Introduction to Databases
《数据库引论》



Lecture 12: Concurrency Control

第12讲:并发控制

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#### Outline of the Course

- Part 0: Overview
  - Lect. 1 (Feb. 29) Ch1: Introduction
- Part 1 Relational Databases
  - Lect. 2 (Mar. 7) Ch2: Relational model (data model, relational algebra)
  - Lect. 3 (Mar. 14) Ch3: SQL (Introduction)
  - Lect. 4 (Mar. 21) Ch4/5: Intermediate and Advanced SQL
- · Part 2 Database Design
  - Lect. 5 (Mar. 28) Ch6: Database design based on E-R model
  - Apr. 4 (Tomb-Sweeping Day): no course
  - Lect. 6 (Apr. 11/18) Ch7: Relational database design
- Midterm exam: Apr. 25
  - 13: 00-15: 00, H3109

- · Part 3 Data Storage & Indexing
  - Lect. 7 (May 2 -> Apr. 28) Ch12/13:
     Storage systems & structures
  - Lect. 8 (May 10) Ch14: Indexing and Hashing
- Part 4 Query Processing & Optimization
  - Lect. 9 (May 17) Ch15: Query processing
  - Lect. 10 (May 24) Ch16: Query optimization
- Part 5 Transaction Management
  - Lect. 11 (May 30) Ch17: Transaction processing
  - Lect. 12 (May 30/Jun. 6) Ch18:
     Concurrency control
  - Lect. 13 (Jun. 13) Ch19: System recovery

Final exam: 13:00-15:00, Jun. 26

#### Outline

#### Concurrent Control

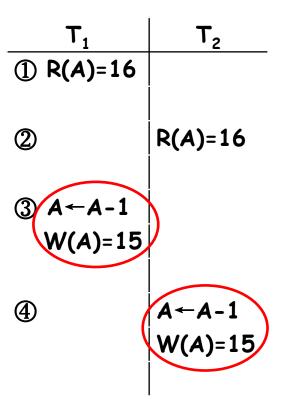
- Lock-based Protocols
- Graph-based Protocols
- Multiple Granularity
- Deadlock Handling

#### Concurrent Control Problems

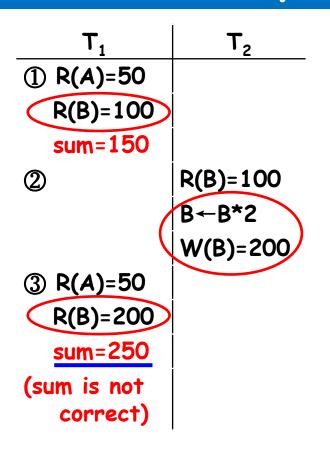
- Problems caused by concurrent transactions
  - Lost Update (丢失修改)
  - Non-repeatable Read (不可重复读)
  - Dirty Read (读 "脏" 数据 )
- Symbols
  - R(x): read x
  - W(x): write x

## Lost Update

- $T_1$  and  $T_2$  read the same data item and modify it
- The committed result of  $T_2$  eliminates the update of  $T_1$



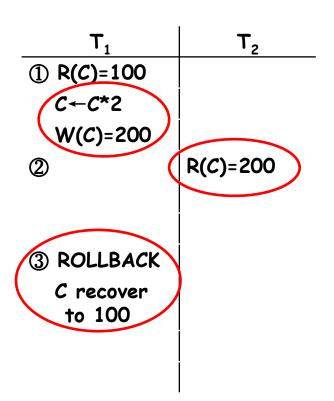
# Non-repeatable Read



- $T_1$  reads B=100
- T<sub>2</sub> reads B, then updates B=200,
   and writes back B
- T<sub>1</sub> reads B again, and B=200, not
   the same as the first read
- · Phantom Phenomenon (幻影现象)
  - records disappear or new records appear for the same query

# Dirty Read

- $T_1$  modifies C to 200,  $T_2$  reads C as 200
- T<sub>1</sub> rolls back for some reason and its modification also rolls back.
   Then C recovers to 100
- T<sub>2</sub> reads C as 200, which is not consistent with the database



#### Outline

- Concurrent Control
- Lock-based Protocols
- Graph-based Protocols
- Multiple Granularity
- Deadlock Handling

#### Lock-based Protocols

- A lock is a mechanism to control concurrent access to a data item
- Data items can be locked in two modes
  - exclusive (X) mode (排他型). Data item can be read and written. X-lock is requested using lock-X instruction
  - shared (5) mode (共享型). Data item can only be read. S-lock is requested using lock-S instruction
- · Lock requests are made to concurrency control manager (并发控制管理器). Transaction can proceed only after the request is granted.

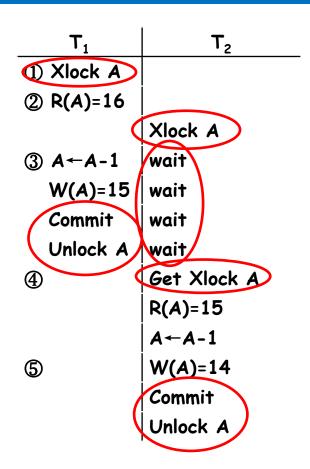
#### Lock-based Protocols (Cont.)

· Lock-compatibility matrix (锁相容性矩阵)

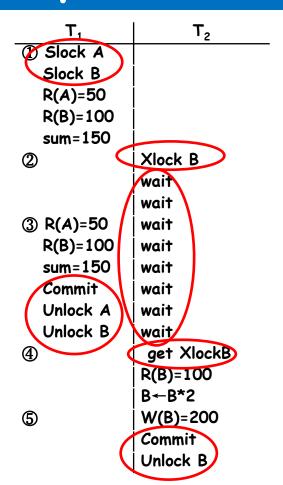
	S	X
S	true	false
X	false	false

- A transaction may be granted a lock on a data item if the requested lock is compatible with locks already held on the data item by other transactions.
- If a lock cannot be granted, the requesting transaction waits till all incompatible locks have been released. The lock is then granted.

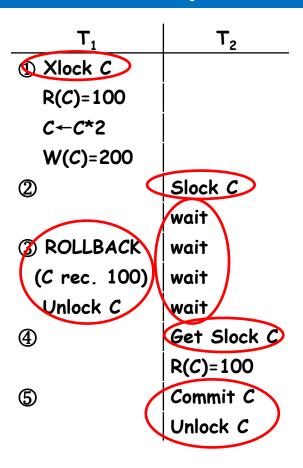
# No Lost Update



# Repeatable Read



# No Dirty Read



#### Lock-based Protocols

```
T: lock-S(A);
read (A);
unlock(A);
lock-S(B);
read (B);
unlock(B);
display(A+B)
```

- Locking as above is not sufficient to guarantee serializability. If A and B get updated in-between the read of A and B, the displayed sum would be wrong
- A locking protocol is a set of rules
  - followed by all transactions while requesting and releasing locks
  - locking protocols restrict the set of possible schedules

## Deadlock (死锁)

Consider the following partial schedule

$T_3$	$T_4$
lock-X(B)	
read(B)	
B := B - 50	
write(B)	
	lock-S(A)
	read(A)
	lock-S(B)
lock-X(A)	

- Such a situation is called a deadlock
  - To handle the deadlock,  $T_3$  or  $T_4$  must be rolled back and release its locks
  - Deadlock exists in most locking protocols

## Starvation (饥饿)

#### Starvation

- E.g., a transaction may be waiting for an X-lock on a data item, while a sequence of other transactions request and are granted an S-lock on the same data item
- The same transaction is repeatedly rolled back due to deadlocks
- Concurrency control manager can be designed to prevent starvation

#### Two-Phase Locking Protocol (两阶段加锁协议)

- 2PL is a protocol which ensures conflict-serializable schedules
  - Phase 1: Growing Phase (增长阶段)
    - transaction can obtain locks but cannot release locks
  - Phase 2: Shrinking Phase (缩减阶段)
    - transaction can release locks but cannot obtain locks
- · The protocol assures serializability. It can be proved that the transactions can be serialized in the order of their lock points (封锁点)
  - Lock point: 事务获得最后加锁的位置

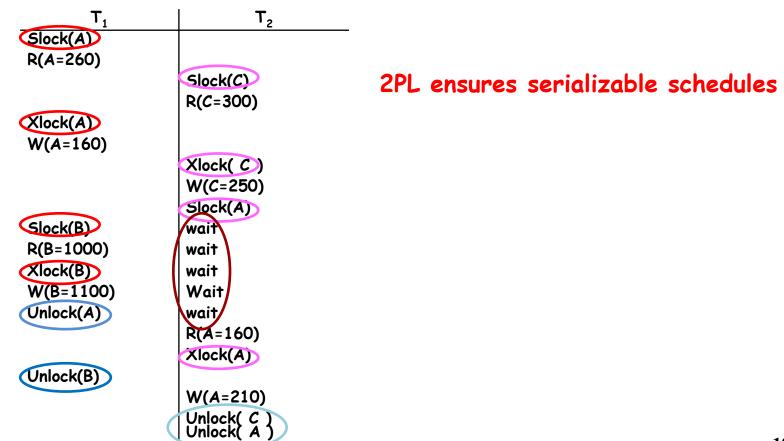
J. D. Ullman. Principles of Databse and Knowledgebase Systems. 1988

· Satisfy 2PL

```
Slock A Slock B Xlock C Unlock B Unlock A Unlock C;
|\leftarrow Growing \qquad \rightarrow | \mid \leftarrow Shrinking \qquad \rightarrow |
```

Not satisfy 2PL

Slock A Unlock A Slock B Xlock C Unlock C Unlock B;



- Two-phase locking cannot avoid deadlocks
- · Example:

$T_3$	$T_4$
lock-X(B)	
read(B)	
B := B - 50	
write(B)	
	lock-S(A)
	$read(\hat{A})$
	lock-S(B)
lock-X(A)	

Cascading roll-back is possible under two-phase locking

$T_5$	$T_6$	$T_7$
lock-x (A) read (A) lock-s (B) read (B) write (A) unlock (A)	lock-x ( <i>A</i> ) read ( <i>A</i> ) write ( <i>A</i> ) unlock ( <i>A</i> )	lock-s (A) read (A)

- To avoid this, follow a modified protocol called **strict two-phase locking** (严格两阶段封锁)
- A transaction must hold all its exclusive locks till it commits

- · Rigorous two-phase locking (强两阶段封锁) is even stricter
  - all locks are held till commit/abort
  - transactions can be serialized in the order in which they commit

## Lock Conversions (锁转换)

Two-phase locking with lock conversions

- Upgrade (升级)
  - lock-S -> lock-X
- Downgrade (降级)
  - lock-X -> lock-S
- This protocol assures serializability

T8:	read(a <sub>1</sub> )	$T_8$	$T_9$
	read(a <sub>2</sub> )	lock-s $(a_1)$	
			lock-s $(a_1)$
	read(a <sub>n</sub> )	lock-s $(a_2)$	$lock-s(a_2)$
	write(a <sub>1</sub> )	$lock-s(a_3)$	10CK-S (u <sub>2</sub> )
		lock-s $(a_4)$	
T9:	read(a₁)		unlock-s $(a_3)$
	read(a <sub>2</sub> )	lock-s $(a_n)$	unlock-s $(a_4)$
	display(a <sub>1</sub> +a <sub>2</sub> )	upgrade $(a_1)$	

## Lock Conversions (锁转换)

- Two-phase locking with lock conversions
  - First Phase:
    - · can acquire a lock-S on item
    - can acquire a lock-X on item
    - can convert a lock-S to a lock-X (upgrade)
  - Second Phase:
    - can release a lock-S
    - can release a lock-X
    - can convert a lock-X to a lock-S (downgrade)
- This protocol assures serializability

## Automatic Acquisition of Locks

- A transaction  $T_i$  issues the standard read/write instruction, without explicit locking calls
- The operation read(D) is processed as:

```
if T_i has a lock on D
then
  read(D)
else
  begin
     if necessary wait until no other transactions have a lock-X on D
        grant T_i a lock-S on D;
    read(D)
  end
```

# Automatic Acquisition of Locks (Cont.)

write(D) is processed as:

if T, has a lock-X on D

```
if T_i has a lock-X on D
  then
    write(D)
  else
    begin
       if necessary wait until no other transactions have any lock on D
       if T<sub>i</sub> has a lock-S on D
          then
             upgrade lock on D to lock-X
       else
          grant T<sub>i</sub> a lock-X on D
          write(D)
   end:
```

All locks are released after commit

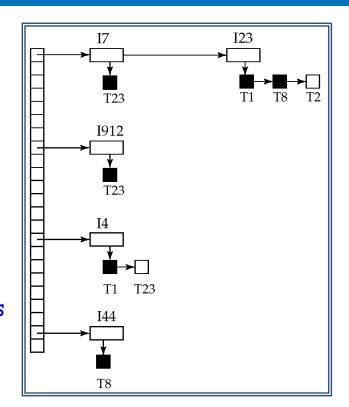
# Implementation of Locking

- · Lock manager (锁管理器)
  - A lock manager can be implemented as a separate process to which transactions send lock and unlock requests
  - The lock manager replies to a lock request by sending a lock grant messages (or a message asking the transaction to roll back, in case of a deadlock)
  - The requesting transaction waits until its request is answered
  - The lock manager maintains a data-structure called a lock table (锁表) to record granted locks and pending requests

 The lock table is usually implemented as an in-memory hash table indexed on the name of the data item being locked

#### Lock Table

- Black rectangles indicate granted locks, and white ones indicate waiting requests
- Lock table also records the type of lock granted or requested
- New request is added to the end of the queue of requests for the data item, and granted if it is compatible with all earlier locks
- Unlock requests result in the related locks being deleted, and waiting requests are checked to see if they can now be granted
- If transaction aborts, all waiting or granted requests of the transaction are deleted
  - lock manager may keep a list of locks held by each transaction, to implement this efficiently



#### Outline

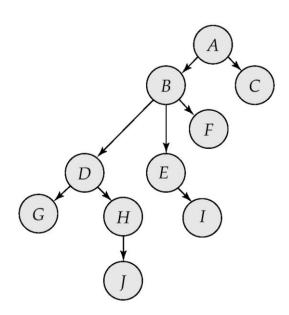
- Concurrent Control
- Lock-based Protocols
- Graph-based Protocols
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- Deadlock Handling

## Graph-based Protocols

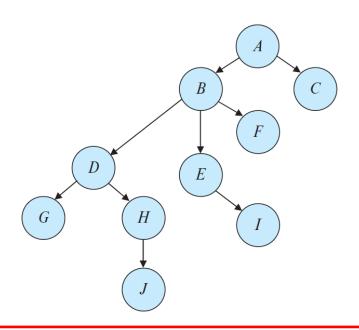
- Graph-based protocols are an alternative to two-phase locking
  - Impose a partial ordering  $\rightarrow$  (偏序) on the set  $D = \{d_1, d_2, ..., d_h\}$  of all data items
  - If  $d_i o d_j$  then any transaction accessing both  $d_i$  and  $d_j$  must access  $d_i$  before accessing  $d_j$
  - Implies that the set D may now be viewed as a directed acyclic graph, called a database graph
- The tree-protocol is a simple kind of graph protocol.

#### Tree Protocol

- Only exclusive locks are allowed
  - The first lock by  $T_i$  may be on any data item
  - Subsequently, a data Q can be locked by  $T_i$  only if the parent of Q is currently locked by  $T_i$
  - Data items may be unlocked at any time
  - A data item cannot be relocked by  $T_i$



## Graph-based Protocols



 $T_{10} \colon \mathsf{lock-X}(B); \, \mathsf{lock-X}(E); \, \mathsf{lock-X}(D); \, \mathsf{unlock}(B); \, \mathsf{unlock}(E); \, \mathsf{lock-X}(G); \\ \, \mathsf{unlock}(D); \, \mathsf{unlock}(G).$ 

 $T_{11}$ : lock-X(D); lock-X(H); unlock(D); unlock(H).

 $T_{12}$ : lock-X(B); lock-X(E); unlock(E); unlock(B).

 $T_{13}$ : lock-X(D); lock-X(H); unlock(D); unlock(H).

$\begin{array}{c ccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$	T	T	T	T
$\begin{array}{c ccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$	$T_{10}$	$T_{11}$	$T_{12}$	$T_{13}$
$\begin{array}{c ccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$	lock-X(B)			
$\begin{array}{c ccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$		lock-X(D)		
$\begin{array}{c ccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$		lock-X(H)		
$\begin{array}{c c} lock-X(D) \\ unlock(B) \\ unlock(E) \\ \\ \\ lock-X(B) \\ lock-X(E) \\ \\ \\ lock-X(B) \\ lock-X(E) \\ \\ \\ \\ \\ \\ \\ \\ \\ \\ \\ \\ \\ \\ \\ \\ \\ \\ \\$		unlock(D)		
$\begin{array}{c} \operatorname{unlock}(B) \\ \operatorname{unlock}(E) \\ \\ \operatorname{lock-X}(B) \\ \operatorname{lock-X}(E) \\ \\ \operatorname{lock-X}(B) \\ \operatorname{lock-X}(E) \\ \\ \\ \operatorname{lock-X}(D) \\ \operatorname{lock-X}(H) \\ \operatorname{unlock}(D) \\ \\ \operatorname{unlock}(E) \\ \end{array}$	lock-X(E)			
$\begin{array}{c c} \operatorname{unlock}(E) & & \operatorname{lock-X}(B) \\ \operatorname{lock-X}(G) & \operatorname{lock-X}(E) \\ \operatorname{unlock}(D) & & \operatorname{lock-X}(D) \\ \operatorname{lock-X}(H) & \operatorname{lock-X}(H) \\ \operatorname{unlock}(D) & \operatorname{unlock}(E) \\ \end{array}$	lock-X(D)			
$\begin{array}{c c} \operatorname{lock-X}(B) \\ \operatorname{lock-X}(G) \\ \operatorname{unlock}(D) \\ \end{array}  \begin{array}{c c} \operatorname{lock-X}(B) \\ \operatorname{lock-X}(E) \\ \end{array}  \begin{array}{c c} \operatorname{lock-X}(D) \\ \operatorname{lock-X}(H) \\ \operatorname{unlock}(D) \\ \end{array}  \begin{array}{c c} \operatorname{lock-X}(D) \\ \operatorname{lock-X}(H) \\ \operatorname{unlock}(D) \\ \operatorname{unlock}(H) \\ \end{array}$				
$\begin{array}{c ccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$	unlock(E)			
$\begin{array}{c c} lock\text{-}X(G) \\ unlock(D) \\ & & lock\text{-}X(D) \\ & & lock\text{-}X(D) \\ lock\text{-}X(H) \\ & & unlock(D) \\ & & unlock(E) \\ \end{array}$			` '	
$\begin{array}{c c} lock-X(G) \\ unlock(D) \\ \\ & lock-X(D) \\ lock-X(H) \\ unlock(D) \\ unlock(H) \\ \\ \\ & unlock(E) \\ \end{array}$			lock-X(E)	
$\begin{array}{c c} unlock(D) & & lock-X(D) \\ lock-X(H) & lock-X(H) \\ unlock(D) & unlock(H) \\ \end{array}$	1 1 24(6)	unlock(H)		
$\begin{array}{c} \operatorname{lock-X}(D) \\ \operatorname{lock-X}(H) \\ \operatorname{unlock}(D) \\ \operatorname{unlock}(H) \end{array}$				
$\begin{array}{c} \operatorname{lock-X}(H) \\ \operatorname{unlock}(D) \\ \operatorname{unlock}(H) \end{array}$	unlock(D)			La ala W(D)
				` ′
unlock(E)				, ,
			unlock $(F)$	
			` ′	
unlock(G)	unlock(G)			

$$T_{11} \rightarrow T_{10} \rightarrow T_{12} \rightarrow T_{13}$$
  
 $T_{11} \rightarrow T_{10} \rightarrow T_{13} \rightarrow T_{12}$ 

## Graph-based Protocols

- The tree protocol ensures conflict serializability as well as freedom from deadlock
- Unlocking may occur earlier than in the two-phase locking protocol-2PL
  - shorter waiting times, and increase in concurrency
  - protocol is deadlock-free, no rollbacks are required
  - the abort of a transaction can still lead to cascading rollbacks
- However, may have to lock data items that it does not access
  - increased locking overhead, and additional waiting time
  - potential decrease in concurrency

## Timestamp-based Protocols

- Each transaction is issued a timestamp when it enters the system. If an old transaction  $T_i$  has timestamp  $\mathsf{TS}(T_i)$ , a new transaction  $T_j$  is assigned timestamp  $\mathsf{TS}(T_i)$  such that  $\mathsf{TS}(T_i)$   $<\mathsf{TS}(T_i)$ .
- The protocol manages concurrent execution such that the timestamps determine the serializability order
- In order to assure such behavior, the protocol maintains for each data Q two timestamp values:
  - W-timestamp(Q) is the largest time-stamp of any transaction that executed write(Q) successfully
  - R-timestamp(Q) is the largest time-stamp of any transaction that executed read(Q) successfully.

# Timestamp-based Protocols (Cont.)

- The timestamp ordering protocol ensures that any conflicting read and write operations are executed in timestamp order
- Suppose a transaction  $T_i$  issues a read(Q)
  - If  $TS(T_i) < W$ -timestamp(Q), then  $T_i$  needs to read a value of Q that was already overwritten
    - the read operation is rejected, and  $T_i$  is rolled back
  - If  $TS(T_i) \ge W$ -timestamp(Q), then the read operation is executed, and R-timestamp(Q) is set to max(R-timestamp(Q),  $TS(T_i)$ )

# Timestamp-based Protocols (Cont.)

- Suppose that transaction  $T_i$  issues write(Q).
  - If  $TS(T_i)$  < R-timestamp(Q), then the value of Q that  $T_i$  is producing was needed previously, and the system assumed that that value would never be produced.
    - Hence, the write operation is rejected, and  $T_i$  is rolled back.
  - If  $TS(T_i) < W-timestamp(Q)$ , then  $T_i$  is attempting to write an obsolete value of Q.
    - Hence, this write operation is rejected, and  $T_i$  is rolled back.
  - Otherwise, the write operation is executed, and W-timestamp(Q) is set to  $TS(T_i)$ .

## Timestamp-based Protocols (Cont.)

```
T_{26}
                                              T_{25}
T_{25}: read(B);
     read(A);
                                        read(B)
     display(A + B).
                                                           read(B)
                                                           write(B)
T_{26}: read(B);
                                        read(A)
     B := B - 50:
                                                           read(A)
     write(B);
                                        display(A + B)
     read(A);
     A := A + 50;
     write(A);
     display(A + B).
```

 $T_{25} -> T_{26}$ 

## Timestamp-based Protocols (Cont.)

 The timestamp-ordering protocol guarantees serializability since all the arcs in the precedence graph are of the form:



- Thus, there will be no cycles in the precedence graph
- Timestamp protocol ensures freedom from deadlock as no transaction ever waits
- But the schedule may not be cascade-free, and may not even be recoverable

#### Outline

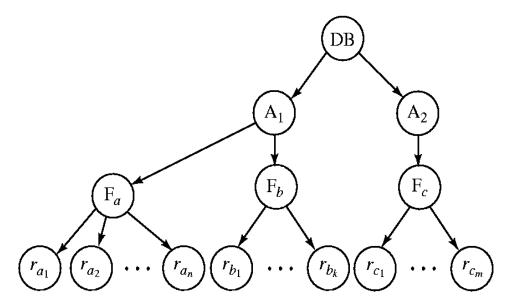
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## Multiple Granularity

- Allow data items to be of various sizes and define a hierarchy of data granularities
  - Database -> tables -> tuples -> attributes
- Can be represented graphically as a tree
- When a transaction locks a node in the tree explicitly, it implicitly locks all the node's descendants in the same mode
- Granularity of locking:
  - fine granularity (lower in tree): high concurrency, high locking overhead
  - coarse granularity (higher in tree): low locking overhead, low concurrency

## Example of Granularity Hierarchy

- The highest level in the example hierarchy is the entire database.
- The levels below are of type area, file (table) and record (tuple) in that order.



How to efficiently determine whether a lock can be imposed on a node?

## Intention Lock (意向锁) Modes

- Three additional lock modes with multiple granularity:
  - intention-shared (IS)
    - indicates explicit locking at a lower level of the tree but only with shared locks
  - intention-exclusive (IX)
    - indicates explicit locking at a lower level with exclusive or shared locks
  - shared and intention-exclusive (SIX)
    - the subtree rooted by that node is locked explicitly in shared mode and explicit locking is being done at a lower level with exclusive-mode locks
- Intention locks allow a higher level node to be locked in S or X mode without having to check all descendent nodes.

#### Compatibility Matrix with Intention Lock Modes

	IS	IX	5	SIX	X
IS	✓	✓	✓	✓	×
IX	✓	✓	×	×	×
5	<b>✓</b>	×	✓	×	×
SIX	<b>✓</b>	×	×	×	×
X	×	×	×	×	×

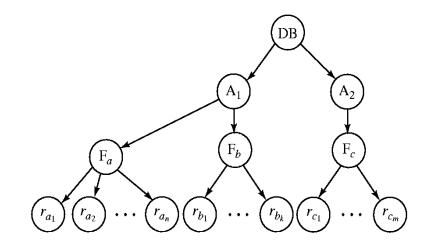
## Multiple Granularity Locking Scheme

- Transaction  $T_i$  can lock a node Q, using the following rules:
  - The lock compatibility matrix must be observed.
  - The root of the tree must be locked first, and may be locked in any mode.
  - A node Q can be locked by  $T_i$  in S or IS mode only if the parent of Q is currently locked by  $T_i$  in either IX or IS mode.
  - A node Q can be locked by  $T_i$  in X, SIX, or IX mode only if the parent of Q is currently locked by  $T_i$  in either IX or SIX mode.
  - $T_i$  can lock a node only if it has not previously unlocked any node (that is,  $T_i$  is two-phase).
  - $T_i$  can unlock a node Q only if none of the children of Q are currently locked by  $T_i$ .
- Locks are acquired in root-to-leaf order, whereas they are released in leafto-root order
- The multiple-granularity locking protocol can ensure serializability
- Deadlock is possible in the multiple-granularity protocol, as it is in the two-phase locking protocol

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# Multiple Granularity Locking Scheme

- Suppose that transaction T21 reads record  $r_{a2}$  in file  $F_a$ . Then, T21 needs to lock the database, area  $A_1$ , and  $F_a$  in IS mode (and in that order), and finally to lock  $r_{a2}$  in S mode.
- Suppose that transaction T22 modifies record  $r_{a9}$  in file  $F_a$ . Then, T22 needs to lock the database, area  $A_1$ , and file  $F_a$  (and in that order) in IX mode, and finally to lock  $r_{a9}$  in X mode.
- Suppose that transaction T23 reads all the records in file  $F_a$ . Then, T23 needs to lock the database and area  $A_1$  (and in that order) in IS mode, and finally to lock  $F_a$  in S mode.
- Suppose that transaction T24 reads the entire database. It can do so after locking the database in S mode



#### Outline

- Concurrent Control
- Lock-based Protocols
- Graph-based Protocols
- Multiple Granularity
- Deadlock Handling

#### Deadlock Handling

Consider the following two transactions:

```
T_1: write(X) T_2: write(Y) write(Y)
```

Schedule with deadlock

<b>T</b> <sub>1</sub>	T <sub>2</sub>
lock-X on X write (X)  wait for lock-X on Y	lock-X on Y write (Y) wait for lock-X on X

### Deadlock Handling

- System is deadlocked if there is a set of transactions such that every transaction in the set is waiting for another transaction in the set
- Deadlock prevention protocols ensure that the system will never enter into a deadlock state.
  - Require that each transaction locks all its data items before it begins execution (pre-declaration).
  - Impose partial ordering of all data items and require that a transaction can lock data items only in the order specified by the partial order (graph-based protocol).

#### More Deadlock Prevention Strategies

- Following schemes use transaction timestamps for the sake of deadlock prevention
  - wait-die scheme non-preemptive(非抢占)
    - older transactions wait for younger ones to release data items,
       younger transactions never wait for older ones and roll back instead.
    - one transaction may die several times before acquiring the needed data item
  - wound-wait scheme preemptive(抢占)
    - older transactions would force the rollback of younger transactions instead of waiting for them, younger transactions may wait for older ones.
    - may be fewer rollbacks than wait-die scheme

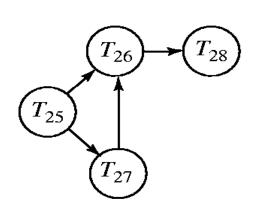
#### Deadlock Prevention (Cont.)

- Both in wait-die and in wound-wait schemes
  - a rolled back transactions is restarted with its original timestamp
  - older transactions thus have precedence over newer ones, and starvation is hence avoided
- · Timeout-based schemes (基于超时的机制)
  - a transaction waits for a lock for a specified amount of time. After that, the transaction is rolled back
  - thus deadlocks are not possible
  - simple to implement but starvation is possible. Also difficult to determine the good value of the timeout interval.

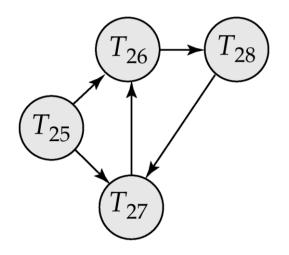
#### Deadlock Detection

- Deadlocks can be described as a wait-for graph(等待图) G = (V,E)
  - V is a set of vertices (all the transactions in the system)
  - E is a set of edges; each element is an ordered pair  $T_i \rightarrow T_j$
  - If  $T_i \to T_j$  is in E, then there is a directed edge from  $T_i$  to  $T_j$ , implying that  $T_i$  is waiting for  $T_j$  to release a data item
- The system is in a deadlock state iff the wait-for graph has a cycle.
   Must invoke a deadlock-detection algorithm periodically to look for cycles.

## Deadlock Detection (Cont.)



Wait-for graph without a cycle



Wait-for graph with a cycle

#### Deadlock Recovery

- When deadlock is detected
  - Some transaction needs to roll back
  - Rollback -- determine how far to roll back the transaction
    - Total rollback: abort the transaction and then restart it
    - Partial rollback: more effective to roll back transaction only as far as necessary to break the deadlock
  - Starvation happens if same transaction is always chosen as victim
  - Include the number of rollbacks in the cost factor to avoid starvation

# Assignments

• Practice exercises: 18.2

• Submission: 12:59pm, June 12, 2024

## End of Lecture 12