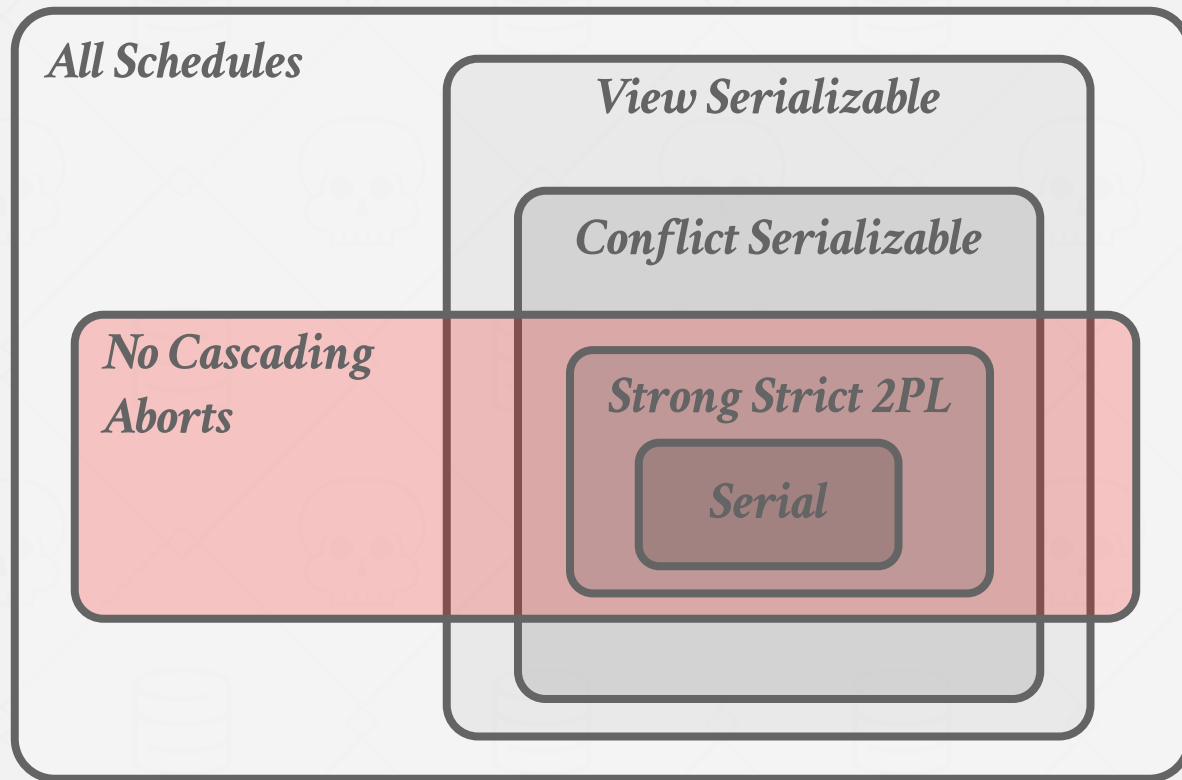
**Initial Database State**

**A=1000, B=1000**

**T<sub>2</sub> Output**

**A+B=2000**

# UNIVERSE OF SCHEDULES





## 2PL OBSERVATIONS

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There are potential schedules that are serializable but would not be allowed by 2PL because locking limits concurrency.

→ Most DBMSs prefer correctness before performance.

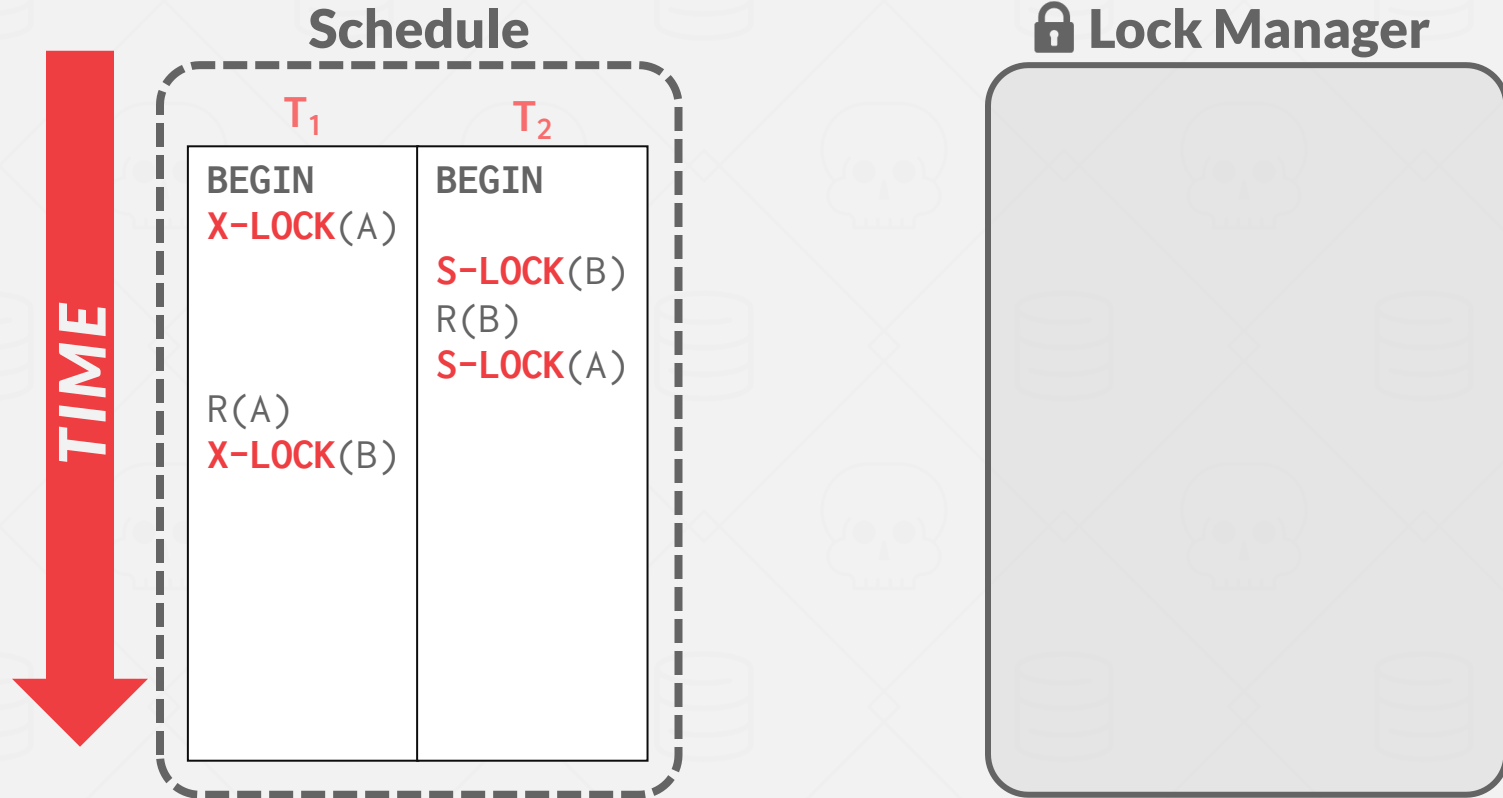
May still have “dirty reads”.

→ Solution: **Strong Strict 2PL (aka Rigorous 2PL)**

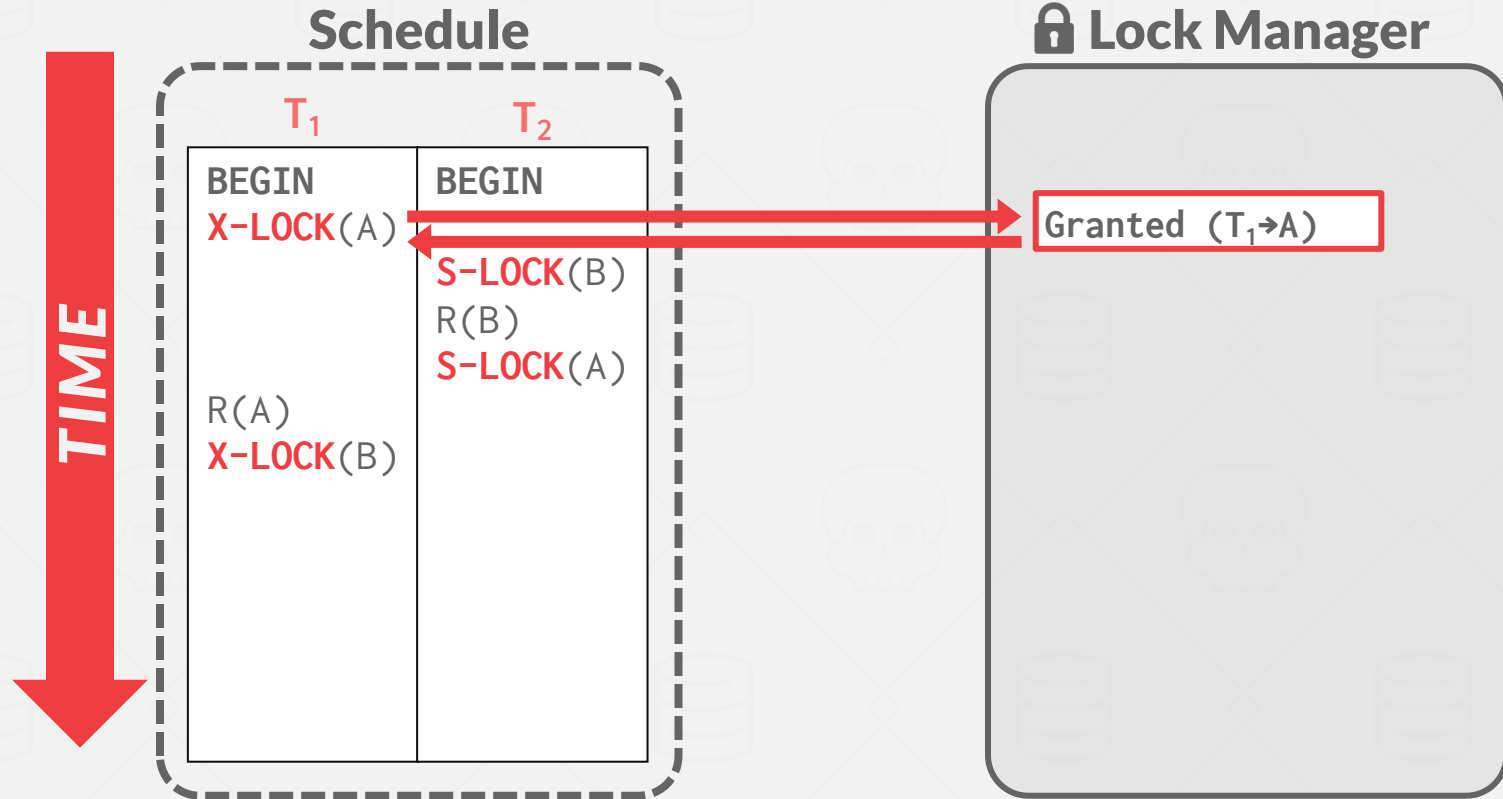
May lead to deadlocks.

→ Solution: **Detection or Prevention**

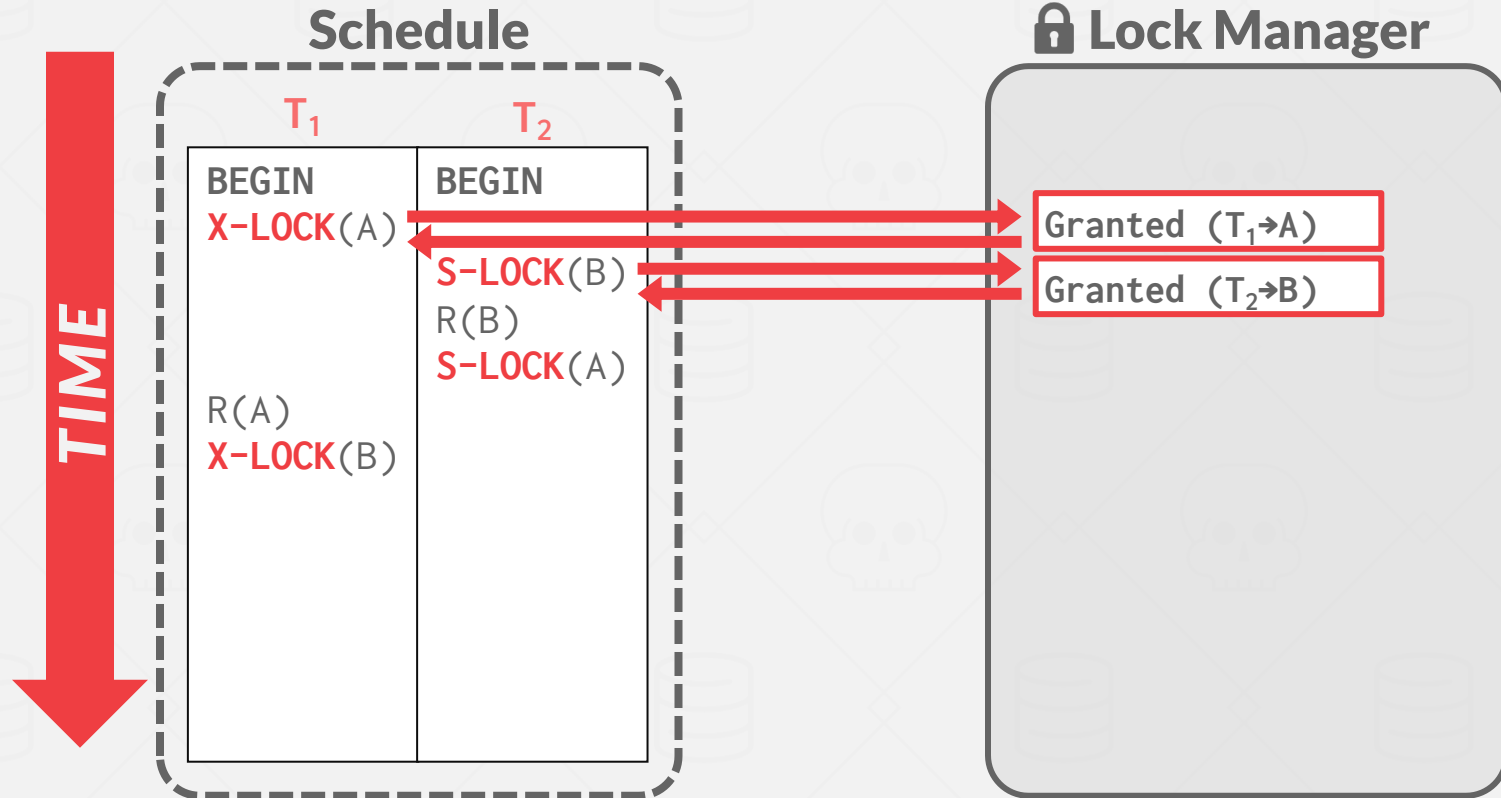
# IT JUST GOT REAL



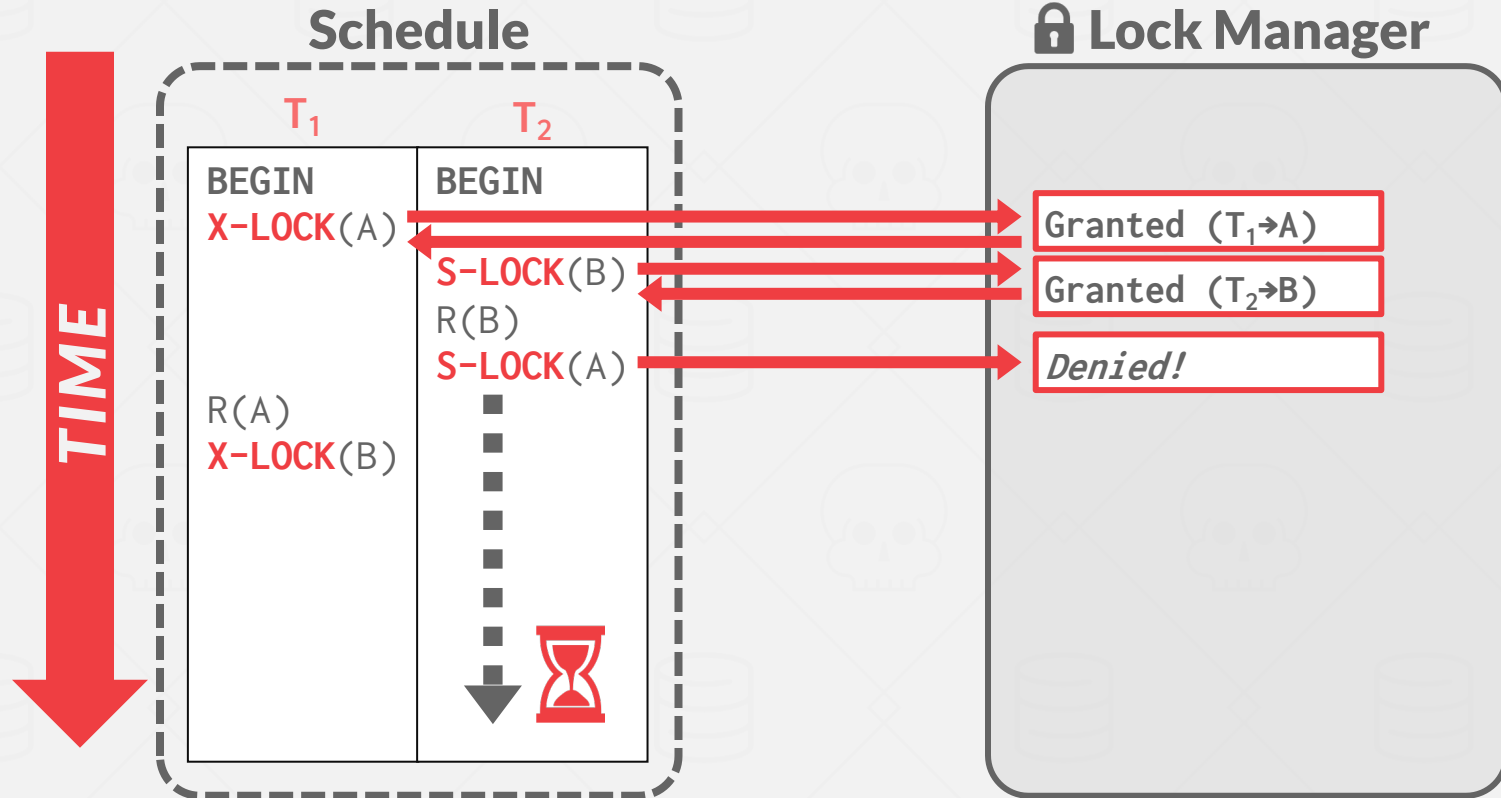
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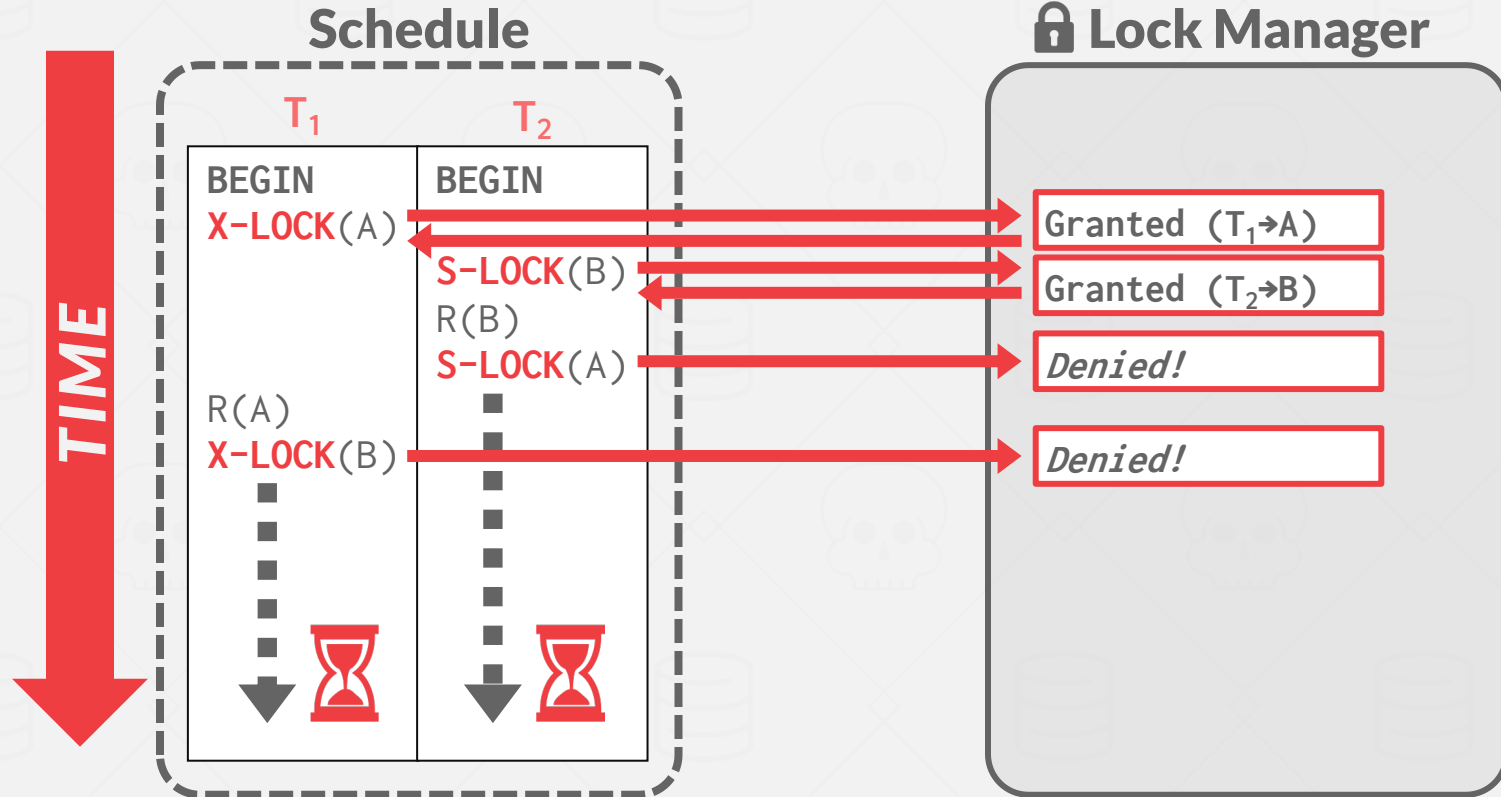
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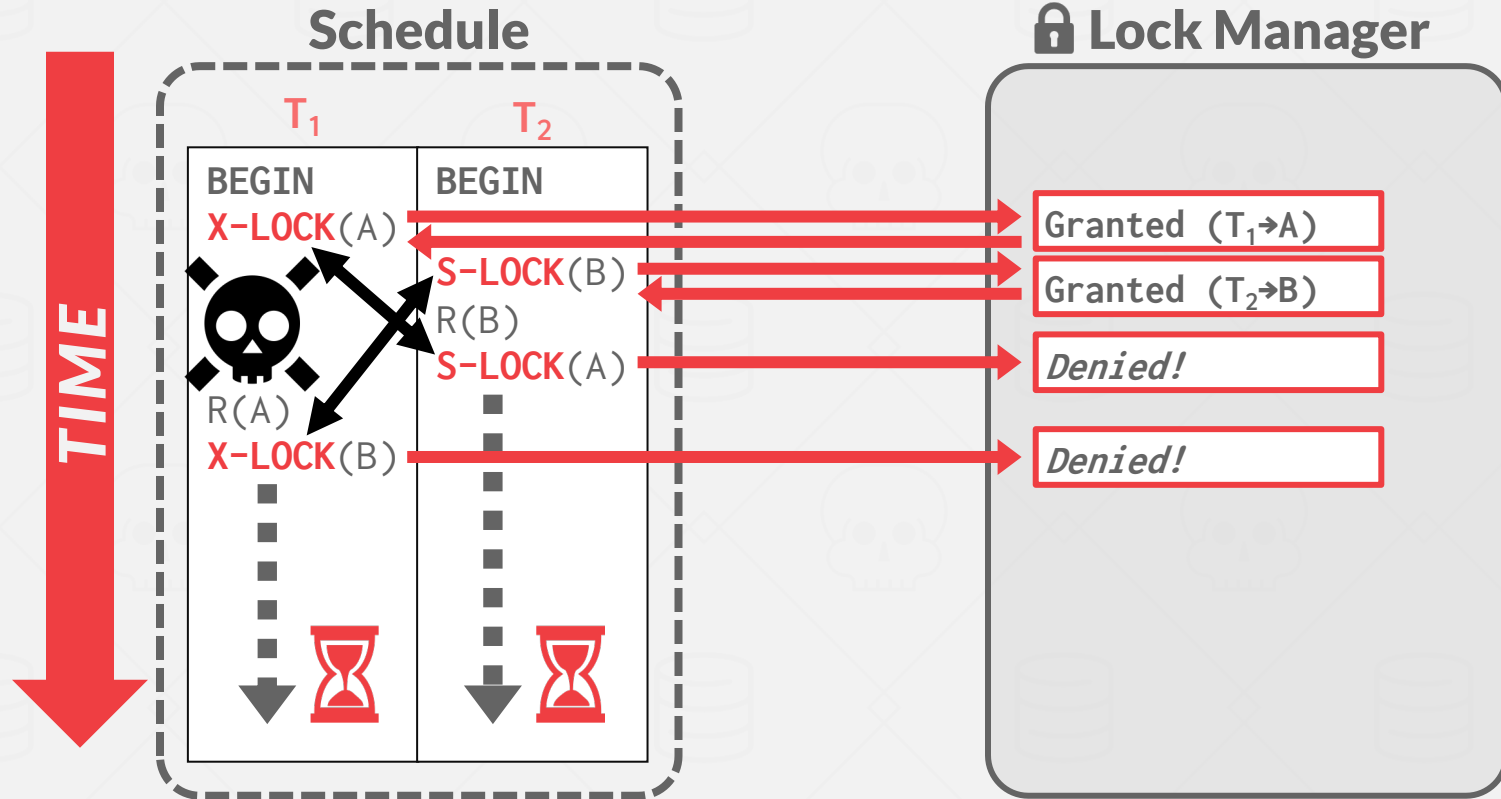
# IT JUST GOT REAL



# IT JUST GOT REAL



# IT JUST GOT REAL



# 2PL DEADLOCKS

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A **deadlock** is a cycle of transactions waiting for locks to be released by each other.

Two ways of dealing with deadlocks:

- **Approach #1: Deadlock Detection**
- **Approach #2: Deadlock Prevention**



# DEADLOCK DETECTION

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The DBMS creates a waits-for graph to keep track of what locks each txn is waiting to acquire:

→ Nodes are transactions

→ Edge from  $T_i$  to  $T_j$  if  $T_i$  is waiting for  $T_j$  to release a lock.

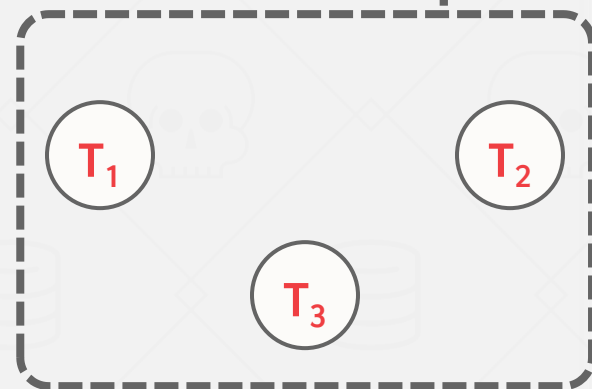
The system periodically checks for cycles in *waits-for* graph and then decides how to break it.

# DEADLOCK DETECTION

## Schedule

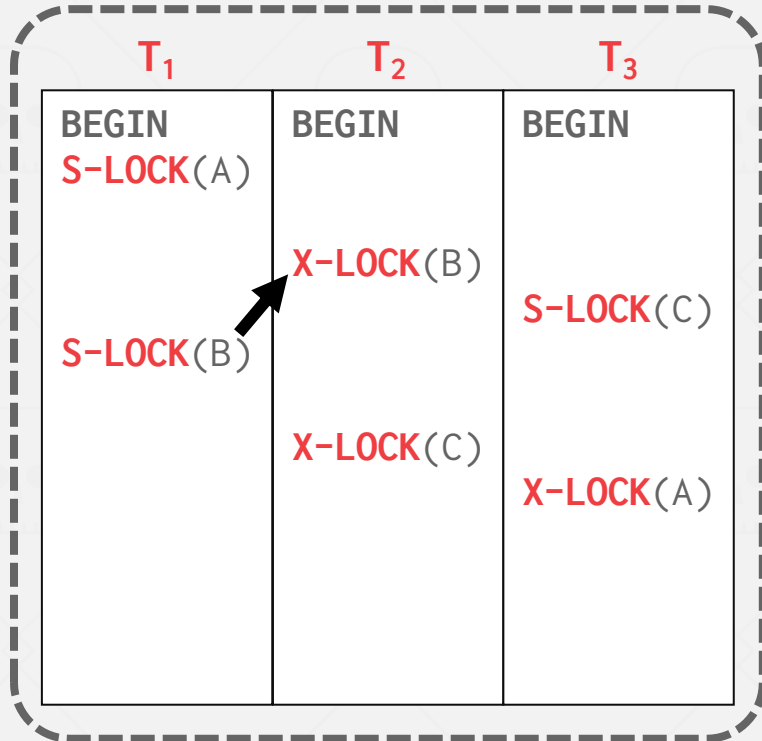
$T_1$	$T_2$	$T_3$
BEGIN	BEGIN	BEGIN
S-LOCK(A)		
	X-LOCK(B)	
S-LOCK(B)		S-LOCK(C)
	X-LOCK(C)	
		X-LOCK(A)

## Waits-For Graph

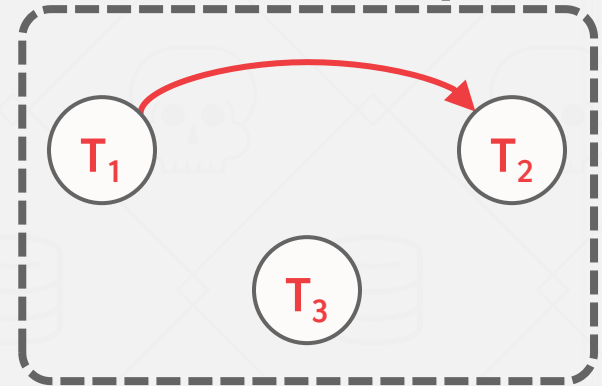


# DEADLOCK DETECTION

## Schedule

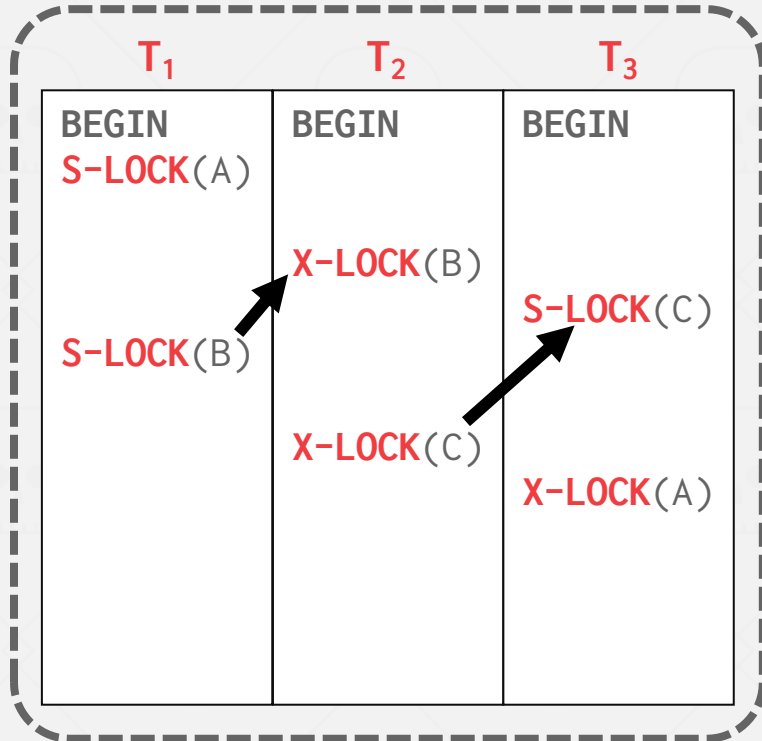


## Waits-For Graph

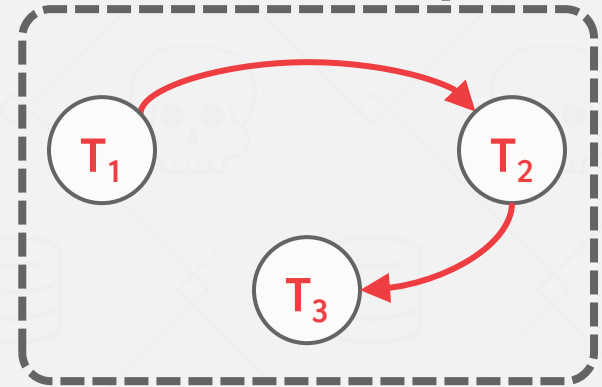


# DEADLOCK DETECTION

## Schedule

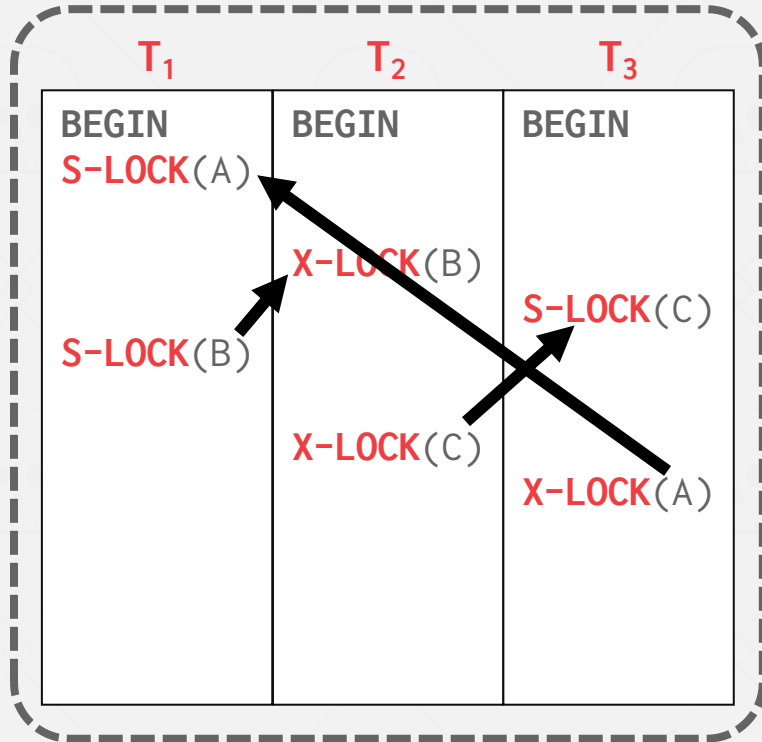


## Waits-For Graph

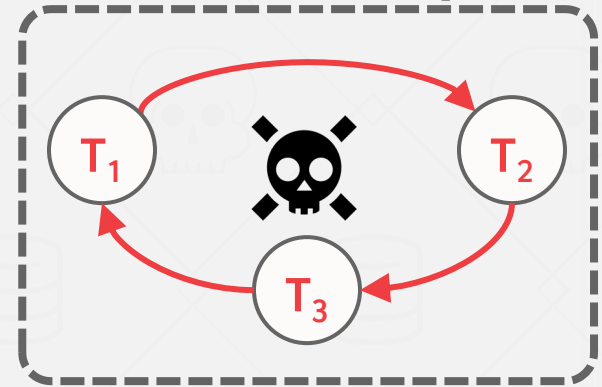


# DEADLOCK DETECTION

## Schedule



## Waits-For Graph



# DEADLOCK HANDLING

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When the DBMS detects a deadlock, it will select a “victim” txn to rollback to break the cycle.

The victim txn will either restart or abort (more common) depending on how it was invoked.

There is a trade-off between the frequency of checking for deadlocks and how long txns wait before deadlocks are broken.

# DEADLOCK HANDLING: VICTIM SELECTION

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Selecting the proper victim depends on a lot of different variables....

- By age (lowest timestamp)
- By progress (least/most queries executed)
- By the # of items already locked
- By the # of txns that we have to rollback with it

We also should consider the # of times a txn has been restarted in the past to prevent starvation.

# DEADLOCK HANDLING: ROLLBACK LENGTH

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After selecting a victim txn to abort, the DBMS can also decide on how far to rollback the txn's changes.

## **Approach #1: Completely**

→ Rollback entire txn and tell the application it was aborted.

## **Approach #2: Partial (Savepoints)**

→ DBMS rolls back a portion of a txn (to break deadlock) and then attempts to re-execute the undone queries.



# DEADLOCK PREVENTION

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When a txn tries to acquire a lock that is held by another txn, the DBMS kills one of them to prevent a deadlock.

This approach does not require a *waits-for* graph or detection algorithm.

# DEADLOCK PREVENTION

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Assign priorities based on timestamps:

→ Older Timestamp = Higher Priority (e.g.,  $T_1 > T_2$ )

## Wait-Die (“Old Waits for Young”)

→ If *requesting txn* has higher priority than *holding txn*, then *requesting txn* waits for *holding txn*.

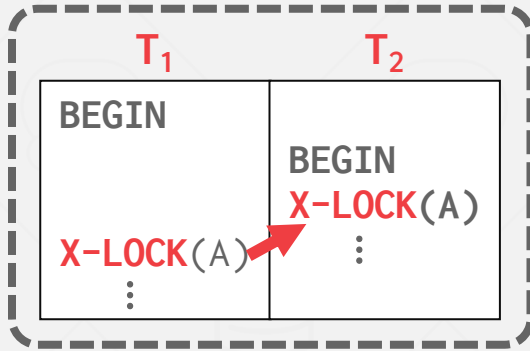
→ Otherwise *requesting txn* aborts.

## Wound-Wait (“Young Waits for Old”)

→ If *requesting txn* has higher priority than *holding txn*, then *holding txn* aborts and releases lock.

→ Otherwise *requesting txn* waits.

# DEADLOCK PREVENTION

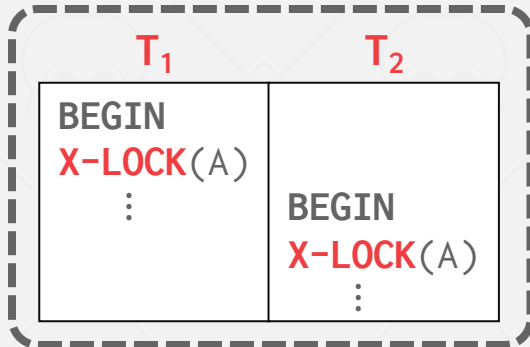


**Wait-Die**

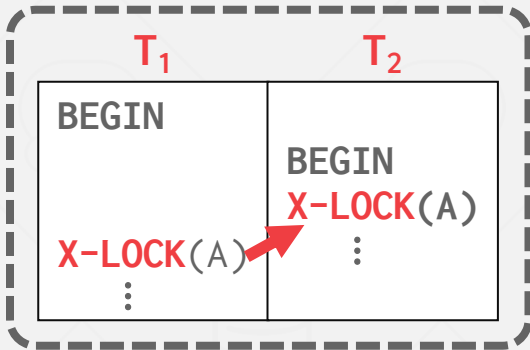
$T_1$  waits

**Wound-Wait**

$T_2$  aborts



# DEADLOCK PREVENTION

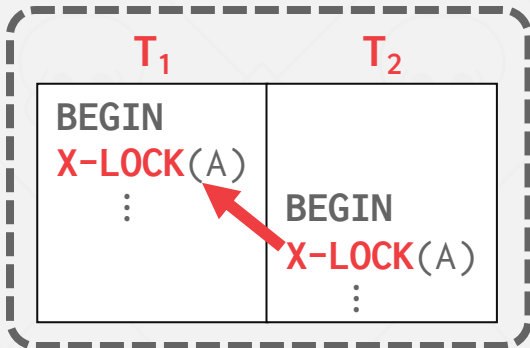


**Wait-Die**

$T_1$  waits

**Wound-Wait**

$T_2$  aborts



**Wait-Die**

$T_2$  aborts

**Wound-Wait**

$T_2$  waits

# DEADLOCK PREVENTION

---

*Why do these schemes guarantee no deadlocks?*

Only one “type” of direction allowed when waiting for a lock.

*When a txn restarts, what is its (new) priority?*

Its original timestamp to prevent it from getting starved for resources like an old man at a corrupt senior center.

# OBSERVATION

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All these examples have a one-to-one mapping from database objects to locks.

If a txn wants to update one billion tuples, then it must acquire one billion locks.

Acquiring locks is a more expensive operation than acquiring a latch even if that lock is available.

# LOCK GRANULARITIES

---

When a txn wants to acquire a “lock”, the DBMS can decide the granularity (i.e., scope) of that lock.

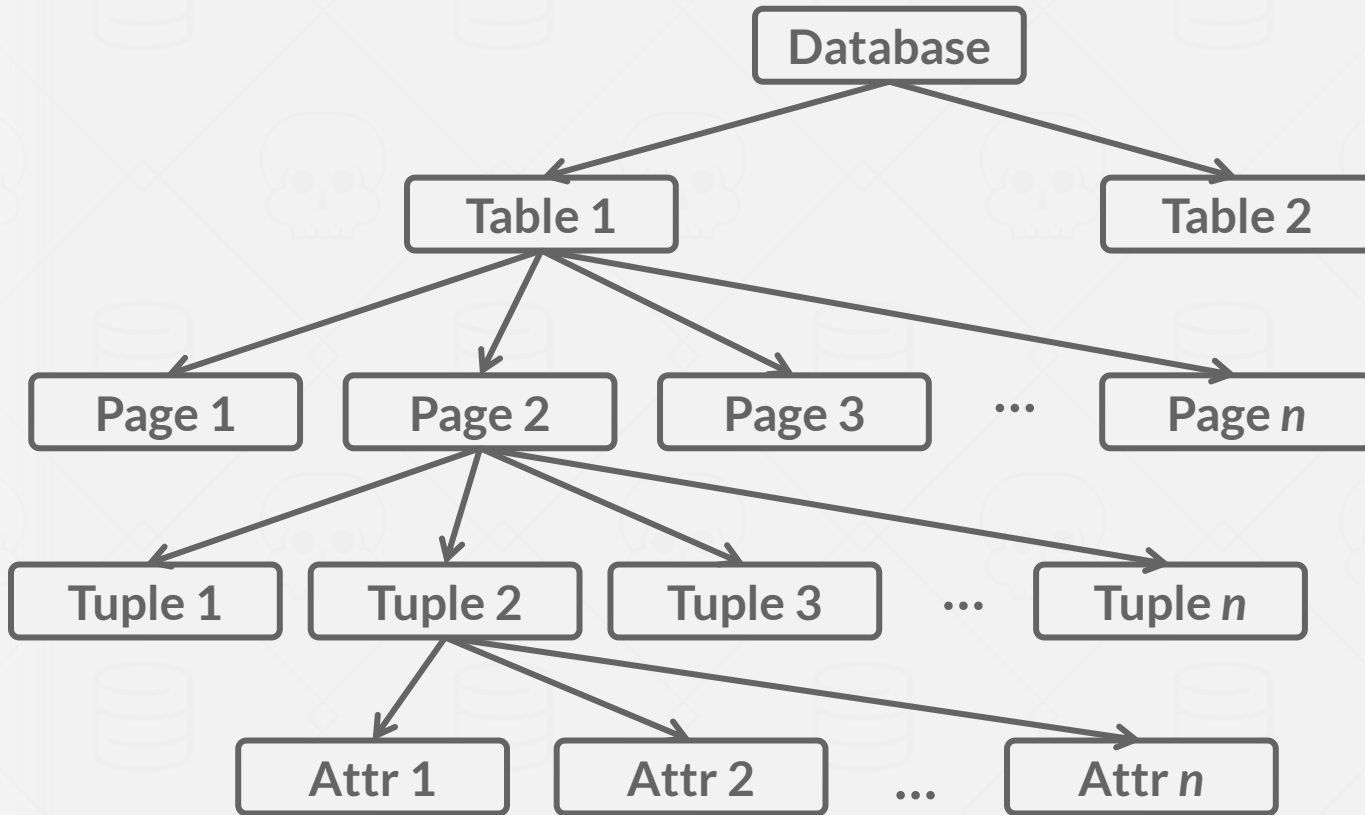
→ Attribute? Tuple? Page? Table?

The DBMS should ideally obtain fewest number of locks that a txn needs.

Trade-off between parallelism versus overhead.

→ Fewer Locks, Larger Granularity vs. More Locks, Smaller Granularity.

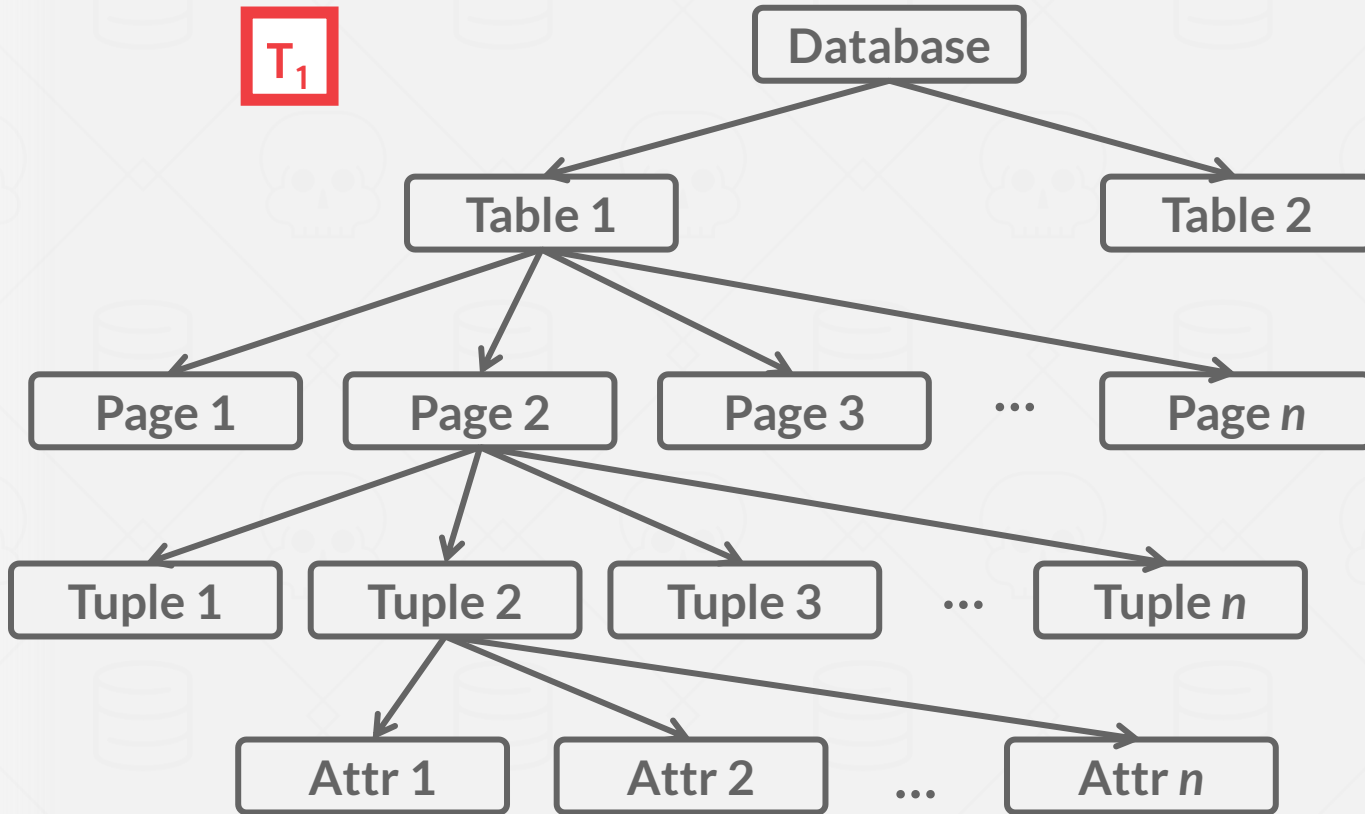
# DATABASE LOCK HIERARCHY



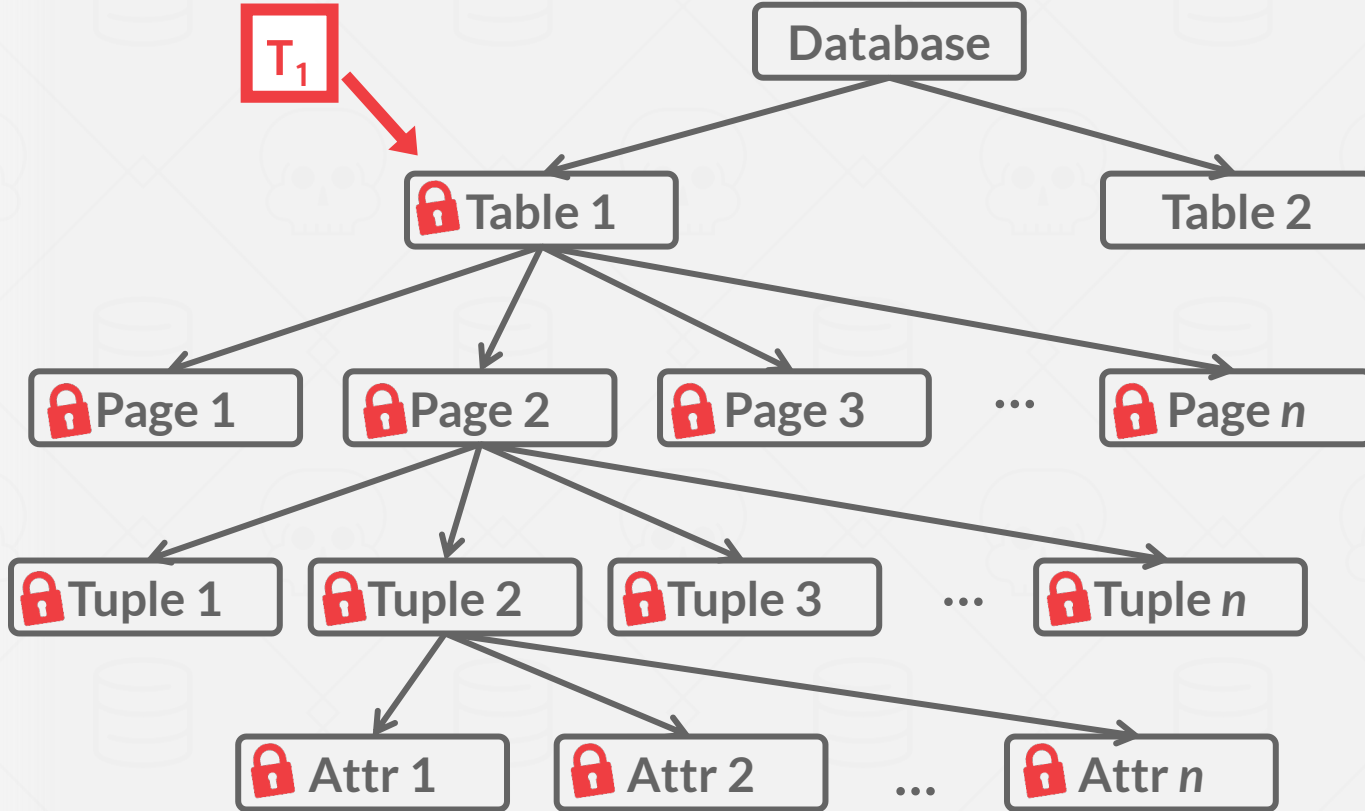


# DATABASE LOCK HIERARCHY

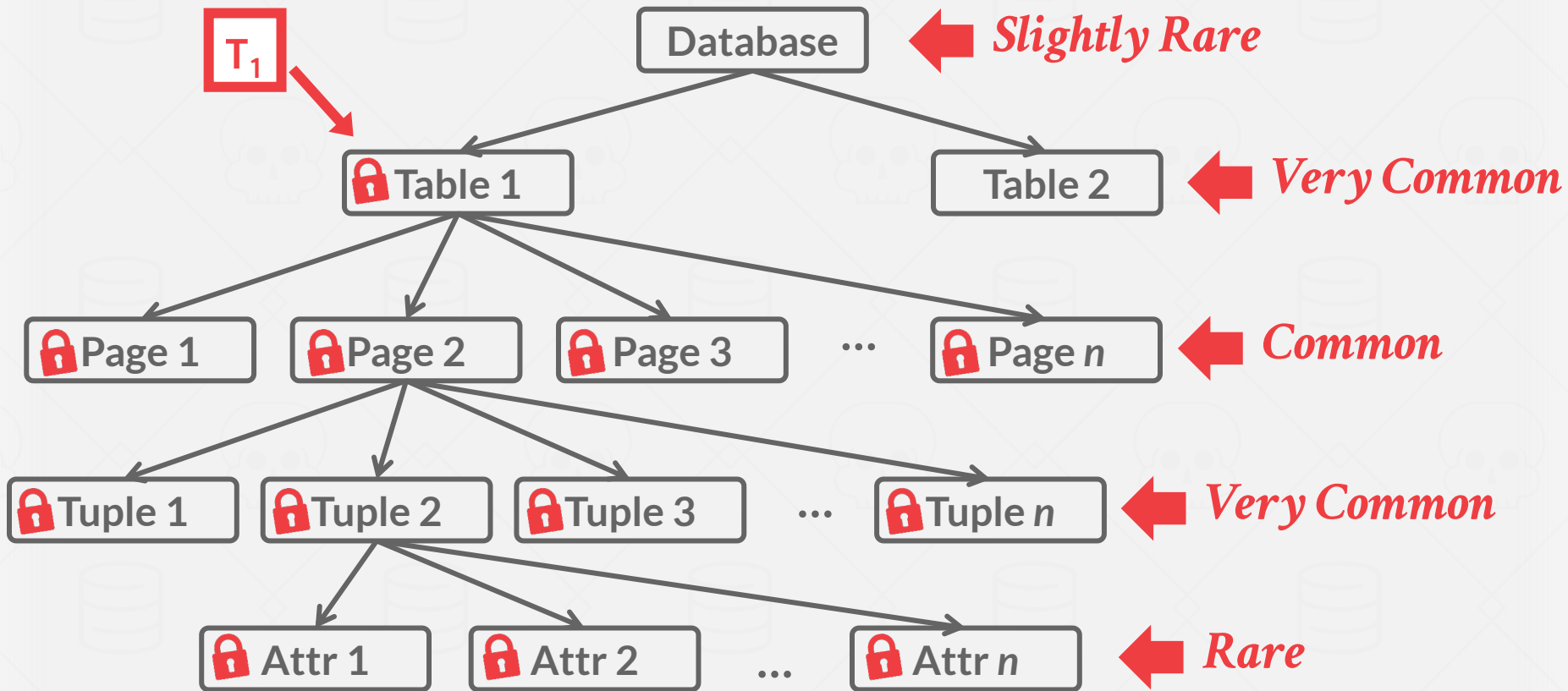
**T<sub>1</sub>**



# DATABASE LOCK HIERARCHY



# DATABASE LOCK HIERARCHY



# INTENTION LOCKS

---

An intention lock allows a higher-level node to be locked in **shared** or **exclusive** mode without having to check all descendent nodes.

If a node is locked in an intention mode, then some txn is doing explicit locking at a lower level in the tree.

# INTENTION LOCKS

---

## Intention-Shared (IS)

- Indicates explicit locking at lower level with **S** locks.
- Intent to get **S** lock(s) at finer granularity.

## Intention-Exclusive (IX)

- Indicates explicit locking at lower level with **X** locks.
- Intent to get **X** lock(s) at finer granularity.

## Shared+Intention-Exclusive (SIX)

- The subtree rooted by that node is locked explicitly in **S** mode and explicit locking is being done at a lower level with **X** locks.

# COMPATIBILITY MATRIX

		$T_2$ Wants				
		IS	IX	S	SIX	X
$T_1$ Holds	IS	✓	✓	✓	✓	✗
	IX	✓	✓	✗	✗	✗
	S	✓	✗	✓	✗	✗
	SIX	✓	✗	✗	✗	✗
	X	✗	✗	✗	✗	✗

# LOCKING PROTOCOL

---

Each txn obtains appropriate lock at highest level of the database hierarchy.

To get **S** or **IS** lock on a node, the txn must hold at least **IS** on parent node.

To get **X**, **IX**, or **SIX** on a node, must hold at least **IX** on parent node.

# EXAMPLE

---

$T_1$  – Get the balance of Andy's off-shore bank account.

$T_2$  – Increase bookie's account balance by 1%.

*What locks should these txns obtain?*

→ Exclusive + Shared for leaf nodes of lock tree.

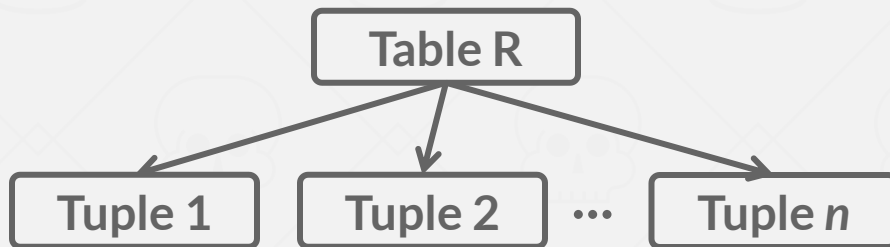
→ Special Intention locks for higher levels.



# EXAMPLE - TWO-LEVEL HIERARCHY

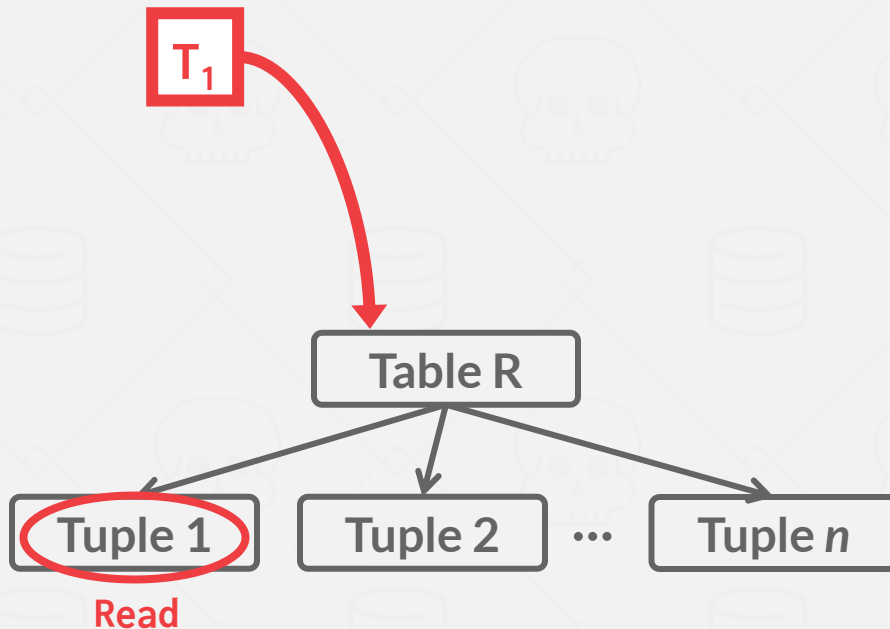
Read Andy's record in **R**.

**T<sub>1</sub>**



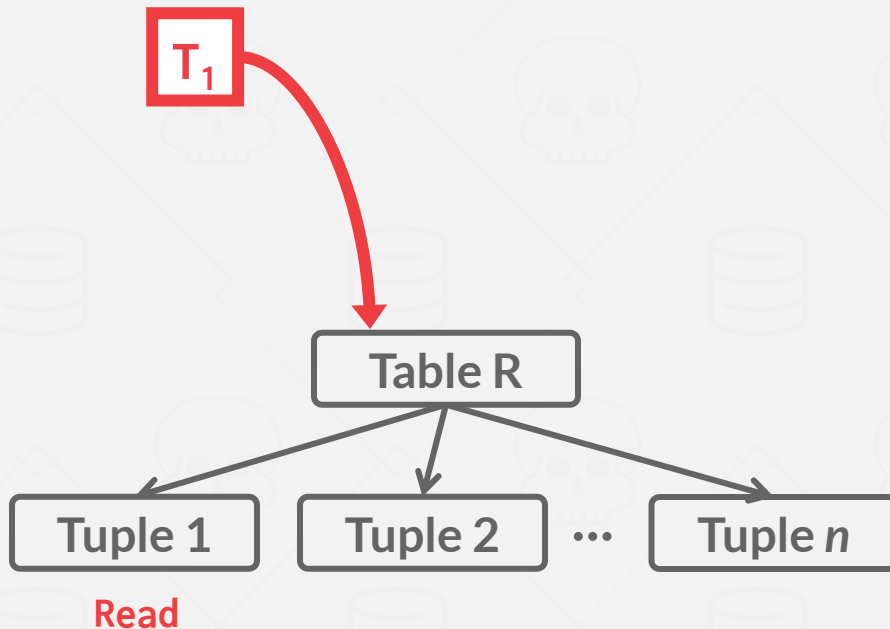
# EXAMPLE - TWO-LEVEL HIERARCHY

Read Andy's record in R.



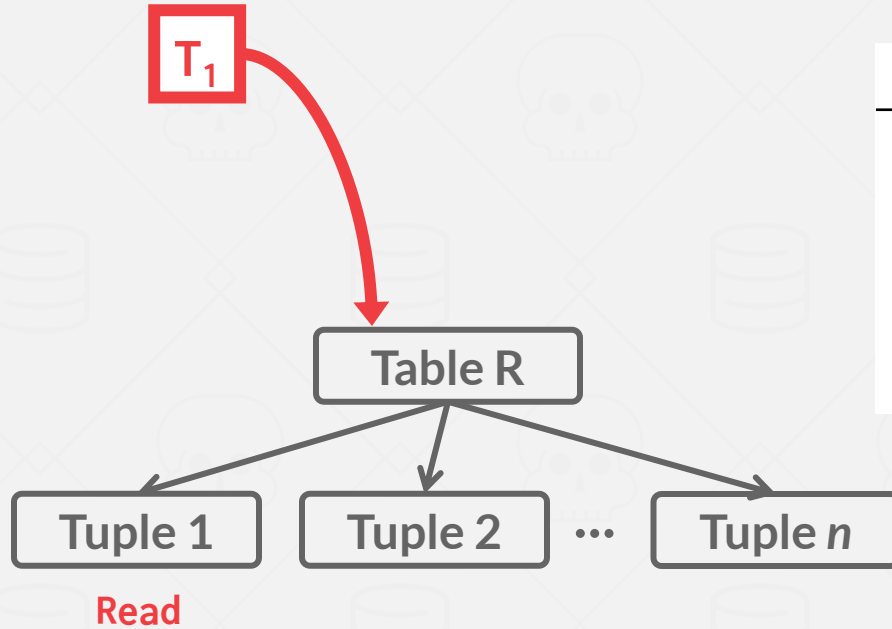
# EXAMPLE - TWO-LEVEL HIERARCHY

Read Andy's record in R.



# EXAMPLE - TWO-LEVEL HIERARCHY

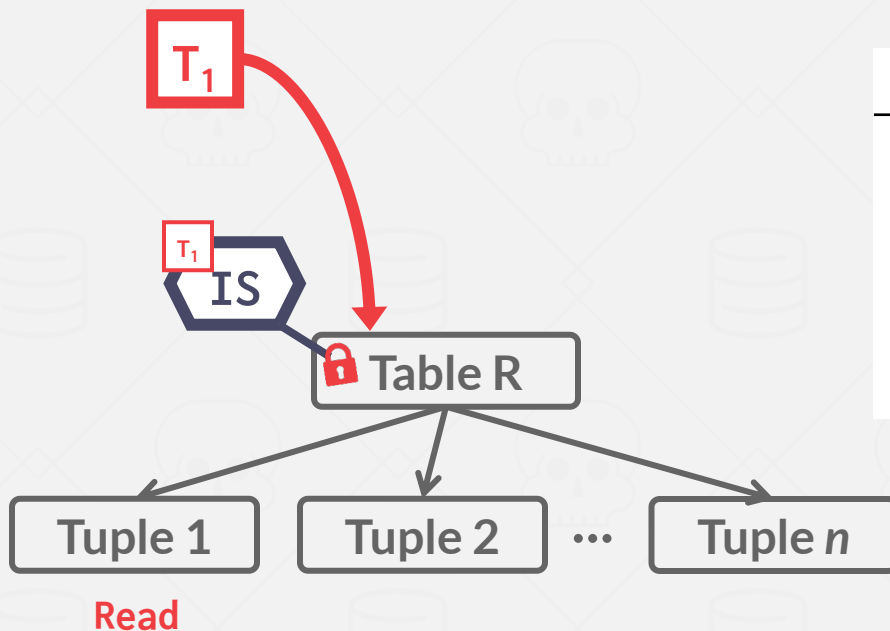
Read Andy's record in R.



	IS	IX	S	SIX	X
IS	✓	✓	✓	✓	✗
IX	✓	✓	✗	✗	✗
S	✓	✗	✓	✗	✗
SIX	✓	✗	✗	✗	✗
X	✗	✗	✗	✗	✗

# EXAMPLE - TWO-LEVEL HIERARCHY

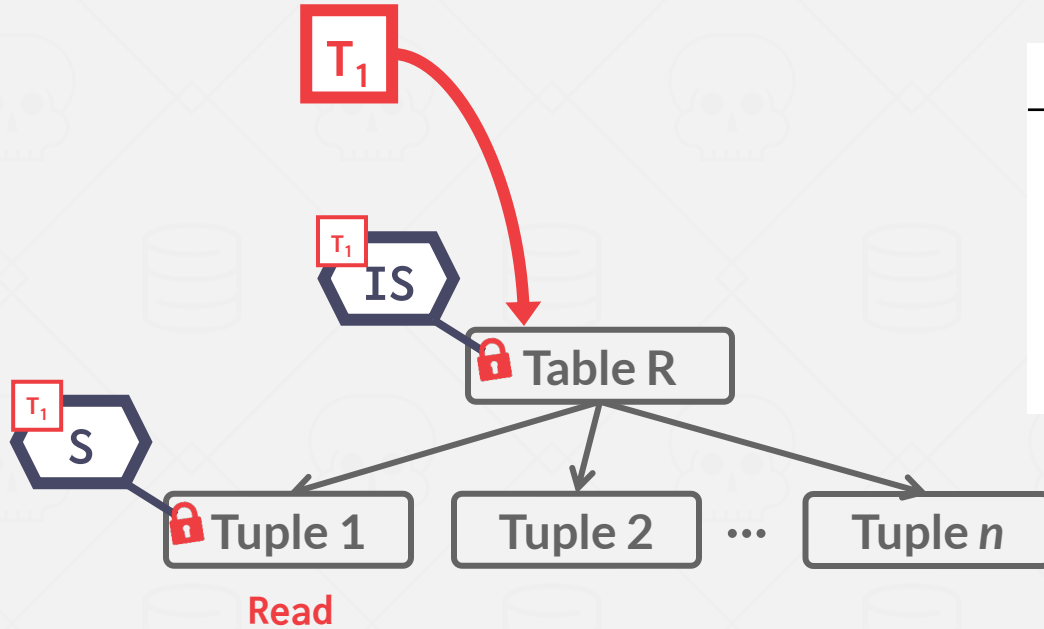
Read Andy's record in R.



	IS	IX	S	SIX	X
IS	✓	✓	✓	✓	✗
IX	✓	✓	✗	✗	✗
S	✓	✗	✓	✗	✗
SIX	✓	✗	✗	✗	✗
X	✗	✗	✗	✗	✗

# EXAMPLE - TWO-LEVEL HIERARCHY

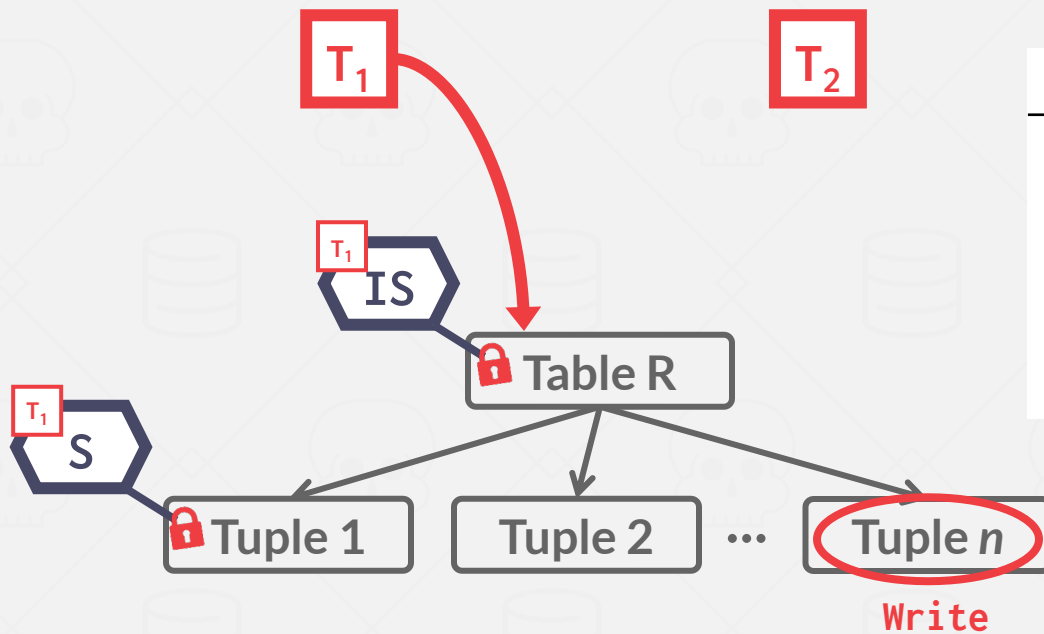
Read Andy's record in R.



	IS	IX	S	SIX	X
IS	✓	✓	✓	✓	✗
IX	✓	✓	✗	✗	✗
S	✓	✗	✓	✗	✗
SIX	✓	✗	✗	✗	✗
X	✗	✗	✗	✗	✗

# EXAMPLE - TWO-LEVEL HIERARCHY

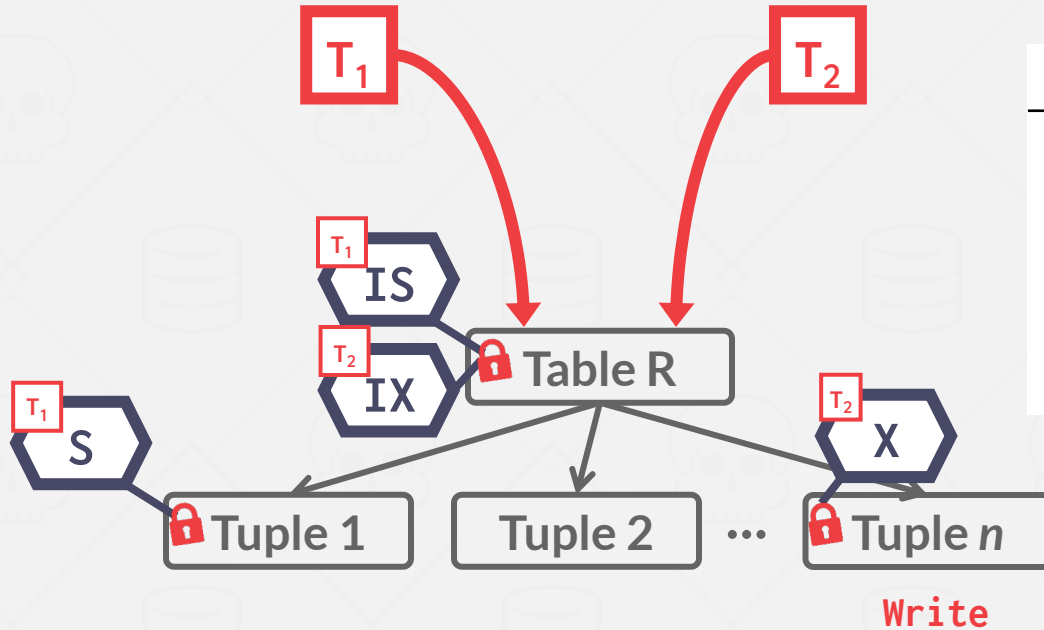
Update bookie's record in R.



	IS	IX	S	SIX	X
IS	✓	✓	✓	✓	✗
IX	✓	✓	✗	✗	✗
S	✓	✗	✓	✗	✗
SIX	✓	✗	✗	✗	✗
X	✗	✗	✗	✗	✗

# EXAMPLE - TWO-LEVEL HIERARCHY

Update bookie's record in R.



	IS	IX	S	SIX	X
IS	✓	✓	✓	✓	✗
IX	✓	✓	✗	✗	✗
S	✓	✗	✓	✗	✗
SIX	✓	✗	✗	✗	✗
X	✗	✗	✗	✗	✗

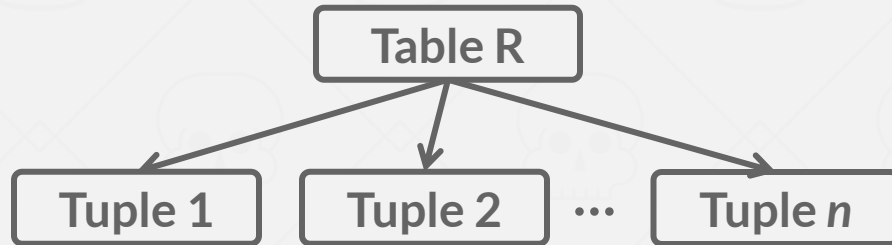


# EXAMPLE - THREE TXNS

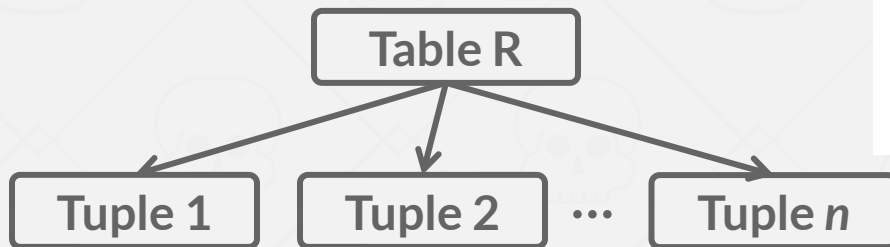
---

Assume three txns execute at same time:

- $T_1$  – Scan all tuples in **R** and update one tuple.
- $T_2$  – Read a single tuple in **R**.
- $T_3$  – Scan all tuples in **R**.



# EXAMPLE - THREE TXNS

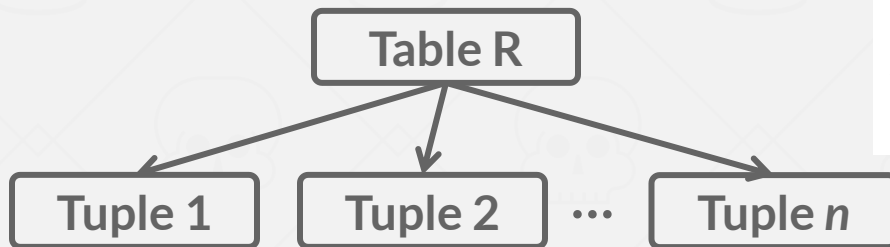


	IS	IX	S	SIX	X
IS	✓	✓	✓	✓	✗
IX	✓	✓	✗	✗	✗
S	✓	✗	✓	✗	✗
SIX	✓	✗	✗	✗	✗
X	✗	✗	✗	✗	✗

# EXAMPLE - THREE TXNS

Scan all tuples in **R** and  
update one tuple.

**T<sub>1</sub>**

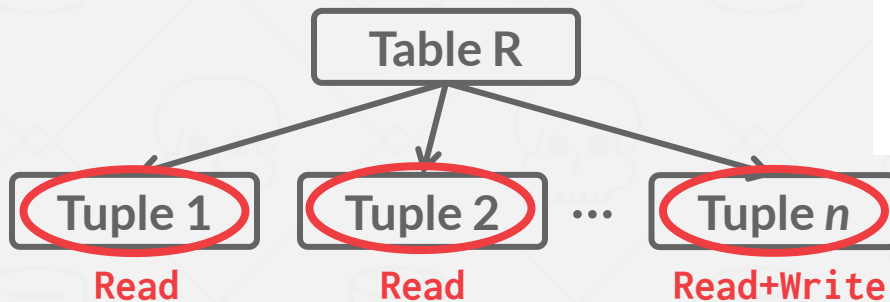


	IS	IX	S	SIX	X
IS	✓	✓	✓	✓	✗
IX	✓	✓	✗	✗	✗
S	✓	✗	✓	✗	✗
SIX	✓	✗	✗	✗	✗
X	✗	✗	✗	✗	✗

# EXAMPLE - THREE TXNS

Scan all tuples in **R** and  
update one tuple.

**T<sub>1</sub>**

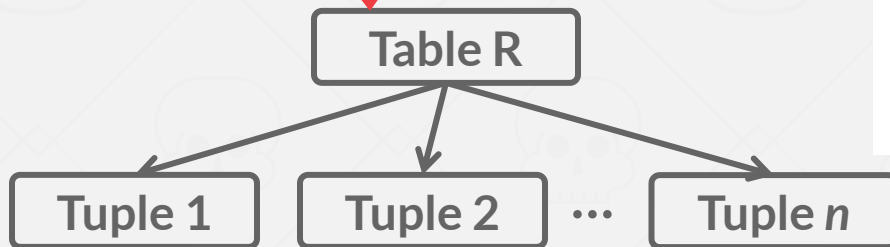


	IS	IX	S	SIX	X
IS	✓	✓	✓	✓	✗
IX	✓	✓	✗	✗	✗
S	✓	✗	✓	✗	✗
SIX	✓	✗	✗	✗	✗
X	✗	✗	✗	✗	✗

# EXAMPLE - THREE TXNS

Scan all tuples in **R** and  
update one tuple.

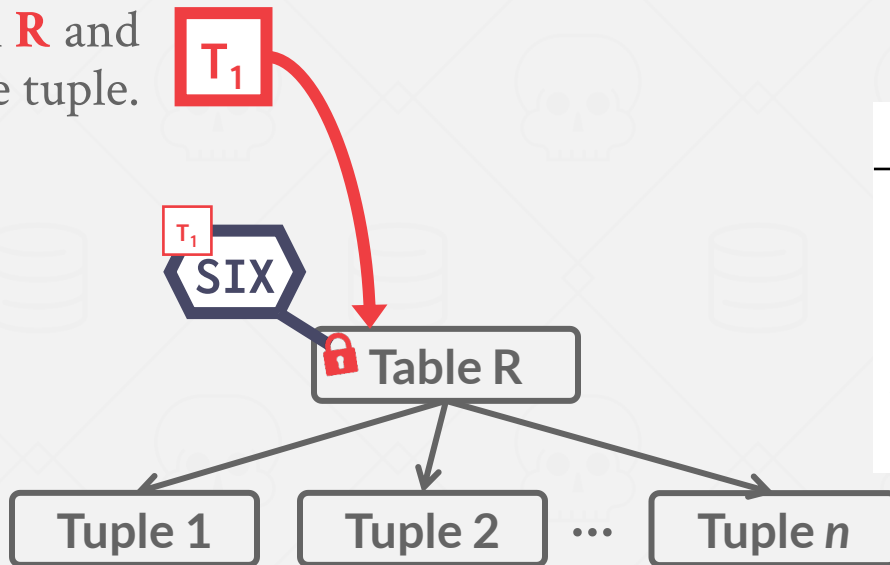
**T<sub>1</sub>**



	IS	IX	S	SIX	X
IS	✓	✓	✓	✓	✗
IX	✓	✓	✗	✗	✗
S	✓	✗	✓	✗	✗
SIX	✓	✗	✗	✗	✗
X	✗	✗	✗	✗	✗

# EXAMPLE - THREE TXNS

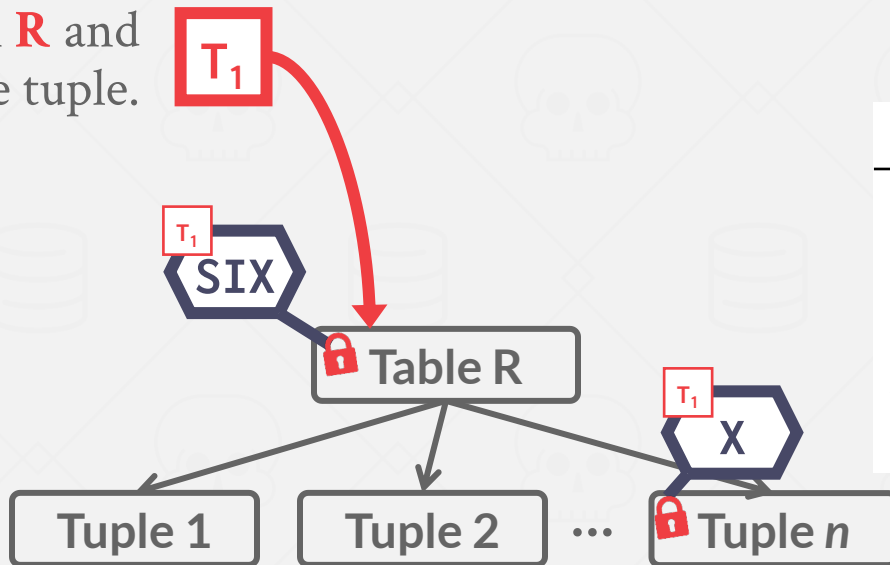
Scan all tuples in **R** and  
update one tuple.



	IS	IX	S	SIX	X
IS	✓	✓	✓	✓	✗
IX	✓	✓	✗	✗	✗
S	✓	✗	✓	✗	✗
SIX	✓	✗	✗	✗	✗
X	✗	✗	✗	✗	✗

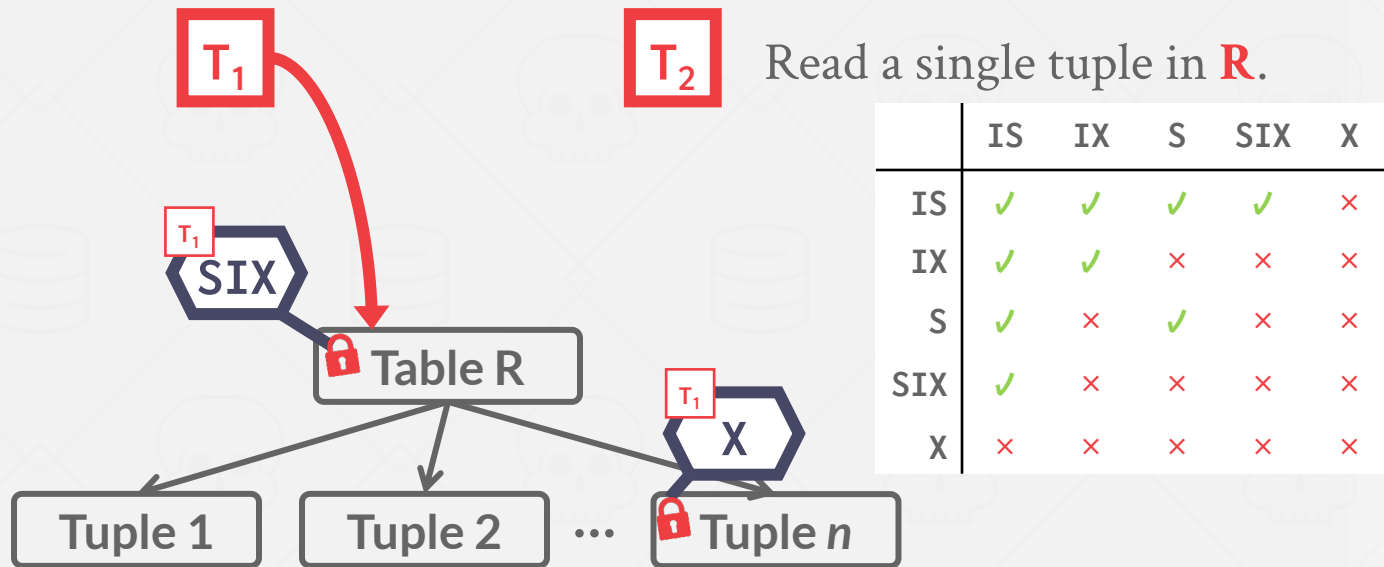
# EXAMPLE - THREE TXNS

Scan all tuples in **R** and  
update one tuple.



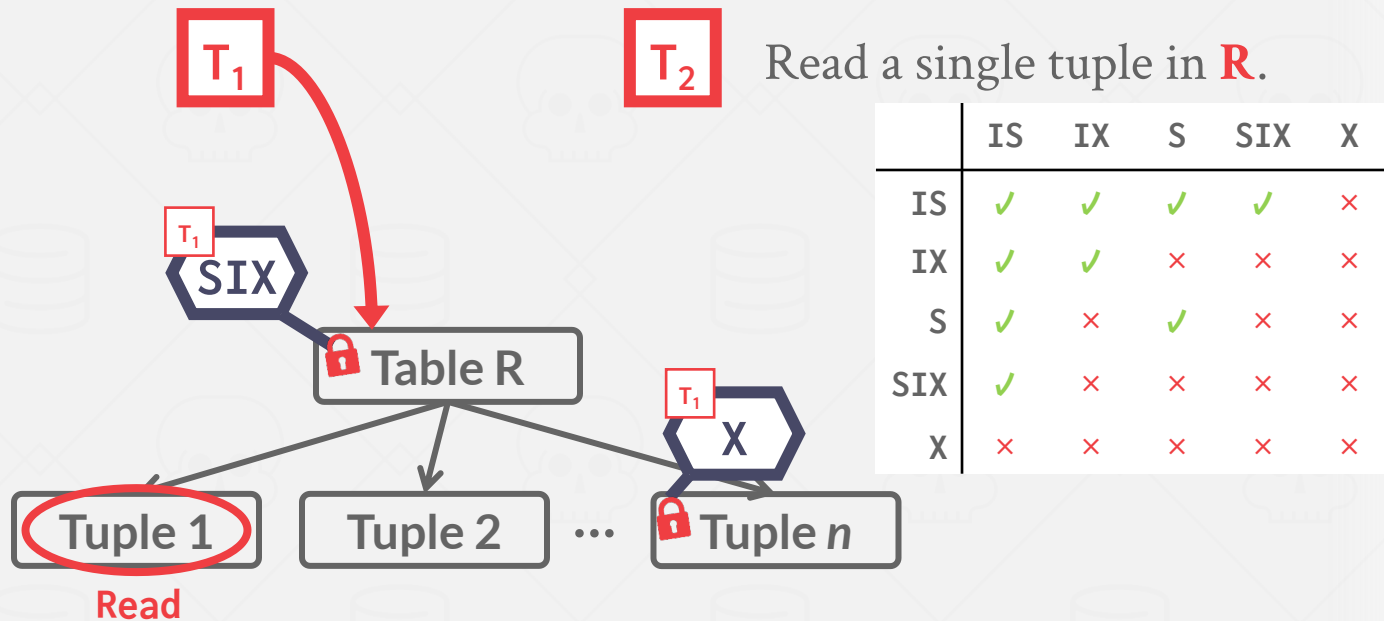
	IS	IX	S	SIX	X
IS	✓	✓	✓	✓	✗
IX	✓	✓	✗	✗	✗
S	✓	✗	✓	✗	✗
SIX	✓	✗	✗	✗	✗
X	✗	✗	✗	✗	✗

# EXAMPLE - THREE TXNS

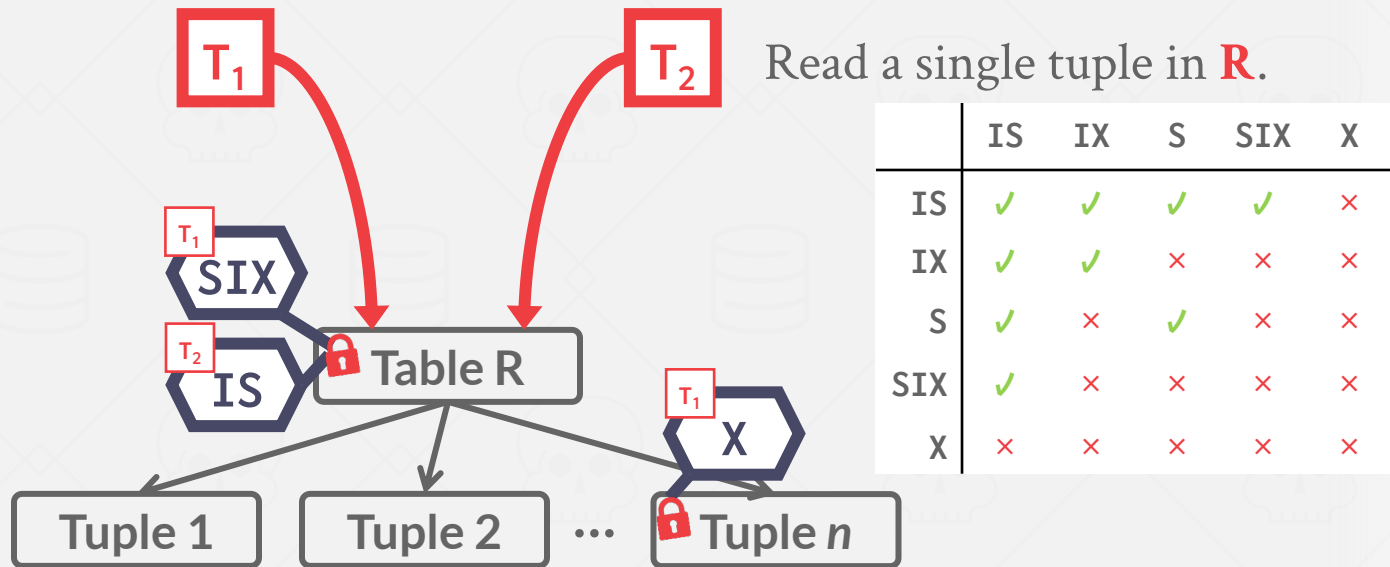




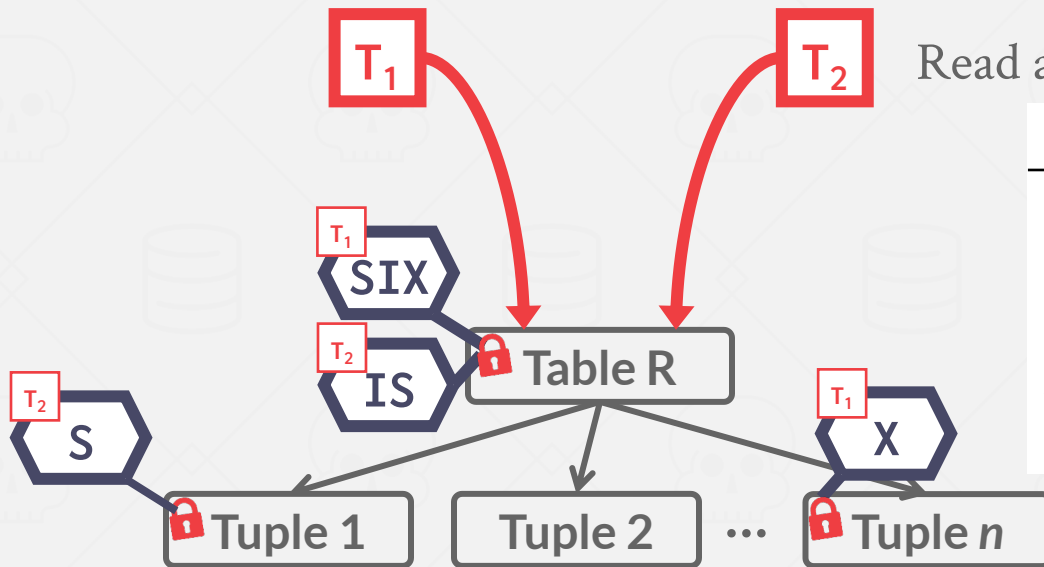
# EXAMPLE - THREE TXNS



# EXAMPLE - THREE TXNS



# EXAMPLE - THREE TXNS

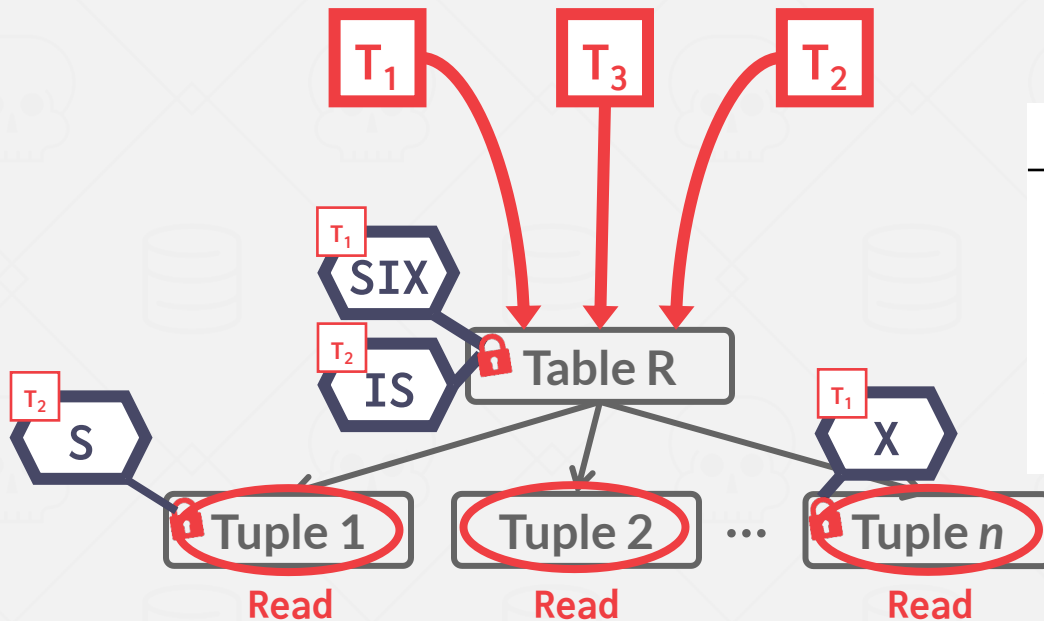


Read a single tuple in **R**.

	IS	IX	S	SIX	X
IS	✓	✓	✓	✓	✗
IX	✓	✓	✗	✗	✗
S	✓	✗	✓	✗	✗
SIX	✓	✗	✗	✗	✗
X	✗	✗	✗	✗	✗

# EXAMPLE - THREE TXNS

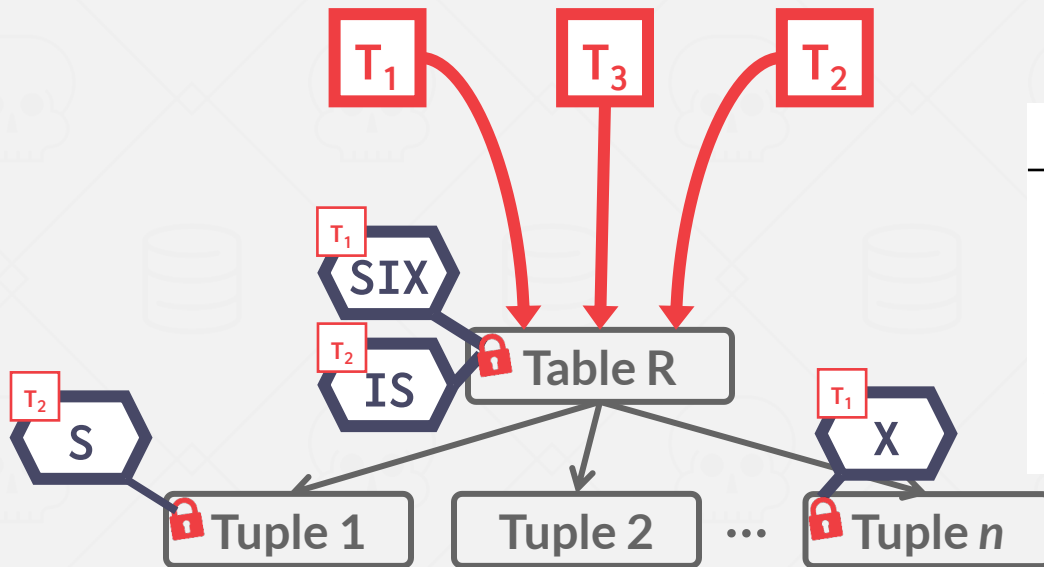
Scan all tuples in **R**.



	IS	IX	S	SIX	X
IS	✓	✓	✓	✓	✗
IX	✓	✓	✗	✗	✗
S	✓	✗	✓	✗	✗
SIX	✓	✗	✗	✗	✗
X	✗	✗	✗	✗	✗

# EXAMPLE - THREE TXNS

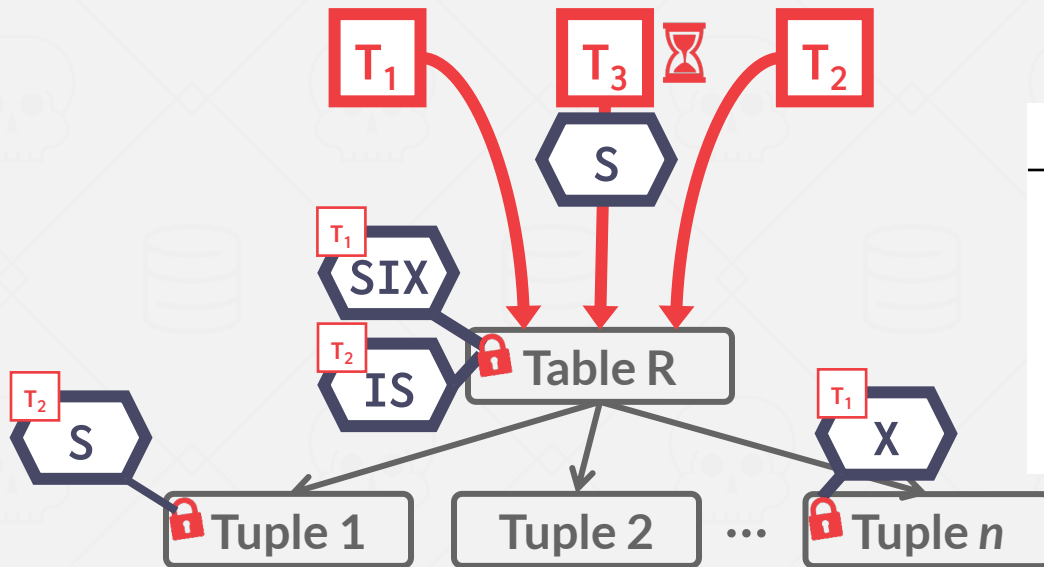
Scan all tuples in **R**.



	IS	IX	S	SIX	X
IS	✓	✓	✓	✓	✗
IX	✓	✓	✗	✗	✗
S	✓	✗	✓	✗	✗
SIX	✓	✗	✗	✗	✗
X	✗	✗	✗	✗	✗

# EXAMPLE - THREE TXNS

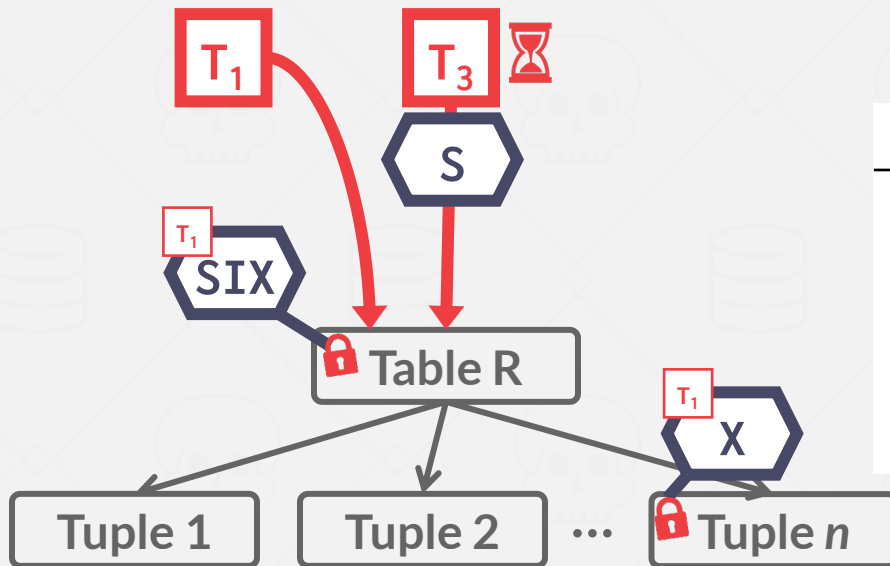
Scan all tuples in **R**.



	IS	IX	S	SIX	X
IS	✓	✓	✓	✓	✗
IX	✓	✓	✗	✗	✗
S	✓	✗	✓	✗	✗
SIX	✓	✗	✗	✗	✗
X	✗	✗	✗	✗	✗

# EXAMPLE - THREE TXNS

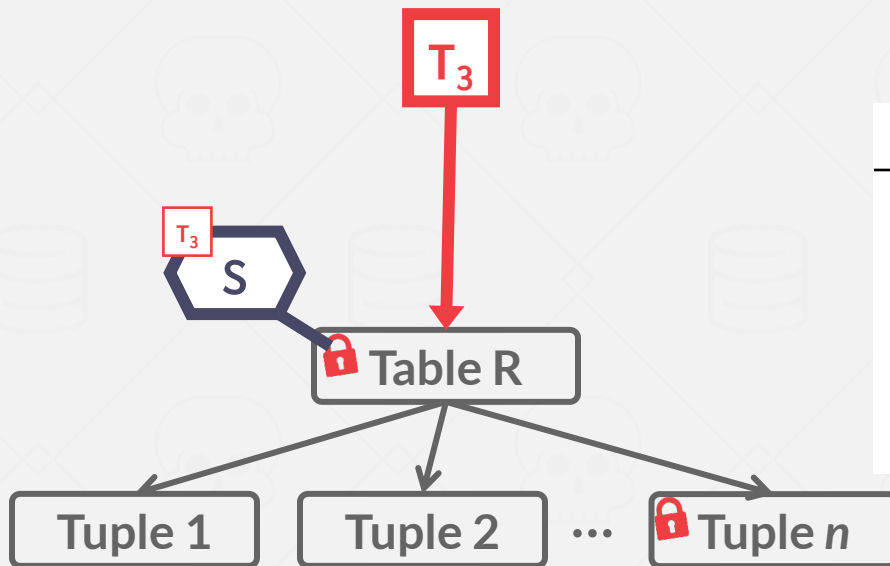
Scan all tuples in **R**.



	IS	IX	S	SIX	X
IS	✓	✓	✓	✓	✗
IX	✓	✓	✗	✗	✗
S	✓	✗	✓	✗	✗
SIX	✓	✗	✗	✗	✗
X	✗	✗	✗	✗	✗

# EXAMPLE - THREE TXNS

Scan all tuples in **R**.



	IS	IX	S	SIX	X
IS	✓	✓	✓	✓	✗
IX	✓	✓	✗	✗	✗
S	✓	✗	✓	✗	✗
SIX	✓	✗	✗	✗	✗
X	✗	✗	✗	✗	✗



# LOCK ESCALATION

---

The DBMS can automatically switch to coarser-grained locks when a txn acquires too many low-level locks.

This reduces the number of requests that the lock manager must process.

# LOCKING IN PRACTICE

---

Applications typically don't acquire a txn's locks manually (i.e., explicit SQL commands).

Sometimes you need to provide the DBMS with hints to help it to improve concurrency.

→ Update a tuple after reading it.

Explicit locks are also useful when doing major changes to the database.

# LOCK TABLE

---

Explicitly locks a table. Not part of the SQL standard.

→ Postgres/DB2/Oracle Modes: **SHARE, EXCLUSIVE**

→ MySQL Modes: **READ, WRITE**

```
LOCK TABLE <table> IN <mode> MODE;
```

 PostgreSQL ORACLE IBM DB2

```
SELECT 1 FROM <table> WITH (TABLOCK, <mode>);
```

 Microsoft SQL Server

```
LOCK TABLE <table> <mode>;
```

 MySQL

# SELECT...FOR UPDATE

---

Perform a select and then sets an exclusive lock on the matching tuples.

Can also set shared locks:

→ Postgres: **FOR SHARE**

→ MySQL: **LOCK IN SHARE MODE**

```
SELECT * FROM <table>  
WHERE <qualification> FOR UPDATE;
```

# CONCLUSION

---

2PL is used in almost every DBMS.

Automatically generates correct interleaving:

- Locks + protocol (2PL, SS2PL ...)
- Deadlock detection + handling
- Deadlock prevention

# NEXT CLASS

---

Timestamp Ordering Concurrency Control