1 Types of Parallelism

For each of the following scenarios, state whether it is an example of:

- Inter-query parallelism
- Intra-query, inter-operator parallelism
- Intra-query, intra-operator parallelism
- No parallelism

1. A query with a selection, followed by a projection, followed by a join, runs on a single machine with one thread.
   
   Answer: No parallelism. It might look like a pipeline, but at any given point in time there is only one thing happening, since there is only one thread.

2. Same as before, but there is a second machine and a second query, running independently of the first machine and the first query.
   
   Answer: Inter-query parallelism.

3. A query with a selection, followed by a projection, runs on a single machine with multiple threads; one thread is given to the selection and one thread is given to the projection.
   
   Answer: Intra-query, inter-operator parallelism.

4. We have a single machine, and it runs recursive hash partitioning (for external hashing) with one thread.
   
   Answer: No parallelism, because there is only one machine and one thread. Don’t confuse this with parallel hashing!

5. We have a multi-machine database, and we are running a join over it. For the join, we are running parallel sort-merge join.
   
   Answer: Intra-query, intra-operator parallelism. We have a single query and a single operator, but that single operator is going to do multiple things at the same time (across different machines).
2 Partitioning for Parallelism

1. Suppose we have a table of size 50,000 KB, and our database has 10 machines. Each machine has 100 pages of buffer, and a page is 4 KB.
   
   We would like to perform parallel sorting on this table, so first, we perfectly range partition the data. Then on each machine, we run standard external sorting.

   How many passes does this external sort on each machine take?

   Answer: 2 passes.

   After range partitioning, each table will have 5,000 KB of data, or 1,250 pages. With 100 pages of buffer, this will take 2 passes to sort.

2. Suppose we were doing parallel hash join. The first step is to partition the data across the machines, and we usually use hash partitioning to do this.

   Would range partitioning also work? What about round-robin partitioning?

   Answer: Range partitioning also works, because items with the same key still end up on the same machine as required. Round-robin partitioning does not do that, so it does not work.

3. Suppose we have a table of 1200 rows, perfectly range-partitioned across 3 machines in order.

   We just bought a 4th machine for our database, and we want to run parallel sorting using all 4 machines.

   The first step in parallel sorting is to repartition the data across all 4 machines, using range partitioning.
   (The new machine will get the last range.)

   For each of the first 3 machines, how many rows will it send across the network during the repartitioning? (You can assume the new ranges are also perfectly uniform.)

   Answer: 100 rows, 200 rows, and 300 rows.

   The original partitions were 3 ranges of 400 rows each; the new 4 ranges will have 300 rows each.
   The first machine held the first 400 rows originally, and now only needs to hold the first 300. It will send the remaining 100 rows over the network (to machine 2).
   The second machine held rows 401-800 initially, but now needs to hold rows 301-600. It will send rows 601-800 (200 rows) to machine 3.
   The third machine held rows 801-1200 initially, and similarly needs to send rows 901-1200 (300 rows) to machine 4.
3 Transactions and Concurrency

In this question, we will explore the key topics of transactions and concurrency: serializability, types of locks, two-phase locking, and deadlocks.

We will do this by actually running multiple transactions at the same time on a database, and seeing what happens. You may find it helpful (but not necessary) to draw some graphs:

- For the lock type questions, you may wish to draw a graph representing the whole database and which resources are being locked.
- For serializability questions, you may wish to draw a graph with a node for each transaction, and arrows if there are conflicts between transactions.
- For deadlock questions, you may wish to draw a graph with a node for each transaction, and arrows if a transaction is waiting for a lock held by another transaction.

We will use a database with tables A, B, C, ... and table A holds rows A1, A2, A3, ... and so on.

Consider the following sequence of operations:

<p>| | | | |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Txn 1:</td>
<td>IX-Lock(Database)</td>
<td></td>
<td>(1)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Txn 1:</td>
<td>IX-Lock(Table A)</td>
<td></td>
<td>(2)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Txn 1:</td>
<td>X-Lock(Row A1)</td>
<td></td>
<td>(3)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Txn 1:</td>
<td>Write(Row A1)</td>
<td></td>
<td>(4)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Txn 1:</td>
<td>Unlock(Row A1)</td>
<td></td>
<td>(5)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Txn 1:</td>
<td>S-Lock(Row A2)</td>
<td></td>
<td>(6)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Txn 2:</td>
<td>IX-Lock(Database)</td>
<td></td>
<td>(7)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Txn 2:</td>
<td>IX-Lock(Table A)</td>
<td></td>
<td>(8)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Txn 2:</td>
<td>X-Lock(Row A1)</td>
<td></td>
<td>(9)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Txn 2:</td>
<td>Write(Row A1)</td>
<td></td>
<td>(10)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Txn 2:</td>
<td>S-Lock(Row A2)</td>
<td></td>
<td>(11)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Txn 2:</td>
<td>Read(Row A2)</td>
<td></td>
<td>(12)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

1. Is Transaction 1 doing Two-Phase Locking so far?
   Answer: No; we have a lock (6) after unlock (5).

2. Is Transaction 1 doing Strict Two-Phase Locking?
   Answer: No; it’s not even Two-Phase.

3. Is this schedule conflict-serializable so far? If not, what is the cycle?
   Answer: Yes, it is conflict-serializable; there is only one conflict (4 → 10), so it is serializable to a serial order of Txn 1 → Txn 2.

4. Is this schedule serial so far?
   Answer: Yes! Since all of Txn 1’s operations are before Txn 2’s operations, it is actually already a serial order.
Continuing with all operations so far:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Transaction</th>
<th>Operation</th>
<th>Line</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Txn 2</td>
<td>SIX-Lock(Table B)</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Txn 2</td>
<td>X-Lock(Row B1)</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Txn 2</td>
<td>Write(Row B1)</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Txn 2</td>
<td>Unlock(Row B1)</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Txn 2</td>
<td>Unlock(Table B)</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Txn 1</td>
<td>SIX-Lock(Table B)</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Txn 1</td>
<td>X-Lock(Row B1)</td>
<td>19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Txn 1</td>
<td>Read(Row B1)</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

5. Is Transaction 2 doing Two-Phase Locking so far?
   Answer: Yes. All locks (< 17) are before unlocks (17, 18).

6. Is Transaction 2 doing Strict Two-Phase Locking?
   Answer: No! For strict two-phase, we must commit the transaction before doing any unlocks.

7. Is this schedule conflict-serializable so far? If not, what is the cycle?
   Answer: No, not anymore. We have T1 → T2 from conflict 4 → 10, and T2 → T1 from conflict 15 → 20. The cycle is T1 ↔ T2.

8. Suppose we start a new transaction, Transaction 3. What kind of locks can Transaction 3 acquire on the whole database?
   The database currently has two IX locks held by Txn 1 and Txn 2. Looking at the compatibility matrix, we see that **IS and IX** are the locks compatible with IX locks, so these are the locks that Txn 3 can acquire on the database.

9. Given the above answers, what kind of locks can Transaction 3 acquire on Table A?
   On the parent of Table A (the whole database), we know we can acquire IS and IX locks (from the previous question). These locks allow us to acquire S, X, IS, IX, and SIX locks below it.
   Which of these can we actually acquire? Table A currently has two IX locks held by Txn 1 and Txn 2, so the compatibility matrix says **IS and IX** locks only.

10. Given the above answers, what kind of locks can Transaction 3 acquire on Row A3?
    On the parent of Row A3 (Table A), we know we can acquire IS and IX locks (from the previous question). These locks allow us to acquire S, X, IS, IX, and SIX locks below it.
    Which of these can we actually acquire? Row A3 has no locks currently, so we can acquire any of these! But this is a leaf node and I locks are for intermediate nodes only, so in practice we can only acquire **S and X locks**.

11. Given the above answers, what kind of locks can Transaction 3 acquire on Table B?
    On the parent of Table B (the whole database), we know we can acquire IS and IX locks (from the previous question). These locks allow us to acquire S, X, IS, IX, and SIX locks below it.
    Which of these can we actually acquire? Table B currently has an SIX lock, so the compatibility matrix says **IS locks** only.

12. Given the above answers, what kind of locks can Transaction 3 acquire on Row B2?
    On the parent of Row B2 (Table B), we know we can acquire IS locks (from the previous question). These locks allow us to acquire S and IS locks below it.
Which of these can we actually acquire? Row B2 has no locks currently, so we can acquire any of these! But this is a leaf node and I locks are for intermediate nodes only, so in practice we can only acquire the **S lock**.

13. What kind of locks can Transaction 1 acquire on Row B2?

Transaction 1 currently holds an SIX lock on the parent of Row B2 (Table B), which allows it to acquire X and IX locks below it. Which of these can it actually acquire? Row B2 has no locks, so it can acquire either of them; however, I locks are for intermediate nodes only, so it can just acquire the **X lock**.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Transaction</th>
<th>Lock Type</th>
<th>Row</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Txn 2</td>
<td>IX-Lock(Table B)</td>
<td>(21)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Txn 3</td>
<td>IX-Lock(Database)</td>
<td>(22)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Txn 3</td>
<td>X-Lock(Table C)</td>
<td>(23)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Txn 3</td>
<td>IX-Lock(Table A)</td>
<td>(24)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Txn 3</td>
<td>X-Lock(Row A1)</td>
<td>(25)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Txn 1</td>
<td>IX-Lock(Table C)</td>
<td>(26)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

14. We have now entered a deadlock. What is the waits-for cycle between the transactions?

- T1 (26) waits on T3 (23).
- T3 (25) waits on T2 (9).
- T2 (21) waits on T1 (18).

15. We can end this deadlock by aborting the youngest transaction. Which transaction do we abort?

The youngest transaction is **T3**, so we abort that one.

Alternatively, we could have avoided this deadlock in the first place by using **wound-wait** or **wait-die**. Recall from lecture that these methods cause transactions to sometimes abort, according to a priority order, when they try to acquire locks.

Let’s say that the priority of the transaction is its number (Txn 1 is highest priority).

16. If we were using **wound-wait**, what is the **first operation** in this sequence that would cause a transaction to get aborted, and which transaction gets aborted?

In **wound-wait**, the only waiting that happens is lower priority waiting for higher priority. If a higher priority transaction tries to wait, it will just abort (“wound”) the transaction it is waiting on. At (21), T2 can wait on T1. At (25), T3 can wait on T2. **But at (26), T1 will not wait on T3; it will instead abort T3.**

17. If we were using **wait-die**, what is the **first operation** in this sequence that would cause a transaction to get aborted, and which transaction gets aborted?

In **wait-die**, the only waiting that happens is higher priority waiting for lower priority. If a lower priority transaction tries to wait, it will just abort itself (“die”) instead. At (21), T2 will **not** wait on T1, since T2 is lower priority. Thus, T2 will **abort**.
4 Database Design

As chancellor of UC Berkeley, you are tasked with designing a new final exam scheduling system to make it easier on students. Using the following assumptions, fill in the ER diagram we give you.

- A student may take any number of exams, and every exam is taken by at least one student.
- An exam is uniquely identified by the combination of a course and a semester.
- Every exam has at least one supervisor. A supervisor oversees exactly one exam.
- There is at least one question on every exam, and a question appears on at most one exam.
- A question on an exam may be answered by any number of students, and a student may answer any number of questions on an exam.

1. What type of edge should be drawn between the Supervisors entity and the oversees relationship set?
   **Bold Arrow** - Each supervisor must oversee exactly one exam. This means that a supervisor must have a key constraint and participation constraint on their relationship with oversees.

2. What type of edge should be drawn between the Exam entity and the oversees relationship set?
   **Bold Line** - At least one supervisor oversees the exam. This is a participation constraint.

3. What type of edge should be drawn between the Student entity and the takes relationship set?
   **Thin Line** - Each student may take 0 or 1 or more exams on one day.
4. What type of edge should be drawn between the Exam entity and the takes relationship set?
   **Bold Line** - Student takes at least one exam in total. It’s participation constraint.

5. What type of edge should be drawn between the Questions entity and the answers relationship set?
   **Thin Line** - Each student may answers 0, 1 or more questions.

6. Consider the attribute set \( R = ABCDEF \) and the functional dependency set
   \( F = \{ BE \rightarrow C, B \rightarrow F, D \rightarrow F, AEF \rightarrow B, A \rightarrow E \} \). Which of the following are candidate keys of \( R \)?
   Mark all that apply

   (A) ACD
   (B) AD
   (C) FC
   (D) BF

   In computing attribute closure of a key \( K \), we repeatedly process the set of functional dependencies \( F \)
   and add on attributes to the closure of \( K \) until there is nothing more that can be added. For ACD,
   we see that this leads first to ACDEF on the first processing of \( F \) and ABCDEF upon the second
   time we go through the loop. This means \( ACD \) is a superkey; however, for it to be a candidate key,
   we should check and make sure none of its subsets are superkeys for the table. Processing AD, how-
   ever, gets us ADEF on the first iteration of the loop, ABDEF on the second, and ABCDEF on the third.

   FC and BF are not superkeys (and therefore not candidate keys): both are their own attribute closures.

7. Given Attribute Set \( R = ABCDEFGH \) and functional dependencies set
   \( F = \{ CE \rightarrow GH, F \rightarrow G, B \rightarrow CEF, H \rightarrow G \} \). What relations are included in the final decomposition
   when decomposing \( R \) into BCNF in the order of functional dependencies set \( F \)?

   - CE \( \rightarrow \) GH violates BCNF, decompose into ABCDEF CEGH.
   - F \( \rightarrow \) G No relation contains FG, skip.
   - B \( \rightarrow \) CEF violates BCNF, decompose into ABD, BCEF, and CEGH.
   - H \( \rightarrow \) G violates BCNF, decompose into ABD, BCEF, CEH, GH.

   Final relations are ABD, BCEF, CEH, GH.

8. True or False: The decomposition of attribute set \( R = ABCDEF \), given the functional dependency set
   \( F = \{ B \rightarrow D, E \rightarrow F, D \rightarrow E, D \rightarrow B, F \rightarrow BD \} \), into ABDE, BCDF is lossless.
   False, it is lossy. ABDE \( \cap \) BCDF = BD, BD \( \rightarrow \) BDEF, which is not a superset of either ABDE or
   BCDF.