

Carnegie Mellon University

# Database Systems

15-445/645 SPRING 2026

ANDY PAVLO

JIGNESH PATEL

Lecture #19

Concurrency Control:  
Timestamp Ordering &  
Isolation Levels



# ADMINISTRIVIA

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**Project #3** is due Sunday Apr 5<sup>th</sup> @ 11:59pm

→ Recitation Video + Slides ([@258](#))

→ Special OH on Saturday Apr 4<sup>th</sup> @ 3:00-5:00pm (GHC 5207)

**Homework #5** is due Sunday Apr 12<sup>th</sup> @ 11:59pm

**Final Exam** is on Tuesday Apr 28<sup>th</sup> @ 5:30-8:30pm

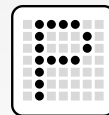
# UPCOMING DATABASE TALKS

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## Pixeltable (DB Seminar)

→ Monday March 30<sup>th</sup> @ 4:30pm ET

→ Zoom



Pixeltable

## SpacetimeDB (DB Seminar)

→ Monday April 6<sup>th</sup> @ 4:30pm ET

→ Zoom



SpacetimeDB

## Multigres (DB Seminar)

→ Monday April 13<sup>th</sup> @ 4:30pm ET

→ Zoom



Multigres

# LAST CLASS

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We discussed concurrency control protocols for generating conflict serializable schedules without needing to know what queries a txn will execute.

Two-phase locking (2PL) is a pessimistic protocol requires txns to acquire locks on database objects before they are allowed to access them.

# OBSERVATION

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If you assume that conflicts between txns are **rare** and that most txns are **short-lived**, then forcing txns to acquire locks adds unnecessary overhead.

A better concurrency control protocol could be one that is optimized for the no-conflict case...

# T/O CONCURRENCY CONTROL

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The DBMS uses timestamps to determine the serializability order of txns.

If  $TS(T_i) < TS(T_j)$ , then the DBMS must ensure that the execution schedule is equivalent to the serial schedule where  $T_i$  appears before  $T_j$ .

Each database object (e.g., tuple) will include additional fields to keep track of timestamp(s) of the txns that last accessed/modified them.

# TIMESTAMP ALLOCATION

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Each txn  $T_i$  is assigned a unique fixed timestamp that is monotonically increasing.

- Let  $TS(T_i)$  be the timestamp allocated to txn  $T_i$ .
- Different concurrency control protocols assign timestamps at different times during the txn.

Multiple implementation strategies:

- System/Wall Clock (e.g., CPU clock, RDTSC, external clocks).
- Logical Counter.
- Hybrid.

# TODAY'S AGENDA

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Optimistic Concurrency Control

Phantom Reads

Isolation Levels



# OPTIMISTIC CONCURRENCY CONTROL (OCC)

T/O protocol where DBMS creates a private workspace for each txn.

- Any object read is copied into workspace.
- Modifications are applied to workspace.

When a txn commits, the DBMS compares workspace write set to see whether it conflicts with other txns.

If there are no conflicts, the write set is installed into the “global” database.

## On Optimistic Methods for Concurrency Control

H. T. KUNG and JOHN T. ROBINSON  
Carnegie-Mellon University

Most current approaches to concurrency control in database systems rely on locking of data objects as a control mechanism. In this paper, two families of nonlocking concurrency controls are presented. The methods used are “optimistic” in the sense that they rely mainly on transaction backup as a control mechanism, “hoping” that conflicts between transactions will not occur. Applications for which these methods should be more efficient than locking are discussed.

Key Words and Phrases: databases, concurrency controls, transaction processing  
CR Categories: 4.32, 4.33

### 1. INTRODUCTION

Consider the problem of providing shared access to a database organized as a collection of objects. We assume that certain distinguished objects, called the roots, are always present and access to any object other than a root is gained only by first accessing a root and then following pointers to that object. Any sequence of accesses to the database that preserves the integrity constraints of the data is called a *transaction* (see, e.g., [4]).

If our goal is to maximize the throughput of accesses to the database, then there are at least two cases where highly concurrent access is desirable.

- (1) The amount of data is sufficiently great that at any given time only a fraction of the database can be present in primary memory, so that it is necessary to swap parts of the database from secondary memory as needed.
- (2) Even if the entire database can be present in primary memory, there may be multiple processors.

In both cases the hardware will be underutilized if the degree of concurrency is too low.

However, as is well known, unrestricted concurrent access to a shared database will, in general, cause the integrity of the database to be lost. Most current

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Authors' address: Department of Computer Science, Carnegie-Mellon University, Pittsburgh, PA 15213.

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ACM Transactions on Database Systems, Vol. 6, No. 2, June 1981, Pages 213-228.

# OCC PHASES

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## Phase #1: Read

- Track the read/write sets of txns and store their writes in a private workspace.
- DBMS copies every tuple that the txn accesses from the shared database to its workspace ensure repeatable reads.

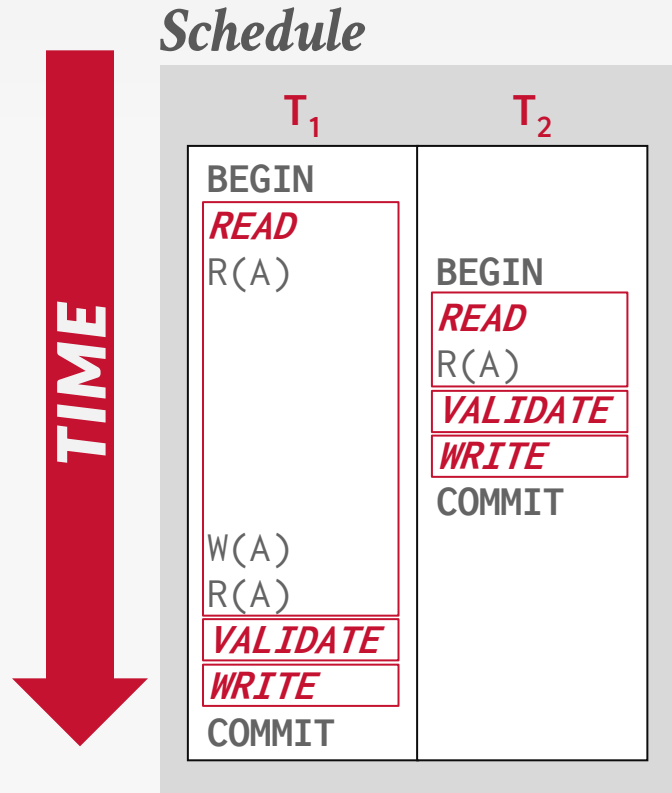
## Phase #2: Validation

- Assign the txn a unique timestamp (**TS**) and then check whether it conflicts with other txns.

## Phase #3: Write

- If validation succeeds, set the write timestamp (**W-TS**) to all modified objects in private workspace and install them into the global database. Otherwise abort txn.

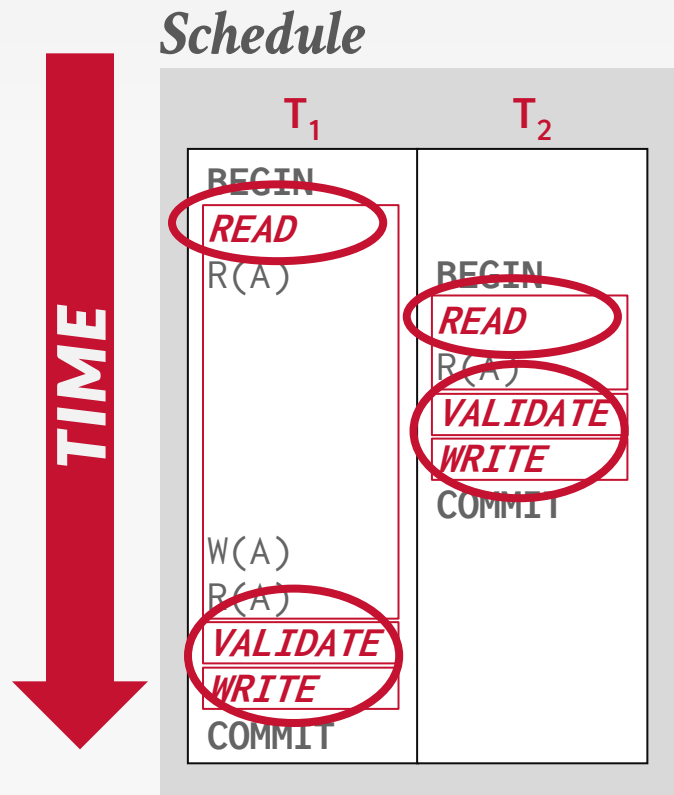
# OCC EXAMPLE



## *Database*

Object	Value	W-TS
A	123	0
-	-	-

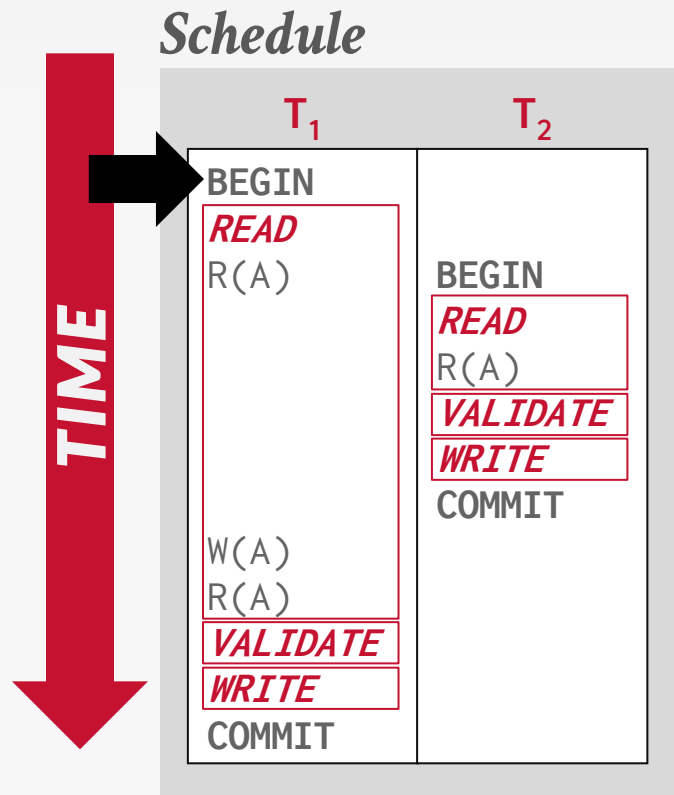
# OCC EXAMPLE



## *Database*

Object	Value	W-TS
A	123	0
-	-	-

# OCC EXAMPLE



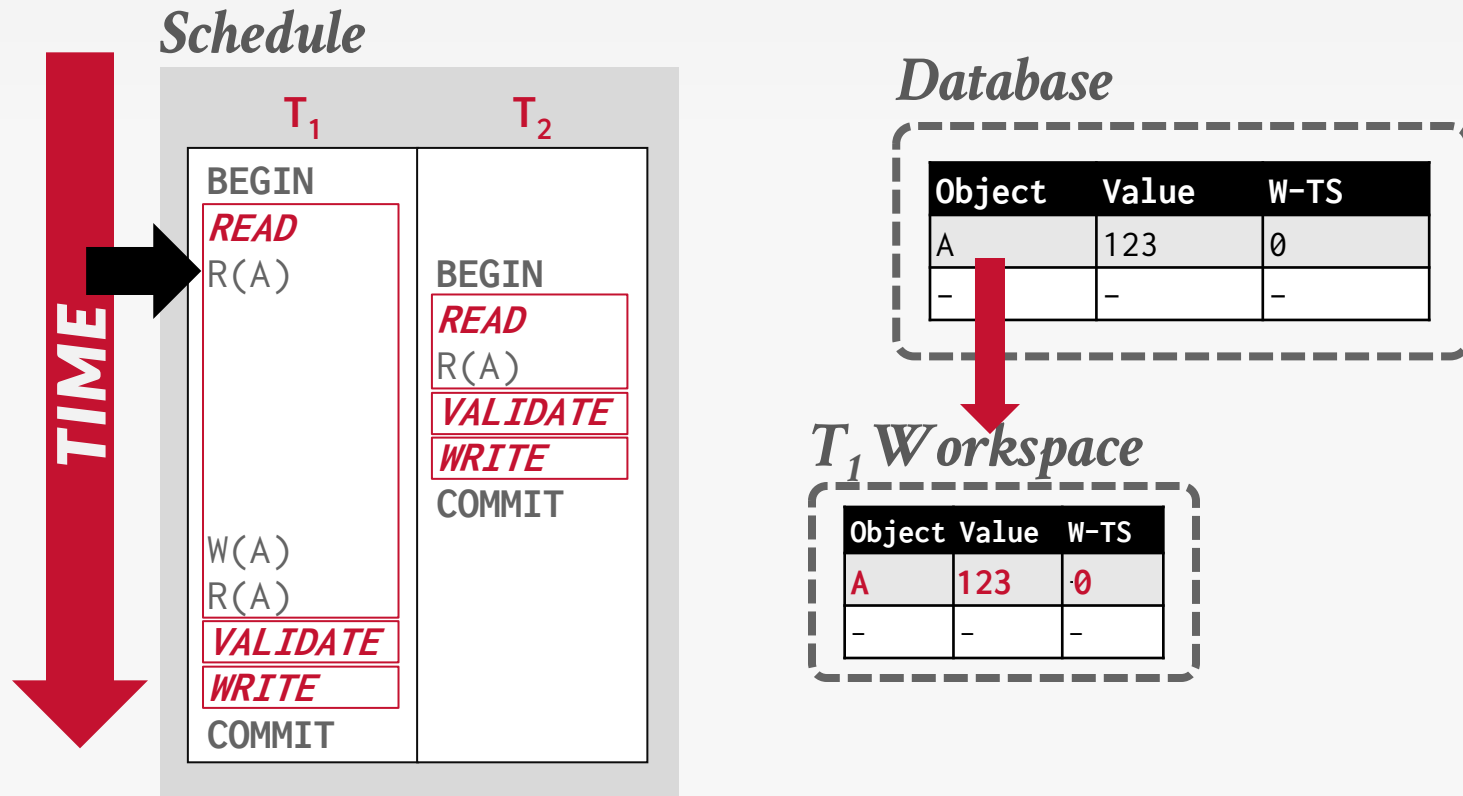
## *Database*

Object	Value	W-TS
A	123	0
-	-	-

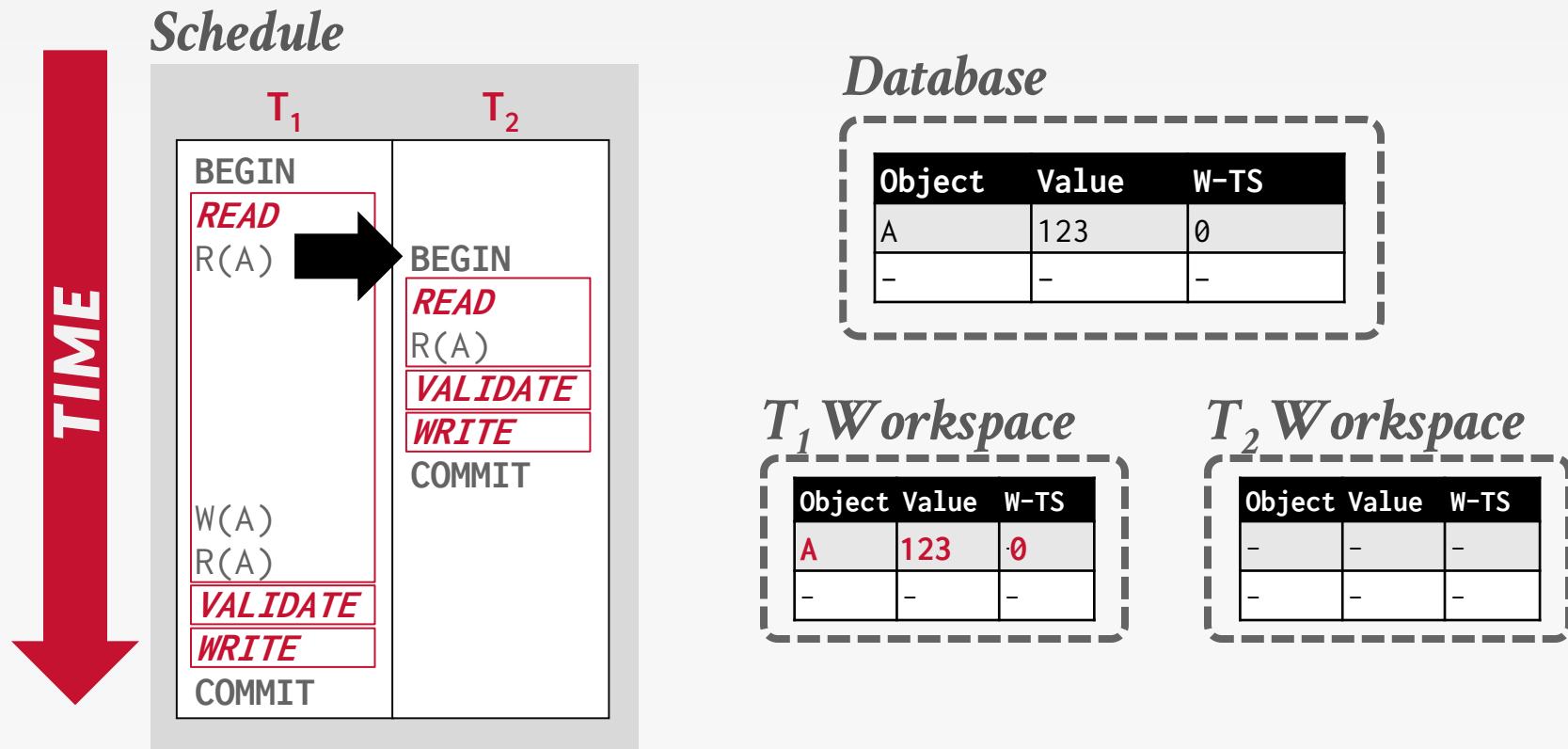
## *T<sub>1</sub> Workspace*

Object	Value	W-TS
-	-	-
-	-	-

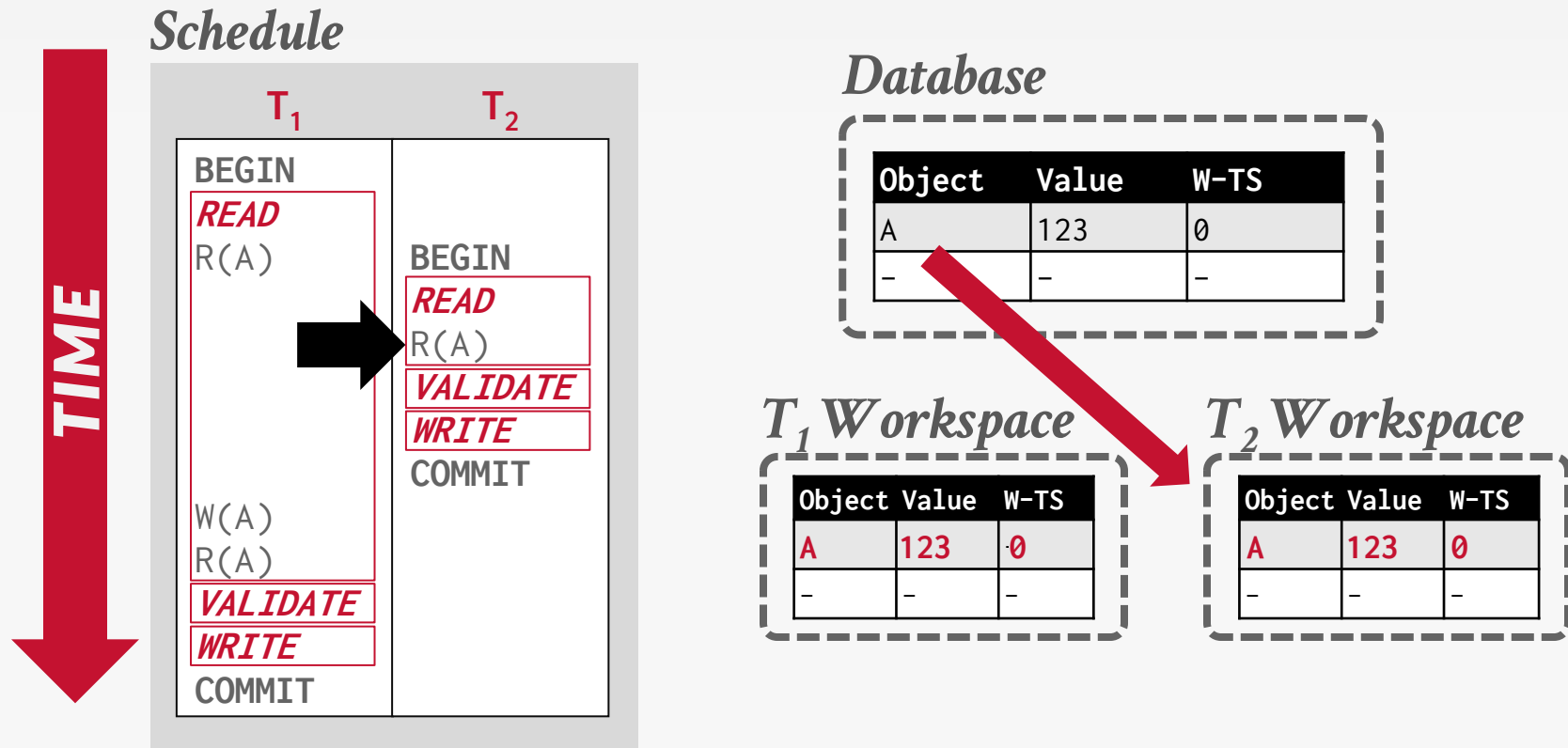
# OCC EXAMPLE



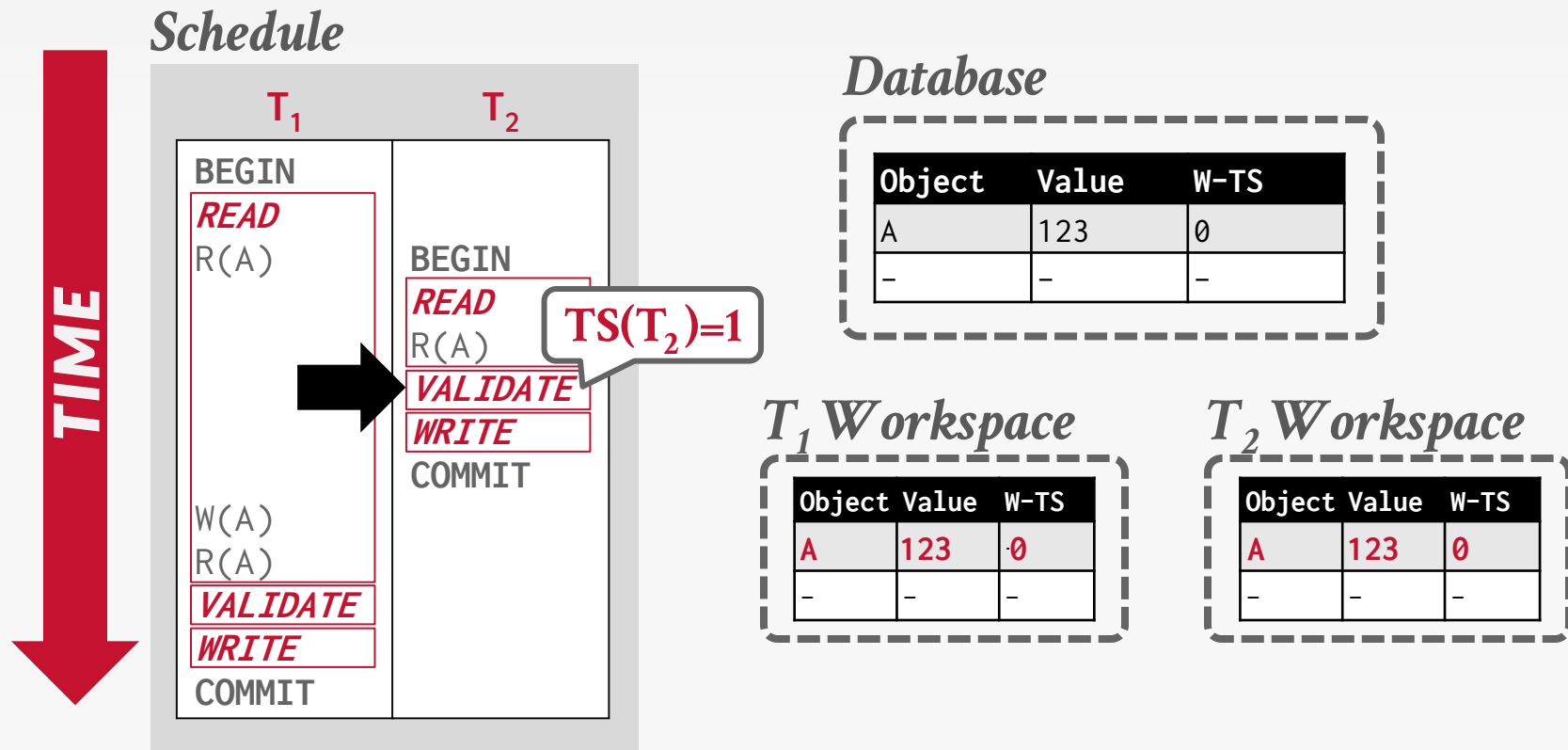
# OCC EXAMPLE



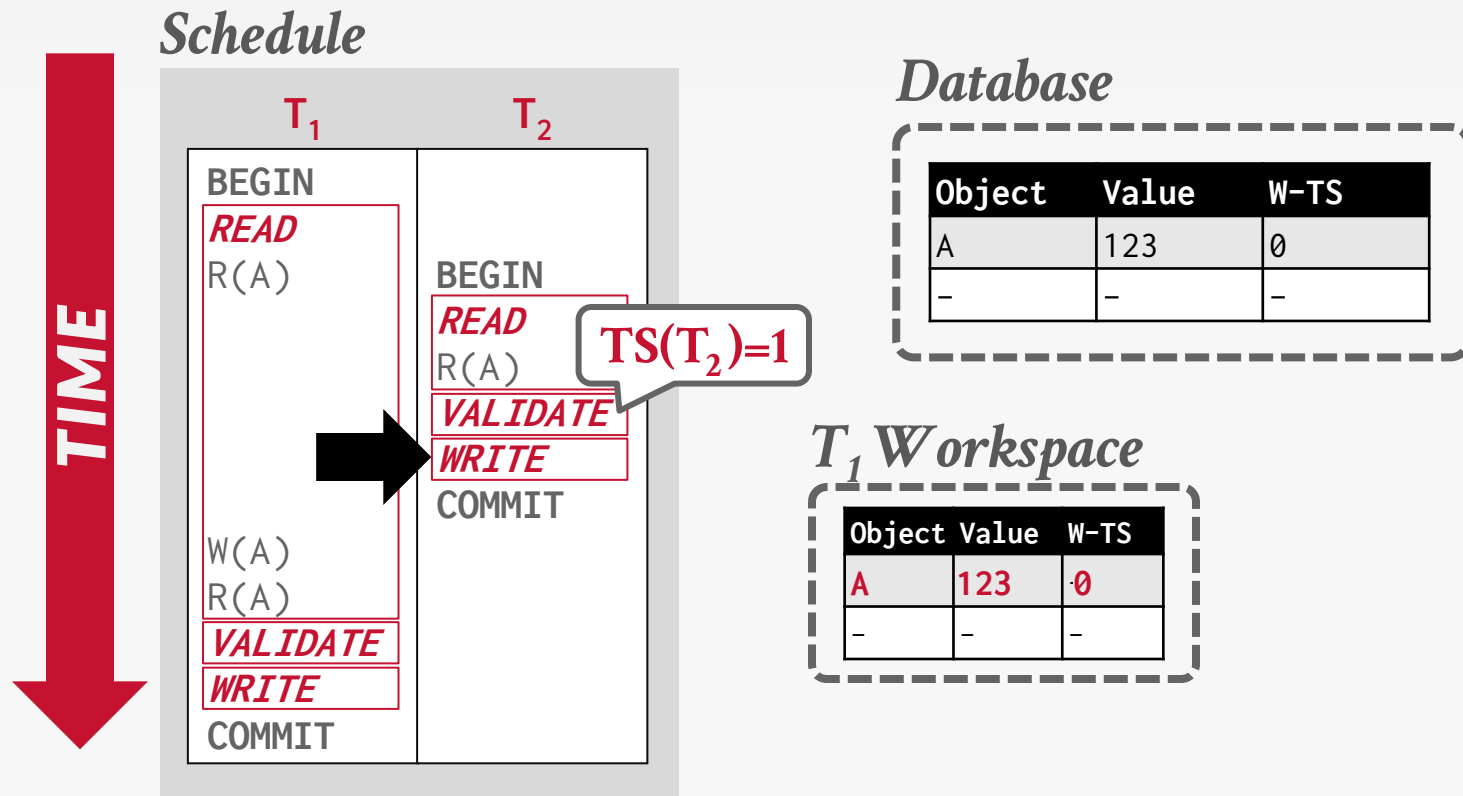
# OCC EXAMPLE



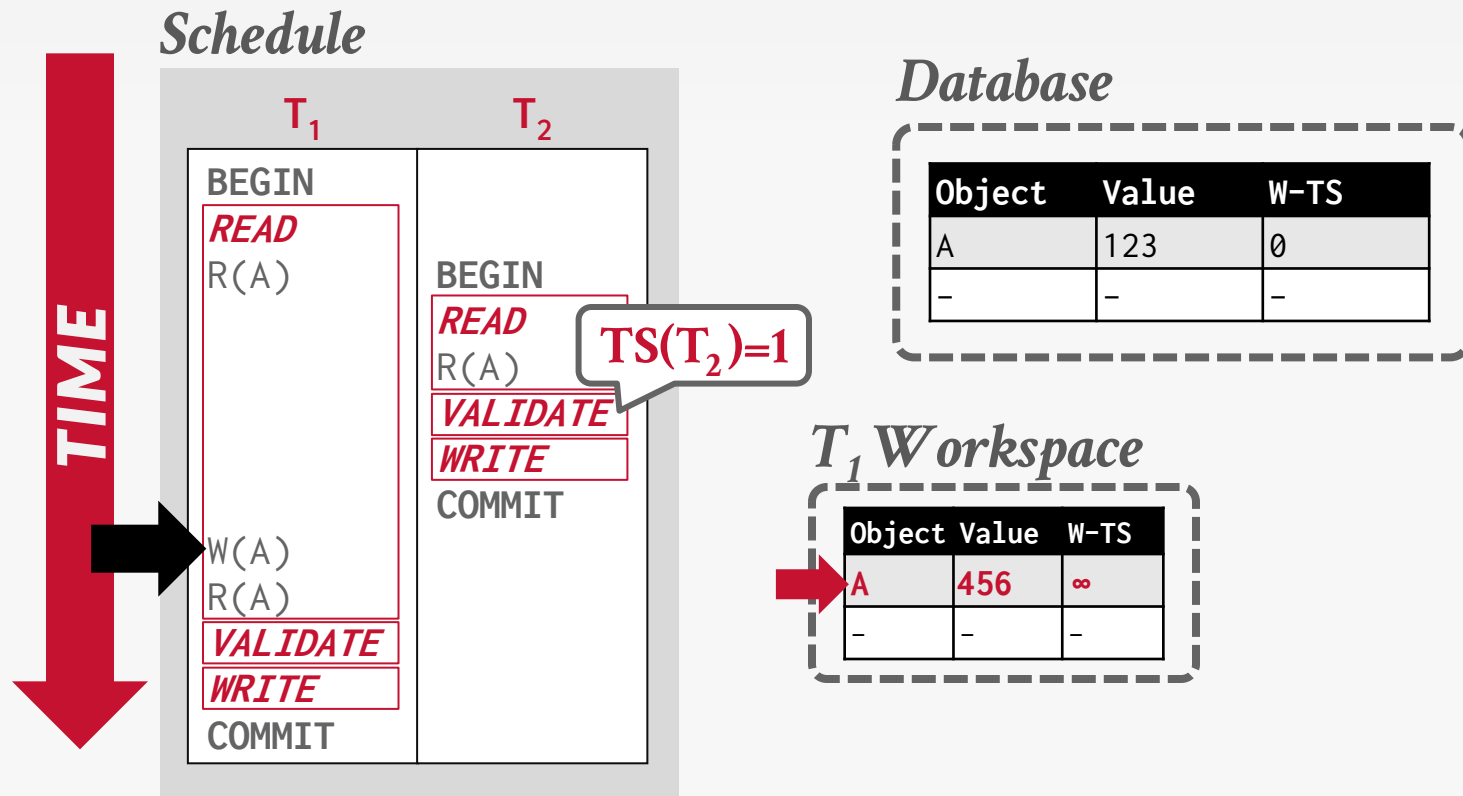
# OCC EXAMPLE



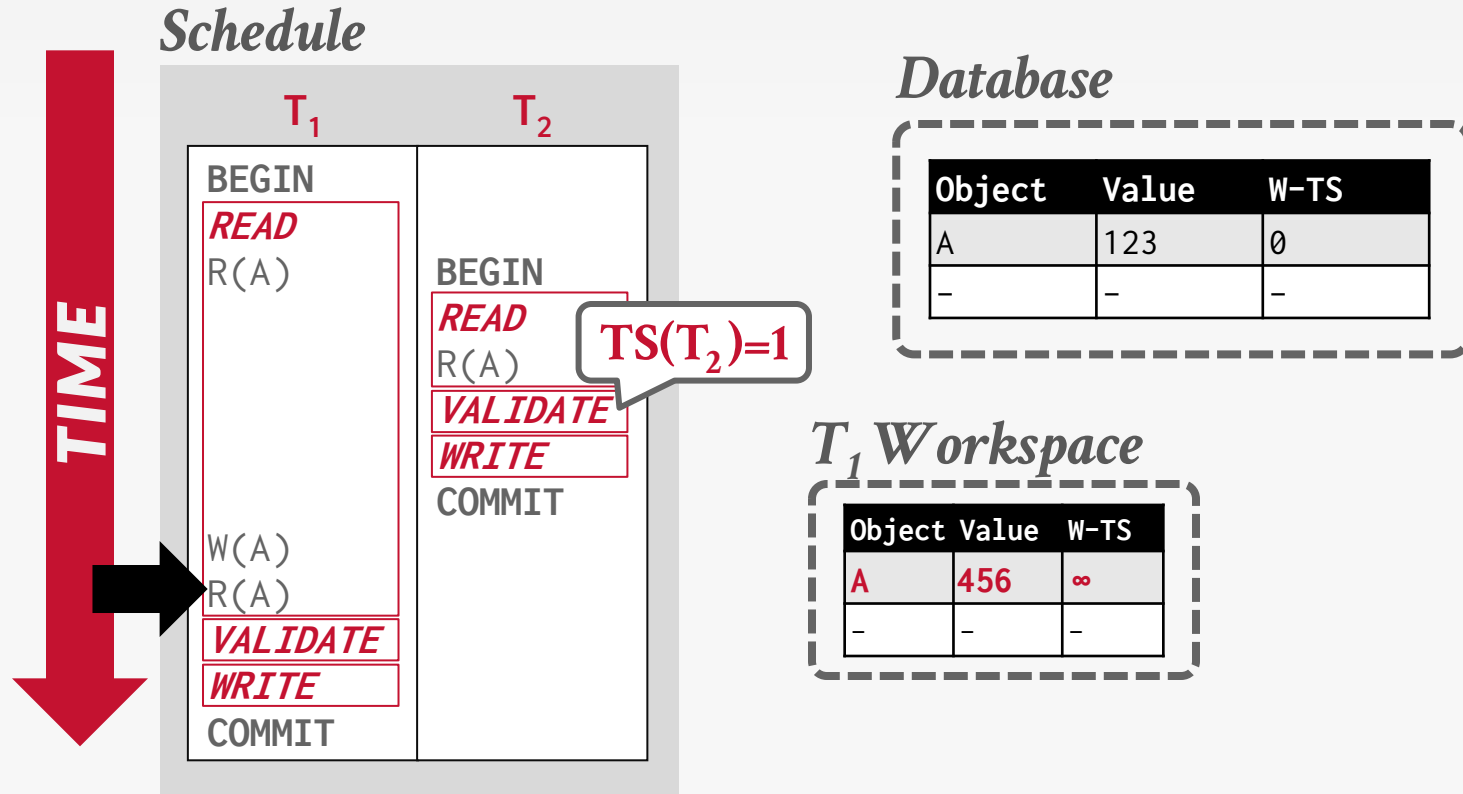
# OCC EXAMPLE



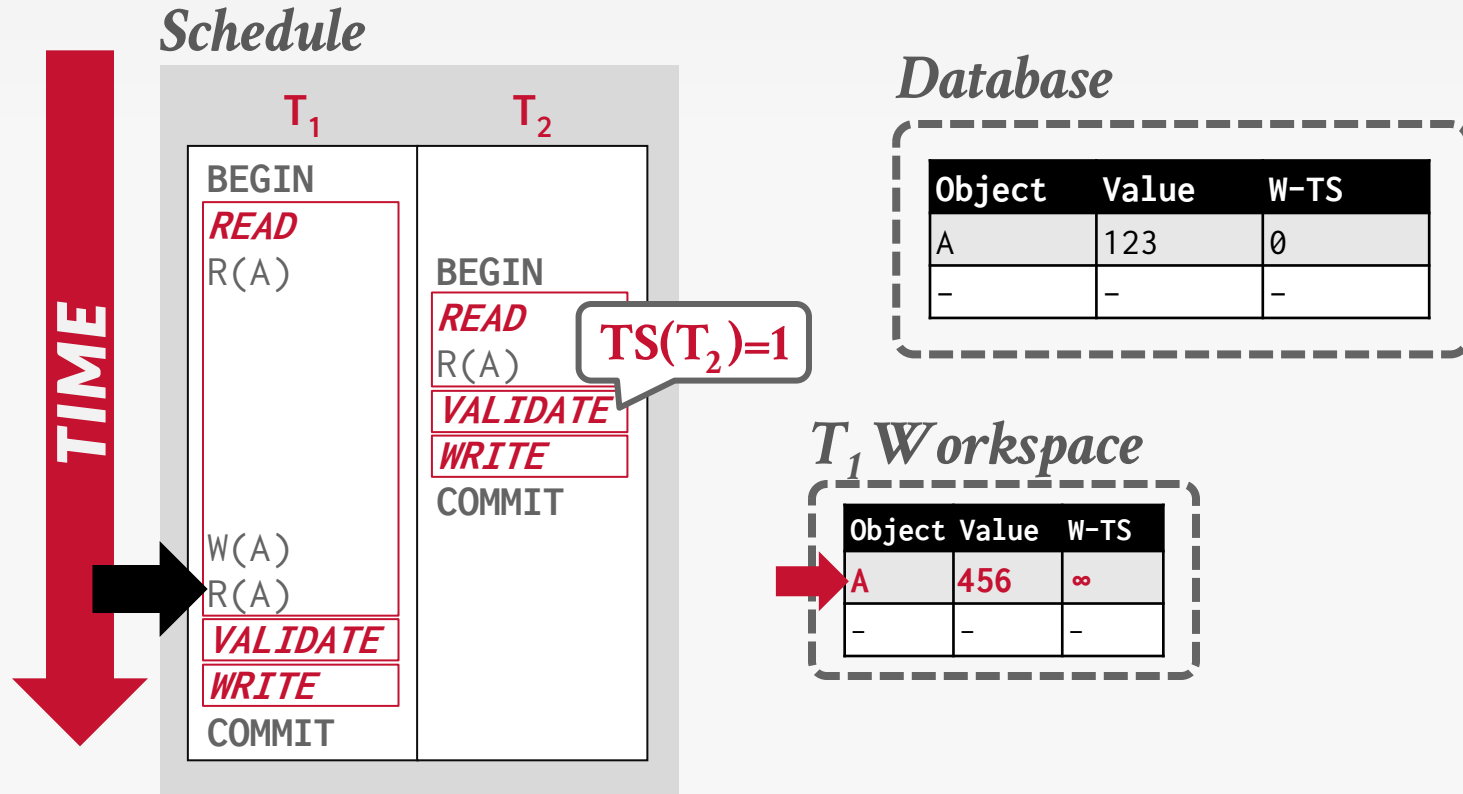
# OCC EXAMPLE



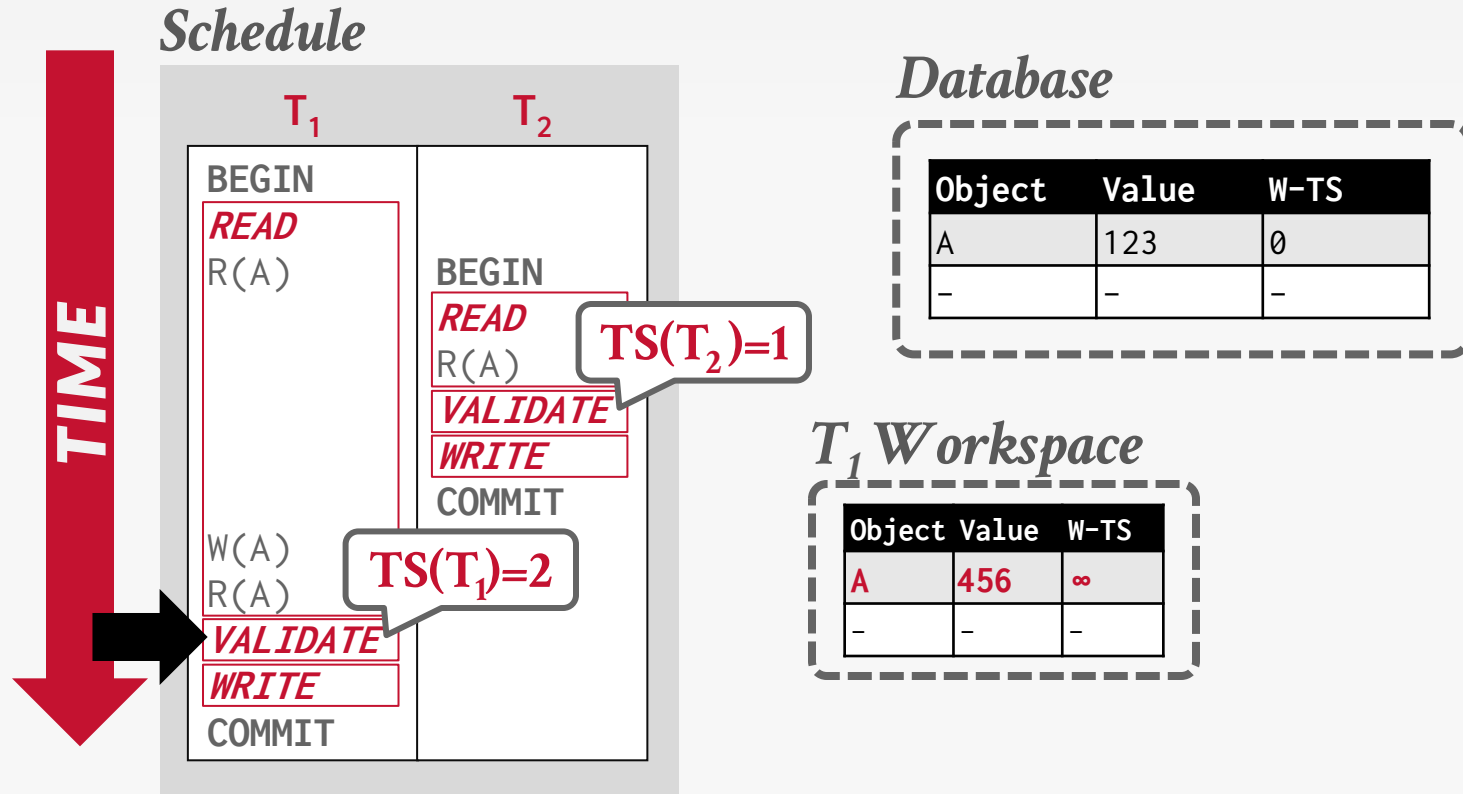
# OCC EXAMPLE



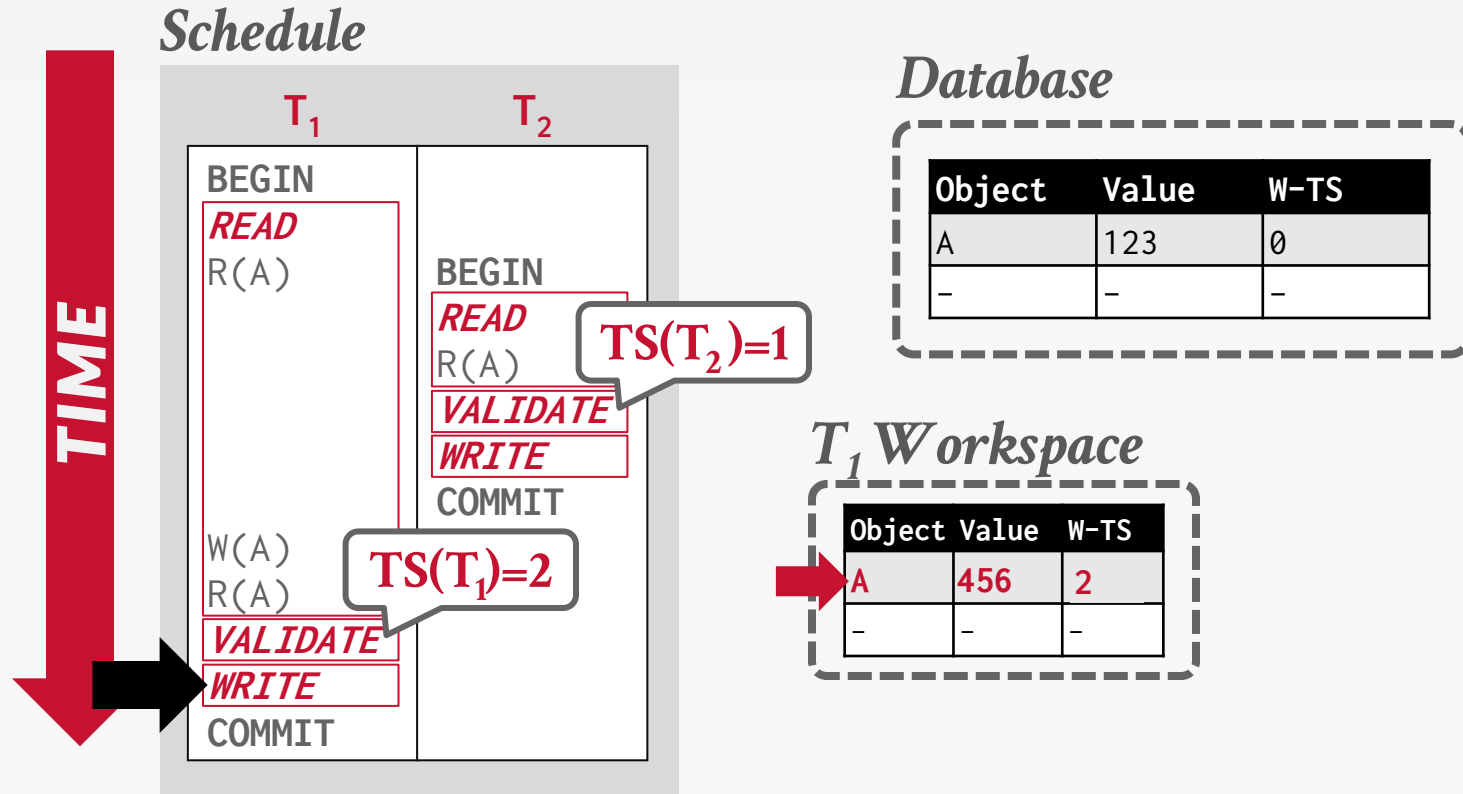
# OCC EXAMPLE



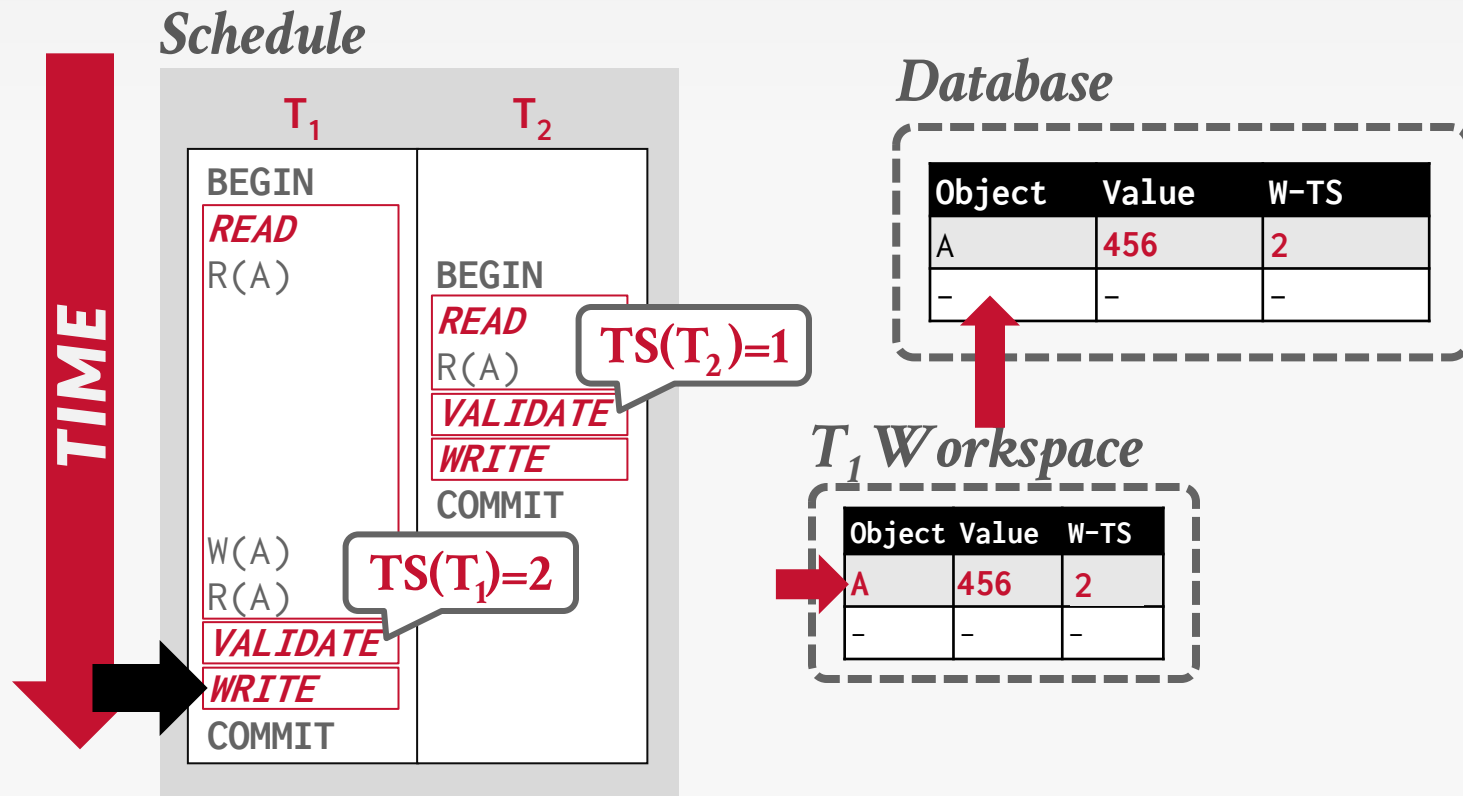
# OCC EXAMPLE



# OCC EXAMPLE



# OCC EXAMPLE



# OCC: READ PHASE

---

Track the read/write sets of txns and store their writes in a private workspace.

The DBMS copies every tuple that the txn accesses from the shared database to its workspace ensure repeatable reads.

→ We are ignoring for now what happens if a txn reads/writes tuples via indexes.

# OCC: VALIDATION PHASE

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When txn  $T_i$  invokes **COMMIT**, the DBMS checks if it conflicts with other txns.

- Original OCC algorithm uses serial validation.
- Parallel validation requires each txn check read/write sets of other txns trying to validate at the same time.

DBMS needs to guarantee only serializable schedules are permitted.

- **Approach #1: Backward Validation**
- **Approach #2: Forward Validation**

# OCC: VALIDATION PHASE

**Forward Validation:** Check whether the committing txn intersects its read/write sets with any active txns that have not yet committed.

**Backward Validation:** Check whether the ← *More Common* committing txn intersects its read/write sets with those of any txns that have already committed.



# OCC: FORWARD VALIDATION

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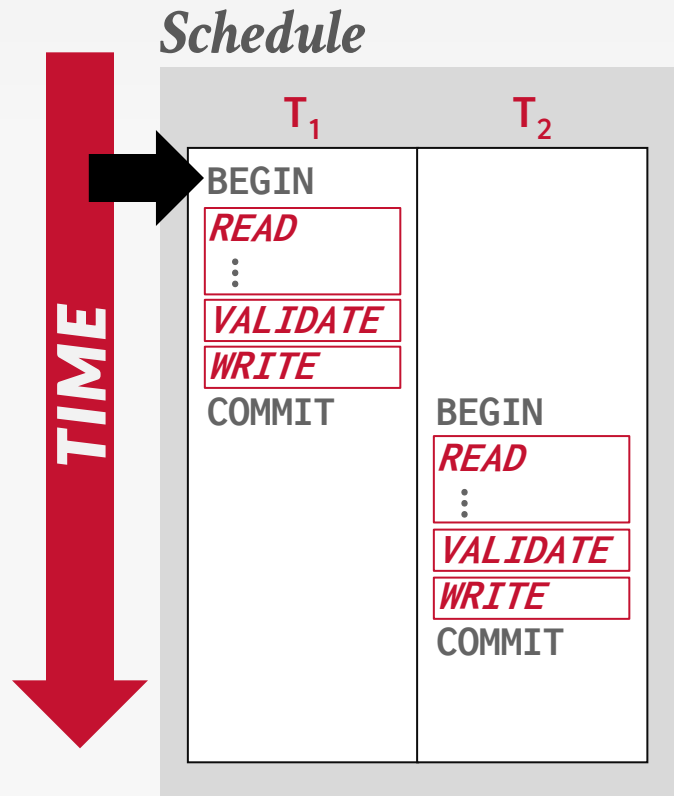
The DBMS assigns the txn a unique timestamp at the beginning of the validation phase.

Check the timestamp ordering of the committing txn with all other active txns.

→ An active txn is one that has not committed yet.

If  $TS(T_1) < TS(T_2)$ , then one of the following three conditions must hold...

# OCC: FORWARD VALIDATION CASE #1



Example:  $T_1$  wants to commit.

If ( $T_1 < T_2$ ), check if  $T_1$  completes its **Write** phase before  $T_2$  begins its **Read** phase.

No conflict as all  $T_1$ 's actions happen before  $T_2$ 's.

→ This just means that there is serial ordering.

# OCC: FORWARD VALIDATION CASE #2

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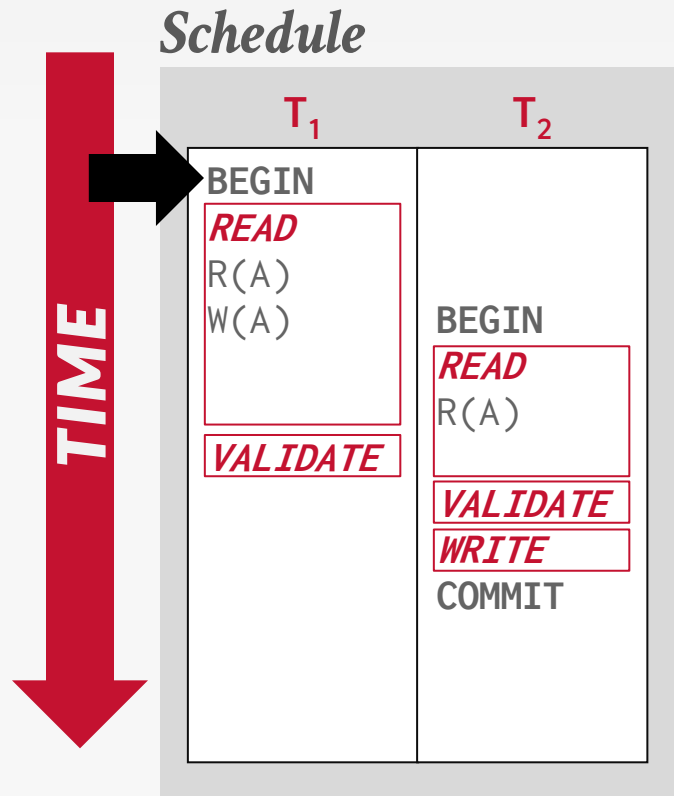
Example:  $T_1$  wants to commit.

If ( $T_1 < T_2$ ), check if  $T_1$  completes its **Write** phase before  $T_2$  starts its **Write** phase and  $T_1$  does not modify to any object read by  $T_2$ .

→ Intersection of  $T_1$ 's **WriteSet** with  $T_2$ 's **ReadSet** is empty:

$$\text{WriteSet}(T_1) \cap \text{ReadSet}(T_2) = \emptyset$$

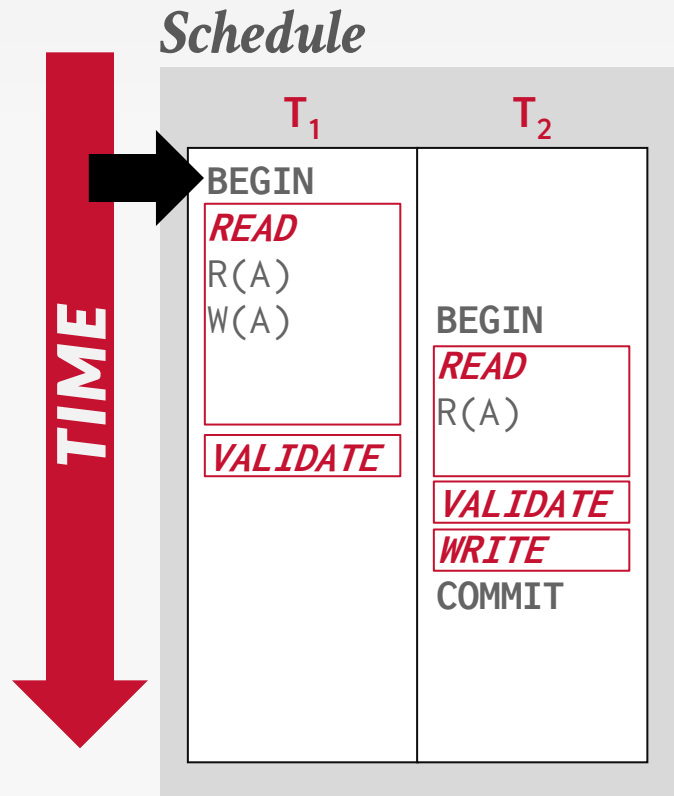
# OCC: FORWARD VALIDATION CASE #2



## *Database*

Object	Value	W-TS
A	123	0
-	-	-

# OCC: FORWARD VALIDATION CASE #2



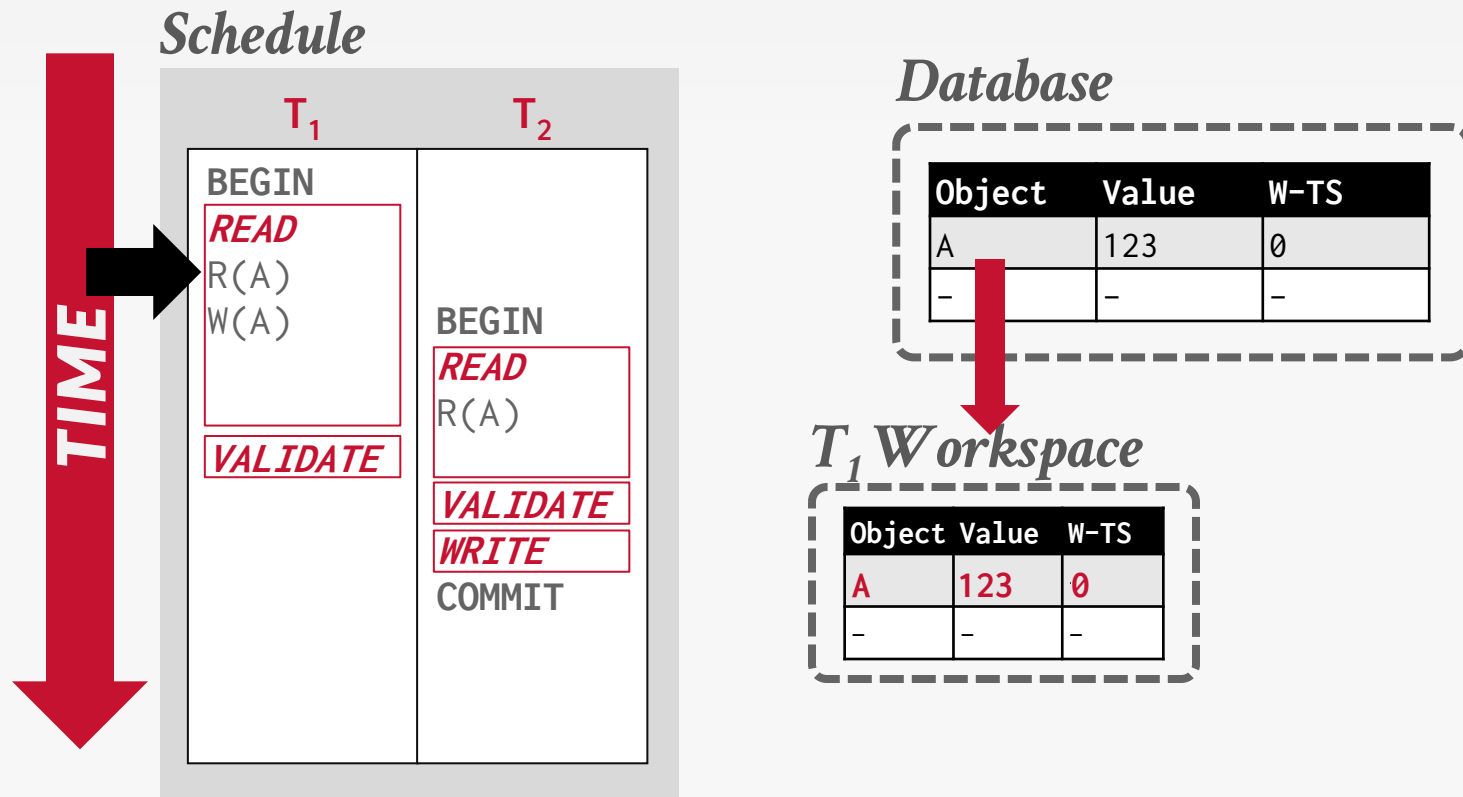
*Database*

Object	Value	W-TS
A	123	0
-	-	-

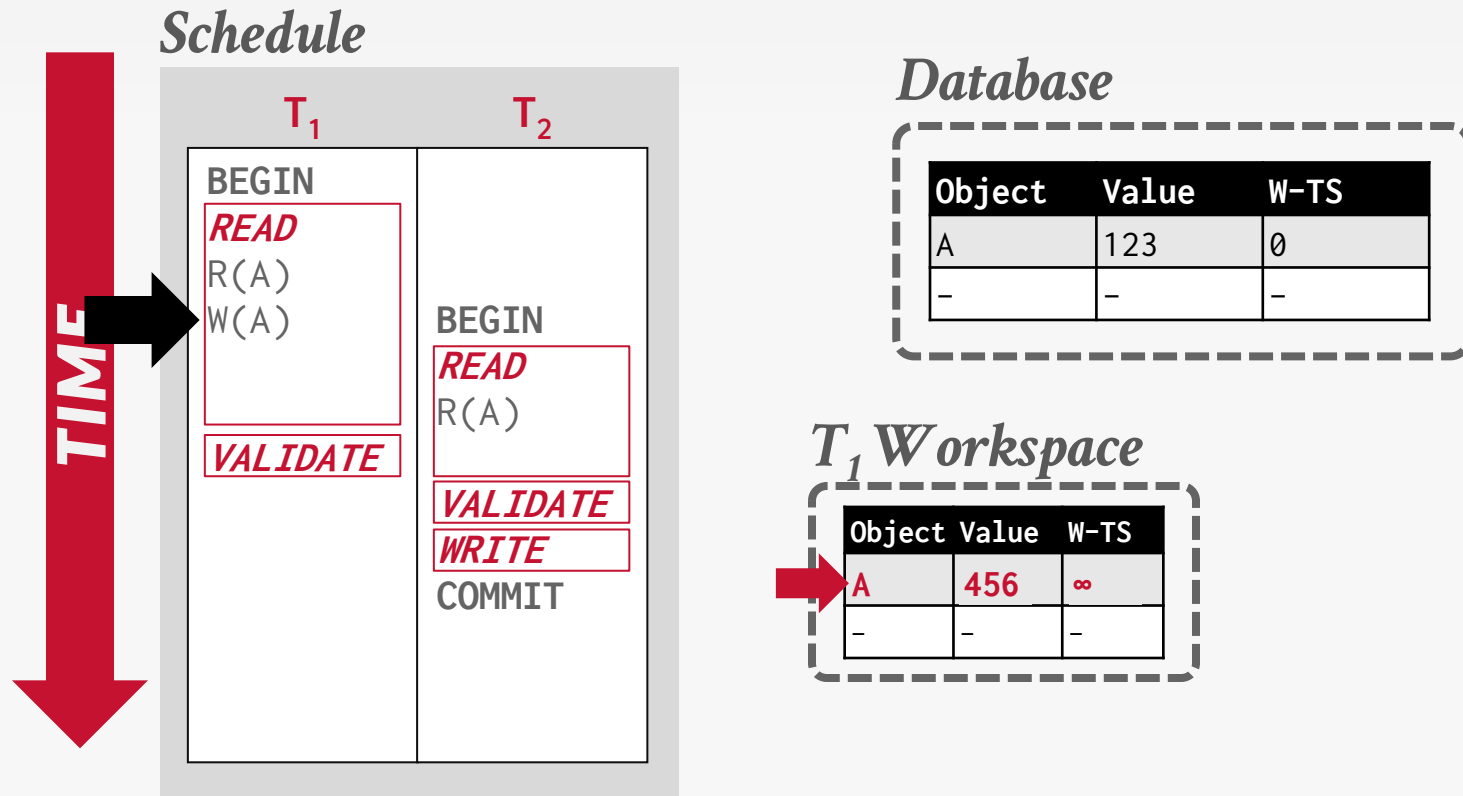
*$T_1$  Workspace*

Object	Value	W-TS
-	-	-
-	-	-

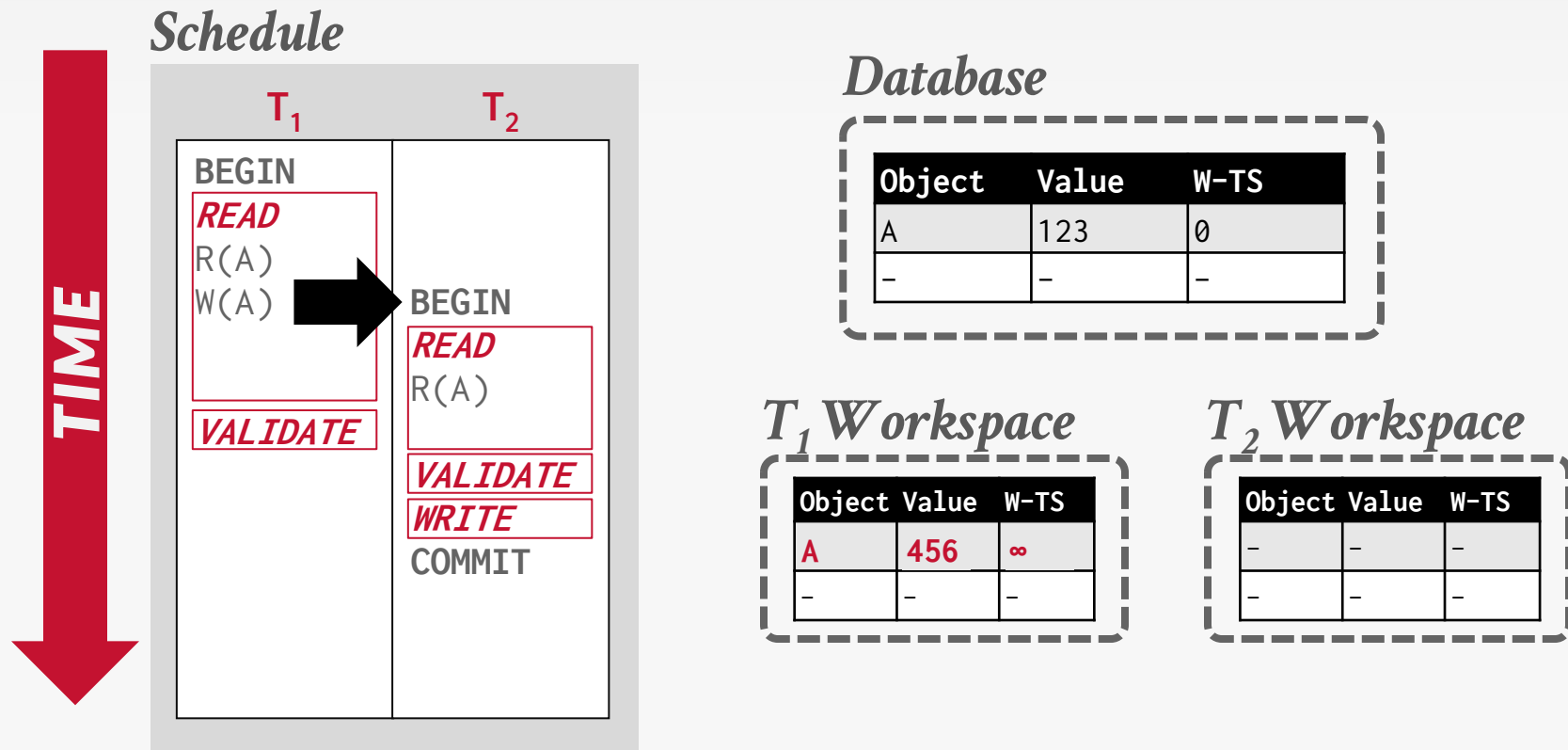
# OCC: FORWARD VALIDATION CASE #2



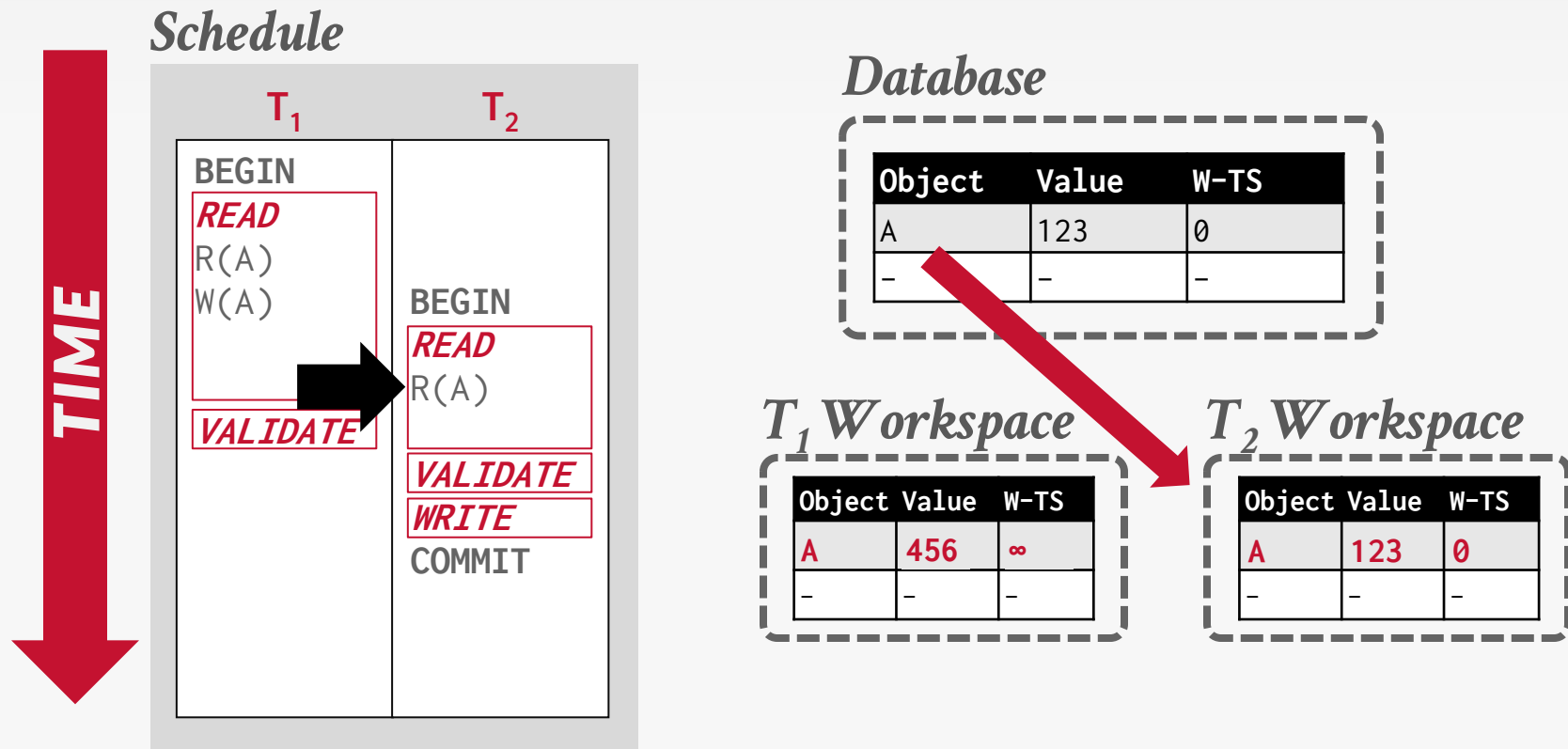
# OCC: FORWARD VALIDATION CASE #2



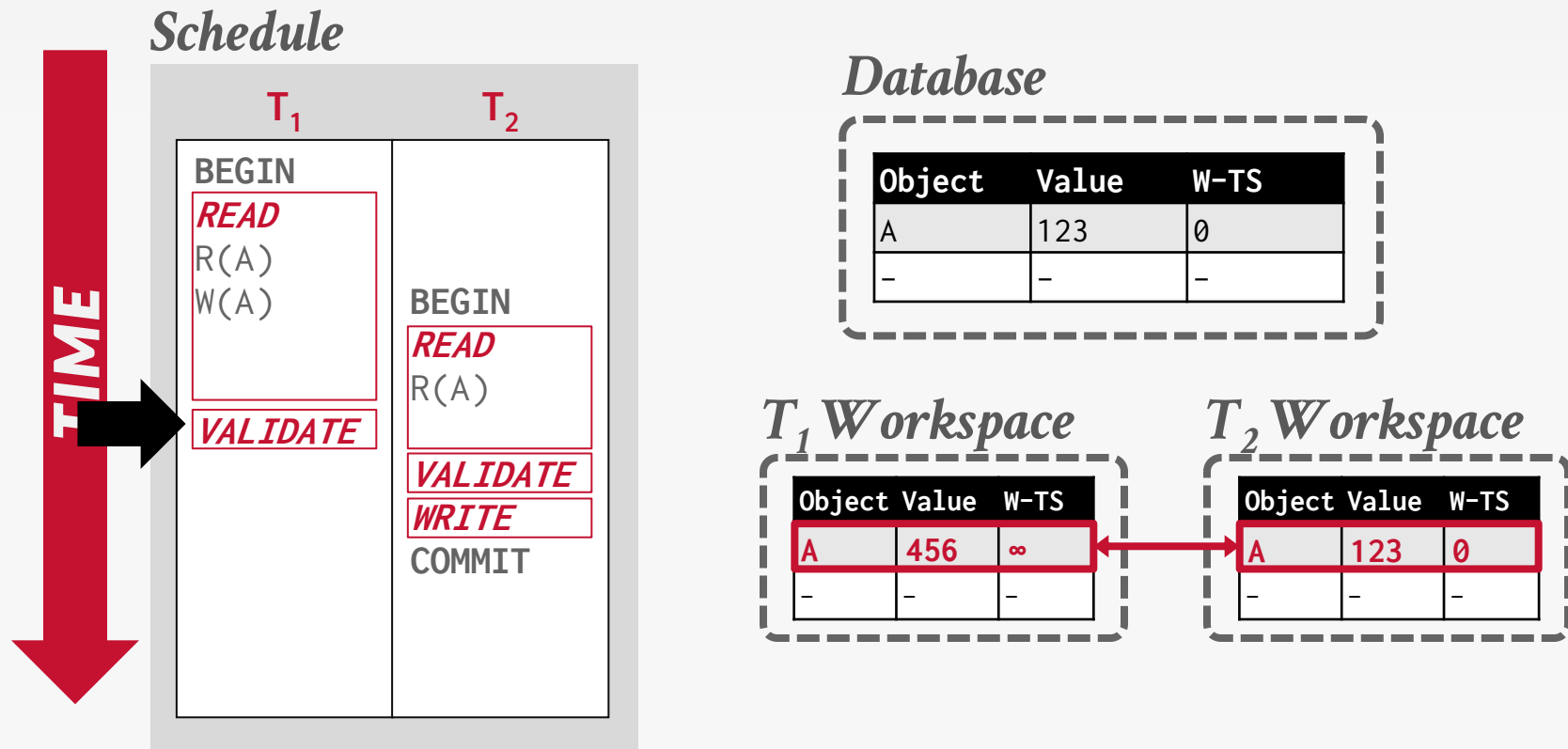
# OCC: FORWARD VALIDATION CASE #2



# OCC: FORWARD VALIDATION CASE #2

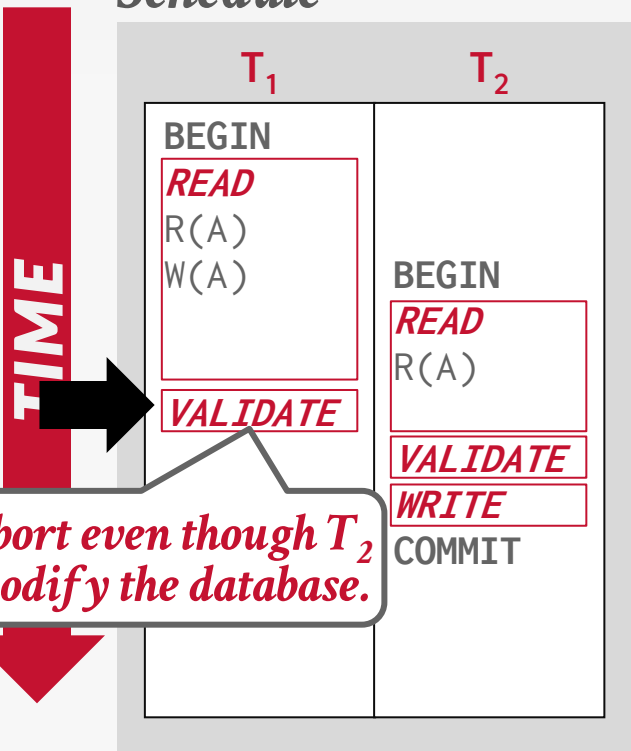


# OCC: FORWARD VALIDATION CASE #2



# OCC: FORWARD VALIDATION CASE #2

## Schedule



*T<sub>1</sub> must abort even though T<sub>2</sub> did not modify the database.*

## Database

Object	Value	W-TS
A	123	0
-	-	-

## T<sub>1</sub> Workspace

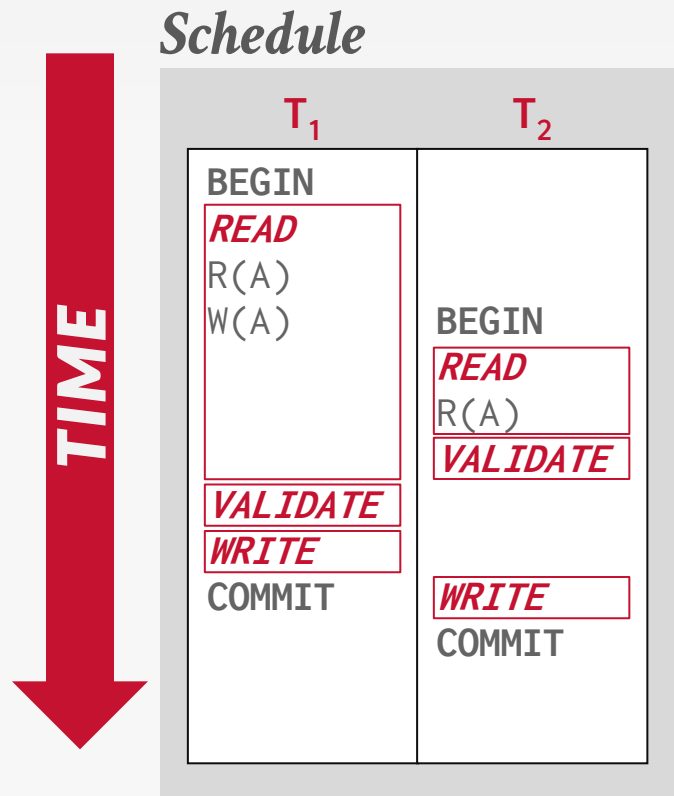
Object	Value	W-TS
A	456	∞
-	-	-

## T<sub>2</sub> Workspace

Object	Value	W-TS
A	123	0
-	-	-



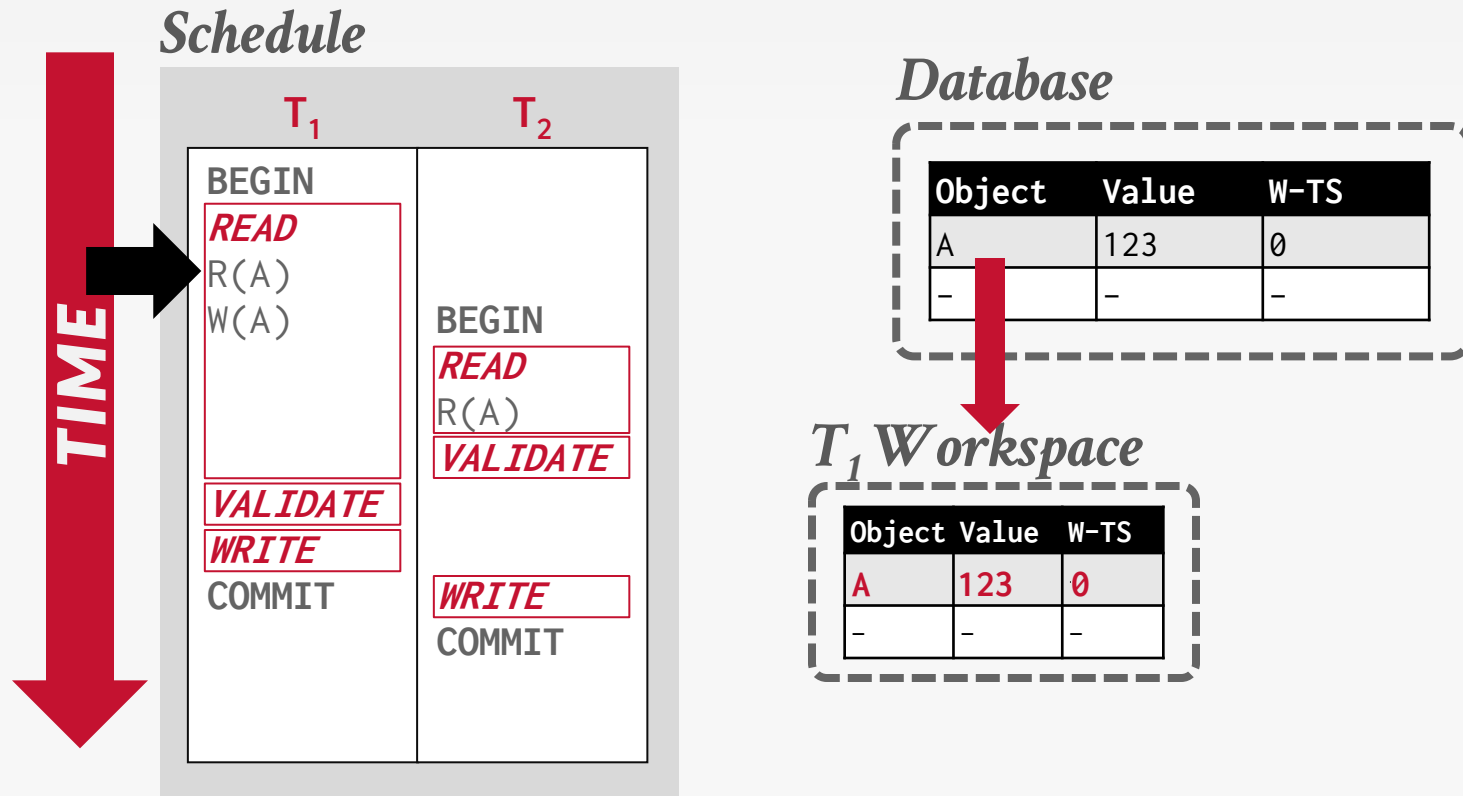
# OCC: FORWARD VALIDATION CASE #2



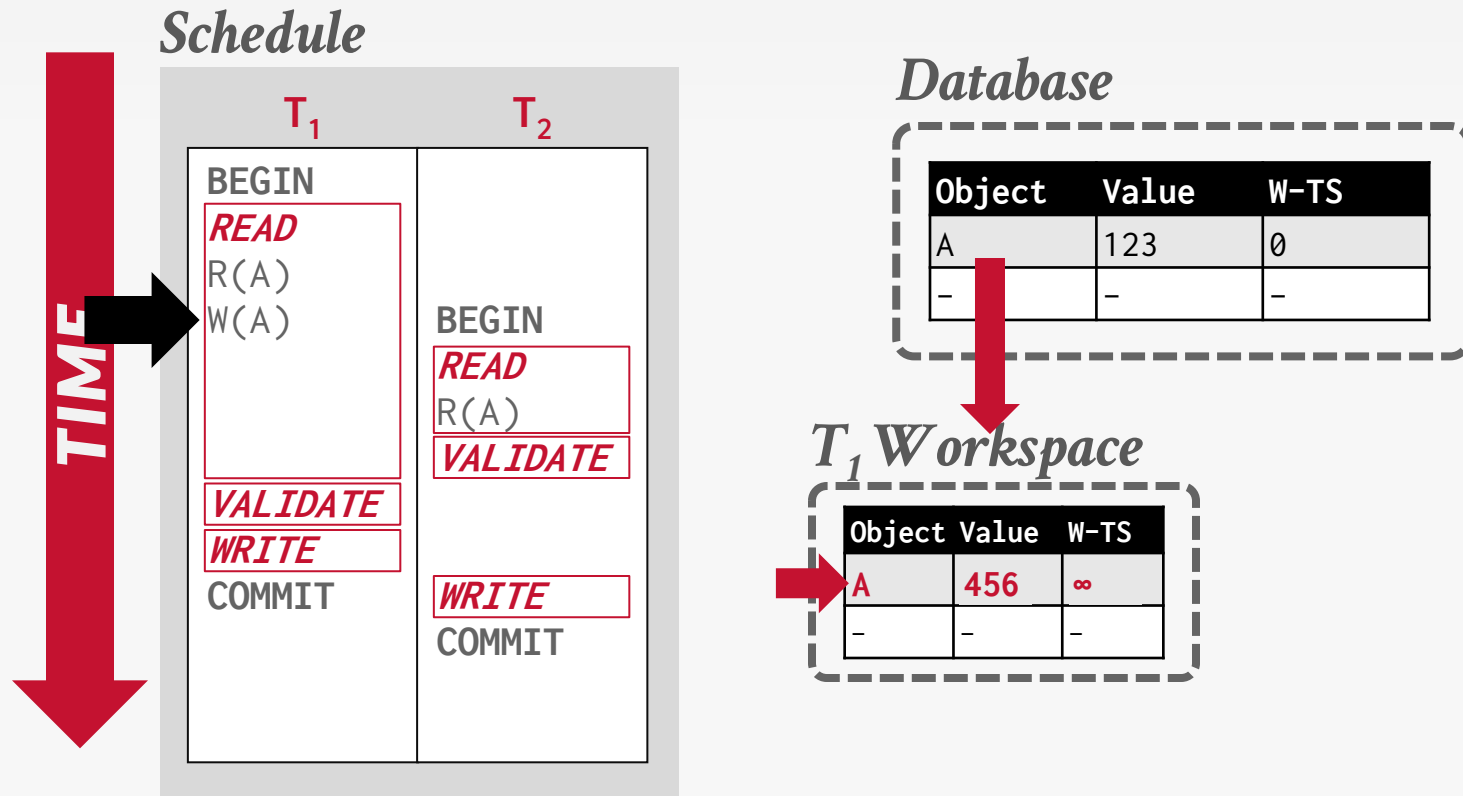
## Database

Object	Value	W-TS
A	123	0
-	-	-

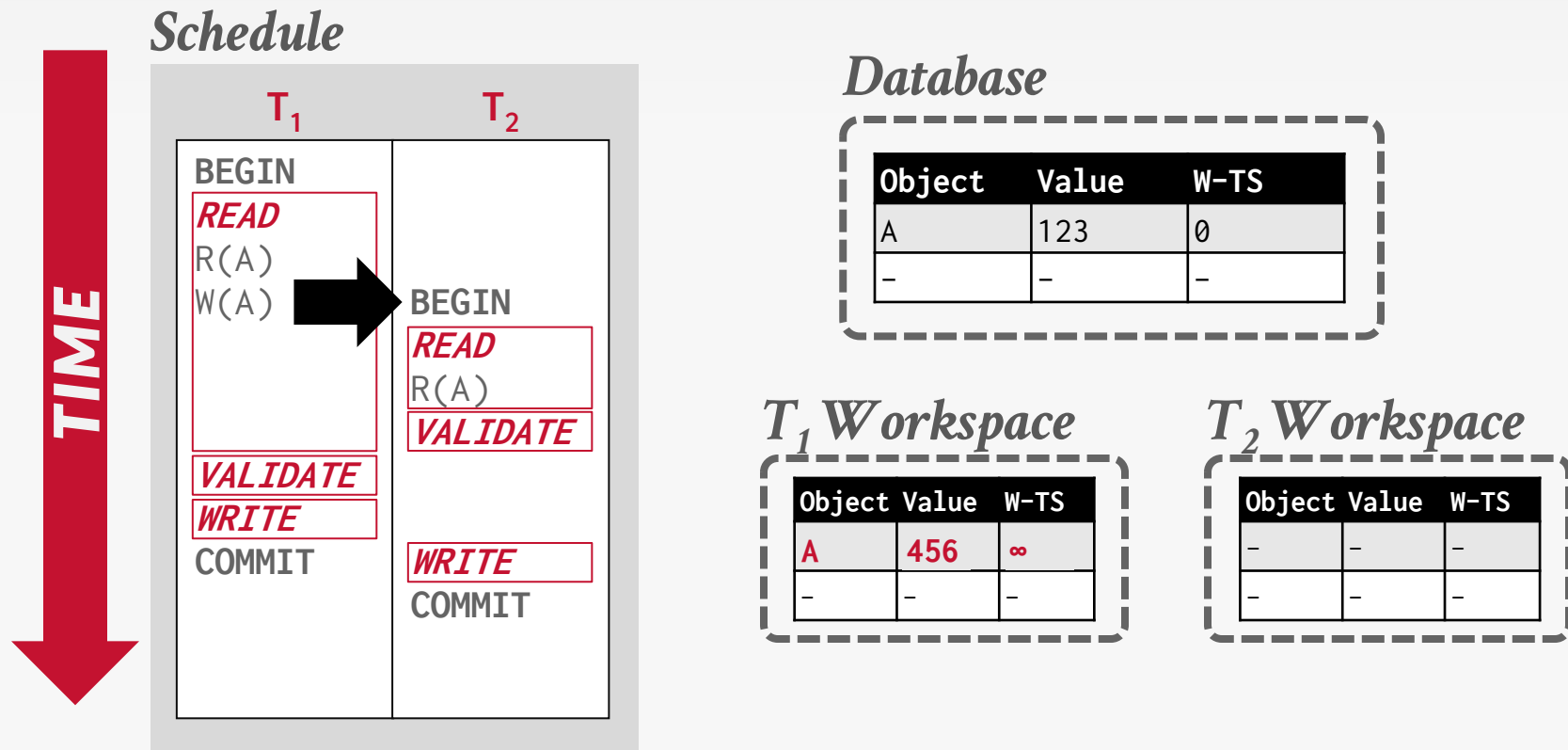
# OCC: FORWARD VALIDATION CASE #2



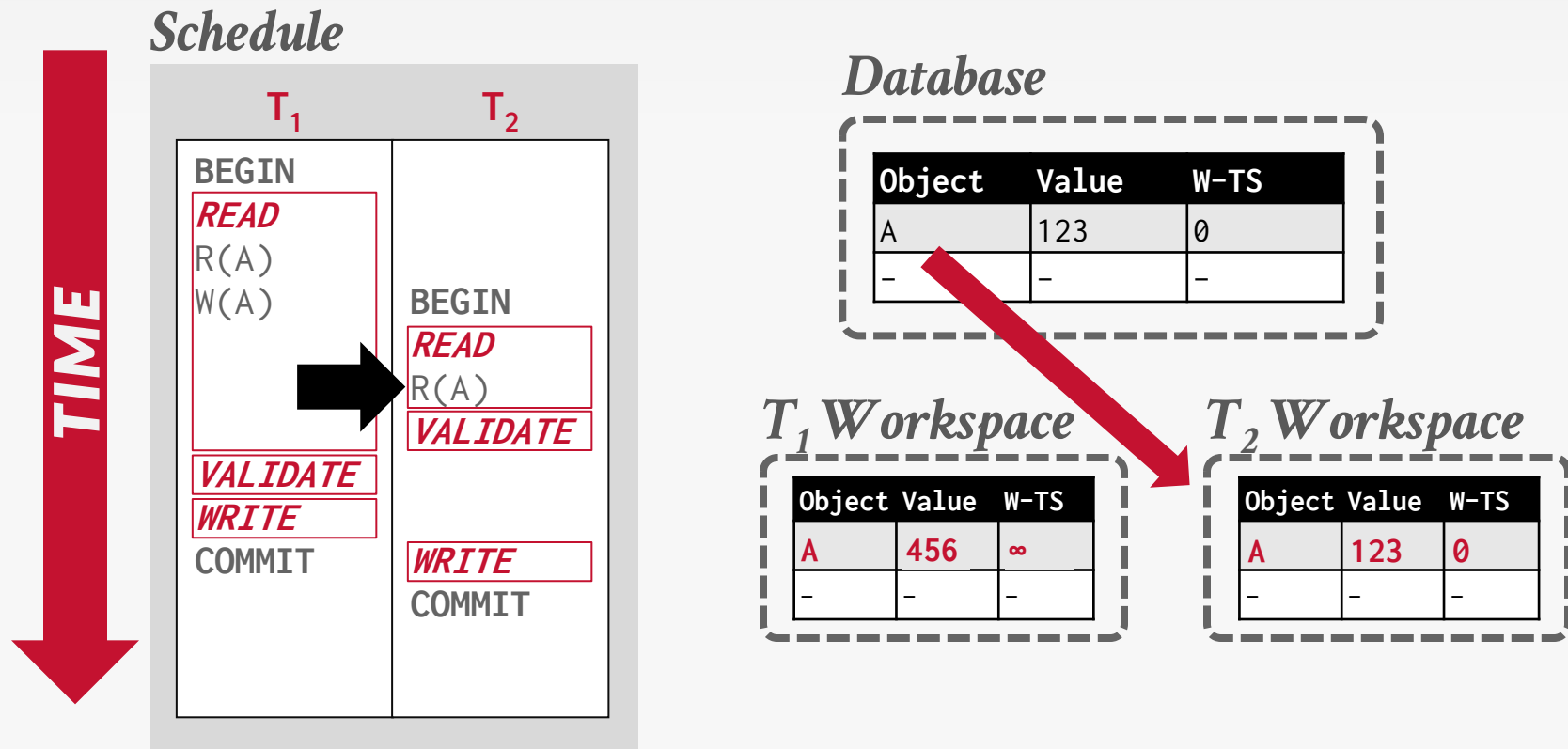
# OCC: FORWARD VALIDATION CASE #2



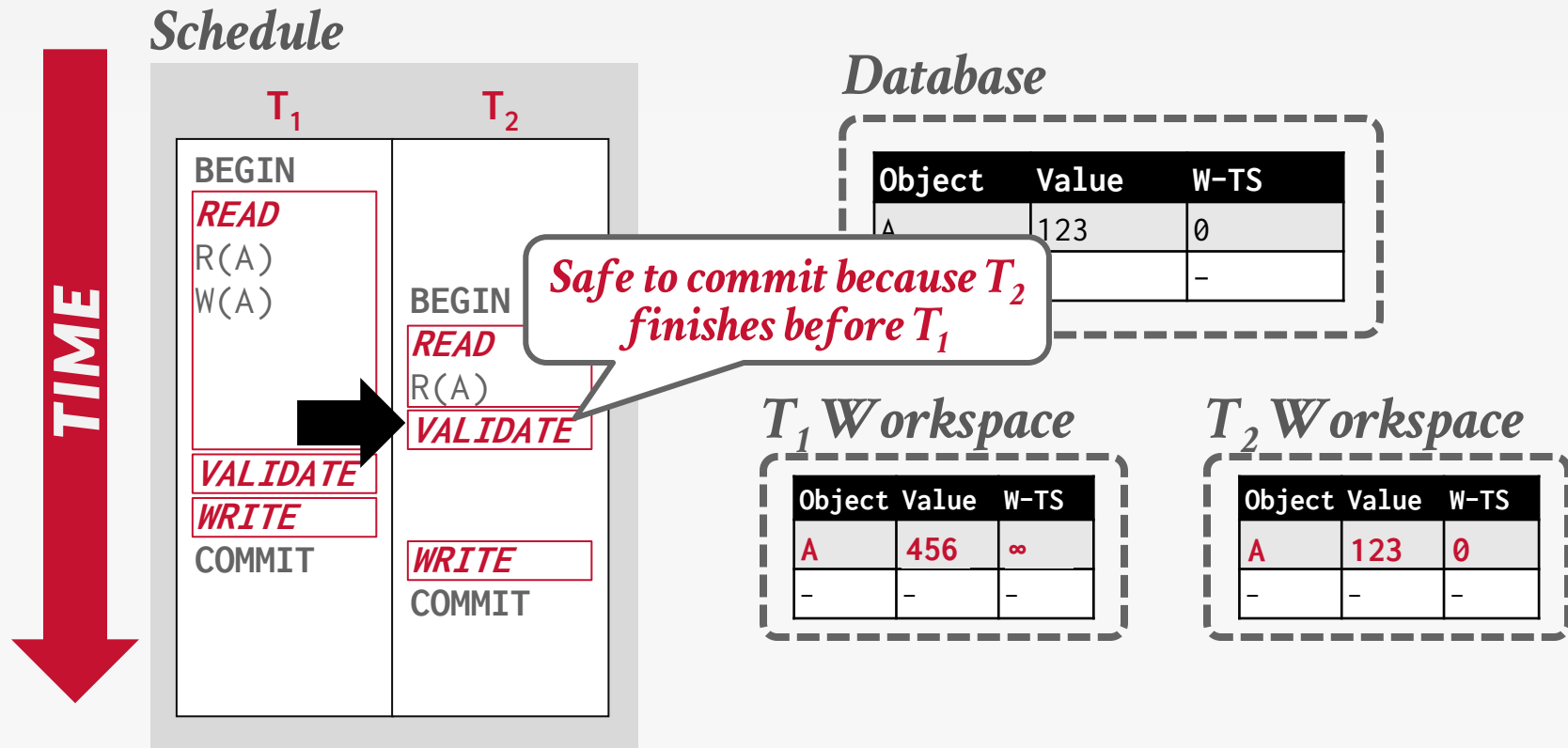
# OCC: FORWARD VALIDATION CASE #2



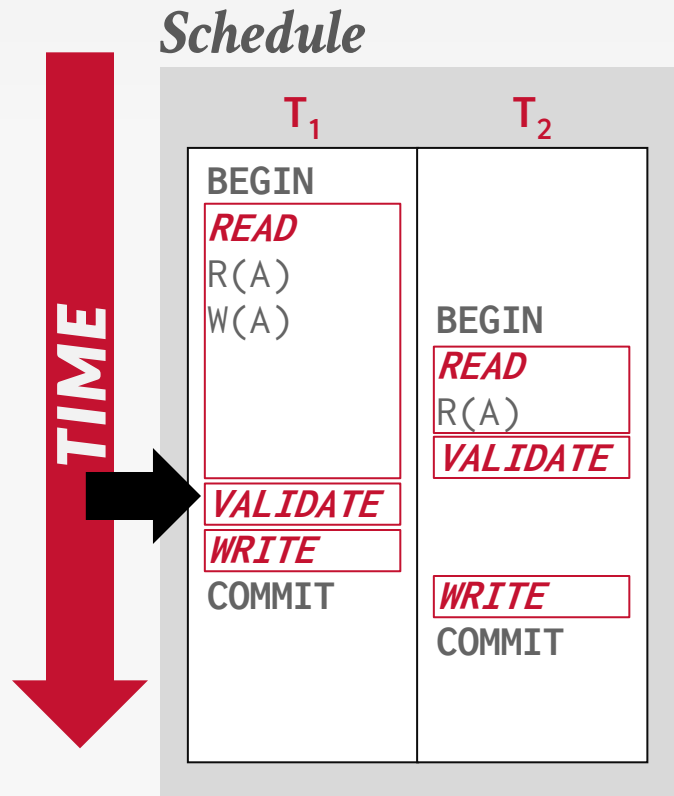
# OCC: FORWARD VALIDATION CASE #2



# OCC: FORWARD VALIDATION CASE #2



# OCC: FORWARD VALIDATION CASE #2



*Database*

Object	Value	W-TS
A	123	0
-	-	-

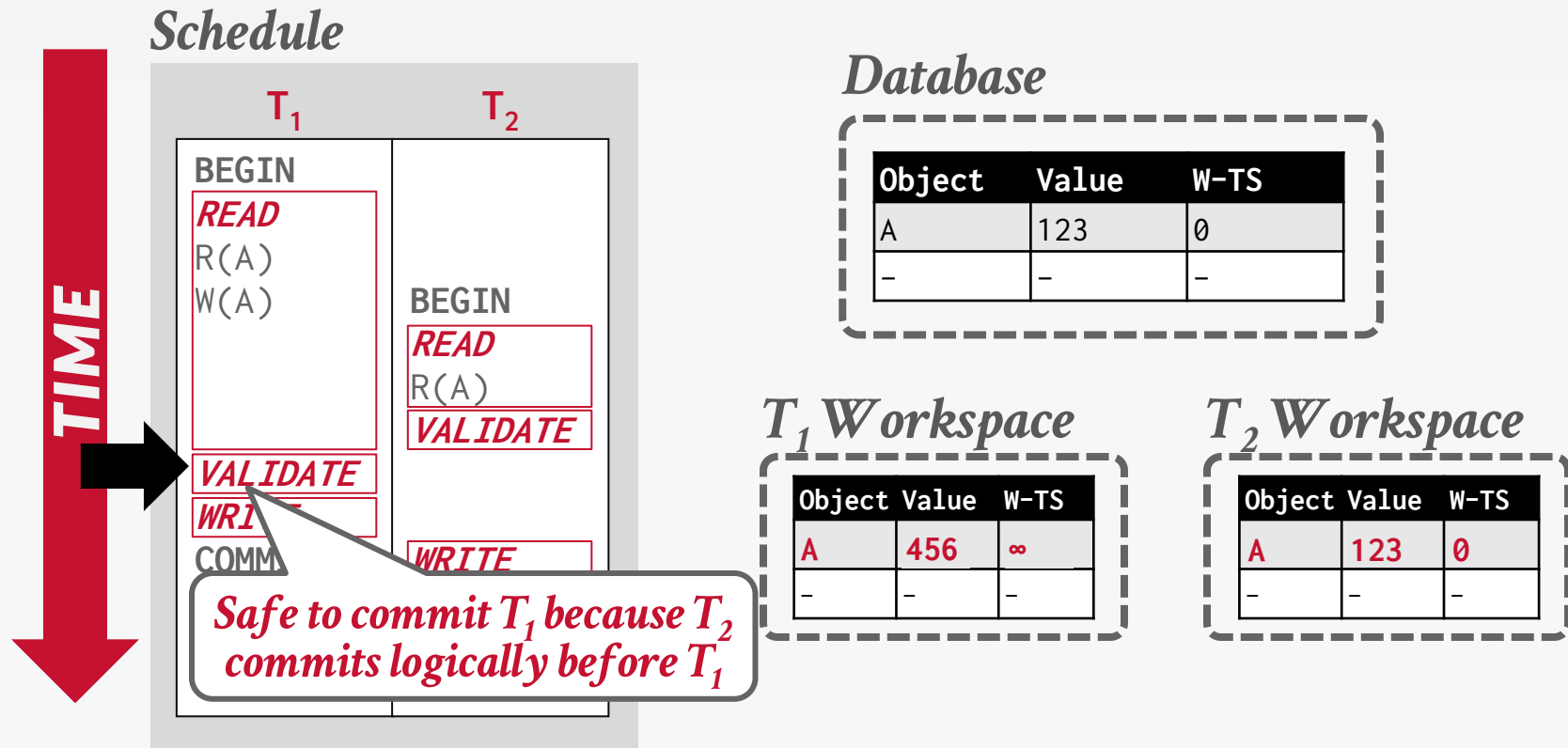
*$T_1$  Workspace*

Object	Value	W-TS
A	456	$\infty$
-	-	-

*$T_2$  Workspace*

Object	Value	W-TS
A	123	0
-	-	-

# OCC: FORWARD VALIDATION CASE #2



# OCC: FORWARD VALIDATION CASE #3

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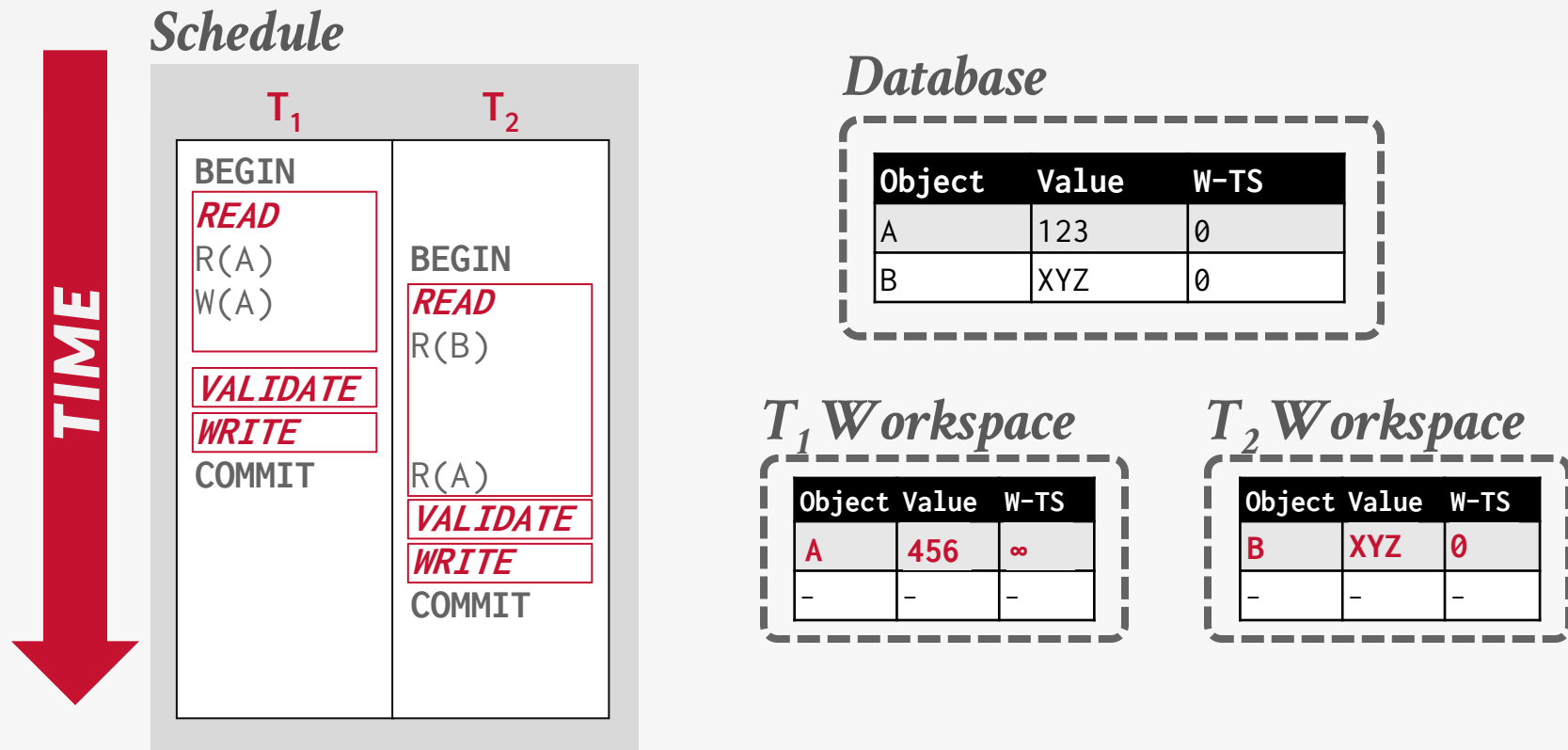
Example:  $T_1$  wants to commit.

If ( $T_1 < T_2$ ), check if  $T_1$  completes its **Read** phase before  $T_2$  completes its **Read** phase and  $T_1$  does not modify any object either read or written by  $T_2$ :

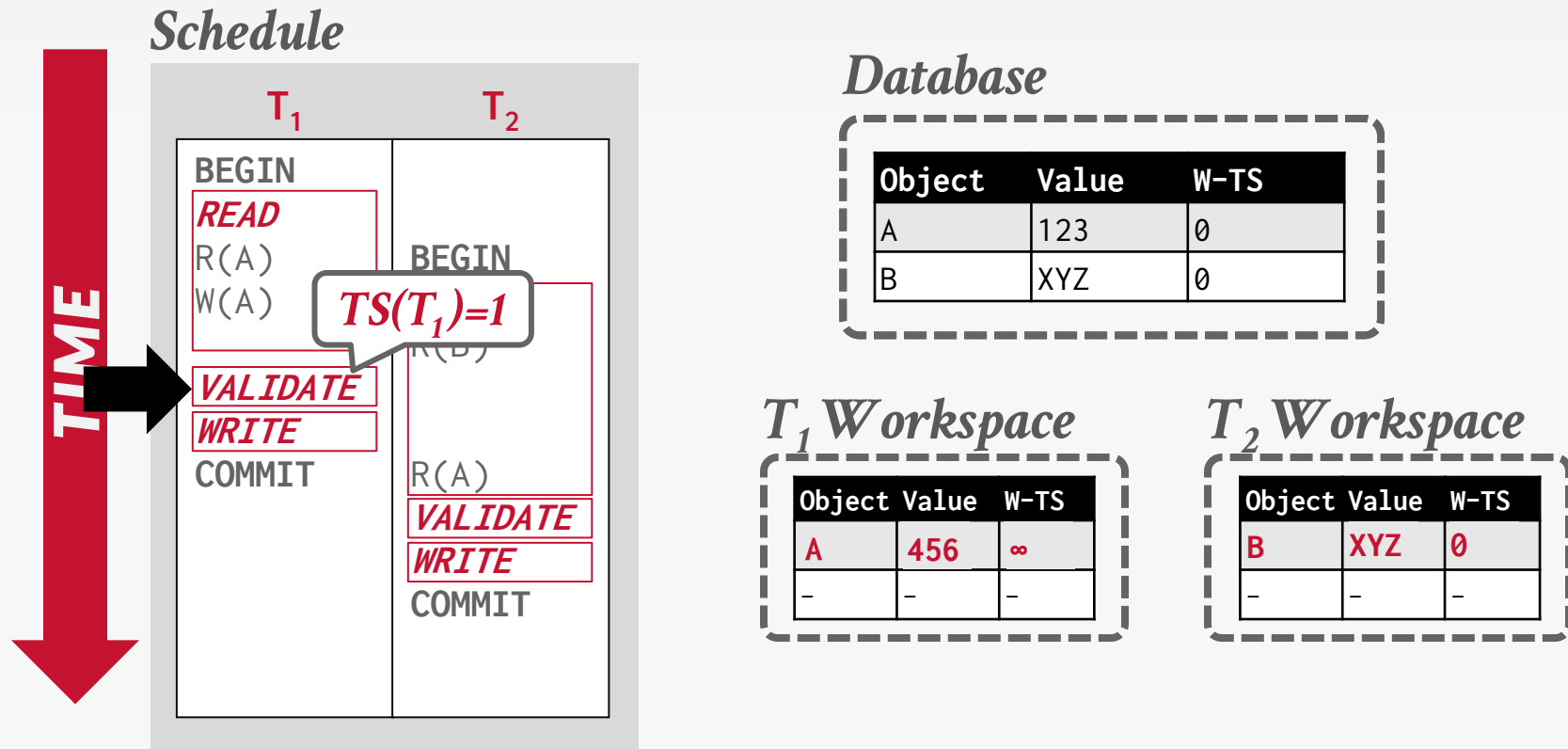
$$\rightarrow \text{WriteSet}(T_1) \cap \text{ReadSet}(T_2) = \emptyset$$

$$\rightarrow \text{WriteSet}(T_1) \cap \text{WriteSet}(T_2) = \emptyset$$

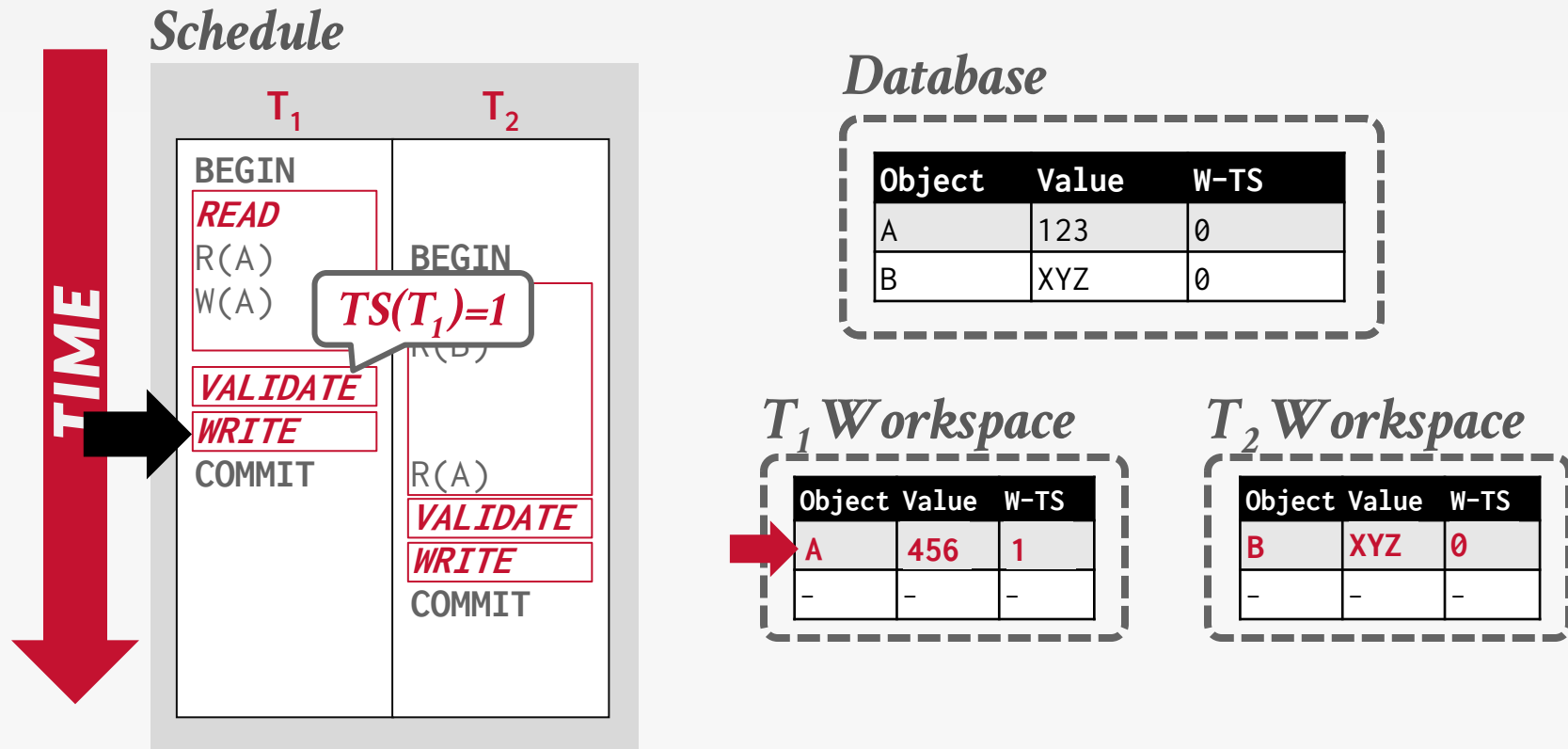
# OCC: FORWARD VALIDATION CASE #3



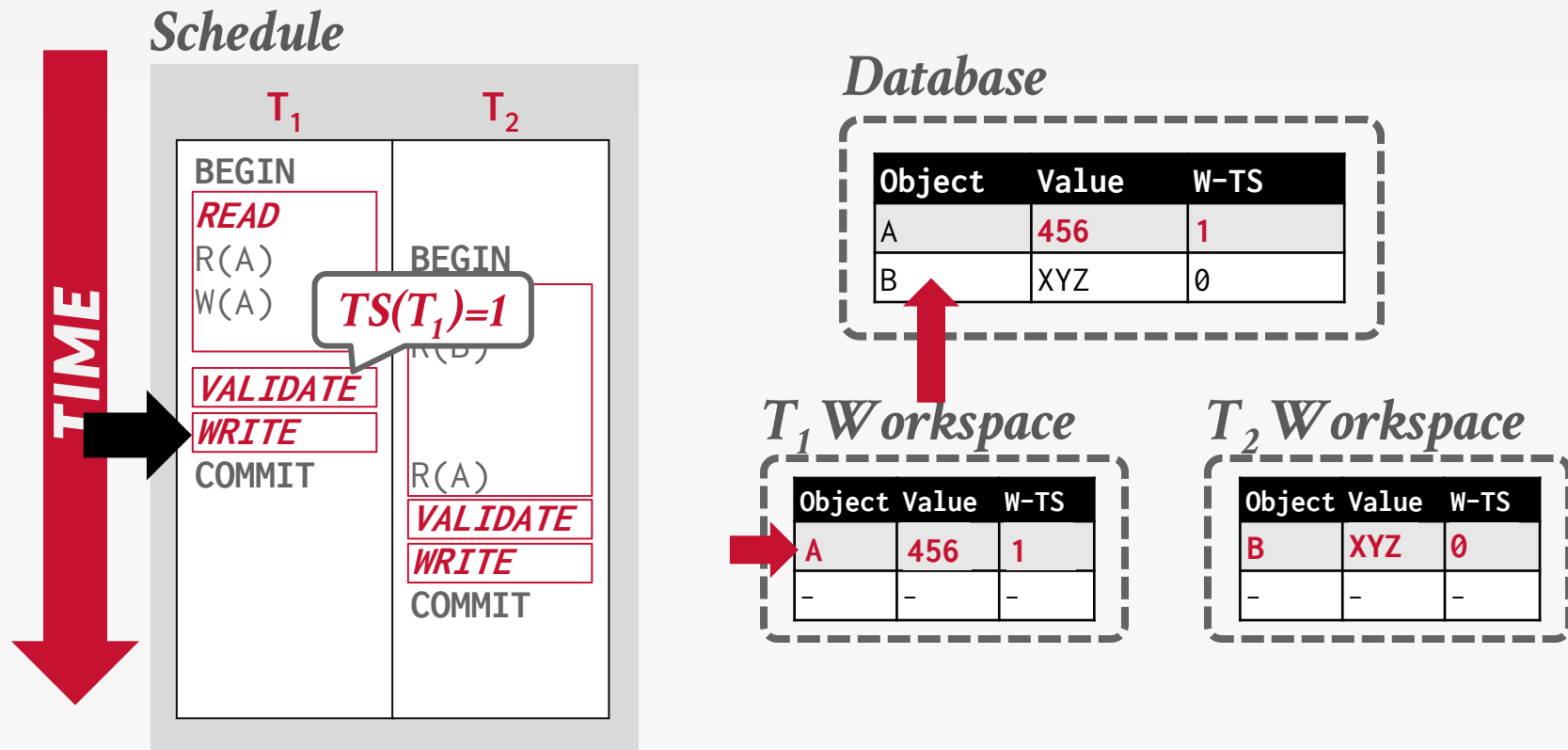
# OCC: FORWARD VALIDATION CASE #3



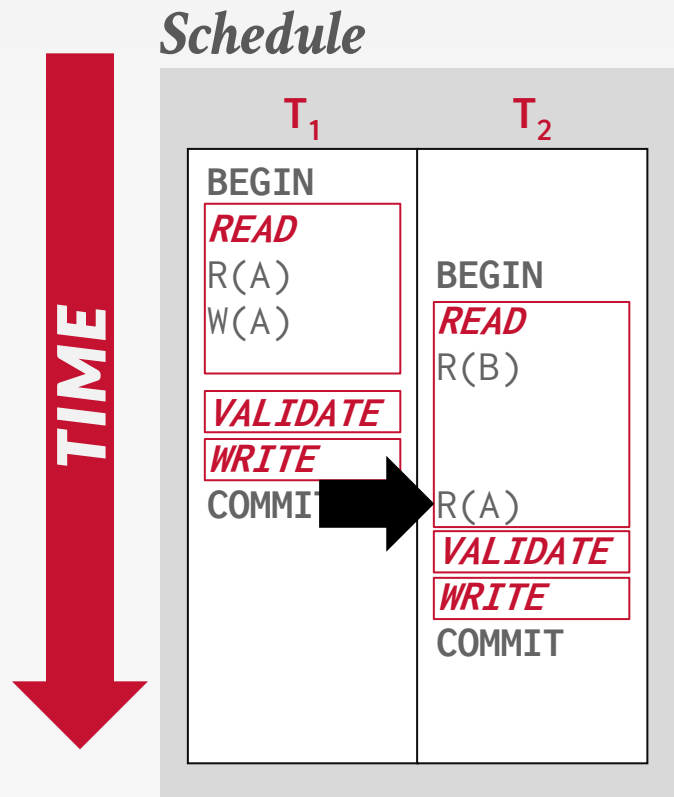
# OCC: FORWARD VALIDATION CASE #3



# OCC: FORWARD VALIDATION CASE #3



# OCC: FORWARD VALIDATION CASE #3



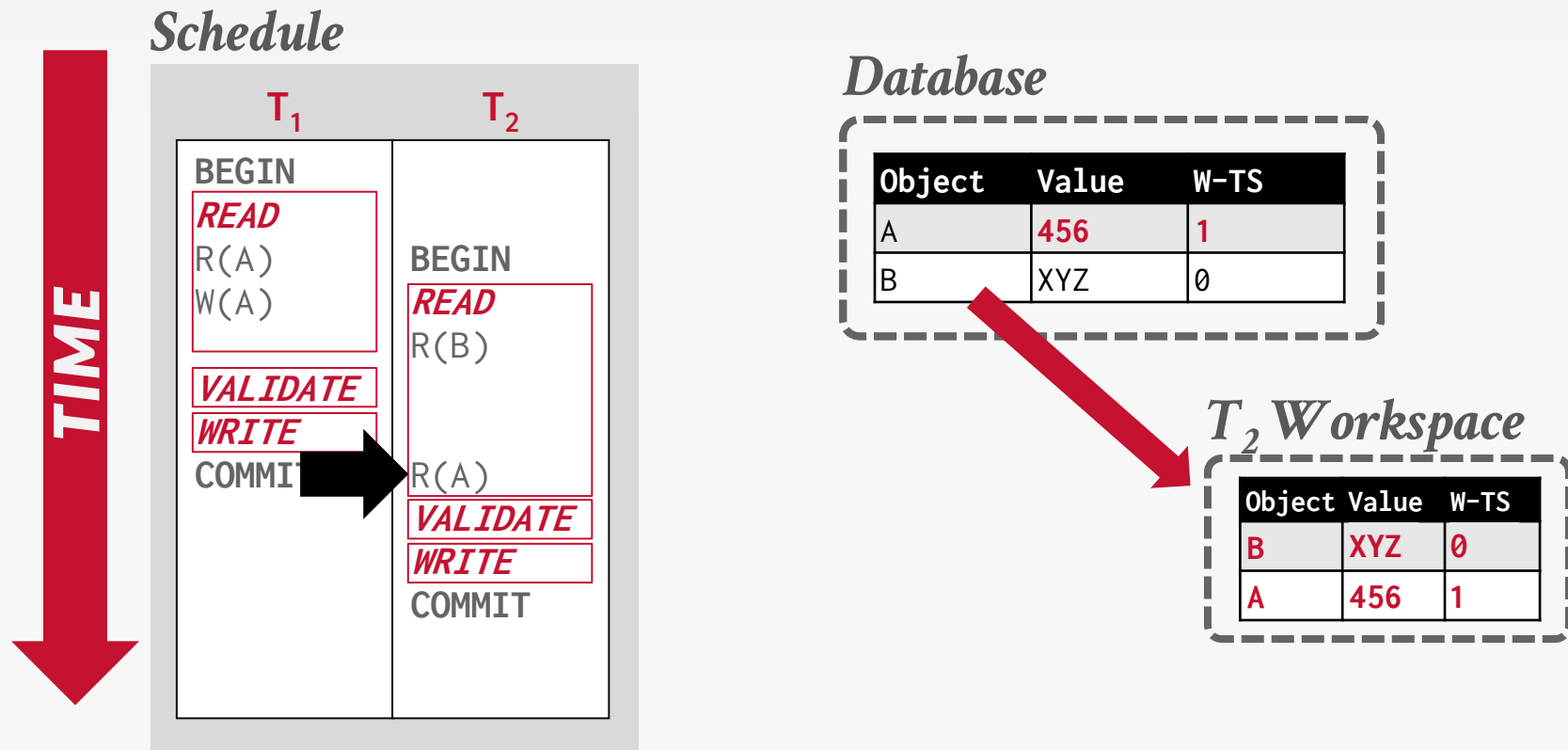
## Database

Object	Value	W-TS
A	456	1
B	XYZ	0

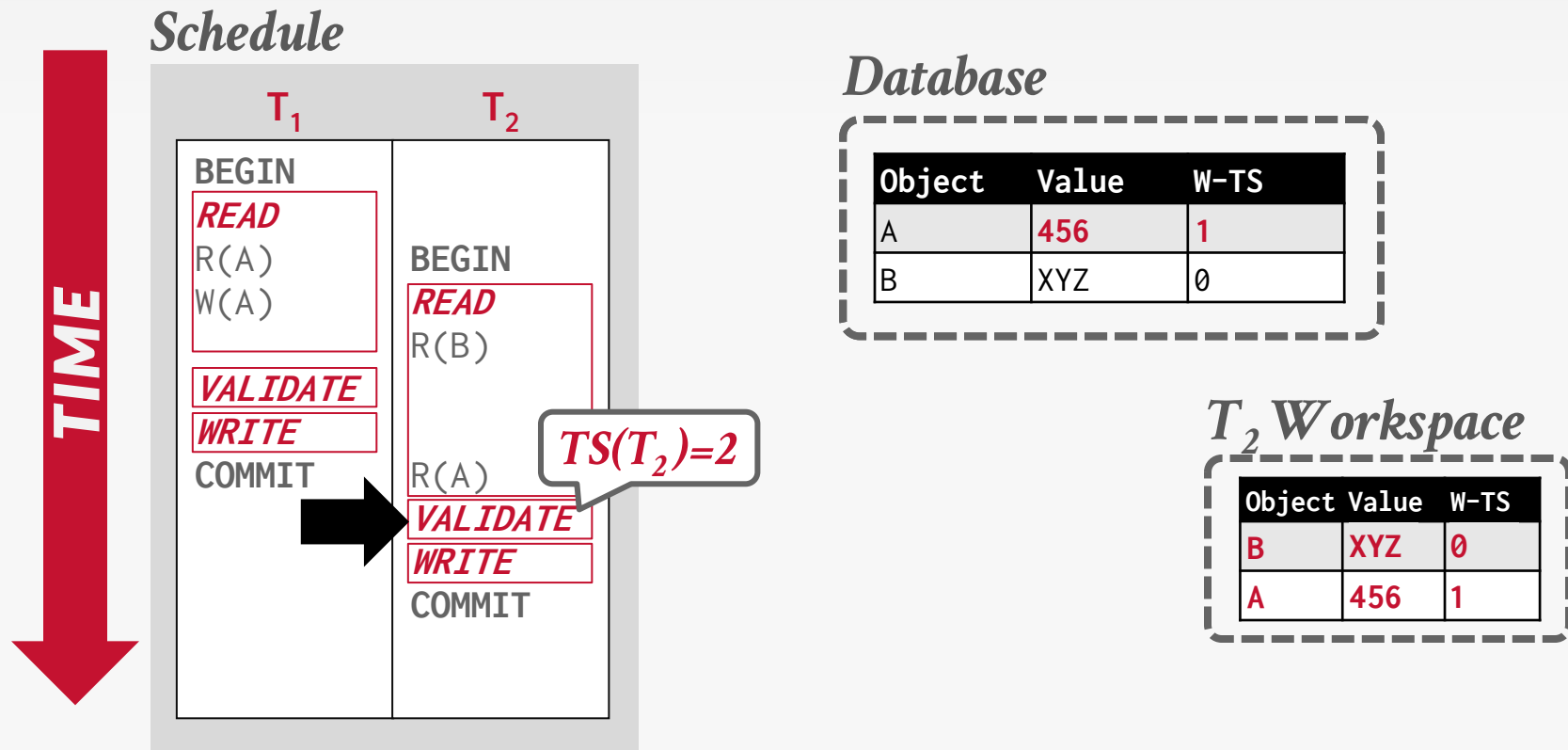
## $T_2$ Workspace

Object	Value	W-TS
B	XYZ	0
-	-	-

# OCC: FORWARD VALIDATION CASE #3

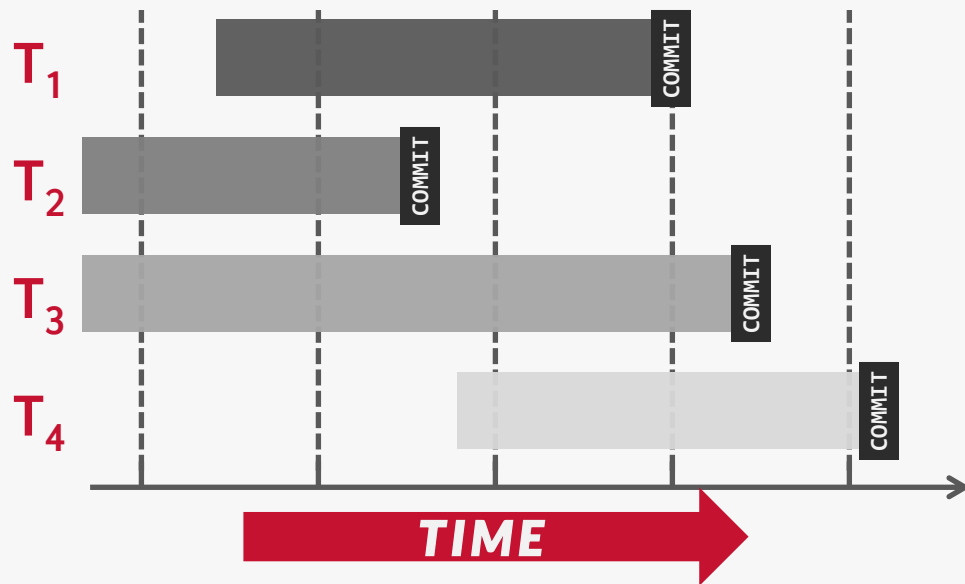


# OCC: FORWARD VALIDATION CASE #3



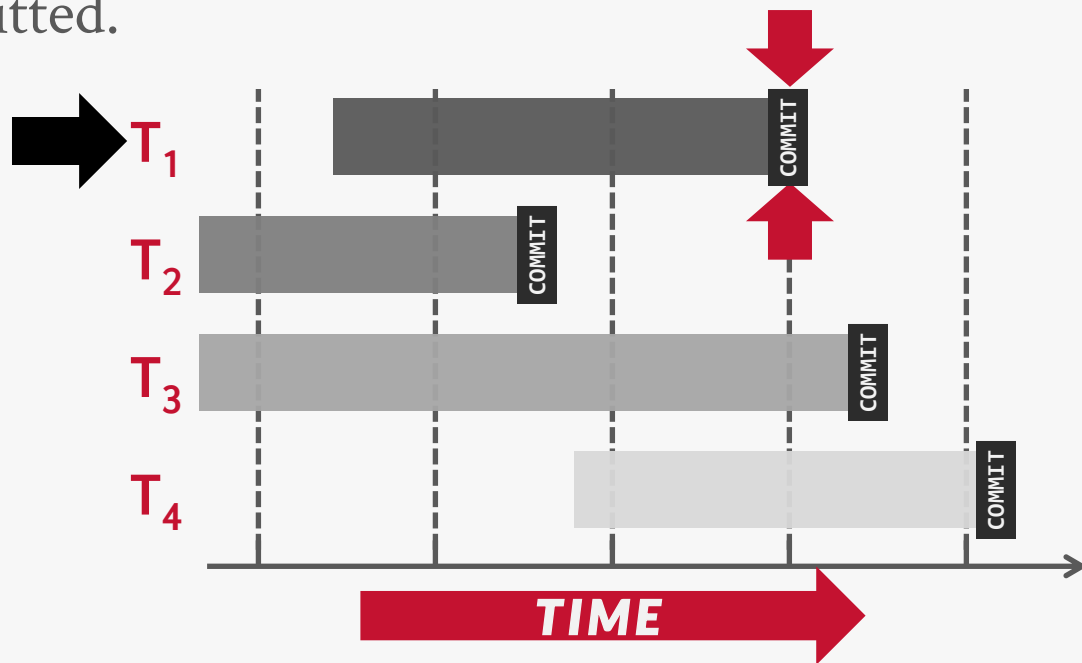
# OCC: FORWARD VALIDATION

Check whether the committing txn intersects its read/write sets with any active txns that have **not** yet committed.



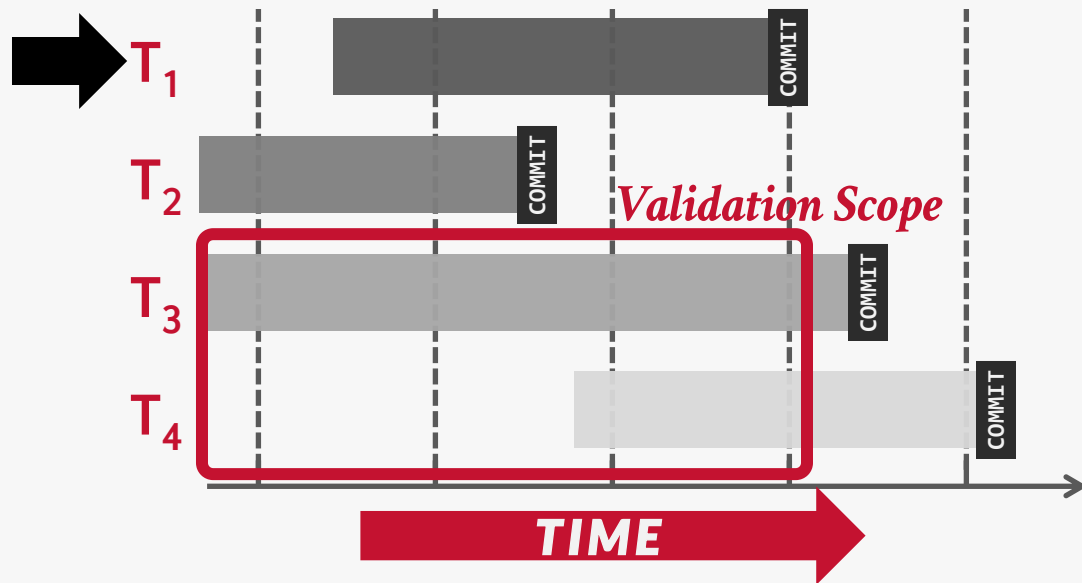
# OCC: FORWARD VALIDATION

Check whether the committing txn intersects its read/write sets with any active txns that have **not** yet committed.



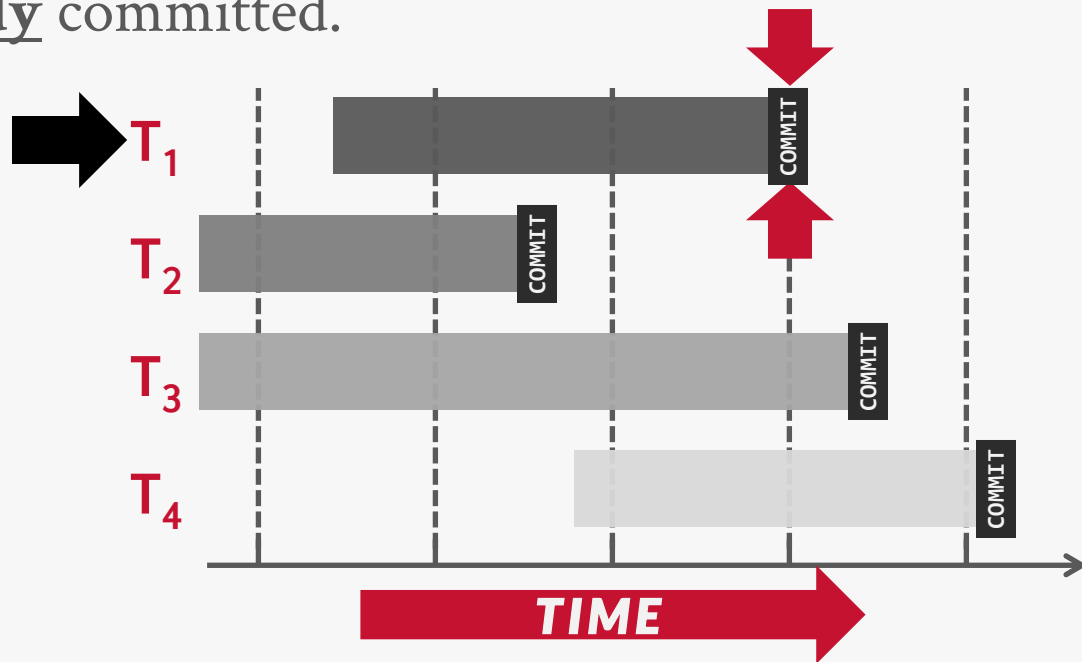
# OCC: FORWARD VALIDATION

Check whether the committing txn intersects its read/write sets with any active txns that have **not** yet committed.



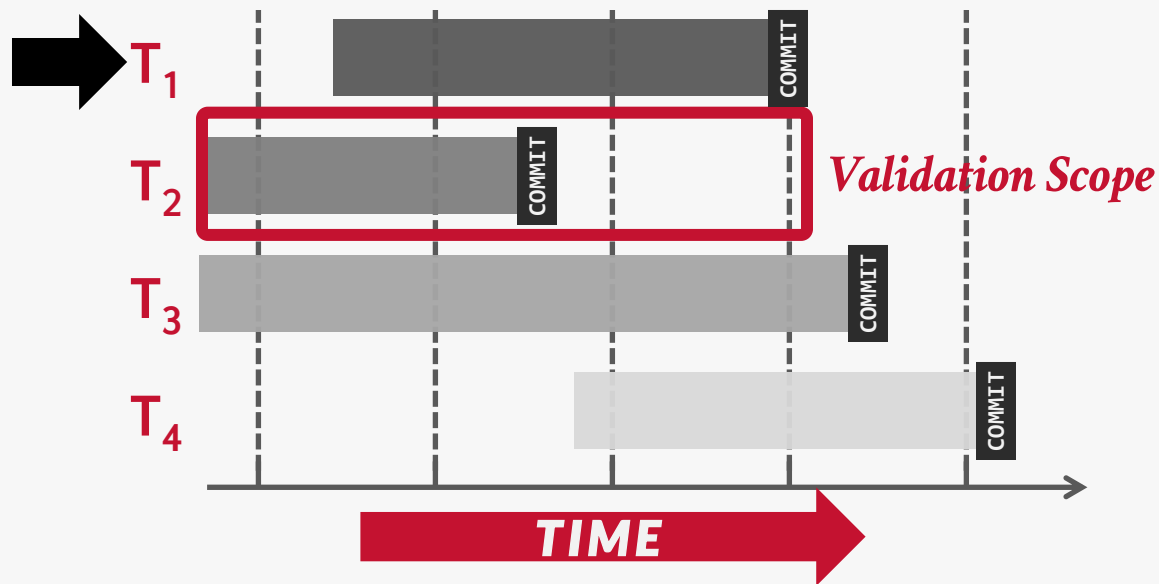
# OCC: BACKWARD VALIDATION

Check whether the committing txn intersects its read/write sets with those of any txns that have already committed.



# OCC: BACKWARD VALIDATION

Check whether the committing txn intersects its read/write sets with those of any txns that have already committed.



# OCC: VALIDATION PHASE

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	<i>Forward Validation</i>	<i>Backward Validation</i>
<b>Target</b>	WriteSet of $T_i$ vs. ReadSet of active txns	ReadSet of $T_i$ vs. WriteSets of committed txns
<b>Abort Timing</b>	Abort txns at Commit Time or earlier during execution	Only at Commit Time
<b>Flexibility</b>	Higher (can abort $T_i$ or active conflicting txn)	Lower (usually aborts $T_i$ )

# OCC: WRITE PHASE

---

Propagate changes in the txn's write set to database to make them visible to other txns.

## **Serial Commits:**

→ Use a global latch to limit a single txn to be in the **Validation/Write** phases at a time.

## **Parallel Commits:**

→ Use fine-grained write latches to support parallel **Validation/Write** phases.

→ Txns acquire latches in a sequential key order to avoid deadlocks.

# OCC: OBSERVATIONS

---

OCC works well when the number of conflicts is low:

- All txns are read-only (ideal).
- Txns access disjoint subsets of data.

But OCC has its own problems:

- High overhead for copying data locally.
- **Validation/Write** phase bottlenecks.
- Aborts are more wasteful than in 2PL because they only occur after a txn has already executed.

# CONCURRENCY CONTROL APPROACHES

---

## *Pessimistic*

### **Two-Phase Locking (2PL)**

- Assumes txns will conflict, so require them to acquire locks on objects before they can access them to guarantee serializability order of conflicting operations.

## *Optimistic*

### **Timestamp Ordering**

- Assume txns will not conflict, so assign them timestamps that correspond to their commit order and then check for serialization violations.
- Still need latches to protect objects.

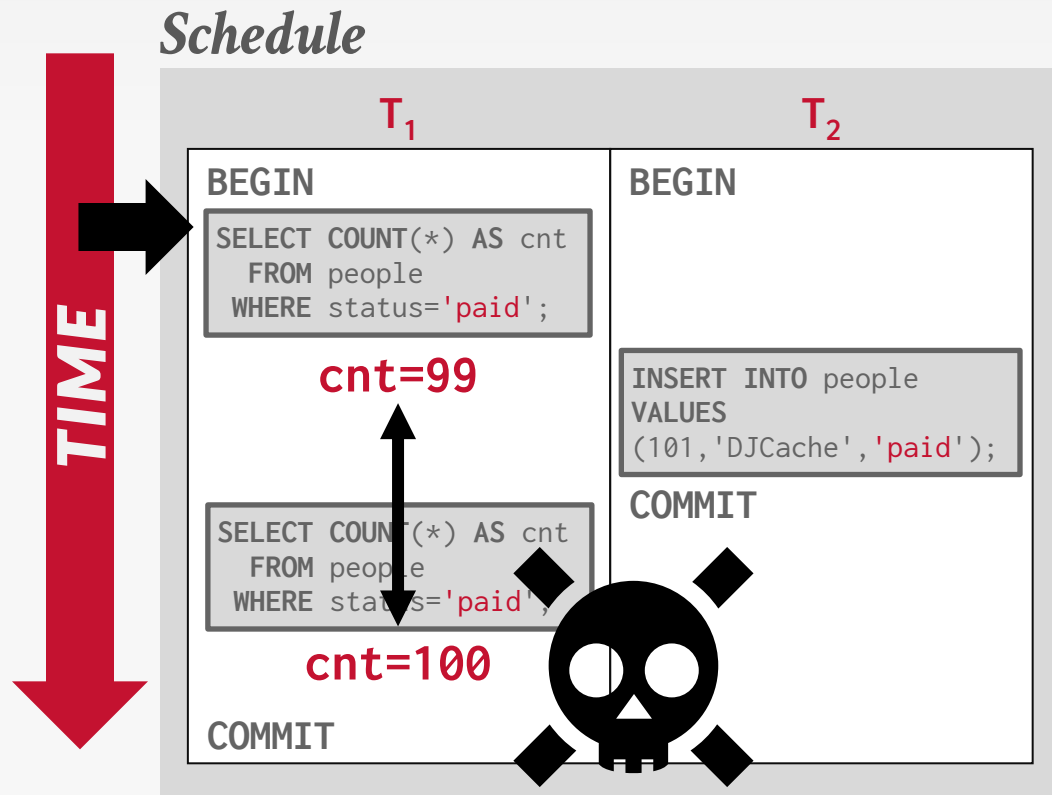
# OBSERVATION

---

We have only dealt with transactions that read and update existing objects in the database.

But now if txns perform insertions, updates, and deletions, we have new problems...

# THE PHANTOM PROBLEM



```
CREATE TABLE people (
  id SERIAL,
  name VARCHAR,
  status VARCHAR
);
```

# OOPS?

---

## *How did this happen?*

→ Because  $T_1$  locked only existing records and not ones that other txns are adding to the database!

Conflict serializability on reads and writes of individual items guarantees serializability only if the database's set of objects is fixed.

This is known as a **phantom read**.

→ A txn scans a range more than once and another txn inserts/removes tuples that fall within that range in between the scans.

# SOLUTIONS TO THE PHANTOM PROBLEM

---

## Approach #1: Lock Everything! ← *Common*

→ Entire database, table, or every page.

## Approach #2: Re-Execute Scans ← *Rare*

→ Run queries again at commit to see whether they produce a different result to identify missed changes.

## Approach #3: Predicate Locking ← *Less Common*

→ Identify conflicts by examining query predicates.

→ Compare read/write sets (physical) or direct predicates (logical)

## Approach #4: Index Locking ← *Common*

→ Use keys in indexes to protect ranges.

# RE-EXECUTE SCANS

---

The DBMS tracks the **WHERE** clause for all queries that the txn executes.

→ Retain the scan set for every range query in a txn.

Upon commit, re-execute just the scan portion of each query and check whether it generates the same result.

→ Example: Run the scan for an **UPDATE** query but do not modify matching tuples.



# PREDICATE LOCKING

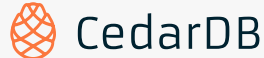
---

Proposed locking scheme from System R.

- Acquire a **Shared** lock on the predicate in a **WHERE** clause of a **SELECT** query.
- Acquire an **Exclusive** lock on the predicate in a **WHERE** clause of any **UPDATE**, **INSERT**, or **DELETE** query.

Modern DBMSs implement these locks efficiently by leveraging existing data structures.

- Read/Write Sets (Precision Locking)
- Index Locking



# PREDICATE LOCKING


```
SELECT COUNT(*) AS cnt  
FROM people  
WHERE status='paid';
```

```
INSERT INTO people VALUES  
(101, 'DJCache', 'paid');
```



*Records in Table "people"*

 status='paid'

 name='DJCache' ^  
status='paid'

# INDEX LOCKING

---

Special case of **predicate locking** that acquires locks on key ranges in indexes.

- If there is an index on the **status** attribute then the txn locks index page containing the data with **status='paid'**.
- If there are no records with **status='paid'**, the txn locks the index page where such a data entry would be, if it existed.

Different approaches:

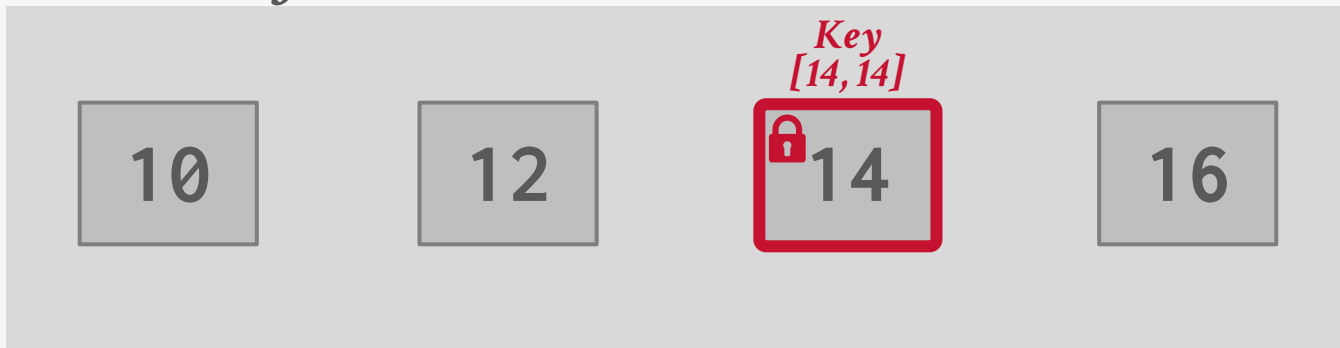
- Key-Value Locks
- Gap Locks
- Key-Range Locks
- Hierarchical Locking

# KEY-VALUE LOCKS

---

Locks that cover a single key-value in an index.  
Need “virtual keys” for non-existent values.

## *B+Tree Leaf Node*

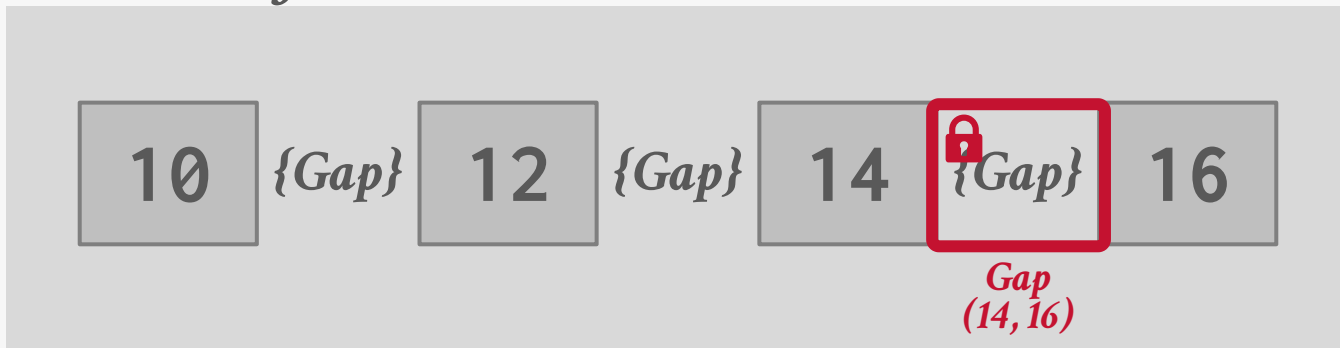


# GAP LOCKS

---

Each txn acquires a key-value lock on the single key that it wants to access. Then get a gap lock on the next key gap.

## *B+Tree Leaf Node*



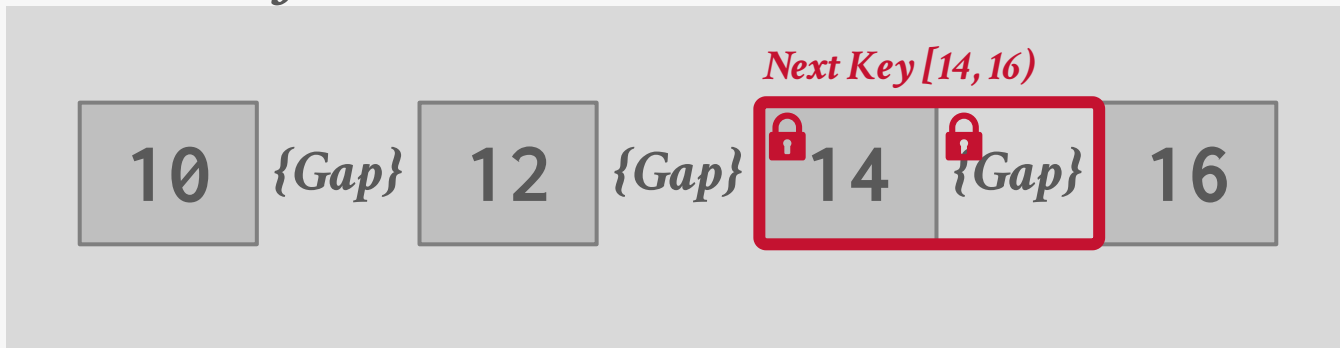
# KEY-RANGE LOCKS

---

Locks that cover a key value and the gap to the next key value in a single index.

→ Need “virtual keys” for artificial values (infinity)

## *B+Tree Leaf Node*



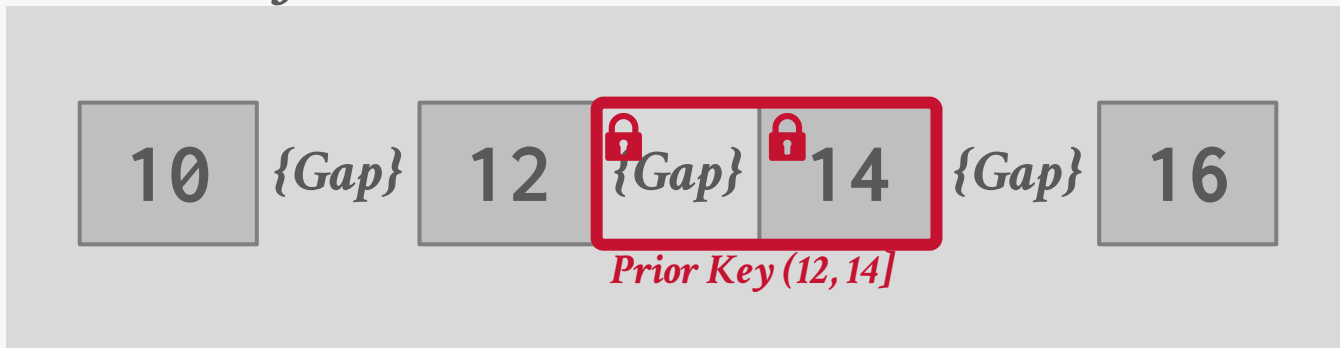
# KEY-RANGE LOCKS

---

Locks that cover a key value and the gap to the next key value in a single index.

→ Need “virtual keys” for artificial values (infinity)

## *B+Tree Leaf Node*



# HIERARCHICAL LOCKING

---

Allow for a txn to hold wider key-range locks with different locking modes.

→ Reduces the number of visits to lock manager.

## *B+Tree Leaf Node*



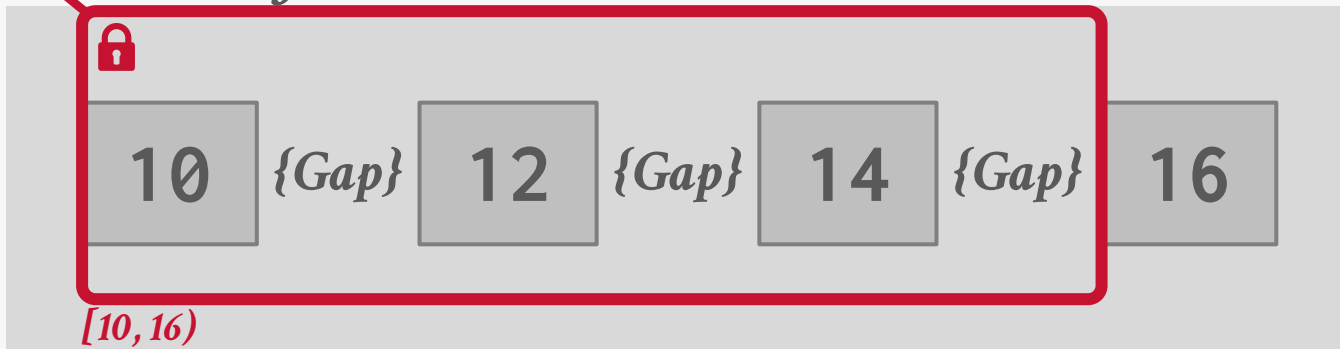
# HIERARCHICAL LOCKING

Allow for a txn to hold wider key-range locks with different locking modes.

→ Reduces the number of visits to lock manager.

**IX**

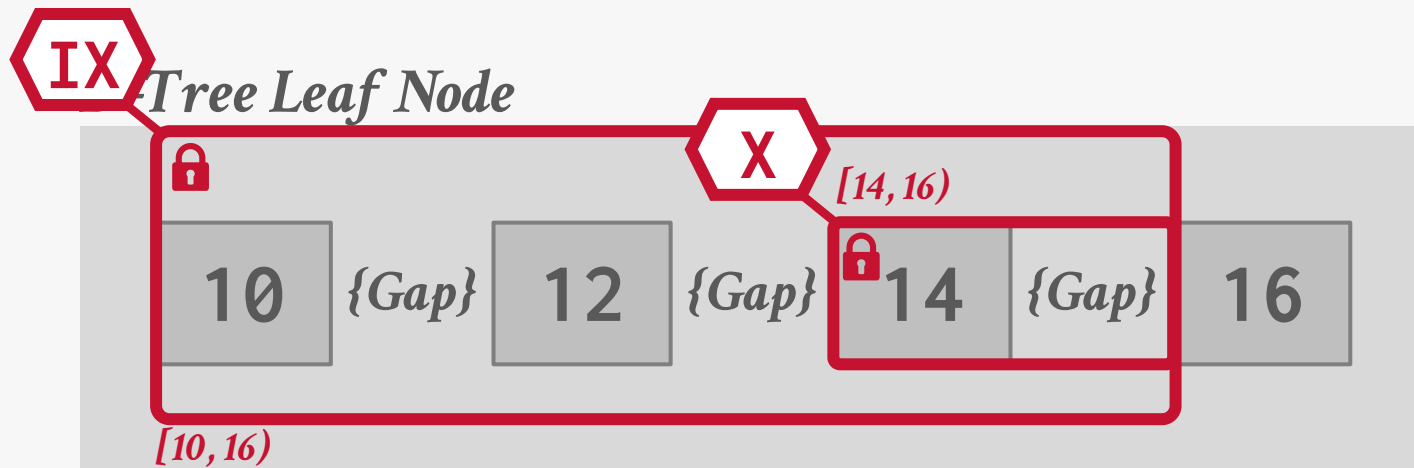
*Tree Leaf Node*



# HIERARCHICAL LOCKING

Allow for a txn to hold wider key-range locks with different locking modes.

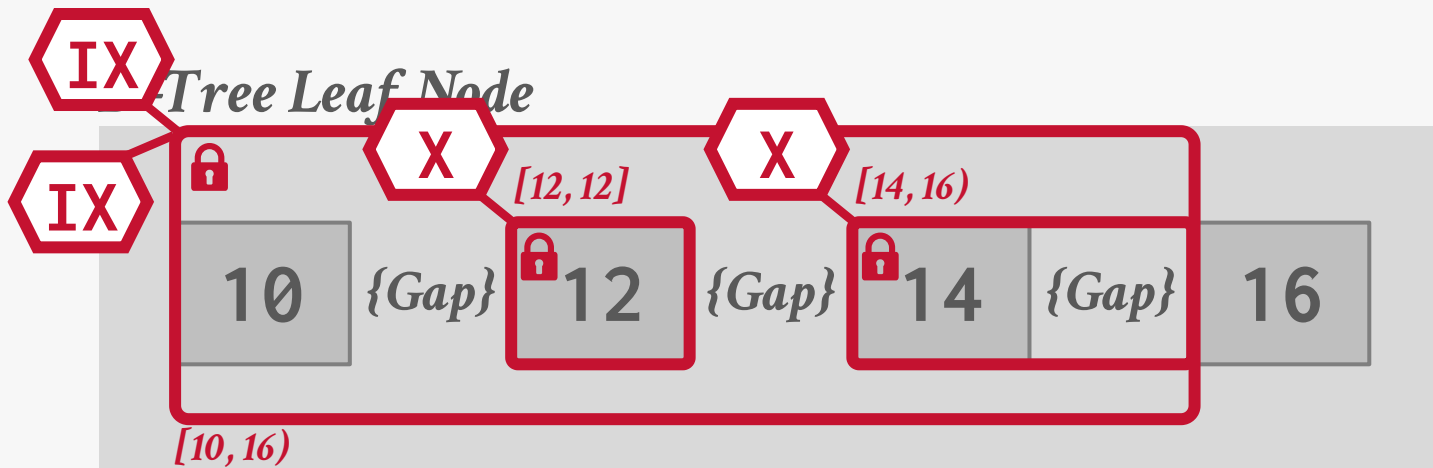
→ Reduces the number of visits to lock manager.



# HIERARCHICAL LOCKING

Allow for a txn to hold wider key-range locks with different locking modes.

→ Reduces the number of visits to lock manager.



# WEAKER LEVELS OF ISOLATION

---

Serializability is useful because it allows programmers to ignore concurrency issues.

But enforcing it may allow too little concurrency and limit performance.

The DBMS may want to use a weaker level of consistency to improve parallelism opportunities.

# ISOLATION LEVELS

---

Controls the extent that a txn is exposed to the actions of other concurrent txns.

Provides for greater concurrency at the cost of exposing txns to uncommitted changes:

- Dirty Reads
- Unrepeatable Reads
- Lost Updates
- Phantom Reads

# ISOLATION LEVELS

---

*Isolation (High→Low)*

**SERIALIZABLE:** No phantoms, all reads repeatable, no dirty reads.

**REPEATABLE READS:** Phantoms may happen.

**READ COMMITTED:** Phantoms, unrepeatable reads, and lost updates may happen.

**READ UNCOMMITTED:** All anomalies may happen.

# ISOLATION LEVELS

	<i>Dirty Read</i>	<i>Unrepeatable Read</i>	<i>Lost Updates</i>	<i>Phantom</i>
<b>SERIALIZABLE</b>	<b>No</b>	<b>No</b>	<b>No</b>	<b>No</b>
<b>REPEATABLE READ</b>	<b>No</b>	<b>No</b>	<b>No</b>	<b>Maybe</b>
<b>READ COMMITTED</b>	<b>No</b>	<b>Maybe</b>	<b>Maybe</b>	<b>Maybe</b>
<b>READ UNCOMMITTED</b>	<b>Maybe</b>	<b>Maybe</b>	<b>Maybe</b>	<b>Maybe</b>

# ISOLATION LEVELS

---

**SERIALIZABLE:** Strong Strict 2PL with phantom protection (e.g., index locks).

**REPEATABLE READS:** Same as above, but without phantom protection.

**READ COMMITTED:** Same as above, but **S** locks are released immediately.

**READ UNCOMMITTED:** Same as above but allows dirty reads (no **S** locks).

# SQL-92 ISOLATION LEVELS

---

The application can set a txn's isolation level before it executes any queries in that txn.

```
SET TRANSACTION ISOLATION LEVEL  
<isolation-level>;
```

Not all DBMS support all isolation levels in all execution scenarios  
→ Replicated Environments

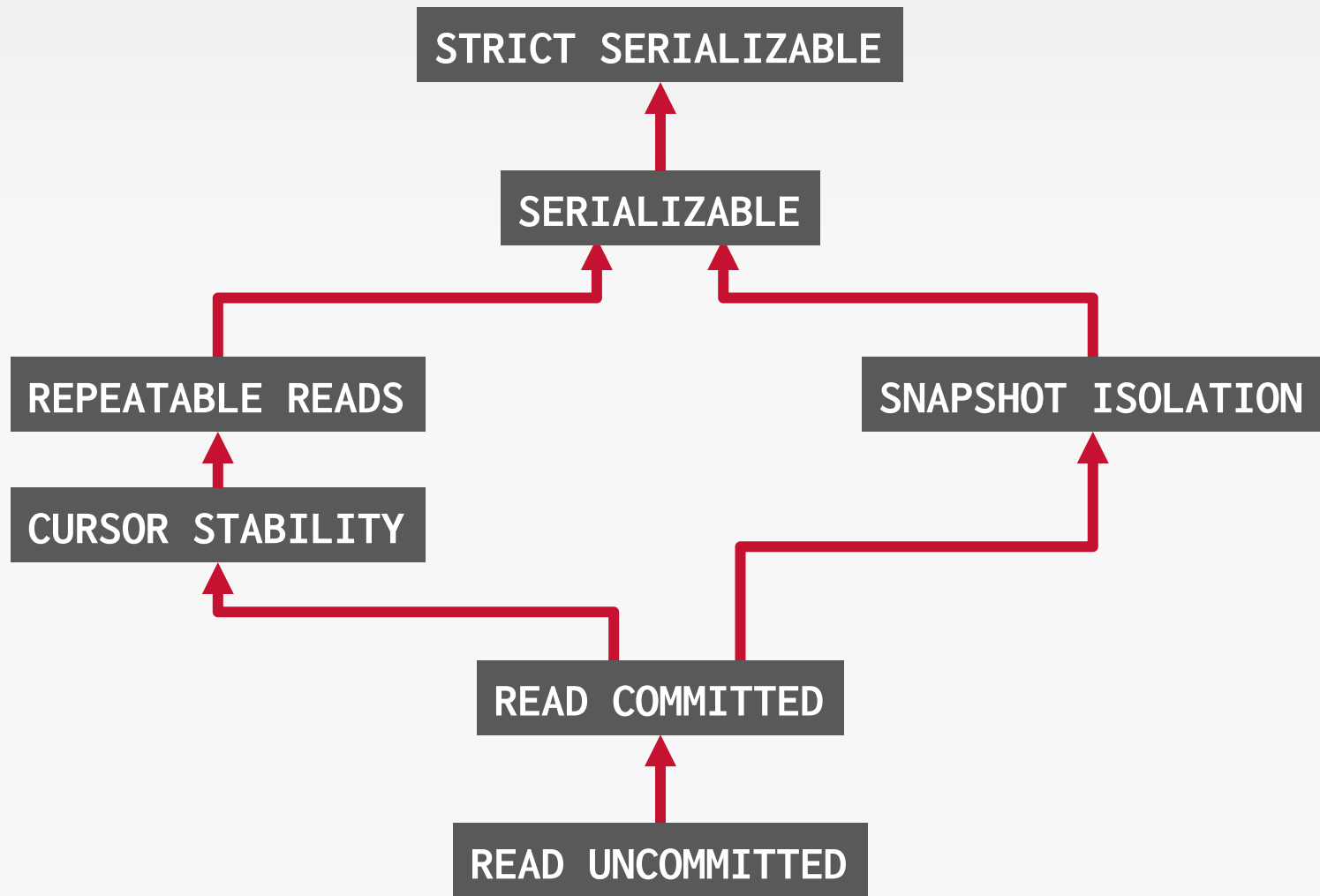
```
BEGIN TRANSACTION ISOLATION LEVEL  
<isolation-level>;
```

The default depends on implementation...

# ISOLATION LEVELS

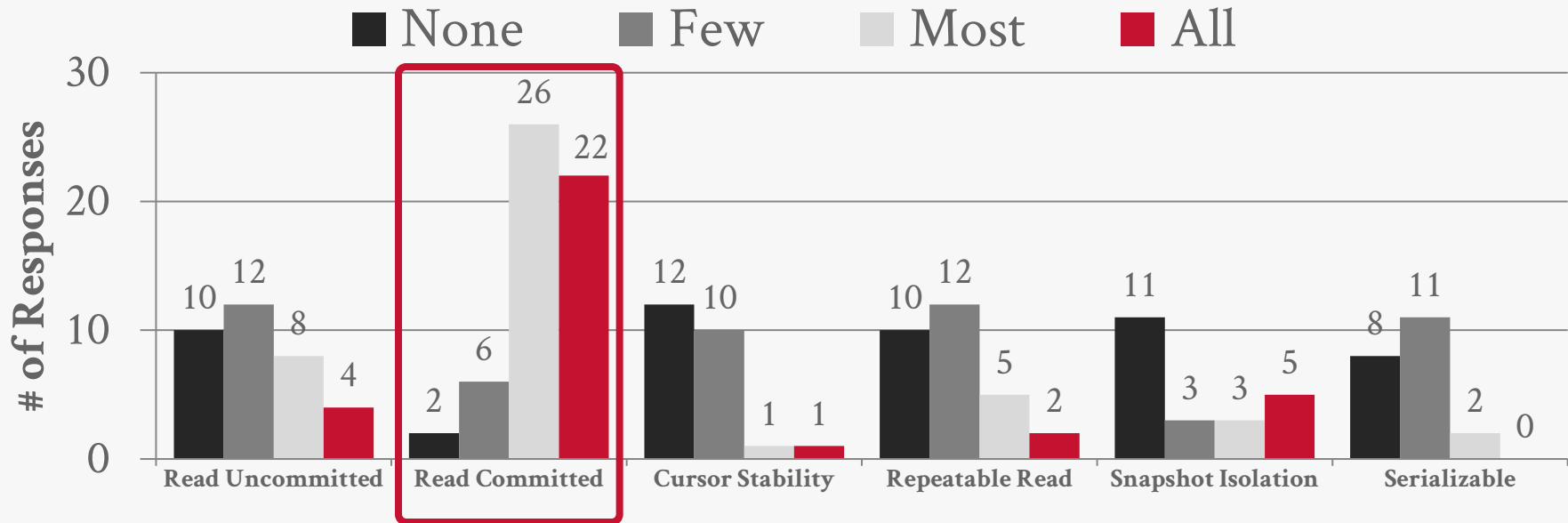
---

	<i>Default</i>	<i>Maximum</i>
Actian Ingres	SERIALIZABLE	SERIALIZABLE
IBM DB2	CURSOR STABILITY	SERIALIZABLE
CockroachDB	SERIALIZABLE	SERIALIZABLE
Google Spanner	STRICT SERIALIZABLE	STRICT SERIALIZABLE
MSFT SQL Server	READ COMMITTED	SERIALIZABLE
MySQL	REPEATABLE READS	SERIALIZABLE
Oracle	READ COMMITTED	SNAPSHOT ISOLATION
PostgreSQL	READ COMMITTED	SERIALIZABLE
SAP HANA	READ COMMITTED	SERIALIZABLE
VoltDB	SERIALIZABLE	SERIALIZABLE
YugabyteDB	SNAPSHOT ISOLATION	SERIALIZABLE



# DATABASE ADMIN SURVEY

What isolation level do transactions execute at on this DBMS?



# SQL-92 ACCESS MODES

---

The application can provide hints to the DBMS about whether a txn will modify the database during its lifetime.

Only two possible modes:

- **READ WRITE** (Default)
- **READ ONLY**

Not all DBMSs will optimize execution when a txn is in **READ ONLY** mode.

```
SET TRANSACTION <access-mode>;
```

```
BEGIN TRANSACTION <access-mode>;
```

# CONCLUSION

---

Every concurrency control protocol can be broken down into the basic concepts that have been described in the last two lectures.

- Pessimistic: Locking
- Optimistic: Timestamps

There is no one protocol that is always better than all others...

# NEXT CLASS

---

## Multi-Version Concurrency Control