INTRODUCTION TO THE THEORY OF NESTED TRANSACTIONS

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Abstract. A new formal model is presented for studying concurrency and resiliency properties for nested transactions. The model is used to state and prove correctness of a well-known locking algorithm.

1. Introduction

This paper develops the foundation for a general theory of nested transactions. We present a simple formal model for studying concurrency and resiliency in a nested environment. This model has distinct advantages over the many alternatives, the greatest of which is the unification of a subject replete with formalisms, correctness conditions and proof techniques. The authors are presently engaged in an ambitious project to recast the substantial amount of work in nested transactions within this single intuitive framework. These pages contain the preliminary results of that project—a description of the model, and its use in stating and proving correctness conditions for two variations of a well-known algorithm of Moss [22].

The model is based on I/O automata, a simple formalization of communicating automata. It is not complex—it is easily presented in a few pages, and easy to understand, given a minimal background in automata theory. Each nested transaction and data object is modelled by a separate I/O automaton. These automata, the system primitives, issue requests to and receive replies from some scheduler, which is simply another I/O automaton. Simple syntactic constraints on the interactions of these automata ensure, for example, that no transaction requests the creation of the same child more than once. One scheduler, in this case the "serial scheduler", interacts with the transactions and objects in a particularly constrained way. The

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"serial schedules" of the primitives and the serial scheduler are the basis of our correctness conditions. Specifically, alternative schedulers are required to ensure that nested transaction automata individually have local schedules which they could have in a serial schedule. In essence, each scheduler must "fool" the transactions into believing that the system is executing in conjunction with the serial scheduler.

In the past ten years, an important and substantial body of work has appeared on the design and analysis of algorithms for implementing concurrency control and resiliency in database transaction systems [5, 6, 10, 14, 15, 25, etc.]. Among this has been a number of results dealing with nested transactions [2, 3, 4, 16, 18, 22, 23, 24, etc.]. The present work does not replace these other contributions, but augments them by providing a unifying and mathematically tractable framework for posing and exploring a variety of questions. This previous work uses behavioral specifications of nested transactions, focusing on what nested transactions do, rather than what they are. By answering the question "What is a nested transaction?" I/O automata provide a powerful tool for understanding and reasoning about them.

Some unification is vitally important to further development in this field. The plethora and complexity of existing formalizations is a challenge to the most seasoned researcher. More critically, it belies the argument that nested transactions provide a clean and intuitive tool for organizing distributed databases and more general distributed applications. It is particularly important to provide an intuitive and precise description of nested transactions themselves as, in typical systems, these are the components which the application programmer must implement.

The remainder of this paper is organized as follows. The I/O automaton model is described in Section 2. The rest of the paper contains an extended example, which establishes correctness properties for two related lock-based concurrent schedulers.

Section 3 contains simple definitions for naming nested transactions and objects, and for specifying the operations (interactions) of these components. Simple syntactic restrictions on the orders of these operations are presented, and then a particular system of I/O automata is presented, describing the interactions of nested transactions and objects with a serial scheduler. The interface between the serial scheduler and the transactions provides a basis for the specification of correctness conditions for alternative schedulers. These schedulers would presumably be more efficient than the serial scheduler. The strongest correctness condition, "serial correctness," requires that all non-access transactions see serial behavior at their interface with the system. The second condition, "correctness for T₀," only requires that this serial interface be maintained at the interface of the system and the external world. These interfaces also provide simple descriptions of the environment in which nested transactions can be assumed to execute. A particular contribution is the clear and concise semantics of ABORT operations which arises naturally from this formalization. The section closes with a collection of lemmas describing useful properties of serial systems.

Next, a lock-based concurrent system is presented. Section 4 contains a description of a special type of object, called a "resilient object," which is used in the concurrent system. The scheduler makes use of these objects; they are similar to, but possibly more powerful than, the objects associated with the I/O automata.

Section 5 explores a "weak concurrency" system in which the transactions are limited to the direct root of the transaction hierarchy. This is a weaker system, but it is more general since it applies to systems that use a weak concurrency model.

Despite the appeal of the I/O automaton model, it is important to some detail (both the system and the behavior of the transactions) in order to make the large number of nested transactions and objects in a real computer system. Despite the normal level of detail, the basic ideas remain the same.

The section concludes with a description of the transactions and the transaction manager of the system. The section closes with a description of the extensions to the transaction manager that are necessary to support the weak concurrency model. The section also contains an example of a real computer system. The example is a parallel computer in which the transactions execute on their own processors. The local history is maintained on the processor to which the transaction belongs. This history is used to implement the weak concurrency model and to construct the history of the process as a whole. The section concludes with a return of the example to the real computer system.

Section 6 contains a collection of lemmas and an example of the use of these lemmas. The section concludes with a summary of the contributions of this paper.

2. Basic Definitions

In this section, we define the basic concepts and notation that will be described in the subsequent sections. We also define the notion of a possibly persistent object and show how to relate nested transaction automata with the objects in the system. The section concludes with a discussion of some important properties of the objects.
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system. Section 5 describes the remainder of the concurrent system, the “concurrent scheduler.” This concurrent scheduler includes “lock manager” modules for all the objects; lock managers coordinate concurrent accesses.

Section 6 defines a system which is closely related to the concurrent system, the “weak concurrent system.” This system preserves serial correctness for those transactions whose ancestors do not abort (i.e., those that are not “orphans”). Since the root of the transaction tree, T₀, has no ancestor, weak concurrent systems are correct for T₀. Section 7 contains complete proofs of correctness of the concurrent and weak concurrent systems; concurrent systems are serially correct, and weak concurrent systems are correct for T₀. The stronger condition is obtained for concurrent systems as a corollary to a result about weak concurrent systems.

It is interesting that the concurrent system algorithms are described in complete detail (essentially, in “pseudocode”), yet significant formal claims about their behavior can be stated clearly and easily. Although the full presentation involves a large number of lemmas, the ideas described by the lemmas are quite simple and intuitive. We think it is remarkable that these interesting properties of concurrent systems can be proved with complete rigor, in full detail, in so short a development. Despite the detailed level of presentation, the underlying model is general enough that the results apply to a wide range of implementations.

The style of the correctness proof is also noteworthy. It is a constructive proof, in that for each execution of the weak concurrent system and each non-orphan transaction, an execution of the serial system is explicitly constructed. The transaction’s local “view” in the constructed execution is identical to that in the original weak concurrent execution, establishing the correctness of the weak concurrent system. One may think of the weak concurrent system as maintaining consistent, parallel “world views” within which concurrent siblings execute. As siblings return to their parent, these parallel worlds are “merged” to form a single consistent view. The locking policy prevents collisions between different views at the shared data. This intuition is strongly supported and clarified by the correctness proof, which constructs the parallel views as different serial schedules consistent with each sibling’s local history. Lemmas illustrate how these serial schedules can be merged as siblings return or abort to their parent.

Section 8 contains a discussion of the relationship of this work to previous results, and Section 9 contains an indication of the work that lies ahead.

2. Basic model

In this section, we present the basic I/O automaton model, which is used to describe all components of our systems. This model consists of rather standard, possibly infinite-state, nondeterministic automata that have operation names associated with their state transitions. Communication among automata is described by identifying their operations. This model is very similar to models used by Milner,
Hoare [13, 21] and others. There are a few differences: first, we find it important to classify operations of any automaton or system of automata as either "input" or "output" operations, of that automaton or system, and we treat these two cases differently. Also, we allow identification of arbitrary numbers of operations from different automata, rather than just pairwise identification as considered in [21].

This paper is not intended to develop the basic model. For the general theory of I/O automata, including a unified treatment of finite and infinite behavior, we refer the reader to [20]. In the present treatment of concurrent transaction systems, we only prove properties of finite behavior, so we only require a simple special case of the general model.

2.1. I/O automata

All components in our systems, transactions, objects and schedulers, will be modelled by I/O automata. An I/O automaton $\mathcal{A}$ has components $\text{states}(\mathcal{A})$, $\text{start}(\mathcal{A})$, $\text{out}(\mathcal{A})$, $\text{in}(\mathcal{A})$, and $\text{steps}(\mathcal{A})$. Here, $\text{states}(\mathcal{A})$ is a set of states, of which a subset $\text{start}(\mathcal{A})$ is designated as the set of start states. The next two components are disjoint sets: $\text{out}(\mathcal{A})$ is the set of output operations, and $\text{in}(\mathcal{A})$ is the set of input operations. The union of these two sets is the set of operations of the automaton. Finally, $\text{steps}(\mathcal{A})$ is the transition relation of $\mathcal{A}$, which is a set of triples of the form $(s', \pi, s)$, where $s'$ and $s$ are states, and $\pi$ is an operation. This triple means that in state $s'$, the automaton can atomically do operation $\pi$ and change to state $s$. An element of the transition relation is called a step of $\mathcal{A}$.

The output operations are intended to model the actions that are triggered by the automaton itself, while the input operations model the actions that are triggered by the environment of the automaton. Our partitioning of operations into input and output indicates that each operation is only triggered in one place. We require the following condition.

**Input Condition.** For each input operation $\pi$ and each state $s'$, there exist a state $s$ and a step $(s', \pi, s)$.

This condition says that an I/O automaton must be prepared to receive any input operation at any time. This condition makes intuitive sense if we think of the input operations as being triggered externally. (In this paper, this condition serves mainly as a technical convenience, but in [20], where infinite behavior is considered, it is critical.)

An execution of $\mathcal{A}$ is a finite alternating sequence $s_0, \pi_1, s_1, \pi_2, \ldots, s_k$ of states and operations of $\mathcal{A}$, ending with a state. Furthermore, $s_0$ is in $\text{start}(\mathcal{A})$, and each triple $(s', \pi, s)$ which occurs as a consecutive subsequence is a step of $\mathcal{A}$. From any execution, we can extract the schedule, which is the subsequence of the execution consisting of operations only. Because transitions to different states may have the same operation, different executions may have the same schedule.

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1 Note: For the system components, an operation is sufficient for the overall system, in the same way as for the component systems, in the sense that the system defines the same operation on the components as \text{in}(\mathcal{A}) on operations.
Lemma 1. If $\alpha$ is a schedule of I/O automaton $\mathcal{A}$, then every prefix of $\alpha$ is a schedule of $\mathcal{A}$.

If $S$ is any set of schedules (or property of schedules), then $\mathcal{A}$ is said to preserve $S$ provided that the following holds. If $\alpha = \alpha' \pi$ is any schedule of $\mathcal{A}$, where $\pi$ is an output operation of $\mathcal{A}$, and $\alpha'$ is in $S$, then $\alpha$ is in $S$. That is, the automaton is not the first to violate the property described by $S$.

2.2. Composition of automata

We describe systems as consisting of interacting components, each of which is an I/O automaton. It is convenient and natural to view systems as I/O automata also. Thus, we define a composition operation for I/O automata to yield a new I/O automaton.

A set of I/O automata may be composed to create a system $\mathcal{S}$ if all of the sets of output operations of the component automata are disjoint. (Thus, every output operation in $\mathcal{S}$ will be triggered by exactly one component.) The system $\mathcal{S}$ is itself an I/O automaton. A state of the composed automaton is a tuple of states, one for each component, and the start states are tuples consisting of start states of the components. The set of operations of $\mathcal{S}$, $\text{ops}(\mathcal{S})$, is exactly the union of the sets of operations of the component automata. The set of output operations of $\mathcal{S}$, $\text{out}(\mathcal{S})$, is likewise the union of the sets of output operations of the component automata. Finally, the set of input operations of $\mathcal{S}$, $\text{in}(\mathcal{S})$, is $\text{ops}(\mathcal{S}) - \text{out}(\mathcal{S})$, the set of operations of $\mathcal{S}$ that are not output operations of $\mathcal{S}$. The output operations of a system are intended to be exactly those that are triggered by components of the system, while the input operations of a system are those that are triggered by the system's environment.

The triple $(s', \pi, s)$ is in the transition relation of $\mathcal{S}$ if and only if, for each component automaton $\mathcal{A}_i$, one of the following two conditions holds. Either $\pi$ is an operation of $\mathcal{A}_i$, and the projection of the step onto $\mathcal{A}_i$ is a step of $\mathcal{A}_i$, or else $\pi$ is not an operation of $\mathcal{A}_i$, and the states corresponding to $\mathcal{A}_i$ in the two tuples $s'$ and $s$ are identical. Thus, each operation of the composed automaton is an operation of a subset of the component automata. During an operation $\pi$ of $\mathcal{S}$, each of the components which has operation $\pi$ carries out the operation, while the remainder stay in the same state. Again, the operation $\pi$ is an output operation of the composition if it is the output operation of a component—otherwise, $\pi$ is an input operation of the composition.$^1$

$^1$ Note that our model has chosen a particular convention for identifying operations of different components in a system: we simply identify those with the same name. This convention is simple, and sufficient for what we do in this paper. However, when this work is extended to more complicated systems, it may be expedient to generalize the convention for identifying operations, to permit reuse of the same operation name internally to different components. This will require introducing a renaming operator for operations, or else defining composition with respect to a designated equivalence relation on operations. We leave this for later work.
Lemma 2. The composition of I/O automata is an I/O automaton.

The next lemma allows us to compose automata in any order.

Lemma 3. Up to isomorphism, composition of I/O automata is associative and commutative.

An execution of a system is defined to be an execution of the automaton composed of the individual automata of the system. If $\alpha$ is a schedule of a system with component $\mathcal{A}$, then we denote by $\alpha|\mathcal{A}$ the subsequence of $\alpha$ containing all the operations of $\mathcal{A}$. Clearly, $\alpha|\mathcal{A}$ is a schedule of $\mathcal{A}$.

The next lemma expresses a "locality" property of I/O automata systems that greatly simplifies reasoning about such systems. Since only the component automaton $\mathcal{A}$ for which an operation $\pi$ is an output can prevent the occurrence of that operation in a schedule of the system, it suffices to show that the operation is permitted by the local state of $\mathcal{A}$ in order to conclude that it is permitted by the global state of the system.

Lemma 4. Let $\alpha'$ be a schedule of a system $\mathcal{F}$, and let $\alpha = \alpha' \pi$, where $\pi$ is an output operation of component $\mathcal{A}$. If $\alpha|\mathcal{A}$ is a schedule of $\mathcal{A}$, then $\alpha$ is a schedule of $\mathcal{F}$.

Proof. Since $\alpha|\mathcal{A}$ is a schedule of $\mathcal{A}$, there is an execution $\beta$ of $\mathcal{A}$ with schedule $\alpha|\mathcal{A}$. Let $\beta'$ be the execution of $\mathcal{A}$ consisting of all but the last step of $\beta$. Similarly, since $\alpha'$ is a schedule of $\mathcal{F}$, there is an execution $\gamma$ of $\mathcal{F}$ with schedule $\alpha'$. It is possible that $\mathcal{A}$ has an execution in $\gamma$ which is different from $\beta'$ since different executions may have the same schedule. But it is easy to show, by induction on the length of $\gamma$, that there is another execution $\gamma'$ of $\mathcal{F}$ in which component $\mathcal{A}$ has execution $\beta'$, and which is otherwise identical to $\gamma$. The schedule of $\gamma'$ is $\alpha'$. Since $\pi$ is not an output operation of any other component, $\pi$ is defined from the state reached at the end of $\gamma'$ so that $\alpha = \alpha' \pi$ is a schedule of $\mathcal{F}$.

3. Serial systems

In this paper, we define three kinds of systems: "serial systems" and two types of "concurrent systems." Serial systems describe serial execution of transactions. Serial systems are defined for the purpose of providing a correctness condition for other systems: that the schedules of the other systems should "look like" schedules of the serial system to the transactions. As with serial schedules of single-level transaction systems, our serial schedules are too inefficient to use in practice. Thus, we define systems which allow concurrency, and which permit the abort of transactions after they have performed some work. We then prove that the schedules permitted by concurrent systems are correct.
In this section, we define “serial systems.” Serial systems consist of “transactions” and “basic objects” communicating with a “serial scheduler.” Transactions and basic objects describe user programs and data respectively. The serial scheduler controls communication between the other components, and thereby defines the allowable orders in which the transactions may take steps. All three types of system components are modelled as I/O automata.

We begin by defining a structure which describes the nesting of transactions. Namely, a system type is a four-tuple \((\mathcal{T}, \text{parent}, \mathcal{O}, V)\), where \(\mathcal{T}\), the set of transaction names, is organized into a tree by the mapping \(\text{parent}: \mathcal{T} \to \mathcal{T}\), with \(T_0\) as the root. In referring to this tree, we use traditional terminology, such as child, leaf, least common ancestor (lca), ancestor and descendant. (A transaction is its own ancestor and descendant.) The leaves of this tree are called accesses. The set \(\mathcal{O}\) denotes the set of objects; formally, \(\mathcal{O}\) is a partition of the set of accesses, where each element of the partition contains the accesses to a particular object. The set \(V\) is a set of values, to be used as return values of transactions.

The tree structure can be thought of as a predefined naming scheme for all possible transactions that might ever be invoked. In any particular execution, however, only some of these transactions will actually take steps. We imagine that the tree structure is known in advance by all components of a system. The tree will, in general, be an infinite structure.

The classical transactions of concurrency control theory (without nesting) appear in our model as the children of a “mythical” transaction, \(T_0\), the root of the transaction tree. (In work on nested transactions, such as ARGUS [16, 18], the children of \(T_0\) are often called “top-level” transactions.) It is very convenient to introduce the new root transaction to model the environment in which the rest of the transaction system runs. Transaction \(T_0\) has operations that describe the invocation and return of the classical transactions. It is natural to reason about \(T_0\) in much the same way as about all of the other transactions, although it is distinguished from the other transactions by having no parent transaction. Since committing and aborting are operations which take place at the parent of each transaction (see below), \(T_0\) can neither commit nor abort. Thus, a commit or abort of a top-level transaction is an irreversible step.

The internal nodes of the tree model transactions whose function is to create and manage subtransactions, but not to access data directly. The only transactions which actually access data are the leaves of the transaction tree, and thus they are distinguished as “accesses.” The partition \(\mathcal{O}\) simply identifies those transactions which access the same object.

A serial system of a given system type is the composition of a set of I/O automata. This set contains a transaction for each internal (i.e., non-leaf, non-access) node of the transaction tree, a basic object for each element of \(\mathcal{O}\), and a serial scheduler. These automata are described below. (If \(X\) is a basic object associated with an element \(\mathcal{X}\) of the partition \(\mathcal{O}\), and \(T\) is an access in \(\mathcal{X}\), we write \(T \in \text{accesses}(X)\) and say that “\(T\) is an access to \(X\).”
3.1. Transactions

This paper differs from earlier work such as [9, 19, 27] in that we model the transactions explicitly, as I/O automata. In modelling transactions, we consider it very important not to constrain them unnecessarily; thus, we do not want to require that they be expressible as programs in any particular high-level programming language. Modelling the transactions as I/O automata allows us to state exactly the properties that are needed, without introducing unnecessary restrictions or complicated semantics.

A non-access transaction \( T \) is modelled as an I/O automaton, with the following operations:

**Input operations:**
- \( \text{CREATE}(T) \),
- \( \text{COMMIT}(T', v) \) for \( T' \in \text{children}(T) \) and \( v \in V \),
- \( \text{ABORT}(T') \) for \( T' \in \text{children}(T) \).

**Output operations:**
- \( \text{REQUEST}_{-}\text{CREATE}(T') \) for \( T' \in \text{children}(T) \),
- \( \text{REQUEST}_{-}\text{COMMIT}(T, v) \) for \( v \in V \).

The \text{CREATE} input operation "wakes up" the transaction. The \text{REQUEST}_{-}\text{CREATE} output operation is a request by \( T \) to create a particular child transaction.\(^2\) The \text{COMMIT} input operation reports to \( T \) the successful completion of one of its children, and returns a value recording the results of that child's execution. The \text{ABORT} input operation reports to \( T \) the unsuccessful completion of one of its children, without returning any other information. We call \( \text{COMMIT}(T', v) \), for any \( v \), and \( \text{ABORT}(T') \) \text{return} operations for transaction \( T' \). The \text{REQUEST}_{-}\text{COMMIT} operation is an announcement by \( T \) that is has finished its work, and includes a value recording the results of that work.

It is convenient to use two separate operations, \text{REQUEST}_{-}\text{CREATE} and \text{CREATE}, to describe what takes place when a subtransaction is activated. The \text{REQUEST}_{-}\text{CREATE} is an operation of the transaction's parent, while the actual \text{CREATE} takes place at the subtransaction itself. In actual systems such as ARGUS, this separation does occur, and the distinction will be important in our results and proofs. Similar remarks hold for the \text{REQUEST}_{-}\text{COMMIT} and \text{COMMIT} operations.\(^3\) We leave the execution of \( T \) to be implemented (and in most cases of course will assume that it is implemented). Thus, transactions are modelled below.

We require that
\( T \) have an internal state \( \alpha' \) of operations, where \( \alpha' = \alpha'_{\text{init}} \) is initial:

- If \( \pi \in \text{children}(T) \):
  - (i) the state \( \alpha' \) of \( T \) changes to \( \alpha'_{\text{init}} \),
  - (ii) the \text{REQUEST}_{-}\text{CREATE} \( \text{return} \) operation is performed for \( T' \).
- If \( \pi \in \text{children}(T) \):
  - (i) the state \( \alpha' \) of \( T \) changes to \( \alpha'_{\text{init}} \),
  - (ii) the \text{REQUEST}_{-}\text{COMMIT} \( \text{return} \) operation is performed for \( T' \).

These rules are satisfied if for any \( T \), created transactions are in the children, and do not overlap creation; i.e., it has been decided that \( T \) is the creation of a subtransaction, then there are no further transactions that allow \( T \) to be created; and the creation rules are satisfied which tell us about starting a transaction. In a high-level programming language, this model of execution behavior allows us to reason about subtransactions.
executions of particular transaction automata largely unspecified; the choice of which children to create, and what value to return, will depend on the particular implementation. For the purposes of the schedulers studied here, the transactions (and in large part, the objects) are "black boxes." Nevertheless, it is convenient to assume that schedules of transaction automata obey certain syntactic constraints. Thus, transaction automata are required to preserve well-formedness, as defined below.

We recursively define well-formedness for finite sequences of operations of transaction $T$. Namely, the empty schedule is well-formed. Also, if $\alpha = \alpha' \pi$ is a sequence of operations of $T$, where $\pi$ is a single operation, then $\alpha$ is well-formed provided that $\alpha'$ is well-formed, and the following hold:

- If $\pi$ is $\text{CREATE}(T)$, then
  (i) there is no $\text{CREATE}(T)$ in $\alpha'$.
- If $\pi$ is $\text{COMMIT}(T', v)$ or $\text{ABORT}(T')$ for a child $T'$ of $T$, then
  (i) $\text{REQUEST\_CREATE}(T')$ appears in $\alpha'$, and
  (ii) there is no return operation for $T'$ in $\alpha'$.
- If $\pi$ is $\text{REQUEST\_CREATE}(T')$ for a child $T'$ of $T$, then
  (i) there is no $\text{REQUEST\_CREATE}(T')$ in $\alpha'$
  (ii) there is no $\text{REQUEST\_COMMIT}$ for $T$ in $\alpha'$, and
  (iii) $\text{CREATE}(T)$ appears in $\alpha'$.
- If $\pi$ is a $\text{REQUEST\_COMMIT}$ for $T$, then
  (i) there is no $\text{REQUEST\_COMMIT}$ for $T$ in $\alpha'$, and
  (ii) $\text{CREATE}(T)$ appears in $\alpha'$.

These restrictions are very basic; they simply say that a transaction does not get created more than once, does not receive repeated notification of the fates of its children, does not receive conflicting information about the fates of its children, and does not receive information about the fate of any child whose creation it has not requested; also, a transaction does not perform any output operations before it has been created or after it has requested to commit, and does not request the creation of the same child more than once. Except for these minimal conditions, there are no restrictions on allowable transaction behavior. For example, the model allows a transaction to request to commit without discovering the fate of all subtransactions whose creation it has requested. Also, a transaction can request creation of new subtransactions at any time, without regard to its state of knowledge about subtransactions whose creation it has previously requested. Particular programming languages may choose to impose additional restrictions on transaction behavior. (An example is ARGUS, which suspends activity in transactions until subtransactions complete.) However, our results do not require such restrictions.

The following easy lemma summarizes the properties of well-formed sequences of transaction operations.
Lemma 5. Let \( \alpha \) be a well-formed sequence of operations of transaction \( T \). Then the following conditions hold:

1. The first operation of \( \alpha \) is a \texttt{CREATE}(T) operation, and there are no other \texttt{CREATE} operations.
2. If a \texttt{REQUEST_COMMIT} operation occurs in \( \alpha \), then there are no later output operations in \( \alpha \).
3. There is at most one \texttt{REQUEST_CREATE}(T') operation for each child \( T' \) of \( T \) in \( \alpha \).
4. Every return operation in \( \alpha \) has a preceding \texttt{REQUEST_CREATE} operation in \( \alpha \) for the same child transaction.

3.2. Basic objects

Recall that I/O automata are associated with non-access transactions only. Since access transactions model abstract operations on shared data objects, we associate a single I/O automaton with each object, rather than one for each access. The operations for each object are just the \texttt{CREATE} and \texttt{REQUEST_COMMIT} operations for all the corresponding access transactions. Although we give these operations the same names as the operations of non-access transactions, it is helpful to think of the operations of access transactions in other terms also: a \texttt{CREATE} corresponds to an invocation of an operation on the object, while a \texttt{REQUEST_COMMIT} corresponds to a response by the object to an invocation. Actually, these \texttt{CREATE} and \texttt{REQUEST_COMMIT} operations generalize the usual invocations and responses in that our operations carry with them a designation of the position of the access in the transaction tree. We depart from the traditional notational distinction between creation of subtransactions and invocations on objects since the common terminology for access and non-access transactions is of great benefit in unifying the statements and proofs of our results. Thus, a basic object \( X \) is modelled as an automaton, with the following operations.

Input operations:

\texttt{CREATE}(T) \ for \( T \) in accesses(\( X \)).

Output operations:

\texttt{REQUEST_COMMIT}(T, v) \ for \( T \) in accesses(\( X \)).

The \texttt{CREATE} operation is an invocation of an access to the object, while the \texttt{REQUEST_COMMIT} is a return of a value in response to such an invocation.

As with transactions, while specific objects are left largely unspecified, it is convenient to require that schedules of basic objects satisfy certain syntactic conditions. Thus, each basic object is required to preserve well-formedness, defined below.

Let \( \alpha \) be a sequence of operations of basic object \( X \). Then an access \( T \) to \( X \) is said to be pending in \( \alpha \) provided that there is a \texttt{CREATE}(T), but no \texttt{REQUEST_COMMIT} for \( T \) in \( \alpha \). We define well-formedness for finite sequences of operations of basic objects recursively. Namely, the empty schedule is well-formed. Also, if \( \alpha = \alpha' \pi \) is a sequence of operations of basic object \( X \), where \( \pi \) is a single operation, then \( \alpha \) is well-formed if and only if

- If \( \pi \) is an \texttt{ACCESS}(T), then one of the following holds:
  - (i) the \texttt{CREATE}(T) preceding \( \pi \) appears in \( \alpha' \);
  - (ii) the object is
- If \( \pi \) is a \texttt{REQUEST_COMMIT}, then one of the following holds:
  - (i) the \texttt{CREATE}(T) preceding \( \pi \) appears in \( \alpha' \);
  - (ii) \( \alpha' \) is a well-formed sequence of operations of a basic object.

These conditions ensure, for instance, not only that each access history corresponds to a well-formed sequence of requests but also to a well-formed sequence of responses.

The following lemmas concerning the well-formedness of basic objects.

Lemma 6. If \( \alpha \) is a sequence of \texttt{ACCESS} operations on basic object \( X \), then \( \alpha \) consists of the following:

\texttt{CREATE}(T), \texttt{REQUEST_CREATE}(T'), \texttt{REQUEST_COMMIT}(T, v) \ for \( T \) to \( a_1 \), \( T' \) to \( a_2 \), \( v \in V_a(\alpha) \), with \( a_1 < a_2 \).

3.3. Semantic properties

The thread scheduling algorithm of [11] has been described with the notion of the "semantics of a transaction". This semantic notion is one that arises in the study of depth-first deterministic finite automata. This notion is named after the "semantics of a transaction" in [11].

The operations of an automaton correspond to

Output operations:

The notion of the "semantics of a transaction" is used in the following way:

1. Let \( \alpha \) be a sequence of operations of basic object \( X \). Then an access \( T \) to \( X \) is said to be pending in \( \alpha \) provided that there is a \texttt{CREATE}(T), but no \texttt{REQUEST_COMMIT} for \( T \) in \( \alpha \). We define well-formedness for finite sequences of operations of basic objects recursively. Namely, the empty schedule is well-formed. Also, if \( \alpha = \alpha' \pi \) is a sequence of operations of basic object \( X \), where \( \pi \) is a single operation, then \( \alpha \) is well-formed if and only if

- If \( \pi \) is an \texttt{ACCESS}(T), then one of the following holds:
  - (i) the \texttt{CREATE}(T) preceding \( \pi \) appears in \( \alpha' \);
  - (ii) the object is
- If \( \pi \) is a \texttt{REQUEST_COMMIT}, then one of the following holds:
  - (i) the \texttt{CREATE}(T) preceding \( \pi \) appears in \( \alpha' \);
  - (ii) \( \alpha' \) is a well-formed sequence of operations of a basic object.

These conditions ensure, for instance, not only that each access history corresponds to a well-formed sequence of requests but also to a well-formed sequence of responses.

The following lemmas concerning the well-formedness of basic objects.

Lemma 6. If \( \alpha \) is a sequence of \texttt{ACCESS} operations on basic object \( X \), then \( \alpha \) consists of the following:

\texttt{CREATE}(T), \texttt{REQUEST_CREATE}(T'), \texttt{REQUEST_COMMIT}(T, v) \ for \( T \) to \( a_1 \), \( T' \) to \( a_2 \), \( v \in V_a(\alpha) \), with \( a_1 < a_2 \).

3.3. Semantic properties

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The operations of an automaton correspond to

Output operations:

The notion of the "semantics of a transaction" is used in the following way:
is well-formed provided that \( \alpha' \) is well-formed, and the following hold:

- If \( \pi \) is \text{CREATE}(T), then
  - (i) there is no \text{CREATE}(T) in \( \alpha' \), and
  - (ii) there are no pending accesses in \( \alpha' \).
- If \( \pi \) is \text{REQUEST\_COMMIT} for \( T \), then
  - (i) there is no \text{REQUEST\_COMMIT} for \( T \) in \( \alpha' \), and
  - (ii) \text{CREATE}(T) appears in \( \alpha' \).

These restrictions simply say that the same access does not get created more than once, nor does a creation of a new access occur at a basic object before the previous access has completed (i.e., requested to commit); also, a basic object does not respond more than once to any access, and only responds to accesses that have previously been created.

The following easy lemma summarizes the properties of well-formed sequences of basic object operations.

**Lemma 6.** Let \( \alpha \) be a well-formed sequence of operations of basic object \( X \). Then \( \alpha \) consists of alternating \text{CREATE} and \text{REQUEST\_COMMIT} operations, starting with a \text{CREATE}, and with each consecutive (\text{CREATE}, \text{REQUEST\_COMMIT}) pair having a common transaction.

### 3.3. Serial scheduler

The third kind of component in a serial system is the serial scheduler. The serial scheduler is also modelled as an automaton. The transactions and basic objects have been specified to be any I/O automata whose operations and behavior satisfy simple syntactic restrictions. The serial scheduler, however, is a fully specified automaton, particular to each system type. It runs transactions according to a depth-first traversal of the transaction tree. The serial scheduler can choose nondeterministically to abort any transaction after its parent has requested its creation, as long as the transaction has not actually been created. In the context of this scheduler, the “semantics” of an \text{ABORT}(T) operation are that transaction \( T \) was never created. The operations of the serial scheduler are as follows.

**Input operations:**

\[
\text{REQUEST\_CREATE}(T), \quad \text{REQUEST\_COMMIT}(T, v).
\]

**Output operations:**

\[
\text{CREATE}(T), \quad \text{COMMIT}(T, v), \quad \text{ABORT}(T).
\]

The \text{REQUEST\_CREATE} and \text{REQUEST\_COMMIT} inputs are intended to be identified with the corresponding outputs of transaction and object automata, and correspondingly for the \text{CREATE}, \text{COMMIT} and \text{ABORT} output operations. Each state \( s \) of the serial scheduler consists of five sets: \text{create\_requested}(s), \text{created}(s), \text{commit\_requested}(s), \text{committed}(s) and \text{aborted}(s). The set \text{commit\_requested}(s) is a set of (transaction, value) pairs. The others are sets of transactions. We write \text{returned}(s) as an abbreviation for \text{committed}(s) \cup \text{aborted}(s). There is exactly one initial state, in which the set \text{create\_requested} is \( \{T_0\} \), and the other sets are empty.
The transition relation consists of exactly those triples \((s', \pi, s)\) satisfying the pre- and postconditions below, where \(\pi\) is the indicated operation. For brevity, we include in the postconditions only those conditions on the state \(s\) which may change with the operation. If a component of \(s\) is not mentioned in the postcondition (such as committed\((s)\) in the postcondition for \(\text{REQUEST\_CREATE}(T)\)), it is implicit that the set is the same in \(s'\) and \(s\) (that committed\((s) = \text{committed}(s')\), in this example). Note that here, as elsewhere, we have tried to specify the component as nondeterministically as possible, in order to achieve the greatest possible generality for our results.

- \(\text{REQUEST\_CREATE}(T)\)
  
  **Postcondition:**
  
  \[
  \text{create\_requested}(s) = \text{create\_requested}(s') \cup \{T\}.
  \]

- \(\text{REQUEST\_COMMIT}(T, v)\)
  
  **Postcondition:**
  
  \[
  \text{commit\_requested}(s) = \text{commit\_requested}(s') \cup \{(T, v)\}.
  \]

- \(\text{CREATE}(T)\)
  
  **Precondition:**
  
  \[
  T \in \text{create\_requested}(s') - \text{created}(s') - \text{aborted}(s'),
  \]
  
  \[
  \text{siblings}(T) \cap \text{created}(s') \subseteq \text{returned}(s');
  \]
  
  **Postcondition:**
  
  \[
  \text{created}(s) = \text{created}(s') \cup \{T\}.
  \]

- \(\text{COMMIT}(T, v)\)
  
  **Precondition:**
  
  \[
  (T, v) \in \text{commit\_requested}(s'), \quad T \notin \text{returned}(s'),
  \]
  
  \[
  \text{children}(T) \cap \text{create\_requested}(s') \subseteq \text{returned}(s');
  \]
  
  **Postcondition:**
  
  \[
  \text{committed}(s) = \text{committed}(s') \cup \{T\}.
  \]

- \(\text{ABORT}(T)\)
  
  **Precondition:**
  
  \[
  T \in \text{create\_requested}(s') - \text{created}(s') - \text{aborted}(s'),
  \]
  
  \[
  \text{siblings}(T) \cap \text{created}(s') \subseteq \text{returned}(s');
  \]
  
  **Postcondition:**
  
  \[
  \text{aborted}(s) = \text{aborted}(s') \cup \{T\}.
  \]

The input operations, \(\text{REQUEST\_CREATE}\) and \(\text{REQUEST\_COMMIT}\), simply result in the request being recorded. A \(\text{CREATE}\) operation can only occur if a corresponding

---

**Lemma**

**result after**

1. \(T\) in \(\text{create\_requested}(s')\)
2. \(T\) in \(\text{returned}(s')\)
3. \(\text{children}(T) \cap \text{create\_requested}(s') \subseteq \text{returned}(s')\)
4. \(T\) in \(\text{committed}(s')\)
5. \(T\) in \(\text{created}(s')\)
6. \(T\) in \(\text{aborted}(s')\)

**3.4. Serial Order**

In this section, we consider a terminating system.

The context of the system is a given set of operations \(\text{CREATE}_X\) and \(\text{COMMIT}_X\). The operations \(\text{REQUEST\_CREATE}(T)\), \(\text{CREATE}(T)\), and \(\text{COMMIT}(T, v)\) are primitive. They may be combined to form more complex operations.

Recall that an operation \(\text{CREATE}(T)\) is an operation in the system \(X\). To access the system \(X\), we must first access its automaton \(X\).

For any operation \(T\), the transition relation for \(T\), the \(\text{REQUEST\_CREATE}\), \(\text{CREATE}\), and \(\text{COMMIT}\) operations, and the serial order of operations.
REQUEST_CREATE has occurred and neither the CREATE nor a corresponding ABORT has already occurred. The second precondition on the CREATE operation says that the serial scheduler does not create a transaction until all its previously created sibling transactions have returned. That is, siblings are run sequentially. The precondition on the COMMIT operation says that the scheduler does not allow a transaction to commit to its parent until its children have returned. The precondition on the ABORT operation says that the scheduler does not abort a transaction while there is activity going on on behalf of any of its siblings. That is, aborted transactions are run sequentially with respect to their siblings. The next lemma relates a schedule of the serial scheduler to the state which results from applying that schedule.

**Lemma 7.** Let \( \alpha \) be a schedule of the serial scheduler, and let \( s \) be a state which can result from applying \( \alpha \) to the initial state. Then the following conditions are true.

1. \( T \) is in createrequested(\( s \)) exactly if \( T = T_0 \) or \( \alpha \) contains a REQUEST_CREATE\( (T) \) operation.
2. \( T \) is in created(\( s \)) exactly if \( \alpha \) contains a CREATE\( (T) \) operation.
3. \( (T, v) \) is in commitrequested(\( s \)) exactly if \( \alpha \) contains a REQUEST_COMMIT\( (T, v) \) operation.
4. \( T \) is in committed(\( s \)) exactly if \( \alpha \) contains a COMMIT operation for \( T \).
5. \( T \) is in aborted(\( s \)) exactly if \( \alpha \) contains an ABORT\( (T) \) operation.
6. \( T \) is in returned(\( s \)) exactly if \( \alpha \) contains a return operation for \( T \).

### 3.4. Serial systems and serial schedules

In this subsection, we define serial systems precisely and provide some useful terminology for talking about them.

The composition of transactions with basic objects and the serial scheduler for a given system type is called a *serial system*. Define the *serial operations* to be those operations which occur in the serial system: REQUEST_CREATE, REQUEST_COMMIT, CREATES, COMMITS and ABORTS. The schedules of a serial system are called *serial schedules*. The non-access transactions and basic objects are called the system *primitives*. (Recall that each basic object is an automaton corresponding to a set of access transactions. Thus, individual access transactions are not considered to be primitives.)

Recall that the operations of the basic objects have the same syntax as transaction operations. It is convenient to refer to CREATE\( (T) \) and REQUEST_COMMIT\( (T) \), when \( T \) is an access to basic object \( X \), both as operations of transaction \( T \) and of object \( X \). To avoid confusion, it is important to remember that there is no transaction automaton associated with any access operation.

For any serial operation \( \pi \), we define *transaction*\( (\pi) \) to be the transaction at which the operation occurs. (For CREATE\( (T) \) operations and REQUEST_COMMIT operations for \( T \), the transaction is \( T \), while for REQUEST_CREATE\( (T) \) operations, and COMMIT and ABORT operations for \( T \), the transaction is parent\( (T) \).) For a sequence \( \alpha \) of serial operations, transaction\( (\alpha) \) is the set of transactions of the operations in \( \alpha \).
Two sequences of serial operations, $\alpha$ and $\alpha'$, are said to be equivalent provided that they consist of the same operations, and $\alpha|P = \alpha'|P$ for each primitive $P$. Obviously, this yields an equivalence relation on sequences of serial operations.

We let $\alpha|T$ denote the subsequence of $\alpha$ consisting of operations whose transaction is $T$, even if $T$ is an access. (This is an extension of the previous definition of $\alpha|T$, as accesses are not component automata of the serial system.)

Let $\alpha$ be a sequence of serial operations. We say that a transaction $T$ is live in $\alpha$ provided that a \texttt{CREATE}(T), but no \texttt{COMMIT}(T, v) or \texttt{ABORT}(T), occurs in $\alpha$. We say that transaction $T'$ is visible to $T$ in $\alpha$ provided that for each ancestor $T''$ of $T'$ which is a proper descendant of lca($T, T'$), some \texttt{COMMIT}(T'', v) occurs in $\alpha$. (In particular, any ancestor of $T$ is visible to $T$ in $\alpha$.) For sequence $\alpha$ and transaction $T$, let \texttt{visible}(\alpha, T) be the subsequence of $\alpha$ consisting of operations whose transactions are visible to $T$ in $\alpha$. (These include access transactions $T'$.) We say that transaction $T$ sees everything in $\alpha$ provided that \texttt{visible}(\alpha, T) = $\alpha$.

This is the same definition of visibility as appears, in a different model, in [19]. Visibility captures an intuitive notion suggested by the name: the transactions visible to a transaction $T$ in $\alpha$ are those whose effects $T$ is permitted to "see" in $\alpha$.

If $\alpha$ is a sequence of operations, not necessarily all serial\(^4\), then define \texttt{serial}(\alpha) to be the subsequence of $\alpha$ consisting of the serial operations. We say that $T$ is live in $\alpha$ provided that it is live in \texttt{serial}(\alpha). We say that $T'$ is visible to $T$ in $\alpha$ if $T'$ is visible to $T$ in \texttt{serial}(\alpha), and define \texttt{visible}(\alpha, T) to be \texttt{visible}(\texttt{serial}(\alpha), T). Also, $T$ sees everything in $\alpha$ provided that $T$ sees everything in \texttt{serial}(\alpha). Similarly, define \texttt{transaction}(\alpha) = \texttt{transaction}(\texttt{serial}(\alpha)).

A finite sequence $\alpha$ of serial operations is said to be well-formed if its projection at every primitive is well-formed.

3.5. Correctness condition

We use serial schedules as the basis of our correctness definitions. Namely, we say that a finite sequence of operations is \texttt{serially correct} for a primitive $P$ provided that its projection on $P$ is identical to the projection on $P$ of some serial schedule. We say that any finite sequence of operations is \texttt{serially correct} if it is serially correct for every non-access transaction. That is, $\alpha$ "looks like" a serial schedule to every non-access transaction.

In the remainder of this paper, we define two systems: concurrent systems and weak concurrent systems. We show that schedules of concurrent systems are serially correct, and that schedules of weak concurrent systems are serially correct for $T_0$.

Thus, we use the serial scheduler as a way of describing desirable behavior, just as serial schedules describe desirable behavior in more classical concurrency control settings (those without nesting). Then serial correctness plays the role in our theory that serializability plays in classical settings.

\footnote{We will introduce other kinds of operations later in the paper.}
Motivation for our use of serial schedules to define correctness derives from the simple behavior of the serial scheduler, which determines the sequence of interactions between the primitives. Each transaction \( T \) is created only after parent\((T)\) requests it, no siblings of \( T \) are created until \( T \) has returned, \( T \) is not committed until each of its requested children has itself returned, and \( T \) is not aborted until each of its created siblings has returned. The result is a depth-first traversal of the transaction tree, with requests flowing down and responses flowing up. We believe this depth-first traversal to be a natural notion of correctness which corresponds precisely to the intuition of how nested transaction systems ought to behave. Furthermore, it is a natural generalization of serializability, the correctness condition generally chosen for classical transaction systems.

Serial correctness is a condition which guarantees to implementors of transactions that their code will encounter only situations which can arise in serial executions. Correctness for \( T_0 \) is a natural alternative, which guarantees only that the external world will encounter situations which can arise in serial executions. This condition permits less constrained implementations, in that schedulers in such systems need not ensure that other transactions see consistent data. In particular, the weak concurrent scheduler presented below does not ensure correctness for transactions which have aborted ancestors (orphans). On the other hand, in such systems the authors of transactions must ensure that their programs behave well even if they see inconsistencies. (For example, transactions that see inconsistent data should not consume too many system resources, garble data beyond repair, dispense drugs or initiate military hostilities.) We hope this work will provide a tool for exploring the inherent costs of different correctness conditions such as these.

Note that our correctness conditions are defined at the transaction interface only, and do not constrain the object interface. We believe that this makes the conditions more meaningful to users, and more likely to suffice for a large variety of algorithms, which may use a variety of back-out, locking or version schemes to implement objects [5]. Previous work has focused on correctness conditions at the object interface [6, etc.]. While we believe that object interface conditions are important, their proper role in the theory is not to serve as the basic correctness condition. Rather, they are useful as intermediate conditions for proving correctness of particular implementations: such conditions can be shown to be sufficient, in combination with an appropriate scheduler, to ensure our correctness condition at the transaction interface. This observation is an important unifying contribution of our work. Our current research is focusing on demonstrating the usefulness of this approach, for a variety of object interface correctness conditions.

The serial correctness condition says that a schedule \( \alpha \) must look like a serial schedule to each non-access transaction; this allows for the possibility that \( \alpha \) might look like different serial schedules to different non-access transactions. This condition may at first seem to be too weak. It may seem that we should require that all transactions see a projection of the same serial schedule. But this stronger condition is not satisfied by most of the known concurrency control algorithms. It is true that
stronger conditions than ours can sometimes be proved, but such conditions are more complicated to state, and it is not yet clear which such conditions are most interesting.

The serial correctness condition is really not as weak as it may seem at first because \( T_0 \), the root transaction, is included among the transactions to which \( \alpha \) must appear serial. As discussed above, transactions \( T_0 \) can be thought of as modelling the environment in which the rest of the transaction system runs. Its \texttt{REQUEST-CREATE} operations correspond to the invocation of top-level transactions, while its \texttt{COMMIT} and \texttt{ABORT} operations correspond to return values and external effects of those transactions. Since \( \alpha \)'s projection on \( T_0 \) must be serial, the environment of the transaction system will see only results that could arise in a serial execution. Indeed, this is the justification of the correctness condition for the weak concurrent system, whose schedules are shown to be correct for \( T_0 \), but not necessarily for any other transaction.

It is possible to use a different serial scheduler as a basis for correctness conditions. For example, the scheduler might delay creating one sibling until another \texttt{REQUEST} to return, rather than until it actually returns to the parent [28]. Such a scheduler would provide less information to the parent about the actual order in which its children are executed, and consequently, provide more freedom for concurrent schedulers to schedule various events. Time-based systems such as [23, 24] may support this weaker correctness condition, rather than the one described above, but this remains to be studied.

Our approach is really a general technique for studying operating system algorithms. A simple, intuitive and efficient algorithm (automaton) is used to specify a "contract" between the users and implementor of an operating system. The user is guaranteed that applications (transactions, in our work) which are correct when run with the simple algorithm will also be correct when run with the actual operating system, which presumably will be more efficient. On the other hand, the implementor also has a formal and intuitive specification of the user interface.

3.6. Properties of serial systems

In this subsection, we prove a number of lemmas about the behavior of serial systems. They are collected here for reference later in this paper and in future work. Most of the lemmas describe properties that are quite easy to understand and believe, and the corresponding proofs are very straightforward. In the last paragraph of this subsection, there are some specialized lemmas that are somewhat more difficult. These are used in the proof of the main theorem in Section 7.

3.6.1. Fundamental properties of visibility

The first few lemmas give fundamental properties of visibility in sequences of serial operations. In this paragraph, we do not even require that the sequences be schedules of serial systems, but only that they be sequences of serial operations. The proofs of these lemmas are straightforward from the definitions.
Lemma 8. Let $\alpha$ be a finite sequence of serial operations, and $T$, $T'$ and $T''$ transactions.

1. If $T'$ is a descendant of $T$, then $T$ is visible to $T'$ in $\alpha$.
2. $T'$ is visible to $T$ in $\alpha$ if and only if $T'$ is visible to $\text{lca}(T, T')$ in $\alpha$.
3. If $T''$ is visible to $T'$ in $\alpha$ and $T'$ is visible to $T$ in $\alpha$, then $T''$ is visible to $T$ in $\alpha$.
4. If $T'$ is a descendant of $T$ and $T''$ is visible to $T$ in $\alpha$, then $T''$ is visible to $T'$ in $\alpha$.
5. If $T'$ is a descendant of $T$ and $T'$ is visible to $T''$ in $\alpha$, then $T$ is visible to $T''$ in $\alpha$.
6. If $T'$ is a proper descendant of $T$, $T''$ is visible to $T'$ in $\alpha$, but $T''$ is not visible to $T$ in $\alpha$, then $T''$ is a descendant of the child of $T$ which is an ancestor of $T'$.

Lemma 9. Let $\alpha$ and $\beta$ be sequences of serial operations, with $\beta$ a subsequence of $\alpha$.

1. If transaction $T$ is visible to transaction $T'$ in $\beta$, then it is visible to transaction $T''$ in $\alpha$.
2. If operation $\pi$ is in visible($\beta$, $T$), then it is in visible($\alpha$, $T$).

Lemma 10. Let $\alpha$, $\alpha'$, $\beta$ and $\beta'$ be sequences of serial operations, and let $T$ and $T'$ be transactions.

1. If $\alpha$ is equivalent to $\alpha'$, and $T'$ is visible to $T$ in $\alpha$, then $T'$ is visible to $T$ in $\alpha'$.
2. If $\alpha$ is equivalent to $\alpha'$, then visible($\alpha$, $T$) is equivalent to visible($\alpha'$, $T'$).
3. If $\beta$ is equivalent to $\beta'$, then $\alpha - \beta = \alpha - \beta'$.
4. If $\alpha$ is equivalent to $\alpha'$, and $\beta$ is equivalent to $\beta'$, then $\alpha - \beta$ is equivalent to $\alpha' - \beta'$.
5. If $\beta = \text{visible}(\alpha, T)$, then $T$ sees everything in $\beta$.
6. If $\beta$ is equivalent to visible($\alpha$, $T$), then $T$ sees everything in $\beta$.
7. If $\beta = \text{visible}(\alpha', T')$ and $T'$ is visible to $T$ in $\alpha$, then visible($\beta$, $T'$) = visible($\alpha$, $T'$).
8. If $\beta$ is equivalent to visible($\alpha$, $T$), $\beta'$ is equivalent to visible($\alpha$, $T'$), and $T'$ is visible to $T$ in $\alpha$, then $\beta'$ is equivalent to visible($\beta$, $T'$).

Lemma 11. Let $\alpha$ be a sequence of serial operations, and let $T$ and $T'$ be transactions. Then visible($\alpha$, $T$) | $T'$ is equal to $\alpha | T'$ if $T'$ is visible to $T$ in $\alpha$, and is equal to the empty string otherwise.

Lemma 12. Let $\alpha \pi$ be a sequence of serial operations, where $\pi$ is a single operation. Let $T$ be a transaction and assume that transaction($\pi$) is visible to $T$ in $\alpha \pi$. Assume that $\pi$ is not a commit operation. Then visible($\alpha \pi$, $T$) = visible($\alpha$, $T$)$\pi$.

3.6.2. Operations in serial schedules

The lemmas in this paragraph describe the kinds and orders of operations that can occur in well-formed serial schedules. In the next paragraph, we show that all serial schedules are well-formed, so that all these properties actually follow just from the fact that the schedules are serial.
Lemma 13. Let $\alpha$ be a well-formed serial schedule, and let $T \neq T_0$ be a transaction.
1. If $\alpha$ contains any operation with transaction $T$, then $\alpha$ contains a REQUEST_CREATE($T$).
2. If $\alpha$ contains a COMMIT for $T$, then $\alpha$ contains a REQUEST_COMMIT for $T$, a CREATE($T$) and a REQUEST_CREATE($T$).
3. If $\alpha$ contains an ABORT($T$), then $\alpha$ contains a REQUEST_CREATE($T$).

Proof. Straightforward from well-formedness and the scheduler preconditions.

Lemma 14. Let $\alpha$ be a well-formed serial schedule, and $T$ a transaction. Assume that some descendant of $T$ is in transaction($\alpha$). Then the following hold.
1. CREATE($T$) occurs in $\alpha$.
2. If $T \neq T_0$, then REQUEST_CREATE($T$) occurs in $\alpha$.

Proof. (1): By induction on the length of $\alpha$. The basis is easy. Let $\alpha = \alpha' \pi$, where $\pi$ is a single operation, and assume that the result holds for $\alpha'$. Let $T' = \text{transaction}(\pi)$, and let $T$ be any ancestor of $T'$. We must show that CREATE($T$) occurs in $\alpha$.

Because $\alpha$ is well-formed, CREATE($T'$) occurs in $\alpha$. If $T = T'$, we are done. Otherwise, Lemma 13 implies that REQUEST_CREATE($T'$) occurs in $\alpha$. This occurs at parent($T'$), which is a descendant of $T$. The inductive hypothesis then implies that $\alpha$ contains a CREATE($T$).

(2): By part (1) and Lemma 13.

Lemma 15. Let $\alpha$ be a serial schedule, and let $T$ be a transaction. Then $\alpha$ cannot contain both a CREATE($T$) and an ABORT($T$) operation.

Proof. By the scheduler preconditions.

Lemma 16. Let $\alpha$ be a well-formed serial schedule, and let $T$ be a transaction. If ABORT($T$) occurs in $\alpha$, then $\alpha$ contains no operations whose transactions are descendants of $T$.

Proof. Assume the contrary. Then Lemma 14 implies that a CREATE($T$) operation occurs in $\alpha$. But Lemma 15 yields a contradiction.

Lemma 17. Let $\alpha$ be a well-formed serial schedule, and let $T \neq T_0$ be a transaction.
1. If $\alpha$ contains a REQUEST_CREATE($T$), but does not contain a return operation for $T$, then parent($T$) is live in $\alpha$.
2. If $T$ is live in $\alpha$, then parent($T$) is live in $\alpha$.
3. If $\alpha$ contains a REQUEST_CREATE($T$) but does not contain a CREATE($T$) or an ABORT($T$), then parent($T$) is live in $\alpha$.

Proof. (1): By Lemma 13, it is impossible for $\alpha$ to have a REQUEST_CREATE($T$) without a CREATE($T$) if it cannot have a return for $T$. Lemma 15 implies that $\alpha$ cannot have both CREATE($T$) and ABORT($T$) if $T$ is not the root transaction.

(2): If $T$ is live, then by definition of a live transaction, it is impossible for parent($T$) to be dead.

(3): If $\alpha$ contains a REQUEST_CREATE($T$) but does not contain a CREATE($T$) or an ABORT($T$), then parent($T$) is live in $\alpha$ by definition of a request.
Proof. (1): Well-formedness implies that the request\_create(T) is preceded in α by a create(parent(T)). Suppose that parent(T) is not live in α. Then a return operation for parent(T) occurs in α. By Lemma 15, abort(parent(T)) cannot appear in α. Thus, a commit operation for parent(T) must appear in α. This commit operation for parent(T) must be preceded by a request\_commit for parent(T), by the scheduler preconditions. By well-formedness, the request\_commit for parent(T) must follow the request\_create(T) operation, so that the commit for parent(T) follows the request\_create(T) operation. Then by the scheduler preconditions for the commit operation, there must be a return operation for T in α, a contradiction.

(2): Since T is live in α, create(T) occurs in α and so Lemma 13 implies that request\_create(T) occurs in α. The result then follows from part (1).

(3): Since there is no create(T) in α, there can be no request\_commit for T, by well-formedness. Then there can be no commit for T, by the scheduler preconditions. The result follows from part (1).

Lemma 18. Let α be a well-formed serial schedule, and let T be a transaction.

1. If α contains a request\_create(T) but does not contain a return operation for T, then any proper ancestor of T is live in α.

2. If T is live in α, then any ancestor of T is live in α.

3. If α contains a request\_create(T) but does not contain a create(T) or an abort(T), then any proper ancestor of T is live in α.

Proof. By repeated use of Lemma 17.

Lemma 19. Let α be a well-formed serial schedule, and let T and T' be transactions with T' a descendant of T. Assume that there is a commit operation for T in α.

1. If a request\_create(T') occurs in α, then there is a return operation for T' in α.

2. If T' is in transaction(α), then there is a commit operation for T' in α.


(2): Lemma 13 implies that request\_create(T') occurs in α. Part (1) then implies that there is a return operation for T' in α. Since T' is in transaction(α), Lemma 16 implies that there cannot be an abort(T') in α. Thus, there is a commit for T' in α.

Lemma 20. Let α be a well-formed serial schedule. If a return operation for T is in α, then it follows all operations in α whose transaction is T.

Proof. Lemma 16 implies the result if an abort(T) occurs in α. So assume that a commit for T occurs in α. This must be preceded by a request\_commit for T, by scheduler preconditions. Well-formedness implies that the request\_commit is
preceded by a create($T$), and is not followed by any output operations of $T$. Thus, the only operations of $T$ that could follow the request-commit are return operations for children of $T$. Let $T'$ be a child of $T$ for which a return operation occurs in $\alpha$. By scheduler preconditions, there is only one return operation for $T'$ in $\alpha$. By Lemma 13, $\alpha$ also contains a request-create($T'$). Since this is an output operation of $T$, it precedes the request-commit for $T$, and hence precedes the commit for $T$. Then the scheduler preconditions imply that the return operation for $T'$ precedes the commit for $T$. □

**Lemma 21.** Let $\alpha$ be a well-formed serial schedule. If a return operation for $T$ is in $\alpha$, then it follows all operations in $\alpha$ whose transactions are descendants of $T$.

**Proof.** Since a return operation for $T$ occurs in $\alpha$, we have $T \neq T_0$. Let $T'$ be a descendant of $T$, and assume for the sake of obtaining a contradiction that an operation $\pi$ with transaction($\pi$) = $T'$ occurs after the return for $T$ in $\alpha$. Let $\alpha'$ be the prefix of $\alpha$ preceding $\pi$.

Lemma 16 implies the result if an abort($T$) occurs in $\alpha$. So assume that a commit for $T$ occurs in $\alpha$. By Lemma 13, $\alpha'$ contains a request-create($T'$) operation. Then Lemma 19 implies that $\alpha'$ contains a return operation for $T'$. But then the well-formed schedule $\alpha' \pi$ contains a return for $T'$ followed by an operation of $T'$, which contradicts Lemma 20. □

**Lemma 22.** Let $\alpha$ be a well-formed serial schedule. If $T$ is a pending access in $\alpha | X$, then $T$ is live in $\alpha$.

**Proof.** If $T$ is a pending access in $\alpha | X$, then a create($T$) occurs in $\alpha$, but no request-commit for $T$ occurs in $\alpha$. Thus, by the scheduler preconditions, no commit for $T$ can occur in $\alpha$. □

**Lemma 23.** Let $\alpha$ be a well-formed serial schedule, and let $T$ and $T'$ be distinct transactions live in $\alpha$. Then the following are true.

1. $T$ and $T'$ are not siblings.
2. Either $T$ is an ancestor of $T'$ or vice versa.

**Proof.** (1): Assume the contrary. Assume without loss of generality that create($T$) precedes create($T'$) in $\alpha$. Then the scheduler preconditions for the create($T'$) operation imply that a return operation for $T$ occurs in $\alpha$. This contradicts the assumption that $T$ is live in $\alpha$.

(2): By part (1) and Lemma 18. □

### 3.6.3. Well-formedness

Now we show that all serial schedules are well-formed. It follows that all the properties proved in the previous paragraph for well-formed serial schedules are actually proved for all serial schedules.

**Lemma 24.** If $T$ is in $\alpha$, then $T$ is visible in $\alpha$.

**Proof.** Suppose there is a transaction $T$ in $\alpha$, and let $\alpha'$ be any schedule formed by removing from $\alpha$ any transactions that do not occur in $\alpha$. Then $P$. It suffices to show that $T$ is visible in $\alpha'$.

1. If $T$ is in $\alpha'$, then $T$ is visible in $\alpha'$.
2. If $T$ is not visible in $\alpha'$, then there is a transaction $T'$ in $\alpha'$ such that transactions in $\alpha$ visible in $\alpha'$ post to $T'$.
3. If $T'$ is visible in $\alpha'$, then $T$ is visible in $\alpha'$.
4. If $T'$ is not visible in $\alpha'$, then transactions in $\alpha'$ visible in $\alpha'$ post to $T'$.

3.6.4. In the remainder of the chapter, we assume that all serial schedules are well-formed.
actually true for all serial schedules. Subsequently, we will use these properties without explicitly mentioning well-formedness.

**Lemma 24.** Let $\alpha$ be a serial schedule. Then $\alpha$ is well-formed.

**Proof.** By induction on the length of schedules. The base, length $= 0$, is trivial. Suppose that $\alpha \pi$ is a serial schedule, and assume that $\alpha$ is well-formed. If $\pi$ is an output of a primitive $P$, then $\alpha \pi | P$ is well-formed because $P$ preserves well-formedness, and so $\alpha \pi$ is well-formed. So assume that $\pi$ is an input to a primitive $P$. It suffices to show that $\alpha \pi | P$ is well-formed. There are four cases.

1. $\pi$ is $\text{CREATE}(T)$ and $T$ is a non-access transaction. The scheduler preconditions insure that $\text{CREATE}(T)$ does not appear in $\alpha$.

2. $\pi$ is $\text{COMMIT}(T, v)$ for some transaction $T$ and value $v$. Then $\pi$ is an input to transaction $\text{parent}(T) = T^\prime$. The scheduler preconditions imply that $\alpha$ contains a $\text{REQUEST\_COMMIT}(T, v)$, and so Lemma 13 implies that $\alpha$ contains a $\text{REQUEST\_CREATE}(T)$. Also, the scheduler preconditions imply that no return operation for $T$ occurs in $\alpha$.

3. $\pi$ is $\text{ABORT}(T)$ for some transaction $T$. Then $\pi$ is an input to transaction $\text{parent}(T) = T^\prime$. The scheduler preconditions imply that $\alpha$ contains a $\text{REQUEST\_CREATE}(T)$, but no return operation for $T$.

4. $\pi$ is $\text{CREATE}(T)$ and $T$ is an access to basic object $X$. By the scheduler preconditions, no $\text{CREATE}(T)$ or $\text{ABORT}(T)$ appears in $\alpha$, but a $\text{REQUEST\_CREATE}(T)$ appears in $\alpha$. Assume for the sake of deriving a contradiction that $T^\prime$ is a pending access in $\alpha | X$. Then Lemma 22 implies that $T^\prime$ is live in $\alpha$. Also, Lemma 17 implies that $\text{parent}(T)$ is live in $\alpha$. Then Lemma 23 implies that one of $T^\prime$ or $\text{parent}(T)$ is an ancestor of the other; since $T$ and $T^\prime$ are both leaves of the transaction tree, the only possibility is that $\text{parent}(T)$ is a proper ancestor of $T^\prime$. Let $T^\prime$ be the sibling of $T$ which is an ancestor of $T^\prime$. Then $T^\prime$ is live in $\alpha$, by Lemma 18. That is, there is a $\text{CREATE}(T^\prime)$, but no $\text{COMMIT}$ for $T^\prime$ in $\alpha$. But this contradicts the scheduler preconditions for $\pi$. Therefore, there is no pending access in $\alpha | X$. 

3.6.4. **Visibility and serial schedules**

In this paragraph, we prove interesting lemmas about visibility in serial schedules.

**Lemma 25.** Let $\alpha$ be a serial schedule, and $\pi$ an operation in $\alpha$. Then transaction($\pi$) is visible in $\alpha$ to some transaction which is live in $\alpha$.

**Proof.** Let $T =$ transaction($\pi$). Since $\alpha$ is not empty, $T_0$ is live in $\alpha$. Let $T^\prime$ be the least ancestor of $T$ which is live in $\alpha$. The proof is by induction on the distance from $T^\prime$ to $T$. If $T = T^\prime$, the result is trivial. So assume that $T \neq T^\prime$. Then $\text{COMMIT}(T)$ is in $\alpha$, and so $T$ is visible to $\text{parent}(T)$ in $\alpha$. Lemma 13 implies that $\alpha$ contains a $\text{REQUEST\_CREATE}(T)$ operation, which occurs at $\text{parent}(T)$. Then the inductive
The hypothesis implies that \( \text{parent}(T) \) is visible to \( T' \). Then \( T \) is visible to \( T' \) by Lemma 8. \( \square \)

**Lemma 26.** (1) Let \( \alpha \) be a serial schedule, \( T \) a transaction and \( X \) an object. Then visible\((\alpha, T)|X \) is a prefix of \( \alpha|X \).

(2) Let \( \alpha \) be a serial schedule, \( T \) a transaction and \( P \) a primitive. Then visible\((\alpha, T)|P \) is a prefix of \( \alpha|P \).

**Proof.** (1): Let \( \pi \) and \( \phi \) be operations in \( \alpha|X \), with \( \pi \) preceding \( \phi \), and \( \phi \) an operation in visible\((\alpha, T) \). Let \( \alpha' \) be the prefix of \( \alpha \) preceding \( \phi \). Let \( T' = \text{transaction}(\phi) \) and \( T'' = \text{transaction}(\pi) \). Since \( \phi \) is either a \texttt{CREATE} or a \texttt{REQUEST} for \( T \), well-formedness of \( \alpha \) implies that \( T' \) is live in \( \alpha' \). Thus, by Lemma 23, the only live transactions in \( \alpha' \phi \) are ancestors of \( T' \). By Lemma 25, \( T'' \) is visible to an ancestor of \( T' \) in \( \alpha' \phi \), and hence in \( \alpha \). By Lemma 8, \( T'' \) is visible to \( T' \) in \( \alpha \). But \( T' \) is visible to \( T \) in \( \alpha \), by assumption. Lemma 8 then implies that \( T'' \) is visible to \( T \) in \( \alpha \), which gives the result.

(2): Immediate from Lemma 11 and part (1). \( \square \)

**Lemma 27.** Let \( \alpha \) be a nonempty serial schedule. Let \( \pi \) be the last operation in \( \alpha \) which is an output of the serial scheduler. Then transaction\((\pi) \) sees everything in \( \alpha \).

**Proof.** Let \( T = \text{transaction}(\pi) \). We first show that \( T \) is live in \( \alpha \). Either \( \pi \) is a \texttt{CREATE}(\( T \)) or else it is a return operation for a child \( T' \) of \( T \). In the latter case, Lemma 14 implies that \texttt{CREATE}(\( T \)) also occurs in \( \alpha \). Thus, in either case, \texttt{CREATE}(\( T \)) occurs in \( \alpha \). Now, if a return operation for \( T \) occurs in \( \alpha \), Lemma 21 implies that it follows \( \pi \), which is impossible. Thus, no return operation for \( T \) occurs in \( \alpha \). It follows that \( T \) is live in \( \alpha \).

Then Lemma 23 implies that the only other transactions that are live in \( \alpha \) must be ancestors or descendants of \( T \). We claim that no proper descendants of \( T \) are live in \( \alpha \). So assume for the sake of obtaining a contradiction that \( U \) is a proper descendant of \( T \) which is live in \( \alpha \). Then \( U \) is a descendant of a child \( V \) of \( T \), and \( V \) is live in \( \alpha \), by Lemma 18. Let \( \alpha' \) be the prefix of \( \alpha \) preceding \( \pi \). There are three cases.

1. \( \pi \) is \texttt{CREATE}(\( T \)). Then Lemma 14 yields a contradiction.
2. \( \pi \) is a \texttt{COMMIT} operation for \( T' \), a child of \( T \). Then \( T' \neq V \) since \( T' \) is not live in \( \alpha \). But \( T' \) and \( V \) are both live in \( \alpha' \), which contradicts Lemma 23.
3. \( \pi \) is an \texttt{ABORT}(\( T' \)), for child \( T' \) of \( T \). Then \( T' \neq V \) since \( T' \) is not live in \( \alpha \). But \( V \) is live in \( \alpha' \). But then the scheduler preconditions for \( \pi \) are not satisfied, a contradiction.

Thus, no descendants are live in \( \alpha \), so the only transactions that are live in \( \alpha \) are ancestors of \( T \). Now let \( \phi \) be any operation in \( \alpha \). Lemma 25 implies that transaction\((\phi) \) is visible in \( \alpha \) to some ancestor of \( T \), and hence to \( T \). \( \square \)
Lemma 28. Let $\alpha$ be a serial schedule, and $T$ a transaction. Then visible($\alpha, T$) is a serial schedule.

Proof. We proceed by induction on the length of $\alpha$. The basis, length = 0, is trivial. Let $\alpha = \alpha' \pi$, where $\pi$ is a single operation. Fix transaction $T$, and let $T' =$ transaction($\pi$). If $T'$ is not visible to $T$ in $\alpha$, then visible($\alpha, T$) = visible($\alpha', T$), and the result is true by inductive hypothesis. So assume that $T'$ is visible to $T$ in $\alpha$.

If $\pi$ is an output operation of a primitive $P$, then visible($\alpha, T$)$|P$ is a prefix of $\alpha|P$, by Lemma 26, and thus is a schedule of $P$. By the inductive hypothesis, visible($\alpha', T$) is a serial schedule. Also, visible($\alpha, T$) = visible($\alpha', T$)$\pi$ by Lemma 12. Then Lemma 4 shows that visible($\alpha, T$) is a serial schedule.

On the other hand, if $\pi$ is an output operation of the scheduler, then Lemma 27 implies that $T'$ sees everything in $\alpha$. But since $T'$ is visible to $T$ in $\alpha$, it follows that $T$ sees everything in $\alpha$. Thus, visible($\alpha, T$) = $\alpha$, a serial schedule. $\square$

3.6.5. Reordering and combining serial schedules

In this paragraph, we describe ways in which serial schedules can be modified and combined to yield other serial schedules. These lemmas are used in the proof of the main theorem, in Section 7.

Lemma 29. Let $\alpha$ and $\alpha'$ be two equivalent serial schedules. If $\beta$ is a sequence of serial operations such that $\alpha\beta$ is a serial schedule, then $\alpha'\beta$ is a serial schedule, and is equivalent to $\alpha\beta$.

Proof. Equivalence is trivial. The fact that $\alpha'\beta$ is a serial schedule follows because the preconditions of the serial scheduler depend only upon the presence of previous operations, not their order. $\square$

The next lemma says that any serial schedule can be transformed by moving all the operations visible to any particular transaction to the beginning of the schedule, and the result is another serial schedule. This lemma can be thought of as describing a kind of "canonical form" for a serial schedule, with respect to a particular transaction.

Lemma 30. Let $\alpha$ be a serial schedule, and $T$ any transaction. Let $\beta =$ visible($\alpha, T$). Then $\beta(\alpha - \beta)$ is equivalent to $\alpha$ and is serial.

Proof. Let $\alpha' = \beta(\alpha - \beta)$. If $P$ is any primitive, then Lemma 26 implies that $\beta|P$ is a prefix of $\alpha|P$. Thus, $\alpha'$ is equivalent to $\alpha$.

To show that $\alpha'$ is serial, we proceed by induction on its prefixes. By Lemma 28, $\beta$ is serial, so we can use $\beta$ as the basis. Let $\gamma\pi$ be a prefix of $\alpha'$, where $\pi$ is a serial operation in $\alpha - \beta$ and $\gamma$ is a serial schedule. If $\pi$ is an output operation of a primitive $P$, then $\gamma\pi|P$ is a prefix of $\alpha'|P$, equaling $\alpha|P$ by equivalence, which is
a schedule of \( P \). Then Lemma 4 shows that \( \gamma \pi \) is a serial schedule. So assume that \( \pi \) is an output operation of the serial scheduler.

Let \( s \) be the state of the serial scheduler after \( \gamma \). Let \( \gamma' \pi \) be the prefix of \( \alpha \) ending in \( \pi \), and let \( s' \) be the state of the serial scheduler after \( \gamma' \). Then \( \pi \) is enabled in \( s' \). We must show that \( \pi \) is enabled in \( s \). This suffices, by Lemma 4.

Since every operation in \( \gamma' \) is also in \( \gamma \), it follows that each component set of \( s' \) is a subset of the corresponding set of \( s \). There are three cases.

1. \( \pi \) is \( \text{create}(T') \) for some transaction \( T' \). Then transaction(\( \pi \)) = \( T' \), and \( T' \) is not visible to \( T \) in \( \alpha \). Then \( T' \in \text{create}_{\text{requested}}(s') \subseteq \text{create}_{\text{requested}}(s) \). Also, it is easy to show that \( T' \not\in \text{created}(s) \) and \( T' \not\in \text{aborted}(s) \). Now let \( U \) be in siblings(\( T' \) \( \cap \) \( \text{created}(s) \)). If \( U \in \text{created}(s') \), then \( U \in \text{returned}(s') \) since \( \pi \) is enabled in \( s' \), a subset of \( \text{returned}(s) \), as needed. So suppose that \( U \not\in \text{created}(s') \). Then \( \text{create}(U) \) occurs in \( \beta \), so \( U \) is visible to \( T \) in \( \alpha \).

Since \( \alpha \) contains both \( \text{create}(T') \) and \( \text{create}(U) \), Lemma 23 implies that \( \alpha \) must contain a \text{commit} for at least one of \( T' \) or \( U \). If \( \alpha \) contains a \text{commit} for \( U \), then it occurs in \( \beta \), so \( U \in \text{returned}(s) \). On the other hand, if \( \alpha \) contains a \text{commit} for \( T' \), then \( T' \) is visible to \( U \) in \( \alpha \), so Lemma 8 implies that \( T' \) is visible to \( T \) in \( \alpha \), a contradiction.

2. \( \pi \) is \( \text{commit}(T', v) \) for some transaction \( T' \) and value \( v \). Then transaction(\( \pi \)) is parent(\( T' \)), which is not visible to \( T \) in \( \alpha \). Then \( (T', v) \) is in \( \text{commit}_{\text{requested}}(s') \subseteq \text{commit}_{\text{requested}}(s) \). Also, it is easy to show that \( T' \not\in \text{returned}(s) \). Now let \( U \) be in children(\( T' \) \( \cap \) \( \text{commit}_{\text{requested}}(s) \)). Then there is a \text{request}\text{-create}(U) in \( \gamma \). This \text{request}\text{-create}(U) occurs at \( T' \), which cannot be visible to \( T \) in \( \alpha \) since parent(\( T' \)) is not visible to \( T \) in \( \alpha \). Thus, the \text{request}\text{-create}(U) does not occur in \( \beta \), so it occurs in \( \gamma' \). Since \( \pi \) is enabled in \( s' \), we have \( U \in \text{returned}(s') \subseteq \text{returned}(s) \).

3. \( \pi \) is \( \text{abort}(T') \) for some transaction \( T' \). Then transaction(\( \pi \)) = parent(\( T' \)), and parent(\( T' \)) is not visible to \( T \) in \( \alpha \). Then \( T' \in \text{create}_{\text{requested}}(s') \subseteq \text{create}_{\text{requested}}(s) \). Also, it is easy to show that \( T' \not\in \text{created}(s) \) and \( T' \not\in \text{aborted}(s) \). Now let \( U \in \text{siblings}(T') \cap \text{created}(s) \). Then \( \text{create}(U) \) occurs in \( \gamma \). But \( \text{create}(U) \) occurs at \( U \), and \( U \) cannot be visible to \( T \) in \( \alpha \) since parent(\( U \)) = parent(\( T' \)) is not visible to \( T \) in \( \alpha \). Therefore, \( \text{create}(U) \) does not occur in \( \beta \), so it occurs in \( \gamma' \). Then \( U \) is in siblings(\( T' \) \( \cap \) \( \text{created}(s') \)) \( \subseteq \text{returned}(s') \subseteq \text{returned}(s) \). \( \square \)

The following lemma is an easy consequence of the preceding one.

**Lemma 31.** Let \( \alpha \) be a finite sequence of serial operations, and let \( T \) and \( T' \) be two transactions with \( T' \) visible to \( T \) in \( \alpha \). Let \( \beta \) and \( \beta' \) be serial schedules, such that \( \beta \) is equivalent to visible(\( \alpha \), \( T \)) and \( \beta' \) is equivalent to visible(\( \alpha \), \( T' \)). Then \( \beta'' = \beta'((\beta - \beta') \) is equivalent to \( \beta \) and serial.

**Proof.** Let \( \gamma = \text{visible}(\beta, T') \). Then \( \gamma \) is serial by Lemma 28. Lemma 30 implies that \( \gamma(\beta - \gamma) \) is equivalent to \( \beta \) and serial. Lemma 10 implies that \( \beta' \) is equivalent to \( \gamma, \) and thus \( \beta'' = \beta'((\beta - \beta') \) is equivalent to \( \beta \) and serial.

The next lemma completes the proof of "cutting the Gordian knot".

**Lemma 32.** \( T \not\in \text{visible}(\alpha, T') \) for \( T' \) three transactions.

1. \( T \not\in \text{visible}(\alpha, T') \) for \( T \not\in \text{visible}(\alpha, T') \)
2. \( T \not\in \text{visible}(\alpha, T') \) for \( T \not\in \text{visible}(\alpha, T') \)
3. \( T \not\in \text{visible}(\alpha, T') \) for \( T \not\in \text{visible}(\alpha, T') \)
4. \( \alpha \not\in \text{visible}(\alpha, T') \) for \( \alpha \not\in \text{visible}(\alpha, T') \)
5. \( \alpha \not\in \text{visible}(\alpha, T') \) for \( \alpha \not\in \text{visible}(\alpha, T') \)

**Proof.** Not shown.

Any operation in \( \alpha \) that is not visible(\( \alpha, T' \)) is not a dependent of an operation in \( \alpha \) in \( \alpha \) since no \( \alpha \) operation is visible in \( \alpha \) in \( \alpha \) in \( \alpha \).

We prove that \( \alpha \not\in \text{visible}(\alpha, T') \) for \( \alpha \not\in \text{visible}(\alpha, T') \) by assumption.

There are two cases due to seriality.

Support \( \alpha \), if \( \alpha \) contains \( \alpha' \phi \), \( \alpha' \phi \not\in \text{visible}(\alpha, T') \). The result is not true.

So suppose \( \alpha \not\in \text{visible}(\alpha, T') \) for \( \alpha \not\in \text{visible}(\alpha, T') \).

Some dependent of \( \alpha \) holds, \( \alpha' \phi \), \( \alpha' \phi \not\in \text{visible}(\alpha, T') \), as needed.

If \( \alpha \not\in \text{visible}(\alpha, T') \), then \( \alpha' \phi \not\in \text{visible}(\alpha, T') \) holds as needed.
and thus that $\beta - \gamma = \beta'$. Then Lemma 29 implies that $\beta''$ is equivalent to $\gamma(\beta - \gamma)$ and serial. Thus, $\beta''$ is equivalent to $\beta$ and serial.

The next two lemmas are used in the proof of Theorem 68. Each describes a way of “cutting and pasting” two serial schedules to yield a new serial schedule.

**Lemma 32.** Let $\alpha\beta_1\text{COMMIT}(T', u)$ and $\alpha\beta_2$ be two serial schedules, and $T$, $T'$ and $T''$ three transactions such that the following conditions hold:

1. $T'$ is a child of $T''$ and $T$ is a descendant of $T''$ but not of $T'$,
2. $T'$ sees everything in $\alpha\beta_1$,
3. $T$ sees everything in $\alpha\beta_2$,
4. $\alpha = \text{visible}(\alpha\beta_1, T'') = \text{visible}(\alpha\beta_2, T'')$ and
5. no basic object has operations in both $\beta_1$ and $\beta_2$.

Then $\alpha\beta_1\text{COMMIT}(T', u)\beta_2$ is a serial schedule.

**Proof.** Note first that if $T = T''$, then $\beta_2$ is empty and the result is trivial. So assume that $T \neq T''$. Then $T$ is a descendant of a child $U$ of $T''$, and $U \neq T'$.

Any operation in $\alpha\beta_1$, whose transaction is not a descendant of $T'$, must be in $\text{visible}(\alpha\beta_1, T'')$ by Lemma 8. Similarly, any operation in $\alpha\beta_2$ whose transaction is not a descendant of $U$ must be in $\text{visible}(\alpha\beta_2, T'')$. Thus, $\beta_1$ and $\beta_2$ contain only operations at descendants of $T'$ and $U$ respectively. Since $T'$ and $U$ are distinct siblings, and by assumption no objects have operations in both $\beta_1$ and $\beta_2$, it follows that no primitive has an operation occurring in both $\beta_1$ and $\beta_2$.

We proceed by induction on prefixes of $\alpha\beta_1\text{COMMIT}(T', u)\beta_2$. Let $\alpha'\phi$ be a prefix of $\alpha\beta_1\text{COMMIT}(T', u)\beta_2$, with $\alpha'$ a serial schedule and $\phi$ a serial operation. We use $\alpha'\phi = \alpha\beta_1\text{COMMIT}(T', u)$ as the basis since $\alpha\beta_1\text{COMMIT}(T', u)$ is a serial schedule by assumption. So assume that $\alpha' = \alpha\beta_1\text{COMMIT}(T', u)\beta'$ for some sequence $\beta'$. There are two cases, depending on whether $\phi$ is an output of a primitive or of the serial scheduler.

Suppose that $\phi$ is an output operation of a primitive $P$. Then $\beta_1\text{COMMIT}(T', v)$ contains no operations at $P$. Thus, $\alpha'\phi|P = \alpha\beta_1\phi|P$, which is a prefix of $\alpha\beta_2|P$, which is a schedule of $P$ since $\alpha\beta_2$ is a serial schedule. Thus, $\alpha'\phi|P$ is a schedule of $P$. The result follows by Lemma 4.

So suppose $\phi$ is an output of the serial scheduler. Then transaction($\phi$) = $V$ for some descendant $V$ of $U$. Let $s$ be the state of the serial scheduler after $\alpha'$, and let $s'$ be the state of the serial scheduler after $\alpha\beta'$. Then the following relationships hold between $s$ and $s'$:

1. $V \in \text{created}_\gamma(s') \iff V \in \text{create}_\gamma(s') \iff \text{create}_\gamma(s') \implies \text{aborted}(s')$
2. $\text{children}(V) \cap \text{create}_\gamma(s) \subseteq \text{returned}(s')$
3. $(V, v) \in \text{commit}_\gamma(s') \iff (V, v) \in \text{commit}_\gamma(s)$. 

\'s that...
(4) \( V \not\in \text{returned}(s') \) iff \( V \not\in \text{returned}(s) \).

(5) \( \text{siblings}(V) \cap \text{created}(s') \subseteq \text{returned}(s') \)
    iff \( \text{siblings}(V) \cap \text{created}(s) \subseteq \text{returned}(s) \)

Since the operations in \( \beta_1 \) are all at descendants of \( T' \), and those of \( \beta_2 \) are all at
descendants of \( U \), the first four biconditionals are immediate from Lemma 7. If \( V \)
is a proper descendant of \( U \), the last biconditional also follows. It remains to show
that \( \text{siblings}(U) \cap \text{created}(s') \subseteq \text{returned}(s') \) iff \( \text{siblings}(U) \cap \text{created}(s) \subseteq \text{returned}(s) \). But any sibling of \( U \) created in \( \alpha \beta' \) is created in \( \alpha' \), and the only sibling
of \( U \) created in \( \alpha' \) and not \( \alpha \beta' \) is \( T' \), and \( T \in \text{returned}(s) \). Thus, the claims are true.

Since \( \phi \) is enabled in \( s' \), the claims above imply that \( \phi \) is also enabled in \( s \). The result follows. \( \square \)

**Lemma 33.** Let \( \alpha \text{abort}(T') \) and \( \alpha \beta \) be two serial schedules, and let \( T, T' \) and \( T'' \) be
transactions such that the following conditions hold:

1. \( T' \) is a child of \( T'' \) and \( T \) is a descendant of \( T'' \) but not of \( T' \),
2. \( T \) sees everything in \( \alpha \beta \), and
3. \( \alpha = \text{visible}(\alpha, T'') = \text{visible}(\alpha \beta, T'') \).

Then \( \alpha \text{abort}(T') \beta \) is a serial schedule.

**Proof.** Similar to, but somewhat simpler than, the proof of Lemma 32. \( \square \)

4. Resilient objects

Having stated our correctness conditions, we are now ready to begin describing
implementations and proving that they meet the requirements. This section and the
next are devoted to the description of a concurrent system which permits the abort
of transactions that have performed steps. An important component of a concurrent
system is a new kind of object called a "resilient object". A resilient object is similar
to a basic object, but it has the additional capability to undo operations of transac-
tions that it discovers have aborted. Resilient objects have no capabilities for
managing concurrency: rather, they assume that concurrency control is handled
externally (by lock manager components of the scheduler). This section defines
resilient objects and presents some of their properties. It also digresses slightly from
the main development by describing and proving correct a particular implementation
of resilient objects, which are constructed by keeping multiple copies of corresponding
basic objects. The resilient object manages these copies as versions of the data
object. Upon learning of an abort, the appropriate stored version is used in place
of the current version.

4.1. Definitions

Resilient object \( R(X) \) mimics the behavior of basic object \( X \), but has two
additional input operations, \( \text{inform-commit-at}(X) \text{of}(T) \) and \( \text{inform-
abort-at}(X) \text{of}(T) \) for every transaction \( T \). Upon receiving an \( \text{inform-}
ABORT_AT(X)OF(T), R(X) erases any effects of accesses which are descendants of T. This property is made formal as the "Resiliency Condition" below.

R(X) has the following operations, which we call R(X)-operations.

Input operations:

- CREATE(T), T an access to X,
- INFORM_COMMIT_AT(X)OF(T),
- INFORM_ABORT_AT(X)OF(T).

Output operations:

- REQUEST_COMMIT(T, v), T an access to X.

In order to describe well-formedness for resilient objects, we require a technical definition for the set of transactions which are active after a finite sequence of R(X)-operations. Roughly speaking, the transactions which are active are those on whose behalf the object has carried out some activity, but whose fate the object does not know.

The definition is recursive on the length of the sequence of R(X) operations. Namely, only T_0 is active after the empty sequence. Let α = βπ, where π is a single operation, and let A and B denote the sets of active transactions after α and β, respectively. Then

\[
A = \begin{cases} 
B \cup \{T\} & \text{if } \pi \text{ is CREATE(T)}, \\
B & \text{if } \pi \text{ is a REQUEST_COMMIT for } T, \\
(B - \{T\}) \cup \{ \text{parent}(T) \} & \text{if } \pi \text{ is INFORM_COMMIT_AT(X)OF(T) and } T \text{ is in } B, \\
B & \text{if } \pi \text{ is INFORM_COMMIT_AT(X)OF(T) and } T \text{ is not in } B, \\
B - \text{descendants}(T) & \text{if } \pi \text{ is INFORM_ABORT_AT(X)OF(T)}. 
\end{cases}
\]

Now we define well-formedness for finite sequences of R(X) operations. Again, the definition is recursive. Namely, the empty schedule is well-formed. Also, if α = α'π is a sequence of R(X)-operations, then α is well-formed provided that α' is well-formed, and the following hold.

- If π is CREATE(T), then
  (i) there is no CREATE(T) in α',
  (ii) all the transactions which are active after α' are ancestors of T.
- If π is a REQUEST_COMMIT for T, then
  (i) there is no REQUEST_COMMIT for T in α', and
  (ii) T is active after α'.
- If π is INFORM_COMMIT_AT(X)OF(T), then
  (i) there is no INFORM_ABORT_AT(X)OF(T) in α',
  (ii) if T is an access to X, then a REQUEST_COMMIT for T occurs in α'.
- If π is INFORM_ABORT_AT(X)OF(T), then
  (i) there is no INFORM_COMMIT_AT(X)OF(T) in α'.
An immediate consequence of these definitions is that the transactions active after any well-formed sequence of \( R(X) \)-operations \( \alpha \) are a subset of the ancestors of a single active transaction, which we denote \( \text{least}(\alpha) \).

Now we define an "undo" operator, which, when applied to a finite sequence of \( R(X) \)-operations, "undoes" the actions of transactions which are known to have aborted. Namely, for \( \alpha \) a finite sequence of \( R(X) \)-operations, define \( \text{undo}(\alpha) \) recursively as follows. Define \( \text{undo}(\lambda) = \lambda \), where \( \lambda \) is the empty sequence. Let \( \alpha = \beta \pi \), where \( \pi \) is a single operation. If \( \pi \) is a serial operation (a \text{create} or a \text{request-commit}), then \( \text{undo}(\alpha) = \text{undo}(\beta) \pi \). If \( \pi \) is \text{inform-commit-at}(X) \text{of}(T), then \( \text{undo}(\alpha) = \text{undo}(\beta) \). If \( \pi \) is \text{inform-abort-at}(X) \text{of}(T), then \( \text{undo}(\alpha) \) is the result of eliminating, from \( \text{undo}(\beta) \), all operations whose transactions are descendants of \( T \). Note that \( \text{undo}(\alpha) \) contains only serial operations.

Let \( \alpha \) be any finite sequence of \( R(X) \)-operations, and let \( \pi \) be an operation in \( \alpha \) of the form \text{inform-abort-at}(X) \text{of}(T). \) Then the scope \( \gamma \) of \( \pi \) in \( \alpha \) is the subsequence \( \gamma \) of \( \alpha \) consisting of operations eliminated by \( \pi \). That is, if \( \beta \pi \) is a prefix of \( \alpha \), then the scope of \( \pi \) in \( \alpha \) is the subsequence of \( \text{undo}(\beta) \) consisting of operations whose transactions are descendants of \( T \).

**Resiliency Condition.** Resilient object \( R(X) \) satisfies the resiliency condition if, for every well-formed schedule \( \alpha \) of \( R(X) \), \( \text{undo}(\alpha) \) is a schedule of basic object \( X \).

We require that resilient object \( R(X) \) preserve well-formedness and satisfy the resiliency condition.

The resiliency condition is the correctness condition required by the concurrent schedulers at the object interface. The well-formedness requirement is a syntactic restriction, and the condition that \( \text{undo}(\alpha) \) be a schedule of basic object \( X \) expresses the required semantic relationship between the resilient object and the basic object it incorporates. The important property which must be preserved is that the correctness condition at the resilient objects, together with the behavior of the concurrent scheduler, assures correctness at the transaction boundaries.

### 4.2. Properties of resilient objects

This subsection contains a collection of simple lemmas about the properties of well-formed sequences of \( R(X) \) operations.

**Lemma 34.** Let \( \alpha \pi \) be a well-formed sequence of \( R(X) \) operations, with \( \pi \) a single operation. The following are true:

1. If \( \pi \) is a serial operation, then \( \text{transaction}(\pi) \) is active after \( \alpha \pi \).
2. If \( T \) is an access active after a prefix of \( \alpha \) but not after \( \alpha \pi \), then \( T \) is not active after \( \alpha \pi \).
3. If \( \pi \) is a \text{request-commit} for \( T \), then \text{create}(T) \) is the last serial operation in \( \alpha \).

**Proof.**

1. Suppose \( \pi \) is a serial operation. Then \( \text{transaction}(\pi) \) and \( \text{transaction}(\alpha \pi) \) are distinct, so \( \text{transaction}(\pi) \) is active after \( \alpha \pi \), by definition of well-formedness.
2. Let \( \phi \) be a transaction with \( \text{transaction}(\phi) \) active after a prefix of \( \alpha \) but not after \( \alpha \pi \). Then in \( \alpha \pi \), \( \text{transaction}(\phi) \) is active after some operation \( \gamma \) in \( \alpha \pi \). Since \( \alpha \pi \) is well-formed, \( \gamma \) must be serial, and \( \text{transaction}(\gamma) \) is in \( \alpha \pi \), so \( \text{transaction}(\gamma) \) is active after \( \alpha \pi \).
3. Let \( \psi \) be a transaction with \( \text{transaction}(\psi) \) active after \( \text{create}(T) \). Then in \( \alpha \pi \), \( \text{transaction}(\psi) \) is active after some operation \( \gamma \) in \( \alpha \pi \). Since \( \alpha \pi \) is well-formed, \( \gamma \) must be serial, and \( \text{transaction}(\gamma) \) is in \( \alpha \pi \), so \( \text{transaction}(\gamma) \) is active after \( \text{create}(T) \).

**Lemma 35.** Let \( \phi \) be a transaction with \( \text{transaction}(\phi) \) active after a prefix of \( \alpha \pi \). Then \( \text{create}(T) \) is the last serial operation in \( \alpha \pi \).

**Proof.** Suppose \( \text{create}(T) \) is not the last serial operation in \( \alpha \pi \). Then there exists a serial operation \( \gamma \) in \( \alpha \pi \) such that \( \text{transaction}(\gamma) \) is active after \( \alpha \pi \) and \( \text{transaction}(\gamma) \) is active before \( \text{transaction}(\phi) \). But this contradicts the well-formedness of \( \alpha \pi \).
Proof. (1): Immediate from the definition of active and well-formedness.
(2): Because \( T \) has no descendants, it can only become active when a \( \text{CREATE}(T) \) operation occurs, which can only happen once in a well-formed schedule.
(3): Suppose the last serial operation in \( \alpha \) is \( \phi \), with \( \phi \neq \text{CREATE}(T) \). Let transaction(\( \phi \)) = \( T' \). By well-formedness, \( T \neq T' \). Also by well-formedness, \( T \) is active in \( \alpha \), so that \( \text{CREATE}(T) \) must occur in \( \alpha \), and so precedes \( \phi \). By part (1), \( T \) is active following \( \text{CREATE}(T) \) and after \( \pi \), and \( T' \) is active following \( \phi \). But \( T \) cannot be active when \( \phi \) occurs, by well-formedness, contradicting part (2) of this lemma. \( \square \)

Lemma 35. Let \( \alpha \) be a well-formed sequence of \( R(X) \) operations. Let \( T \) and \( T' \) be accesses to \( X \) with \( T \neq T' \), and let \( \pi \) and \( \phi \) be serial operations with transactions \( T \) and \( T' \) respectively. If \( \pi \) precedes \( \phi \) in \( \alpha \), then, between \( \pi \) and \( \phi \), there is either an \( \text{INFORM_ABORT_AT}(X) \) for some ancestor of \( T \), or else there are \( \text{INFORM_COMMIT_AT}(X) \text{OF}(U) \) operations for all ancestors \( U \) of \( T \) which are not ancestors of \( T' \), occurring in order from lowest to highest in the transaction tree ordering.

Proof. By part (3) of Lemma 34 and well-formedness, we may assume that \( \phi = \text{CREATE}(T') \). Lemma 34 implies that \( T \) is active immediately after \( \pi \). By well-formedness, before \( \text{CREATE}(T') \) can occur, it must be that all transactions that are active are ancestors of \( T' \). There are only two ways in which this can happen. One possibility is that \( R(X) \) first receives \( \text{INFORM_COMMITS} \) for all ancestors of \( T \) up to \( \text{lca}(T, T') \) in order from lowest to highest in the transaction tree ordering. The other possibility is that \( R(X) \) first receives an \( \text{INFORM_ABORT} \) for an ancestor of \( T \). \( \square \)

Lemma 36. Let \( \alpha \pi \) be a well-formed sequence of \( R(X) \) operations, with \( \pi = \text{INFORM_ABORT_AT}(X) \text{OF}(T) \). Then undo(\( \alpha \pi \)) is a prefix of undo(\( \alpha \)).

Proof. Suppose not. Then there is a subsequence \( \phi \psi \) of two operations in undo(\( \alpha \)), such that \( \psi \) is in undo(\( \alpha \pi \)) and \( \phi \) is not. Clearly, \( \phi \) and \( \psi \) are serial operations, transaction(\( \phi \)) is a descendant of \( T \) and transaction(\( \psi \)) is not. Since \( \phi \) is not in the scope of an \( \text{INFORM_ABORT} \) in \( \alpha \), by Lemma 35, there is an \( \text{INFORM_COMMIT} \) between \( \phi \) and \( \psi \) for every proper descendant of \( \text{lca}(\text{transaction}(\phi), \text{transaction}(\psi)) \) that is an ancestor of \( \text{transaction}(\phi) \), including \( T \). This contradicts the well-formedness of \( \alpha \pi \). \( \square \)

Lemma 37. Let \( \alpha \) be a well-formed sequence of \( R(X) \) operations, and let \( T \) be any transaction active in \( \alpha \), other than \( T_0 \). Then undo(\( \alpha \)) contains an operation \( \phi \) at a descendant \( T' \) of \( T \), which is followed in \( \alpha \) by an \( \text{INFORM_COMMIT} \) for every ancestor of \( T' \) which is a proper descendant of \( T \).

Proof. The proof is by induction on \( \alpha \), with a trivial basis. Let \( \alpha = \alpha' \pi \) such that the lemma is true for \( \alpha' \) and that \( \pi \) is a single operation. Let \( T \) be a transaction active after \( \alpha \). There are four cases.
Suppose $\pi$ is \texttt{CREATE}(T$''$). Then undo($\alpha$) = undo($\alpha'$)$\pi$. If $T \neq T''$, the result is immediate by the induction hypothesis since $T$ is active after $\alpha'$. If $T = T''$, then the lemma follows with $\pi = \phi$.

(2) If $\pi$ is a \texttt{REQUEST\_COMMIT} for a transaction $T''$, then undo($\alpha$) = undo($\alpha'$)$\pi$ and the same transactions are active in $\alpha$ and $\alpha'$. The result is immediate.

(3) Suppose $\pi$ is an \texttt{INFORM\_COMMIT} for a transaction $T''$. Then undo($\alpha$) = undo($\alpha'$)$\pi$. If $T$ is active after $\alpha'$, the result is immediate. If $T$ is not active after $\alpha'$, it follows that $T = \text{parent}(T'')$. The result is immediate from the induction hypothesis.

(4) Suppose $\pi$ is an \texttt{INFORM\_ABORT} for a transaction $U$. Since $T$ is active after $\alpha$, it was active after $\alpha'$ and $U$ is not an ancestor of $T$. Let $\phi$ be the transaction of transaction $T'$ which follows from the inductive hypothesis applied to $T$ and $\alpha'$. Since $\alpha$ is well-formed and $\alpha'$ contains \texttt{INFORM\_COMMITS} for every ancestor of $T'$ up to $T$, $U$ is not an ancestor of $T'$. It follows that $\phi$ is in undo($\alpha$) and the result holds.

\textbf{Lemma 38.} Let $\alpha$ be a well-formed sequence of $R(X)$ operations, and let least($\alpha$) = $T$. If undo($\alpha$) is nonempty, then it ends in an operation of a descendant of $T$.

\textbf{Proof.} If $T = T_0$, the result is trivial, so assume otherwise. By the previous lemma, undo($\alpha$) contains an operation $\phi$ at a descendant of $T$. Without loss of generality, assume that $\phi$ is the last operation in undo($\alpha$) at a descendant of $T$. If any other operation $\pi$ followed $\phi$ in undo($\alpha$), by Lemma 35, $\alpha$ would contain \texttt{INFORM\_COMMITS} for every ancestor of transaction($\phi$) up to lca(transaction($\phi$), transaction($\pi$)), which includes $T$. Then $T$ is not active in $\alpha$, a contradiction.

\textbf{Lemma 39.} Let $\alpha\pi$ be a well-formed sequence of $R(X)$ operations, with $\pi = \texttt{INFORM\_ABORT\_AT}(X)$ of ($T$). If $T$ is not an ancestor of least($\alpha$), then undo($\alpha\pi$) = undo($\alpha$).

\textbf{Proof.} Suppose that $T$ is not an ancestor of least($\alpha$) and that undo($\alpha\pi$) $\neq$ undo($\alpha$). Then undo($\alpha$) contains a serial operation $\phi$ at a descendant $T'$ of $T$. By Lemma 38, $\phi$ is followed in undo($\alpha$) by an operation at a descendant of least($\alpha$). By Lemma 35, $\alpha$ contains an \texttt{INFORM\_COMMIT} for every ancestor least($\alpha$) up to lca(least($\alpha$), $T'$), which includes $T$, contradicting the well-formedness of $\alpha\pi$.

We are now able to show that the undo operator preserves well-formedness.

\textbf{Lemma 40.} If $\alpha$ is a well-formed sequence of $R(X)$-operations, then undo($\alpha$) is a well-formed sequence of $X$-operations.

\textbf{Proof.} The proof is by induction on the length of $\alpha$. The basis is trivial. Assume $\alpha = \alpha'\pi$, where $\pi$ is a single operation, and undo($\alpha'$) is a well-formed sequence of
X-operations. If \( \pi \) is an \textsc{inform-abort} or \textsc{inform-commit}, \( \text{undo}(\alpha) \) is a prefix of \( \text{undo}(\alpha') \), by Lemma 36, and the result is immediate.

If \( \pi \) is \textsc{create}(\( T \)), then \( \text{undo}(\alpha) = \text{undo}(\alpha') \pi \). By the well-formedness of \( \alpha \), \textsc{create}(\( T \)) does not appear in \( \alpha' \), and so not in \( \text{undo}(\alpha') \). Hence, (i) is satisfied. To see (ii), assume that \textsc{create}(\( T' \)) occurs in \( \text{undo}(\alpha') \), for access \( T' \). Then Lemma 35 implies that \textsc{inform-commit-at}(\( X \)) of \( \text{create}(\alpha') \) occurs after \textsc{create}(\( T' \)) in \( \alpha \). Then well-formedness (the precondition for \textsc{inform-commit-at}(\( X \)) of \( \text{create}(\alpha') \)) implies that a \textsc{request-commit} for \( T' \) occurs in \( \alpha' \), and well-formedness also implies that the \textsc{request-commit} for \( T' \) follows the \textsc{create}(\( T' \)). Therefore, the \textsc{request-commit} occurs in \( \text{undo}(\alpha') \), and so \( T' \) is not pending in \( \text{undo}(\alpha') \). Thus, (ii) is satisfied.

If \( \pi \) is a \textsc{request-commit} for \( T \), then again \( \text{undo}(\alpha) = \text{undo}(\alpha') \pi \), and by the well-formedness of \( \alpha \),

(i) no \textsc{request-commit} for \( T \) appears in \( \alpha' \), and so not in \( \text{undo}(\alpha') \), and
(ii) \( T \) is active after \( \alpha' \), and it follows that \textsc{create}(\( T' \)) occurs in \( \text{undo}(\alpha') \).

4.3. Construction of a resilient object

In this subsection, we describe a construction of a resilient object \( R(X) \) from a basic object \( X \).

Recall that a resilient object \( X \) is distinguished from a basic object in that it has \textsc{inform-abort} and \textsc{inform-commit} operations, a different definition of well-formedness, and satisfies the resiliency condition. The resilient object \( R(X) \) is constructed from the states, transition function and operation labels of the basic object \( X \). The resilient object \( R(X) \) maintains a collection of “copies of \( X \)” (i.e., remembers states of \( X \)), one for each active transaction, with a particular current copy (corresponding to the least active transaction) to which \textsc{create} operations are sent. When \( R(X) \) receives an \textsc{inform-abort}, the appropriate stored copy becomes the current copy, thereby erasing the effects of the operations in the scope of the \textsc{inform-abort}.

The state of \( R(X) \) consists of a pair \((\text{act}, \text{map})\), where \text{act} is a set of “active” transactions, and \text{map} is a function from \text{act} to states of basic object \( X \). In the well-formed executions of \( R(X) \) (defined below), \text{act} will always be a subset of the set of ancestors of one particular transaction in \( \alpha \), called \text{least}(\text{act}) \). (In case \text{act} has no least member (which, again, will not arise in executions with well-formed schedules), define \text{least}(\text{act}) arbitrarily.) The copy for \text{least}(\text{act}) is considered to be current. The initial states of \( R(X) \) are those in which \( \text{act} = \{ T_0 \} \) and \( \text{map}(T_0) \) is an initial state of the basic object \( X \). In the following specification of the operations of \( R(X) \), let \((\text{act}', \text{map}')\) be the state of \( R(X) \) prior to the operation, and \((\text{act}, \text{map})\) be the state of \( R(X) \) after the operation.

- \textsc{create}(\( T \)), \( T \) an access to \( X \)

**Postcondition:**

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{act} &= \text{act}' \cup \{ T \}, \\
\text{map}(U) &= \text{map}'(U) \quad \text{for all } U \in \text{act} - \{ T \},
\end{align*}
\]
map(T) = s, where (map'(least(act'))), CREATE(T), s) is in the transition relation of X.

- **INFORM_ABORT_AT(X)OF(T)**
  **Postcondition:**
  \[ \text{act} = \text{act}' - \text{descendants}(T),\quad \text{map}(U) = \text{map}'(U) \quad \text{for all } U \in \text{act}. \]

- **INFORM_COMMIT_AT(X)OF(T)**
  **Postcondition:**
  \[\begin{align*}
  &\text{if } T \in \text{act'} \text{ then} \\
  &\quad \text{begin} \\
  &\quad \quad \text{act} = (\text{act}' - \{T\}) \cup \{\text{parent}(T)\} \\
  &\quad \quad \text{map}(U) = \text{map}'(U) \quad \text{for } U \in \text{act} - \{\text{parent}(T)\} \\
  &\quad \quad \text{map}(\text{parent}(T)) = \text{map}'(T) \\
  &\quad \text{end} \\
  &\text{if } T \in \text{act'} \text{ then } \text{act} = \text{act}' \text{ and map} = \text{map}'.
\end{align*}\]

- **REQUEST_COMMIT(T, v)**
  **Precondition:**
  \[\text{least}(\text{act'}) = T, \quad (\text{map}'(T), \text{REQUEST_COMMIT}(T, v), s) \text{ is in the transition relation of } X;\]
  **Postcondition:**
  \[\begin{align*}
  &\text{act} = \text{act'}, \\
  &\text{map}(U) = \text{map}'(U) \quad \text{for all } U \in \text{act} - \{T\}, \\
  &\text{map}(T) = s.
\end{align*}\]

Now we prove that this implementation is a correct resilient object.

**Lemma 41.** Let \( \alpha \) be a well-formed schedule of \( R(X) \) which can leave \( R(X) \) in state (act, map). Then act coincides with the set of transactions which are active after \( \alpha \).

**Proof.** The proof is by induction on the length of \( \alpha \). The basis is trivial. Let \( \alpha = \alpha' \pi \), where \( \pi \) is a single operation. There are four cases, depending on the type of operation \( \pi \). Each is immediate from the definition of active and the implementation of \( R(X) \). □

**Lemma 42.** Let \( \alpha \) be a well-formed schedule of \( R(X) \) which can leave \( R(X) \) in state (act, map). Then the following conditions hold.
- undo(\( \alpha \)) is a schedule of basic object \( X \) which can leave \( X \) in state map(least(act)), and
- if \( T' \) is the basic object invoked in \( undo(\alpha) \), then \( T' \) is a stable object which is not atomic.

**Proof.** Let \( \alpha \) be a well-formed schedule of \( R(X) \) which can leave \( R(X) \) from the same state as \( undo(\alpha) \) leaves it in.

The proof is by induction on the length of \( \alpha \). The basis is trivial. Let \( \alpha = \alpha' \pi \), where \( \pi \) is a single operation. There are four cases, depending on the type of operation \( \pi \). Each is immediate from the definition of active and the implementation of \( R(X) \).

1. For operation \( \pi \) and for all \( T' \) not in the transition relation of \( X \), \( T' \) is a stable object which is not atomic.

2. For operation \( \pi \) and for all \( T' \) not in the transition relation of \( X \), \( T' \) is a stable object which is not atomic.

3. For operation \( \pi \) and for all \( T' \) not in the transition relation of \( X \), \( T' \) is a stable object which is not atomic.

4. For operation \( \pi \) and for all \( T' \) not in the transition relation of \( X \), \( T' \) is a stable object which is not atomic.

To see that the stable objects are all of \( R(X) \), let \( \alpha' \) be the schedule of basic object \( X \) which can leave \( X \) in state map(least(act)). Then \( \alpha \) can be decomposed into the union of \( \alpha' \) and \( \pi \), which are both valid. The hypotheses and conclusions hold, so the result follows.

(3) \( \pi \) is a single operation.

(4) \( \pi \) is a single operation.

(5) \( \pi \) is a single operation.

(6) \( \pi \) is a single operation.

Now we prove that this implementation is a correct resilient object.
- if \( T' \) is any transaction other than \( T_0 \), and \( \alpha_{\text{INFORM\_ABORT\_AT}}(X) \) of \( T' \) is well-formed, then \( \text{undo}(\alpha_{\text{INFORM\_ABORT\_AT}}(X) \text{ of } T') \) is a schedule of basic object \( X \) which can leave \( X \) in state \( \text{map}(U) \), where \( U \) is the least element of act which is not a descendant of \( T' \).

**Proof.** First, observe that if \( T' \) is not an ancestor of \( \text{least}(\text{act}) \), and \( \alpha_{\text{INFORM\_ABORT\_AT}}(X) \) of \( T' \) is well-formed, then Lemmas 41 and 39 imply that \( \text{undo}(\alpha_{\text{INFORM\_ABORT\_AT}}(X) \text{ of } T') = \text{undo}(\alpha) \), so the second condition follows from the first.

The proof is by induction on the length of \( \alpha \). In each case, we prove the first condition, then the second condition assuming that \( T' \) is an ancestor of \( \text{least}(\text{act}) \). By the observation above, this is sufficient.

The basis is trivial. Let \( \alpha = \alpha' \pi \), where \( \pi \) is a single operation. Let \( (\text{act}', \text{map}') \) be a state of \( R(X) \) after \( \alpha' \), such that \( ((\text{act}', \text{map}'), \pi, (\text{act}, \text{map})) \) is a transition for \( R(X) \). There are four cases.

1. \( \pi = \text{CREATE}(T) \). Then \( \text{undo}(\alpha) = \text{undo}(\alpha') \pi \). By the inductive assumption, \( \text{undo}(\alpha') \) is a schedule of \( X \) which can leave \( X \) in state \( \text{map}'(\text{least}(\text{act}')) \). By the implementation of \( R(X) \), \( (\text{map}'(\text{least}(\text{act}')), \pi, \text{map}(T)) \) is a transition of \( X \), and \( T = \text{least}(\text{act}) \). Thus the first condition of the lemma is satisfied.

To see that the second condition holds, note that all active transactions after \( \alpha \) are ancestors of \( T \) and, by well-formedness, are exactly the transactions active after \( \alpha' \), together with \( T \). Let \( \phi \) be \( \text{INFORM\_ABORT\_AT}(X) \) of \( T' \), where \( T' \) is an ancestor of \( T \) other than \( T_0 \), and \( \alpha \phi \) is well-formed. If \( T' \) is a proper descendant of \( \text{least}(\text{act'}) \), by Lemma 39, \( \text{undo}(\alpha \phi) = \text{undo}(\alpha') \), which is a schedule of basic object \( X \) which can leave \( X \) in state \( \text{map}(\text{least}(\text{act}')) \), by the inductive hypothesis. If \( T' \) is an ancestor of \( \text{least}(\text{act'}) \), \( \text{undo}(\alpha \phi) = \text{undo}(\alpha' \phi) \), the least element of act which is not a descendant of \( T' \) is also the least element of act' which is not a descendant of \( T' \), and the result follows by the inductive hypothesis.

2. \( \pi = \text{REQUEST\_COMMIT}(T, v) \). Then \( \text{undo}(\alpha) = \text{undo}(\alpha') \pi \). By the inductive assumption, \( \text{undo}(\alpha') \) is a schedule of \( X \) which can leave \( X \) in state \( \text{map}'(\text{least}(\text{act}')) \). By the implementation of \( R(X) \), \( (\text{map}'(\text{least}(\text{act}')), \pi, \text{map}(T)) \) is a transition of \( X \), and \( T = \text{least}(\text{act}) \). Thus the first condition of the lemma is satisfied.

To see that the second condition holds, note that the active transactions after \( \alpha \) are all ancestors of \( T \) and, by well-formedness, are exactly the transactions active after \( \alpha' \). Let \( \phi \) be \( \text{INFORM\_ABORT\_AT}(X) \) of \( T' \), where \( T' \) is an ancestor of \( T \) other than \( T_0 \), and \( \alpha \phi \) is well-formed. Then \( \text{undo}(\alpha \phi) = \text{undo}(\alpha' \phi) \), which is a schedule of basic object \( X \) which can leave \( X \) in state \( \text{map}(\text{least}(\text{act}')) \), by the inductive hypothesis. Furthermore, the least element of act which is not a descendant of \( T' \) is also the least element of act' which is not a descendant of \( T' \), and the result follows by the inductive hypothesis.

3. \( \pi = \text{INFORM\_COMMIT\_AT}(X) \) of \( T \). Then \( \text{undo}(\alpha) = \text{undo}(\alpha') \). Also, \( \text{map}(\text{least}(\text{act})) = \text{map}(\text{least}(\text{act}')) \), by definition of \( R(X) \). The first condition follows.
By the definition of $R(X)$, least(act) is an ancestor of least(act'). Let $\phi$ be $\text{INFORM\_ABORT\_AT}(X)(T')$, where $T'$ is an ancestor of least(act) other than $T_0$, and $\alpha\phi$ is well-formed. Then $\alpha'\phi$ is well-formed, and undo($\alpha\phi$) = undo($\alpha'\phi$). Also, since $\alpha\phi$ is well-formed, $T' \neq T$. Let $U$ and $U'$ be the least elements of act and act', respectively, which are not descendants of $T'$.

If $T \notin \text{act}'$, or if $U \neq \text{parent}(T)$, then $U = U'$ and map($U$) = map'($U'$), and the second condition follows from the inductive hypothesis. So assume that $T \in \text{act}'$ and $U = \text{parent}(T)$. Then since $T' \neq T$, it follows that $U' = T$. Then map'($U'$) = map($U$), and the second condition again follows from the inductive hypothesis.

(4) $\pi = \text{INFORM\_ABORT\_AT}(X)(T)$. If $T$ is not an ancestor of least(act'), then undo($\alpha$) = undo($\alpha'$), by Lemma 39. Furthermore, the state of $R(X)$ is not changed, $\alpha\text{INFORM\_ABORT\_AT}(X)(T')$ is well-formed only if $\alpha'\text{INFORM\_ABORT\_AT}(X)(T')$ is, and the active transactions after $\alpha$ are exactly those active after $\alpha'$. The result follows.

Suppose that $T$ is an ancestor of least(act'). The first condition is immediate from the inductive hypothesis. Let $\phi$ be $\text{INFORM\_ABORT\_AT}(X)(T')$, where $T'$ is an ancestor of least(act) other than $T_0$, and $\alpha\phi$ is well-formed. Since $\text{act} = \text{act'} - \text{descendants}(T)$, least(act), and hence $T'$, is an ancestor of $T$, undo($\alpha\phi$) = undo($\alpha'\pi\phi$) = undo($\alpha'\phi$), and the second condition follows as well. $\square$

**Theorem 43.** $R(X)$ is a resilient object.

**Proof.** We must show that $R(X)$ preserves well-formedness and satisfies the resiliency condition. That $R(X)$ satisfies the resiliency condition follows immediately from Lemma 42.

Assume that $\alpha$ is a well-formed schedule of $R(X)$ and $\pi$ is an output operation of $R(X)$ enabled after an execution with schedule $\alpha$. We must show that $\alpha\pi$ is a well-formed sequence of $R(X)$-operations.

Since $\pi$ is an output, it has the form $\text{REQUEST\_COMMIT}(T, v)$ for some access $T$ and value $v$. Let $(\text{act}, \text{map})$ be a state of $R(X)$ after $\alpha$ such that $\pi$ is enabled in $(\text{act}, \text{map})$. Clearly, $\pi$ is an output of basic object $X$ enabled from state map(least(act)). By Lemma 42, undo($\alpha$) is a schedule of basic object $X$ which can leave $X$ in state map(least(act)), so undo($\alpha$) = undo($\alpha\pi$) is a schedule of basic object $X$.

Since $X$ preserves well-formedness for basic objects and, by Lemma 40, undo($\alpha$) is a well-formed sequence of $X$-operations, undo($\alpha$) ends with the operation $\phi = \text{CREATE}(T)$ and contains no other operations with transaction $T$. Let $\beta\phi$ be the prefix of $\alpha$ ending in $\phi$. Suppose first that a $\text{REQUEST\_COMMIT}$ for $T$ occurs in $\alpha$. Since $\alpha$ is well-formed, $\phi$ is the only $\text{CREATE}(T)$ operation in $\alpha$ and, by Lemma 34, the second $\text{REQUEST\_CREATE}$ for $T$ follows $\phi$ and, by the definition of undo, is in undo($\alpha$) if $\phi$ is a contradiction.

It remains to show that $T$ is active after $\alpha$. By Lemma 34, $T$ is active after $\beta\phi$. No $\text{INFORM\_COMMIT}$ for $T$ can occur after $\phi$ in $\alpha$ since, by well-formedness, there is no release sequence.

### 5. Conclusions

As we have shown, our algorithms are both correct and resilient. It is important to note that our constructions are simple. In the next section, we define the notions of the state of a data structure and the basic operations on it.

Concurrent transactions, or transactions that run in parallel, can have side effects on data. It has the potential to introduce new errors. If a transaction is atomic, it can make use of the basic operations on the data. These operations are atomic, and can tell the other transactions what they have done.

Concurrent transactions are often used to ensure the correctness of a schedule. They can be used to check that the schedule is correct, and that no conflicts occur.

#### 5.1. Locking

The system uses a locking mechanism to ensure the correctness of the schedule. The job of the lock protocol is to ensure that the necessary operations are performed. The lock protocol is designed to ensure that the operations are executed in a specific order. The protocol ensures that no two transactions can execute the same operation at the same time.

**Input of the Lock Protocol.**

- A transaction $T$ requests to acquire a lock on an object $O$.
- The lock protocol checks if $O$ is already locked.
- If $O$ is unlocked, the protocol acquires the lock for $T$.
- If $O$ is locked, $T$ must wait until the lock is released.

**Output of the Lock Protocol.**

- If the lock is acquired, $T$ proceeds with its operations on $O$.
- If the lock cannot be acquired, $T$ waits until the lock is released.

The lock protocol ensures that transactions are executed in a specific order, which helps to prevent conflicts and ensures the correctness of the schedule.
is no REQUEST_COMMIT for $T$ in $\alpha$. Also, since $\phi$ is in undo($\alpha$), no INFORM_ABORT for an ancestor of $T$ can occur after $\phi$ in $\alpha$. Thus, $T$ is still active after $\alpha$. □

5. Concurrent systems

As with serial schedules in classical settings, our serial schedules contain no concurrency or resiliency and thus are too inefficient to use in practice. Their importance is solely for defining correctness for transaction systems. In this section, we define a new kind of system called a concurrent system. The new system consists of the same transactions as in a serial system, a resilient object $R(X)$ for every basic object $X$ of the serial system, and a concurrent scheduler.

Concurrent systems describe computations in which transactions run concurrently and can be aborted after they have performed some work. The concurrent scheduler has the joint responsibility of controlling concurrency and of seeing that the effects of aborted transactions (and their descendants) become undone. Concurrent systems make use of the roll-back capabilities of resilient objects to make sure that ABORT operations in concurrent systems have the same semantics (so far as the transactions can tell) as they do in serial systems.

Concurrent systems are defined in this section. In the next section, the more permissive “weak concurrent systems” are defined. In Section 7, we prove that the schedules of concurrent systems are serially correct, as a corollary of a weaker correctness property for the weak concurrent system.

5.1. Lock managers

The scheduler we define is called the concurrent scheduler. It is composed of several automata: a lock manager for every object $X$, and a single concurrent controller. The job of the lock managers is to ensure that the associated object receives no CREATE until the lock manager has received abort or commit information for all necessary preceding transactions. This lock manager models an exclusive locking protocol derived from Moss’ algorithm [22]. The lock manager has the following operations:

**Input operations:**

- $\text{INTERNAL\_CREATE}(T)$, where $T$ is an access to $X$,
- $\text{INFORM\_COMMIT\_AT}(X)\text{OF}(T)$ for $T$ any transaction,
- $\text{INFORM\_ABORT\_AT}(X)\text{OF}(T)$ for $T$ any transaction.

**Output operations:**

- $\text{CREATE}(T)$, where $T$ is an access to $X$.

The input operations $\text{INTERNAL\_CREATE}$, $\text{INFORM\_COMMIT}$ and $\text{INFORM\_ABORT}$ will compose with corresponding output operations of the concurrent scheduler which we will construct in this subsection. The output $\text{CREATE}$ operation composes...
with the `create` input operation of the resilient object \( R(X) \). The lock manager receives and manages requests to access object \( X \), using a hierarchical locking scheme. It uses information about the commit and abort of transactions to decide when to release locks.

Each state \( s \) of the lock manager consists of the following three sets of transactions: `lock_holders(s)`, `create_requested(s)`, and `created(s)`. Initially, `lock_holders = \{ T_0 \}`, and the other sets are empty. The operations work as follows.

- **`INTERNAL_CREATE(T)`**
  
  **Postcondition:**
  
  \[
  \text{create\_requested}(s) = \text{create\_requested}(s') \cup \{ T \}.
  \]

- **`INFORM\_COMMIT\_AT(X)OF(T)`**
  
  **Postcondition:**
  
  \[
  \begin{align*}
  \text{if } T & \in \text{lock\_holders}(s') \quad \text{then} \quad \text{lock\_holders}(s) = (\text{lock\_holders}(s') - \{ T \}) \cup \{ \text{parent}(T) \}.
  \end{align*}
  \]

- **`INFORM\_ABORT\_AT(X)OF(T)`**
  
  **Postcondition:**
  
  \[
  \text{lock\_holders}(s) = \text{lock\_holders}(s') - \text{descendants}(T).
  \]

- **`CREATE(T)`**
  
  **Precondition:**
  
  \[
  T \in \text{create\_requested}(s') - \text{created}(s'),
  \quad \text{lock\_holders}(s') \subseteq \text{ancestors}(T);
  \]

  **Postcondition:**
  
  \[
  \begin{align*}
  \text{lock\_holders}(s) &= \text{lock\_holders}(s') \cup \{ T \},
  \\
  \text{created}(s) &= \text{created}(s') \cup \{ T \}.
  \end{align*}
  \]

Note that resilient object \( R(X) \) and the lock manager for \( X \) share the `INFORM\_ABORT` and `INFORM\_COMMIT` input operations. These compose with the output from the concurrent controller defined below.

Thus, the lock manager only sends a `create(T)` operation on to the object in case all the current `lock_holders` are ancestors of \( T \). When the lock manager learns about the commit of a transaction \( T \) for which it holds a lock, it releases the lock to \( T \)'s parent. When the lock manager learns about the abort of a transaction \( T \) for which it holds a lock, it simply releases all locks held by that transaction and its descendants. Our model provides an exceptionally simple and clear way of describing this important algorithm.

A key property of lock managers is described by the following lemma.

**Lemma 44.** Let \( X \) be an object and let \( T \) and \( T' \) be accesses to \( X \). Let \( U \) be an ancestor of \( T \) which is not an ancestor of \( T' \). Let \( \alpha \) be a schedule of the lock manager for \( X \). If
CREATE(T) precedes CREATE(T') in a, then between the two CREATE operations, there is either an inform_commit_at(X)of(U) operation, or else an inform_abort_at(X) for some ancestor of T.

Proof. At the time the CREATE(T) occurs, the lock manager puts T into the set of lock holders. Before the lock manager can send in CREATE(T'), it must be that all the transactions in lock holders are ancestors of T'. There are only two ways in which this can happen. One possibility is that the lock manager first receives inform_commits for all ancestors of T up to lca(T, T'), including inform_commit_at(X)of(U). The other possibility is that the lock manager first receives an inform_abort_for an ancestor of T. □

5.2. The concurrent controller

The concurrent controller is similar to the serial scheduler, but it allows siblings to proceed concurrently. In order to manage this properly, it interacts with "concurrent objects" (lock managers and resilient objects) instead of just basic objects. The operations are as follows.

Input operations:

REQUEST_CREATE(T), REQUEST_COMMIT(T, v).

Output operations:

CREATE(T), T a non-access transaction,
INTERNAL_CREATE(T), T an access transaction,
COMMIT(T, v), ABORT(T),
inform_commit_at(X)of(T),
inform_abort_at(X)of(T).

Each state s of the concurrent controller consists of five sets: create_requested(s), created(s), commit_requested(s), committed(s), and aborted(s). The set commit_requested(s) is a set of (transaction, value) pairs, and the others are sets of transactions. (As before, we will occasionally write T ∈ commit_requested(s) for (T, v) ∈ commit_requested(s) for some v.) All sets are initially empty except for create_requested, which is \{T_0\}. Define returned(s) = committed(s) ∪ aborted(s). The operations are as follows.

• REQUEST_CREATE(T)
  Postcondition:

create_requested(s) = create_requested(s') ∪ \{T\}.

• REQUEST_COMMIT(T, v)
  Postcondition:

commit_requested(s) = commit_requested(s') ∪ \{(T, v)\}. 
- **CREATE**(T), T a non-access transaction

  **Precondition:**
  
  \( T \in \text{create}_{-}\text{requested}(s') - \text{created}(s') - \text{aborted}(s') \);

  **Postcondition:**
  
  \( \text{created}(s) = \text{created}(s') \cup \{ \{T\} \} \).

- **INTERNAL\_CREATE**(T), T an access transaction

  **Precondition:**
  
  \( T \in \text{create}_{-}\text{requested}(s') - \text{created}(s') - \text{aborted}(s') \);

  **Postcondition:**
  
  \( \text{created}(s) = \text{created}(s') \cup \{ \{T\} \} \).

- **COMMIT**(T, v)

  **Precondition:**
  
  \((T, v) \in \text{commit}_{-}\text{requested}(s'), \quad T \not\in \text{returned}(s'), \quad \text{children}(T) \cap \text{create}_{-}\text{requested}(s') \subseteq \text{returned}(s')\);

  **Postcondition:**
  
  \( \text{committed}(s) = \text{committed}(s') \cup \{ T \} \).

- **ABORT**(T)

  **Precondition:**
  
  \( T \in (\text{create}_{-}\text{requested}(s') - \text{created}(s') - \text{aborted}(s')) \)
  
  \( \cup (\text{commit}_{-}\text{requested}(s') - \text{returned}(s')), \quad \text{children}(T) \cap \text{create}_{-}\text{requested}(s') \subseteq \text{returned}(s') \);

  **Postcondition:**
  
  \( \text{aborted}(s) = \text{aborted}(s') \cup \{ T \} \).

- **INFORM\_COMMITS\_AT**(X)OF(T):

  **Precondition:**
  
  \( T \in \text{committed}(s') \).

- **INFORM\_ABORTS\_AT**(X)OF(T):

  **Precondition:**
  
  \( T \in \text{aborted}(s') \).

The concurrent controller is closely related to the serial scheduler. In place of the serial scheduler's CREATE operations, the concurrent controller has two kinds of operations, CREATE operations and INTERNAL\_CREATE operations. The former is used for interaction with non-access transactions, while the latter is used for interaction with access transactions. From the concurrent controller's viewpoint,
the two operations are the same; however, our naming convention for operations requires us to assign them different names since the \texttt{INTERNAL\_CREATE} operations are intended to be identified with \texttt{INTERNAL\_CREATE} operations of the lock managers (which also have \texttt{CREATE} operations for interaction with the resilient objects). The precondition on the serial scheduler's \texttt{CREATE} operation, which ensures serial processing of sibling transactions, does not appear in the concurrent controller. Thus, the concurrent controller may run any number of sibling transactions concurrently, provided their parent has requested their creation.

The concurrent controller's \texttt{COMMIT} operation is the same as the serial scheduler's \texttt{COMMIT} operation. The concurrent controller's \texttt{ABORT} operation is different, however; in addition to aborting a transaction in the way that the serial scheduler does, the concurrent controller has the additional capability to abort a transaction that has actually been created and has carried out some steps. In this particular formulation, aborts occur if the transaction was not created (as with the serial scheduler), or if the transaction has previously requested to commit, and its children have returned. Together with the requirements on the \texttt{COMMIT} operation, this condition ensures that all transaction completion occurs bottom-up. In the weak concurrent system to be considered in Section 6, a different, "weak," concurrent controller will be used; it differs from the concurrent controller of this section precisely in not requiring \texttt{ABORT} operations to wait for their transactions (and subtransactions) to complete.

The concurrent controller also has two additional operations not present in the serial scheduler. These operations allow the concurrent controller to forward necessary abort and commit information to the lock managers and resilient objects.

\textbf{Lemma 45.} Let \(\alpha\) be a schedule of the concurrent scheduler, and let \(s\) be a state which can result from applying \(\alpha\) to the initial state. Then the following conditions are true.

1. \(T\) is in \texttt{create\_requested}(\(s\)) exactly if \(T = T_0\) or \(\alpha\) contains a \texttt{REQUEST\_CREATE}(\(T\)) operation.
2. If \(T\) is a non-access transaction, then \(T\) is in \texttt{created}(\(s\)) exactly if \(\alpha\) contains a \texttt{CREATE}(\(T\)) operation.
3. If \(T\) is an access transaction, then \(T\) is in \texttt{created}(\(s\)) exactly if \(\alpha\) contains an \texttt{INTERNAL\_CREATE}(\(T\)) operation.
4. \(T, v\) is in \texttt{commit\_requested}(\(s\)) exactly if \(\alpha\) contains a \texttt{COMMIT\_REQUEST}(\(T, v\)) operation.
5. \(T, v\) is in \texttt{committed}(\(s\)) exactly if \(\alpha\) contains a \texttt{COMMIT}(\(T, v\)) operation.
6. \(T\) is in \texttt{aborted}(\(s\)) exactly if \(\alpha\) contains an \texttt{ABORT}(\(T\)) operation.

5.3. Concurrent systems

The composition of transactions, resilient objects and the concurrent scheduler (lock managers and concurrent controller) is the \textit{concurrent system}. A schedule of the concurrent system is a \textit{concurrent schedule}, and the operations of a concurrent system are \textit{concurrent operations}. 
A finite sequence $\alpha$ of concurrent operations is well-formed if, for every primitive $P$, $\alpha P$ is well-formed (using the appropriate definition of well-formedness).

The main result of this paper is that every concurrent schedule is serially correct. This will be proved as a corollary to a stronger result in Section 7.

5.4. Properties of concurrent systems

As we did for serial schedules, we now prove some useful basic properties for concurrent schedules. These lemmas describe the possible kinds and orders of operations that can occur in well-formed concurrent schedules. Later, we will see that all concurrent schedules are well-formed, so these properties actually follow just from the fact that these schedules are concurrent. All results and proofs in this subsection are straightforward.

**Lemma 46.** Let $\alpha$ be a well-formed concurrent schedule, and let $T \neq T_0$ be a transaction. 
(1) If $\alpha$ contains any operation with transaction $T$, then $\alpha$ contains a `CREATE(T)` and a `REQUEST_CREATE(T)`.
(2) If $\alpha$ contains a `COMMIT` for $T$, then $\alpha$ contains a `REQUEST_COMMIT` for $T$, a `CREATE(T)` and a `REQUEST_CREATE(T)`.
(3) If $\alpha$ contains an `ABORT(T)`, then $\alpha$ contains a `REQUEST_CREATE(T)`.

**Lemma 47.** Let $\alpha$ be a well-formed concurrent schedule, and $T$ a transaction. Assume that some descendant of $T$ is in transaction($\alpha$). Then the following hold.
(1) `CREATE(T)` occurs in $\alpha$.
(2) If $T \neq T_0$, then `REQUEST_CREATE(T)` occurs in $\alpha$.

**Lemma 48.** Let $\alpha$ be a well-formed concurrent schedule, and let $T \neq T_0$ be a transaction. 
(1) If $\alpha$ contains a `REQUEST_CREATE(T)`, but does not contain a return operation for $T$, then parent($T$) is live in $\alpha$.
(2) If $T$ is live in $\alpha$, then parent($T$) is live in $\alpha$.
(3) If $\alpha$ contains a `REQUEST_CREATE(T)` but does not contain a `CREATE(T)` or `ABORT(T)`, then parent($T$) is live in $\alpha$.

**Proof.** (1): Well-formedness implies that the `REQUEST_CREATE(T)` is preceded by a `CREATE(parent(T))`. Suppose that parent($T$) is not live in $\alpha$. Then a return operation for parent($T$) occurs in $\alpha$. In case the return operation for parent($T$) is an `ABORT(parent(T))`, scheduler preconditions imply that the `CREATE(parent(T))` must precede the `ABORT(parent(T))`. Then the scheduler preconditions for the return operation imply that the return for parent($T$) must be preceded by a `REQUEST_COMMIT` for parent($T$). By well-formedness, the `REQUEST_COMMIT` for parent($T$) must follow the `REQUEST_CREATE(T)`, so that the return for parent($T$) must follow the `REQUEST_CREATE(T)`. Then the scheduler preconditions for the return operation imply that there must be a return operation for $T$ in $\alpha$, a contradiction.

(2) and (3) are as in Lemma 17. □
Lemma 49. Let $\alpha$ be a well-formed concurrent schedule, and let $T$ be a transaction.

1. If $\alpha$ contains a `REQUEST_CREATE(T)`, but does not contain a return operation for $T$, then all proper ancestors of $T$ are live in $\alpha$.
2. If $T$ is live in $\alpha$, then all ancestors of $T$ are live in $\alpha$.
3. If $\alpha$ contains a `REQUEST_CREATE(T)` but does not contain a `CREATE(T)` or `ABORT(T)`, then all proper ancestors of $T$ are live in $\alpha$.

Lemma 50. Let $\alpha$ be a well-formed concurrent schedule, and let $T$ and $T'$ be transactions with $T'$ a descendant of $T$. Assume that there is a return operation for $T$ in $\alpha$.

1. If there is a `REQUEST_CREATE(T')` in $\alpha$, then there is a return operation for $T'$ in $\alpha$.
2. If $T'$ is in transaction($\alpha$), then there is a return operation for $T'$ in $\alpha$.

Proof. (1): By Lemma 49.
(2): By Lemma 46 and part (1).

Lemma 51. Let $\alpha$ be a well-formed concurrent schedule. If a return operation for $T$ is in $\alpha$, then it follows all operations in $\alpha$ whose transaction is $T$.

Proof. First consider the case where $T$ is not an access. If no `CREATE(T)` occurs in $\alpha$, the result is immediate, so assume that `CREATE(T)` occurs in $\alpha$. In case an `ABORT(T)` occurs in $\alpha$, scheduler preconditions imply that the `CREATE(T)` must precede the `ABORT(T)`. Then the return operation for $T$ must be preceded by a `REQUEST_COMMIT` for $T$, by scheduler preconditions. Well-formedness implies that the `REQUEST_COMMIT` is preceded by `CREATE(T)`, and is not followed by any output operations of $T$. Thus, the only serial operations of $T$ that could follow the `REQUEST_COMMIT` are return operations of children of $T$.

Let $T'$ be a child of $T$ for which a return operation occurs in $\alpha$. By scheduler preconditions, there is only one return operation for $T'$ in $\alpha$. By Lemma 46, $\alpha$ also contains `REQUEST_CREATE(T')`. Since this is an output operation of $T$, it precedes the `REQUEST_COMMIT` for $T$, and hence precedes the return operation for $T$. Then the scheduler preconditions imply that the return operation for $T'$ precedes the return for $T$.

Next, consider the case where $T$ is an access. If no `INTERNAL_CREATE(T)` occurs in $\alpha$, the result is immediate, so assume that `INTERNAL_CREATE(T)` occurs in $\alpha$. In case an `ABORT(T)` occurs in $\alpha$, scheduler preconditions imply that the `INTERNAL_CREATE(T)` must precede the `ABORT(T)`. Then the return operation for $T$ must be preceded by a `REQUEST_COMMIT` for $T$, and well-formedness implies that this is in turn preceded by `CREATE(T)`. Thus, no serial operations of $T$ can follow the return operation for $T$.

Lemma 52. Let $\alpha$ be a well-formed concurrent schedule. If a return operation for $T$ is in $\alpha$, then it follows all operations in $\alpha$ whose transactions are descendants of $T$. 

Proof. Since a return operation for $T$ occurs in $\alpha$, we have $T \neq T_0$. Let $T'$ be a descendant of $T$, and assume for the sake of obtaining a contradiction that a serial operation $\pi$ with transaction($\pi$) = $T'$ occurs after the return for $T$ in $\alpha$. Let $\alpha'$ be the prefix of $\alpha$ preceding $\pi$.

By Lemma 46, $\alpha'$ contains a REQUEST_CREATE($T'$). Then Lemma 50 implies that $\alpha'$ must contain a return operation for $T'$. But then the well-formed schedule $\alpha'\pi$ contains a return operation for $T'$ followed by an operation of $T'$, which contradicts Lemma 51. □

Weak concurrent systems are defined in the following section, and many of their properties are stated and proved. Weak concurrent systems are obtained by replacing the concurrent scheduler with a more permissive scheduler, the weak concurrent scheduler. Results in Section 7 prove that every execution of the concurrent system is also an execution of the weak concurrent system. Thus, additional interesting properties of concurrent system behavior follow immediately from the corresponding properties of weak concurrent system behavior, proved in that section.

6. Weak concurrent systems

In this section, we define "weak concurrent systems", which are exactly the same as concurrent systems, except that they have a more permissive controller, the "weak concurrent controller". The weak concurrent controller reports aborts to a transaction's parent while there is still activity going on in the aborted transaction's subtree. In this paper, weak concurrent systems are used primarily to provide an intermediate step in proving the correctness of concurrent systems: proving a weaker condition for weak concurrent systems allows us to infer the stronger correctness condition for concurrent systems. However, weak concurrent systems are also of interest in themselves. In a distributed implementation of a nested transaction system, performance considerations may make it important for the system to allow a transaction to abort without waiting for activity in the transaction's subtree to subside. In this case, a weak concurrent system might be an appropriate choice, even though the correctness conditions which they satisfy are weaker. Weak concurrent systems also appear to have further technical use, for example in providing simple explanations of the ideas used in "orphan detection" algorithms [11].

6.1. The weak concurrent controller

In this subsection, we define the weak concurrent controller. As we have already said, it is identical to the concurrent controller except that it has a more permissive ABORT operation. For convenience, we describe the controller here in its entirety. It has the same operations as the concurrent controller:
Input operations:

\[ \text{REQUEST\_CREATE}(T), \quad \text{REQUEST\_COMMIT}(T, v). \]

Output operations:

\[ \text{CREATE}(T), \quad T \text{ a non-access transaction}, \]
\[ \text{INTERNAL\_CREATE}(T), \quad T \text{ an access transaction}, \]
\[ \text{COMMIT}(T, v), \quad \text{ABORT}(T), \]
\[ \text{INFORM\_COMMIT\_AT}(X) \text{OF}(T), \quad \text{INFORM\_ABORT\_AT}(X) \text{OF}(T). \]

Each state \( s \) of the concurrent controller consists of five sets: \( \text{create\_requested}(s) \), \( \text{created}(s) \), \( \text{commit\_requested}(s) \), \( \text{committed}(s) \), and \( \text{aborted}(s) \). The set \( \text{commit\_requested}(s) \) is a set of (transaction, value) pairs, and the others are sets of transactions. (As before, we will occasionally write \( T \in \text{commit\_requested}(s) \) for \( (T, v) \in \text{commit\_requested}(s) \) for some \( v \).) All are empty initially except for \( \text{create\_requested} \), which is \( \{ T_0 \} \). Define \( \text{returned}(s) = \text{committed}(s) \cup \text{aborted}(s) \). The operations are as follows.

- **REQUEST\_CREATE(\( T \))**
  
  \[ \text{Precondition:} \]
  
  \[ \text{create\_requested}(s) = \text{create\_requested}(s') \cup \{ T \}. \]

- **REQUEST\_COMMIT(\( T, v \))**
  
  \[ \text{Postcondition:} \]
  
  \[ \text{commit\_requested}(s) = \text{commit\_requested}(s') \cup \{(T, v)\}. \]

- **CREATE(\( T \)), \( T \) a non-access transaction**
  
  \[ \text{Precondition:} \]
  
  \[ T \in \text{create\_requested}(s') - \text{created}(s'); \]

  \[ \text{Postcondition:} \]
  
  \[ \text{created}(s) = \text{created}(s') \cup \{ T \}. \]

- **INTERNAL\_CREATE(\( T \)), \( T \) an access transaction**
  
  \[ \text{Precondition:} \]
  
  \[ T \in \text{create\_requested}(s') - \text{created}(s'); \]

  \[ \text{Postcondition:} \]
  
  \[ \text{created}(s) = \text{created}(s') \cup \{ T \}. \]

- **COMMIT(\( T, v \))**
  
  \[ \text{Precondition:} \]
  
  \[ (T, v) \in \text{commit\_requested}(s'), \quad T \notin \text{returned}(s'), \]
  
  \[ \text{children}(T) \cap \text{create\_requested}(s') \subseteq \text{returned}(s'); \]
Postcondition:
committed(s) = committed(s') ∪ \{ T \}.

- ABORT(T)
  Precondition:
  \( T \in \text{create-requested}(s') - \text{returned}(s') \);
  Postcondition:
  aborted(s) = aborted(s') ∪ \{ T \}.

- INFORM\_COMMIT\_AT(X)OF(T):
  Precondition:
  \( T \in \text{committed}(s') \).

- INFORM\_ABORT\_AT(X)OF(T):
  Precondition:
  \( T \in \text{aborted}(s') \).

Thus, the weak concurrent controller is permitted to abort any transaction that has had its creation requested, and which has not yet returned.

**Lemma 53.** Let \( \alpha \) be a schedule of the concurrent scheduler, and let \( s \) be a state which can result from applying \( \alpha \) to the initial state. Then the following conditions are true.
(1) \( T \) is \text{in create-requested}(s) exactly if \( T = T_0 \) or \( \alpha \) contains a \text{REQUEST\_CREATE}(T) operation.
(2) If \( T \) is a non-access transaction, then \( T \) is \text{in create}(s) exactly if \( \alpha \) contains a \text{CREATE}(T) operation.
(3) If \( T \) is an access transaction, then \( T \) is \text{in create}(s) exactly if \( \alpha \) contains an \text{INTERNAL\_CREATE}(T) operation.
(4) \((T, v)\) is \text{in commit-requested}(s) exactly if \( \alpha \) contains a \text{COMMIT\_REQUEST}(T, v) operation.
(5) \((T, v)\) is \text{in committed}(s) exactly if \( \alpha \) contains a \text{COMMIT}(T, v) operation.
(6) \( T \) is \text{in aborted}(s) exactly if \( \alpha \) contains an \text{ABORT}(T) operation.

6.2. Weak concurrent systems

The composition of transactions, resilient objects and the weak concurrent scheduler (lock managers and weak concurrent controller) is the weak concurrent system. A schedule of the weak concurrent system is a weak concurrent schedule.

Weak concurrent systems exhibit nice behavior to transactions except possibly to those which are descendants of aborted transactions. Thus, we say that a transaction \( T \) is an orphan in any sequence \( \alpha \) of operations provided that an ancestor of \( T \) is aborted in \( \alpha \). In many of the properties we prove for weak concurrent systems, we will have to specify that the transactions involved are not orphans.

6.3. Proof

As we saw, the proof of the main result of this section will involve proving that several lemmas are similar to the main result. We begin by proving a lemma which will be used in the proof of each of the other lemmas.

**Lemma 54.**

Assume \( T_0 \) is a concurrent transaction.
(1) \( \text{in create}(s) \) if \( \text{create}(s) \), \( \text{create}(s') \), or \( \text{create}(s'') \).
(2) \( \text{in commit}(s) \) if \( \text{commit}(s) \).
(3) \( \text{in aborted}(s) \) if \( \text{aborted}(s) \).

**Lemma 55.**

Assume \( (T, v) \) is a concurrent transaction.
(1) \( \text{in commit-requested}(s) \) if \( \text{commit-request}(s) \).
(2) \( \text{in committed}(s) \) if \( \text{committed}(s) \).

**Proof.**

(1) \( \text{in commit}(s) \) if \( \text{commit}(s) \).
(2) \( \text{in aborted}(s) \) if \( \text{aborted}(s) \).
6.3. Properties of weak concurrent systems

As we did for serial and concurrent schedules, we here prove a number of useful basic properties for weak concurrent schedules. As before, most of these properties are simple to state and prove.

6.3.1. Operations in weak concurrent schedules

As before, we include a collection of lemmas describing the possible kinds and orders of operations that can occur in well-formed weak concurrent schedules. These lemmas are analogous to some in Section 5, and have similar proofs; the main difference is that we must take proper care with orphans. As before, we go on to show that all weak concurrent schedules are well-formed, so these properties actually follow just from the fact that these schedules are weak concurrent.

**Lemma 54.** Let \( \alpha \) be a well-formed weak concurrent schedule, and let \( T \neq T_0 \) be a transaction.

1. If \( \alpha \) contains any operation with transaction \( T \), then \( \alpha \) contains a `CREATE(T)`, and a `REQUEST_CREATE(T)`.
2. If \( \alpha \) contains a `COMMIT` for \( T \), then \( \alpha \) contains a `REQUEST_COMMIT` for \( T `CREATE(T)` and a `REQUEST_CREATE(T)`. ` comprehend the 3. If \( \alpha \) contains an `ABORT(T)`, then \( \alpha \) contains a `REQUEST_CREATE(T)`.

**Lemma 55.** Let \( \alpha \) be a well-formed weak concurrent schedule, and \( T \) a transaction. Assume that some descendant of \( T \) is in transaction(\( \alpha \)). Then the following hold.

1. `CREATE(T)` occurs in \( \alpha \).
2. If \( T \neq T_0 \), then `REQUEST_CREATE(T)` occurs in \( \alpha \).

**Lemma 56.** Let \( \alpha \) be a well-formed weak concurrent schedule, and let \( T \neq T_0 \).

1. If \( \alpha \) contains a `REQUEST_CREATE(T)`, but does not contain a return operation for \( T \), then parent(\( T \) is not committed in \( \alpha \).
2. If \( T \) is live in \( \alpha \), then parent(\( T \) is not committed in \( \alpha \).
3. If \( \alpha \) contains a `REQUEST_CREATE(T)` but does not contain a `CREATE(T), or `ABORT(T), then parent(\( T \) is not committed in \( \alpha \).

**Proof.** (1): Suppose a `COMMIT` operation for parent(\( T \) occurs in \( \alpha \). Then the weak concurrent controller preconditions for the `COMMIT` operation imply that the `COMMIT` for parent(\( T \) must be preceded by a `REQUEST_COMMIT` for parent(\( T \). By well-formedness, the `REQUEST_COMMIT` for parent(\( T \) must follow the `REQUEST_CREATE(T)`, so that the `COMMIT` for parent(\( T \) must follow the `REQUEST_CREATE(T).` Then the weak concurrent controller preconditions for the `COMMIT` operation imply that there must be a `COMMIT` operation for \( T \) in \( \alpha \), a contradiction.

(2) and (3) are as in paragraph 3.6.2. \( \square \)
Lemma 57. Let $\alpha$ be well-formed weak concurrent schedule, and let $T$ be a transaction which is not an orphan in $\alpha$.

1. If $\alpha$ contains a \textsc{request-create}($T$), but does not contain a \textsc{commit} operation for $T$, then all proper ancestors of $T$ are live in $\alpha$.
2. If $T$ is live in $\alpha$, then all proper ancestors of $T$ are live in $\alpha$.
3. If $\alpha$ contains a \textsc{request-create}(T) but does not contain a \textsc{create}(T), then all proper ancestors of $T$ are live in $\alpha$.

Proof. By repeated use of the previous lemma, well-formedness and the weak concurrent controller preconditions. \qed

Lemma 58. Let $\alpha$ be a well-formed weak concurrent schedule, and let $T$ and $T'$ be transactions with $T'$ a descendant of $T$. Assume that $T'$ is not an orphan in $\alpha$ and that there is a \textsc{commit} operation for $T$ in $\alpha$.

1. If there is a \textsc{request-create}($T'$) in $\alpha$, then there is a \textsc{commit} operation for $T'$ in $\alpha$.
2. If $T'$ is in transaction($\alpha$), then there is a \textsc{commit} operation for $T'$ in $\alpha$.

Proof. (1): By Lemma 57.
(2): By Lemma 54 and part (1). \qed

6.3.2. Objects and locking

In this paragraph, we give two simple lemmas about the behavior of the locking strategy.

Lemma 59. Let $\alpha$ be a weak concurrent schedule. Let $X$ be an object, and let $T$ and $T'$ be accesses to $X$. Let $U$ be an ancestor of $T$ which is not an ancestor of $T'$. Assume that \textsc{create}(T) precedes \textsc{create}(T') in $\alpha$.

1. There is either an \textsc{inform-commit-at}($X$)of($U$), or else an \textsc{inform-abort-at}($X$) for some ancestor of $T$, occurring between \textsc{create}(T) and \textsc{create}(T') in $\alpha$.
2. Either \textsc{create}(T') is preceded by a \textsc{commit} operation for $U$, and by a \textsc{request-commit} operation for $U$, or else \textsc{create}(T') is preceded by an \textsc{abort} operation for some ancestor of $T$.

Proof. (1): By Lemma 44.
(2): By part (1) and the preconditions of the weak concurrent controller. \qed

Lemma 60. Let $\alpha$ be a well-formed weak concurrent schedule, and $X$ a basic object. Then the set of active transactions after $\alpha \upharpoonright R(X)$ is exactly the set of lockholders in the lock manager for $X$ after $\alpha$.

Proof. By induction on the length of $\alpha$. \qed
6.3.3. Well-formedness

Here, we show that every weak concurrent schedule is well-formed. It follows that all the properties proved earlier in this section are actually true for all weak concurrent schedules. From now on, we will use these properties without explicitly mentioning well-formedness.

Lemma 61. Let $\alpha$ be a weak concurrent schedule. Then $\alpha$ is well-formed.

Proof. By induction on the length of schedules. The base, length $= 0$, is trivial. Suppose that $\alpha \pi$ is a weak concurrent schedule, where $\pi$ is a single operation, and assume that $\alpha$ is well-formed. If $\pi$ is an output of a primitive $P$, then the result is immediate since each primitive preserves well-formedness. No internal_create operation can cause a violation. So assume that $\pi$ is an input to a primitive $P$. It suffices to show that $\alpha \pi | P$ is well-formed. There are six cases.

1. $\pi$ is create($T$) and $T$ is a non-access transaction. The controller preconditions ensure that create($T$) does not appear in $\alpha$.

2. $\pi$ is create($T$) and $T$ is an access to resilient object $R(X)$. By the lock manager preconditions, no create($T$) appears in $\alpha$. The lock manager preconditions and Lemma 60 imply that all the transactions which are active after $\alpha$ are ancestors of $T$.

3. $\pi$ is commit($T$, $v$). Then $\pi$ is an input to transaction parent($T$). Weak concurrent controller preconditions imply that $\alpha$ contains request_commit($T$, $v$), and so Lemma 54 implies that $\alpha$ contains request_create($T$). Also, weak concurrent controller preconditions ensure that $\alpha$ does not contain a return operation for $T$.

4. $\pi$ is abort($T$). Then $\pi$ is an input to transaction parent($T$). Weak concurrent controller preconditions imply that $\alpha$ contains a request_create($T$). Weak concurrent controller preconditions ensure that $\alpha$ does not contain a return operation for $T$.

5. $\pi$ is inform-commit-at($X$)$\circ$(T) at resilient object $R(X)$. By the preconditions of the weak controller, $\alpha$ contains a commit for $T$. If inform_abort_at($X$)$\circ$(T) occurs in $\alpha$, then $\alpha$ also contains an abort for $T$, which contradicts weak concurrent controller preconditions. Thus, no inform_abort_at($X$)$\circ$(T) occurs in $\alpha$. Since a commit for $T$ occurs in $\alpha$, weak concurrent controller preconditions imply that a request_commit for $T$ also occurs in $\alpha$.

6. $\pi$ is inform_abort_at($X$)$\circ$(T) at resilient object $R(X)$. By the preconditions of the weak concurrent controller, $\alpha$ contains abort($T$). If inform_commit_at($x$)$\circ$(T) occurs in $\alpha$, then $\alpha$ contains a commit for $T$, which contradicts weak concurrent controller preconditions. Thus, no inform_commit_at($X$)$\circ$(T) occurs in $\alpha$. □
6.3.4. Visibility and weak concurrent schedules

This paragraph states and proves important properties involving visibility in weak concurrent schedules. In particular, the most important result of this paragraph is Lemma 66, which relates the portion of a weak concurrent schedule which is visible to a particular transaction, to schedules of transactions and basic objects. The first lemma shows how visibility propagates among the transactions during a weak concurrent execution.

**Lemma 62.** Let \( \alpha \pi \) be a weak concurrent schedule, where \( \pi \) is a single operation.

1. If \( \pi \) is \textsc{create}(T), then \( \text{visible}(\alpha \pi, T) = \text{visible}(\alpha, \text{parent}(T)) \pi \).
2. If \( \pi \) is \textsc{commit}(T, v), then \( \text{visible}(\alpha \pi, \text{parent}(T)) = (\text{visible}(\alpha, T) \pi) \).
3. If \( \pi \) is \textsc{abort}(T), then \( \text{visible}(\alpha \pi, \text{parent}(T)) = \text{visible}(\alpha, \text{parent}(T)) \pi \).
4. If \( \pi \) is \textsc{commit}(T, v), and \( T' \) is a descendant of \( \text{parent}(T) \) but not \( T \), then \( \text{visible}(\alpha \pi, T') - \text{visible}(\alpha \pi, \text{parent}(T)) = \text{visible}(\alpha, T') - \text{visible}(\alpha, T) \).

**Proof.** (1): By Lemma 55, \( \pi \) is the first serial operation in \( \alpha \pi \) whose transaction is a descendant of \( T \), and \( T \) is not visible to \( \text{parent}(T) \). Thus, any transaction other than \( T \) visible to \( T \) in \( \alpha \pi \) is visible to \( \text{parent}(T) \) in \( \alpha \pi \). Then \( \text{parent}(T) \) is visible to \( T \) in \( \alpha \pi \), and by Lemma 8, \( \text{visible}(\alpha, \text{parent}(T)) \pi = \text{visible}(\alpha \pi, T) \).

By the definition of visibility, any transaction visible to \( \text{parent}(T) \) in \( \alpha \pi \) is visible to \( \text{parent}(T) \) in \( \alpha \), and \( \text{visible}(\alpha, \text{parent}(T)) = \text{visible}(\alpha \pi, \text{parent}(T)) \). Substituting into the equality above, we have the result.

(2): By the definition of visibility, any transaction visible to \( \text{parent}(T) \) in \( \alpha \pi \) is either visible to \( \text{parent}(T) \) in \( \alpha \), or is visible to \( T \) in \( \alpha \). But any transaction visible to \( \text{parent}(T) \) in \( \alpha \) is visible to \( T \) in \( \alpha \), so we have that any transaction visible to \( \text{parent}(T) \) in \( \alpha \pi \) is visible to \( T \) in \( \alpha \), and \( \text{visible}(\alpha \pi, \text{parent}(T)) \) is a subsequence of \( \text{visible}(\alpha, T) \pi \). It follows immediately from the definition of visibility that any transaction visible to \( T \) in \( \alpha \) is visible to \( \text{parent}(T) \) in \( \alpha \pi \), so that \( \text{visible}(\alpha, T) \) is a subsequence of \( \text{visible}(\alpha \pi, \text{parent}(T)) \). The result is immediate.

(3): Immediate from the definition of visibility.

(4): Clearly, \( \text{visible}(\alpha, T') \) is a subsequence of \( \text{visible}(\alpha \pi, T') \). Any operation in \( \text{visible}(\alpha \pi, T') - \text{visible}(\alpha, T') \) has a transaction which is a descendant of \( T \), and so is either \( \pi \) or is visible to \( T \) in \( \alpha \), and thus is in \( \text{visible}(\alpha, T) \pi \). Thus we have

\[
\text{visible}(\alpha \pi, T') - \text{visible}(\alpha, T) \pi = \text{visible}(\alpha, T') - \text{visible}(\alpha, T) \pi.
\]

As \( \pi \) is not in \( \text{visible}(\alpha, T') \), this equals \( \text{visible}(\alpha, T') - \text{visible}(\alpha, T) \). By part (2), \( \text{visible}(\alpha \pi, \text{parent}(T)) = \text{visible}(\alpha, T) \pi \), and the result follows by substitution in the first identity. \( \square \)

Now we prove two lemmas involving visibility and the behavior of resilient objects in weak concurrent systems.

**Lemma 63.** Let \( \alpha \) be a weak concurrent schedule. Let \( R(X) \) be a resilient object, and let \( T \) and \( T' \) be accesses to \( R(X) \). If \( T' \) is live and not an orphan in \( \alpha \) and \( \textsc{create}(T) \) occurs before \( \textsc{commit}(T, v) \) in an instance of \( \alpha \).

**Proof.** (1): If \( \text{create}(T) \) occurs before \( \text{commit}(T, v) \) in an instance of \( \alpha \), then \( T \) is an ancestor of \( T' \).

(2): If \( \text{commit}(T, v) \) occurs after \( \text{create}(T) \), then \( T \) is not an orphan in \( \alpha \).

**Lemma 64.** Let \( T \) and \( T' \) be accesses to an orphan object in the same instance of \( \alpha \). Then \( T \) and \( T' \) have the same clock state.

**Proof.** By the definition of an orphan object, \( T \) and \( T' \) have the same clock state.

Theorem 6 is a consequence of Lemmas 62-64.
occurs in \( \alpha \), then either \( T \) is visible to \( T' \) in \( \alpha \), or else \( \text{CREATE}(T) \) is in the scope of an \( \text{INFORM}_\text{ABORT}_\text{AT}(X) \) of \( U \) in \( \alpha \mid R(X) \).

**Proof.** There are two cases.

1. \( \text{CREATE}(T) \) precedes \( \text{CREATE}(T') \) in \( \alpha \). Assume \( T \) is not visible to \( T' \) in \( \alpha \). Then Lemma 59 implies that there is an \( \text{INFORM}_\text{ABORT}_\text{AT}(X) \) operation for some ancestor of \( T' \), occurring after \( \text{CREATE}(T) \) in \( \alpha \).

2. \( \text{CREATE}(T') \) precedes \( \text{CREATE}(T) \) in \( \alpha \). Then Lemma 59 implies that there is either a \( \text{COMMIT} \) or an \( \text{ABORT} \) for some ancestor of \( T' \), in \( \alpha \). Since \( T' \) is not an orphan in \( \alpha \), there is a \( \text{COMMIT} \) for an ancestor of \( T' \) in \( \alpha \). Then Lemma 58 implies that \( T' \) is returned in \( \alpha \), a contradiction. \( \square \)

**Lemma 64.** Let \( \alpha \) be a weak concurrent schedule. Let \( R(X) \) be a resilient object, let \( T \) and \( T' \) be accesses to \( R(X) \), and let \( T'' \) be any transaction. Assume that \( T' \) is not an orphan in \( \alpha \). If an operation \( \pi \) of \( T \) precedes an operation \( \pi' \) of \( T' \) in \( \alpha \), \( \pi \) is not in the scope of an \( \text{INFORM}_\text{ABORT} \) and \( T' \) is visible to \( T'' \) in \( \alpha \), then \( T \) is visible to \( T'' \) in \( \alpha \).

**Proof.** By well-formedness, \( \text{CREATE}(T) \) and \( \text{CREATE}(T') \) are operations in \( \alpha \), in that order. Let \( \alpha' \) be the prefix of \( \alpha \) ending with \( \text{CREATE}(T') \). Then \( T' \) is live and not an orphan in \( \alpha' \). By Lemma 63, \( T \) is visible to \( T' \) in \( \alpha' \), and so in \( \alpha \). Lemma 8 implies that \( T \) is visible to \( T'' \) in \( \alpha \). \( \square \)

The following lemma is straightforward.

**Lemma 65.** Let \( \alpha \) be a weak concurrent schedule, and let \( T \) be a transaction which is not an orphan in \( \alpha \). Any transaction \( T' \) visible to \( T \) in \( \alpha \) is not an orphan in \( \alpha \).

**Proof.** If \( T' \) is an ancestor of \( T \), the result is immediate. Otherwise, \( \text{COMMIT} \) operations appear in \( \alpha \) for every proper descendant of \( \text{lca}(T, T') \) that is an ancestor of \( T' \). By well-formedness, none of these transactions has aborted. Since the remaining ancestors of \( T' \) are also ancestors of \( T \), the result follows. \( \square \)

We are now ready to prove the key lemma of this paragraph.

**Lemma 66.** Let \( \alpha \) be a weak concurrent schedule, let \( T \) not be an orphan in \( \alpha \), and let \( P \) be a resilient primitive.

1. If \( P \) is a transaction \( T' \), then \( \text{visible}(\alpha, T \mid T') \) is a prefix of \( \alpha \mid T' \) and a schedule of \( T' \).

2. If \( P \) is a resilient object \( R(X) \), then \( \text{visible}(\alpha, T \mid R(X)) \) is a prefix of \( \text{undo}(\alpha \mid R(X)) \) and a schedule of basic object \( X \).

(2): First, we show that any operation in \( \text{visible}(\alpha, T) | R(X) \) also occurs in \( \text{undo}(\alpha | R(X)) \). If \( \pi \) is in \( \text{visible}(\alpha, T) | R(X) \), it means that all ancestors of transaction(\( \pi \)) up to \( \text{lca}(\text{transaction}(\pi), T) \) have committed. By assumption, \( T \) is not an orphan in \( \alpha \), so Lemma 65 implies that transaction(\( \pi \)) is not an orphan in \( \alpha \). Thus, by the preconditions of the weak concurrent controller there is no \text{INFORM}_\text{ABORT} for any ancestor of transaction(\( \pi \)) in \( \alpha \). Therefore, \( \pi \) is in \( \text{undo}(\alpha | R(X)) \).

Now we consider any two operations \( \pi \) and \( \pi' \) of \( \text{undo}(\alpha | R(X)) \), where \( \pi \) precedes \( \pi' \). Assume that \( \pi' \) is in \( \text{visible}(\alpha, T) | R(X) \). Let \( T'' = \text{transaction}(\pi) \) and \( T' = \text{transaction}(\pi') \). Then \( T'' \) is visible to \( T \) in \( \alpha \), and \( T' \) is not an orphan in \( \alpha \) by Lemma 65. Since \( \pi \) is in \( \text{undo}(\alpha | R(X)) \), no \text{INFORM}_\text{ABORT} occurs at \( R(X) \) for any ancestor of \( T'' \) in \( \alpha \), with \( \pi \) in its scope. Then Lemma 64 implies that \( T'' \) is visible to \( T \) in \( \alpha \). Thus, \( \pi \) is in \( \text{visible}(\alpha, T) | R(X) \). It follows that \( \text{visible}(\alpha, T) | R(X) \) is a prefix of \( \text{undo}(\alpha | R(X)) \).

By Lemma 61, \( \alpha | R(X) \) is a well-formed schedule of resilient object \( R(X) \). Then the resiliency condition implies that \( \text{undo}(\alpha | R(X)) \) is a schedule of basic object \( X \). So by Lemma 1, \( \text{visible}(\alpha, T) | R(X) \) is a schedule of basic object \( X \). □

Finally, we prove that, in a weak concurrent schedule, concurrently executing transactions access disjoint sets of resilient objects.

Lemma 67. Let \( \alpha \) be a weak concurrent schedule, and let \( T \) and \( T' \) be transactions which are not orphans in \( \alpha \). Let \( T'' = \text{lca}(T, T') \). Let \( \beta = \text{visible}(\alpha, T) - \text{visible}(\alpha, T'') \) and \( \beta' = \text{visible}(\alpha, T') - \text{visible}(\alpha, T'') \). Then no resilient object has operations in both \( \beta \) and \( \beta' \).

Proof. The result is trivial if \( T \) is an ancestor of \( T' \) or vice versa, so assume the contrary. Then \( T'' \) is neither \( T \) nor \( T' \).

Let \( R(X) \) be a resilient object such that both \( \beta \) and \( \beta' \) contain operations of \( R(X) \). Thus, there are two accesses to \( X, U \) and \( V \), such that operation \( \pi \) of \( U \) and operation \( \phi \) of \( V \) occur in \( \beta \) and \( \beta' \) respectively. Then \( U \) is visible to \( T \), \( V \) is visible to \( T' \), but neither \( U \) nor \( V \) is visible to \( T'' \), in \( \alpha \). It follows that \( U \) is not visible to \( T' \) and \( V \) is not visible to \( T \) in \( \alpha \). In particular, \( U \neq V \).

By well-formedness, we can assume without loss of generality that \( \pi = \text{CREATE}(U) \) and \( \phi = \text{CREATE}(V) \). We can also assume without loss of generality that \( \pi \) precedes \( \phi \) in \( \alpha \). Since \( T \) and \( T' \) are not orphans in \( \alpha \), Lemma 65 implies that \( U \) and \( V \) are not orphans in \( \alpha \). Then Lemma 59 implies that \( U \) is visible to \( V \) in \( \alpha \). But then \( U \) is visible to \( T' \) in \( \alpha \), a contradiction. □

7. Simulation of serial systems by concurrent systems

In this section, we prove the main results of this paper: that concurrent schedules are serially correct, and that weak concurrent schedules are correct at \( T_0 \). Both these results say that each operation of a processor is either live or an orphan at all times in a non-serial concurrent schedule.

The proof proceeds by induction into the form of the program. The base case of a while loop is contained in a recursive call to the same instruction set. This case is illustrated by executing the following instructions:

\text{ABORT} T

Theorem 7.1. Each operation is either live or an orphan in any non-serial state.

Proof. Fix \( \alpha \) as a weak concurrent schedule. A transaction \( T \) is live at \( \alpha \) if it has an operation visible in \( \alpha \).

If \( \tau \) and \( \tau' \) are operations in \( \alpha \), then \( \tau \neq \tau' \) and they are executed concurrently if and only if \( \tau \) and \( \tau' \) have a non-empty intersection with \( \text{visible}(\alpha, T) \). This means that transaction(\( \tau \)) and transaction(\( \tau' \)) are contained in the same non-empty intersection with \( \text{visible}(\alpha, T) \).

(1) If \( \tau \) is not an orphan, then \( \tau \) is visible in \( \alpha \), and hence \( \tau \) is visible in \( \text{visible}(\alpha, T) \), but \( \text{visible}(\alpha, T) \) is not visible in \( \tau \).

Let \( \tau \) and \( \tau' \) be operations in \( \alpha \) which are not orphans in \( \alpha \).

(2) If \( \tau \) is not visible in \( \alpha \), then \( \text{visible}(\alpha, T) \) is not visible in \( \tau \).

Therefore, \( \text{visible}(\alpha, T) \) is serially correct.

Let \( \tau \) be any operation in \( \text{visible}(\alpha, T) \). Then the execution of \( \tau \) is serially correct.

(3) If \( \tau \) is visible in \( \alpha \), then \( \tau \) is visible in \( \text{visible}(\alpha, T) \).

Therefore, \( \text{visible}(\alpha, T) \) is serially correct.

Let \( \tau \) be any operation in \( \text{visible}(\alpha, T) \). Then the execution of \( \tau \) is serially correct.

(4) If \( \tau \) is not visible in \( \alpha \), then \( \text{visible}(\alpha, T) \) is not visible in \( \tau \).

Therefore, \( \text{visible}(\alpha, T) \) is serially correct.

Let \( \tau \) be any operation in \( \text{visible}(\alpha, T) \). Then the execution of \( \tau \) is serially correct.

(5) If \( \tau \) is visible in \( \alpha \), then \( \tau \) is visible in \( \text{visible}(\alpha, T) \).

Therefore, \( \text{visible}(\alpha, T) \) is serially correct.

Let \( \tau \) be any operation in \( \text{visible}(\alpha, T) \). Then the execution of \( \tau \) is serially correct.

(6) If \( \tau \) is not visible in \( \alpha \), then \( \text{visible}(\alpha, T) \) is not visible in \( \tau \).

Therefore, \( \text{visible}(\alpha, T) \) is serially correct.

Let \( \tau \) be any operation in \( \text{visible}(\alpha, T) \). Then the execution of \( \tau \) is serially correct.
results follow from an interesting theorem about weak concurrent schedules, which says that the portion of any weak concurrent schedule which is visible to a live non-orphan transaction is equivalent to (i.e., looks the same at all primitives as) a serial schedule.

The proof of this theorem is quite interesting, as it provides considerable insight into the scheduling algorithm. The proof shows not only that a transaction’s view of a weak concurrent schedule is equivalent to some serial schedule, but by a recursive construction, it actually produces such a schedule. It is interesting and instructive to observe how the views that different transactions have the system execution get passed up and down the transaction tree, as creates, commits and aborts occur.

**Theorem 68.** Let \( \alpha \) be a weak concurrent schedule, and \( T \) any transaction which is live and not an orphan in \( \alpha \). Then there is a serial schedule \( \beta \) which is equivalent to visible\((\alpha, T)\).

**Proof.** We proceed by induction on the length of \( \alpha \). The basis, length = 0, is trivial. Fix \( \alpha \) of length at least 1, and assume that the claim is true for all shorter weak concurrent schedules. Let \( \pi \) be the last operation of \( \alpha \), and let \( \alpha = \alpha' \pi \). Fix \( T \) which is live and not an orphan in \( \alpha \). We must show that there is a serial schedule \( \beta \) which is equivalent to visible\((\alpha, T)\).

If \( \pi \) is not a serial operation, then

\[
\text{visible}(\alpha', T) = \text{visible}(\text{serial}(\alpha'), T) = \text{visible}(\text{serial}(\alpha), T) = \text{visible}(\alpha, T),
\]

and the result is immediate by induction. So we can assume that \( \pi \) is a serial operation. Also, if transaction\((\pi)\) is not visible to \( T \) in \( \alpha \), then visible\((\alpha, T)\) = visible\((\alpha', T)\), and the results is again immediate by induction. Thus, we can assume that transaction\((\pi)\) is visible to \( T \) in \( \alpha \). Also, \( T \) is not an orphan in \( \alpha' \). There are four cases.

(1) \( \pi \) is an output operation of a transaction or resilient object. Then the inductive hypothesis implies the existence of a serial schedule \( \beta' \) which is equivalent to visible\((\alpha', T)\). Let \( \beta = \beta' \pi \). We must show that \( \beta \) is equivalent to visible\((\alpha, T)\) and serial.

Let \( P \) be any primitive. Then

\[
\beta \parallel P = \beta' \pi \parallel P = \text{visible}(\alpha', T) \pi \parallel P \quad \text{by inductive hypothesis}
\]

\[
= \text{visible}(\alpha, T) \parallel P \quad \text{by Lemma 12}.
\]

Therefore, \( \beta \) is equivalent to visible\((\alpha, T)\).

(2) \( \pi \) is a create\((T')\) operation. Then transaction\((\pi) = T' \), and so \( T' \) is visible to \( T \) in \( \alpha \). Then Lemma 55 implies that \( \pi \) is the first operation whose transaction
is a descendant of $T'$. Then, by the definition of visibility, it must be that $T' = T$. By Lemma 57, parent($T$) is live in $\alpha'$. Since parent($T$) is not an orphan, the inductive hypothesis implies the existence of a serial schedule $\beta'$ which is equivalent to visible($\alpha'$, parent($T$)). Let $\beta = \beta' \pi$. We must show that $\beta$ is equivalent to visible($\alpha$, $T$) and serial.

Let $P$ be any primitive. Then

$$\beta | P = \beta' \pi | P = \text{visible}(\alpha', \text{parent}(T)) \pi | P \quad \text{by inductive hypothesis}$$

$$= \text{visible}(\alpha, T) | P \quad \text{by Lemma 62.}$$

Thus, $\beta$ is equivalent to visible($\alpha$, $T$).

Consider any execution of the serial system having $\beta'$ as its operation sequence, and let $s'$ be the state of the serial scheduler after $\beta'$. We show that $\pi$ is enabled in $s'$. That is, we show that $T \in \text{create_requested}(s')$, that $T \notin \text{created}(s')$, that $T \notin \text{aborted}(s')$, and that siblings($T$) $\cap$ created($s'$) $\subseteq$ returned($s'$).

Consider any execution of the weak concurrent system having $\alpha$ as its operation sequence, and let $s$ be the state of the weak concurrent scheduler after $\alpha'$. State $s$ contains a component $s_X$ for the lock manager for each object $X$.

If $T = T_0$, then $T \in \text{create_requested}(s')$ by the initial conditions. If $T \neq T_0$, then $T \in \text{create_requested}(s_x)$ by the preconditions of the concurrent scheduler, so a request-create($T$) operation occurs in $\alpha'$. The request-create($T$) operation has transaction parent($T$), and so is in visible($\alpha'$, parent($T$)), and thus is in $\beta'$. Therefore, $T \in \text{create_requested}(s')$.

If $T \in \text{created}(s')$, then there is a create($T$) operation in $\beta'$, and hence in $\alpha'$. Then $\alpha$ would have two such operations, which is impossible, so $T \notin \text{created}(s')$.

If $T \in \text{aborted}(s')$, there is an abort($T$) operation in $\beta'$, and hence in $\alpha'$. Then $\alpha$ would have an abort($T$) followed by a create($T$). This is impossible, so $T \notin \text{aborted}(s')$.

Assume $U \in \text{siblings}(T) \cap \text{created}(s')$. Then there is a create($U$) operation in $\beta'$, and so in visible($\alpha'$, parent($T$)). Since create($U$) occurs at $U$, $U$ is visible to parent($T$) = parent($U$) in $\alpha'$; thus, commit($U$, $u$) occurs in $\alpha'$, for some $u$. Since commit($U$, $u$) occurs at parent($T$), commit($U$, $u$) is in visible($\alpha'$, parent($T$)), and so in $\beta'$. Thus, $U \in \text{returned}(s')$.

(3) $\pi$ is a commit($T'$, $v$) operation. Then $T'' = \text{parent}(T) = \text{transaction}(\pi)$ is visible to $T$ and not an orphan in $\alpha$. Also, $T'$ is not an orphan in $\alpha'$, by Lemma 65. Then, since $\alpha$ is well-formed, $T'$ is live in $\alpha'$ and so, by Lemma 57, $T''$ is live in $\alpha'$ and so in $\alpha$. Since $T''$ is live and visible to $T$ in $\alpha$, $T''$ is an ancestor of $T$. Since $T$ is live in $\alpha$, Lemma 58 implies that $T$ is not a descendant of $T'$. The inductive hypothesis yields two serial schedules, $\beta'$ and $\beta''$, which are equivalent to visible($\alpha'$, $T'$) and visible($\alpha'$, $T$) respectively. Let $\gamma = \text{visible}(\beta', T')$. Let $\beta_1 = \beta' - \gamma$ and $\beta_2 = \beta'' - \gamma$. We show that $\beta = \gamma \beta_1 \pi \beta_2$ is equivalent to visible($\alpha$, $T$) and serial.

Lemma 28 implies that $\gamma$ is a serial schedule.
Since $T'$ is visible to $T'$ in $\alpha'$, Lemma 10 implies that
\[
\text{visible}(\alpha', T') = \text{visible}(\text{visible}(\alpha', T'), T'),
\]
which is equivalent to $\text{visible}(\beta', T') = \gamma'$; thus $\gamma'$ is equivalent to $\text{visible}(\alpha', T')$. Also, since $T''$ is visible to $T$ in $\alpha'$, Lemma 10 implies that
\[
\text{visible}(\alpha', T') = \text{visible}(\text{visible}(\alpha', T), T''),
\]
which is equivalent to $\text{visible}(\beta'', T'')$. Thus, $\gamma'$ is also equivalent to $\text{visible}(\beta'', T'')$.

Then, by Lemma 31 (applied with serial($\alpha'$) as the schedule $\alpha$ hypothesized in the lemma), $\gamma\beta_1$ and $\gamma\beta_2$ are serial schedules which are equivalent to $\beta'$ and $\beta''$, respectively.

We have that $\text{visible}(\alpha, T') = \text{visible}(\alpha', T') \pi$ by Lemma 62, which is equivalent to $\beta'(\pi)$, which is in turn equivalent to $\gamma\beta_1\pi$. That is, $\text{visible}(\alpha, T')$ is equivalent to $\gamma\beta_1\pi$.

Since $\beta''$ is equivalent to visible($\alpha'$, $T$) and $\gamma'$ is equivalent to visible($\alpha'$, $T''$), by Lemma 10, $\beta_2 = \beta'' - \gamma'$ is equivalent to
\[
\text{visible}(\alpha', T) - \text{visible}(\alpha', T'') = \text{visible}(\alpha, T) - \text{visible}(\alpha, T'')
\]
by Lemma 62.

Thus, $\beta$ is equivalent to visible($\alpha, T'$)($\text{visible}(\alpha, T) - \text{visible}(\alpha, T'')$). Since $T''$ is visible to $T$ in $\alpha$, by Lemma 8, it is easy to see that the same operations appear in this schedule as in visible($\alpha, T$). Let $P$ be any primitive. Then $\text{visible}(\alpha, T'')|P$ is a prefix of $\text{visible}(\alpha, T)|P$, by Lemma 66. It follows that $\beta|P = \text{visible}(\alpha, T)|P$, so that $\beta$ is equivalent to visible($\alpha, T$).

It remains to show that $\beta$ is serial. This follows from Lemma 32, provided we can show that:

(3a) $\gamma\beta_1\pi$ is a serial schedule,
(3b) $T'$ sees everything in $\gamma\beta_1$,
(3c) $T$ sees everything in $\gamma\beta_2$,
(3d) $\gamma = \text{visible}(\gamma\beta_1, T') = \text{visible}(\gamma\beta_2, T'')$ and
(3e) no basic object has operations in both $\beta_1$ and $\beta_2$.

(3a): Consider any execution of the serial system having $\gamma\beta_1$ as its operation sequence, and let $s'$ be a state of the serial scheduler after $\gamma\beta_1$. We show that $\pi$ is enabled in state $s'$. That is, we show that $(T', v) \in \text{commit\_requested}(s')$, that $T' \not\in \text{returned}(s')$, and that $\text{children}(T') \cap \text{create\_requested}(s') \subseteq \text{returned}(s')$.

Consider any execution of the weak concurrent system having $\alpha$ as its operation sequence, and let $s$ be the state of the weak concurrent scheduler after $\alpha'$ with components $s_c$ (the weak controller state) and $s_X$ for every object $X$ (the lock managers).

Since the weak concurrent scheduler is able to perform $\text{commit}(T', v)$ in state $s$, it must be that $(T', v)$ is in $\text{commit\_requested}(s_c)$, and so it must be that $T'$ issues a $\text{request\_commit}(T', v)$ in $\alpha'$. Since $T'$ is visible to itself, and $\beta'$ is equivalent
to visible($\alpha', T'$), it follows that this \texttt{request-commit}($T'$, $v$) operation also occurs in $\gamma\beta_1$. Therefore, ($T'$, $v$) is in \texttt{commit-requested}($s'$).

Since $\alpha$ is well-formed, at most one return operation for $T'$ appears in $\alpha$; thus, $T'$ is not in \texttt{returned}($s'$).

Fix $U \in \text{children}(T') \cap \text{create-requested}($s'). Then \texttt{request-create}($U$) is performed at $T'$ in $\gamma\beta_1$, and hence in $\alpha'$, so $U \in \text{create-requested}($s$_c$). Since the weak concurrent scheduler is able to perform \texttt{commit}($T'$, $v$) in state $s$, it must be that $U \in \text{returned}($s$_c$). Therefore, a return operation for $U$ is performed at $T'$ in $\alpha'$. Since $T'$ is visible to itself and $\gamma\beta_1$ is equivalent to visible($\alpha'$, $T'$), this implies that the return for $U$ also occurs at $T'$ in $\gamma\beta_1$. Therefore, $U$ is in \texttt{returned}($s'$).

(3b): Immediate from Lemma 10.

(3c): Immediate from Lemma 10.

(3d): We have that $\gamma$ is equivalent to both visible($\beta'$, $T''$) and visible($\beta''$, $T''$), and that $\gamma\beta_1$ and $\gamma\beta_2$ are equivalent to $\beta'$ and $\beta''$ respectively. By Lemma 10, $\gamma$ is equivalent to both visible($\gamma\beta_1$, $T''$) and visible($\gamma\beta_2$, $T''$). Equality follows.

(3e): Immediate from Lemma 67.

(4) $\pi$ is an \texttt{Abort}($T'$) operation. Then $T'' = \text{parent}(T') = \text{transaction}(\pi)$ is visible to $T$ in $\alpha$, and is not an orphan in $\alpha$, by Lemma 65. Then $T'$ is live in $\alpha'$ and, by Lemma 57, $T''$ is live in $\alpha'$ and so in $\alpha$. Since $T''$ is live and visible to $T$ in $\alpha$, $T$ is a descendent of $T''$. Since $T$ is not an orphan in $\alpha$, $T$ is not a descendent of $T'$. The inductive hypothesis yields two serial schedules, $\beta'$ and $\beta''$, which are equivalent to visible($\alpha'$, $T''$) and visible($\alpha'$, $T$) respectively. Let $\beta_1 = \beta'' - \beta'$. We show that $\beta = \beta'\pi\beta_1$ is equivalent to visible($\alpha$, $T$) and serial.

By Lemma 31, $\beta'\beta_1$ is a serial schedule which is equivalent to $\beta''$.

Let $P$ be a primitive other than $T''$. Then

$$\beta|P = \beta'\beta_1|P = \beta''|P = \text{visible}(\alpha', T)|P = \text{visible}(\alpha, T)|P$$

by Lemma 62. Also, since $T''$ is visible to $T$ in $\alpha$,

$$\text{visible}(\alpha, T)|T'' = \text{visible}(\alpha, T'')|T'' = \text{visible}(\alpha', T'')\pi|T'' \quad \text{by Lemma 62}$$

Thus $\beta$ is equivalent to visible($\alpha$, $T$).

It remains to show that $\beta$ is serial. This follows from Lemma 33, provided we can show that

(4a) $\beta'\pi$ is a serial schedule,
(4b) $T$ sees everything in $\beta'\beta_1$, and
(4c) $\beta' = \text{visible}(\beta', T'') = \text{visible}(\beta'\beta_1, T'').$

(4a): Consider any execution of the serial system having $\beta'$ as its operation sequence, and let $s'$ be a state of the serial scheduler after $\beta'$. We show that $\pi$ is enabled in state $s'$. That is, we show that $T' \in \text{create-requested}($s'), that $T' \not\in \text{created}($s'), $T' \not\in \text{aborted}($s'), and that $\text{siblings}(T') \cap \text{created}($s') $\subseteq \text{returned}($s').

Consider any execution of the weak concurrent system having $\alpha$ as its operation sequence, and let $s$ be the state of the weak concurrent scheduler after $\alpha'$ with

component $T'$. Then $T' \in \text{create-requested}($s$)$.

Since $\alpha$ is well-formed, $T'$ must be visible in $\gamma\beta_1$. Thus $T' \in \text{create-requested}($s$)$.

Since $\gamma\beta_1$ is visible in $\beta'$, \texttt{commit}($T'$, $v$) in $\gamma\beta_1$ is neither created in $\beta'$ nor abortion. Hence $T' \not\in \text{created}($s$)$ and $T' \not\in \text{aborted}($s$)$.

Fix $s' \in \text{create-requested}($s$)$ and $s'' = \text{create}($s$)$.

Since $\alpha$ is well-formed, $s''$ is visible in $\alpha'$.

Since $\alpha'$ is well-formed, $s''$ is visible in $\beta'$.

By Lemma 31, $\beta'\beta_1$ is a serial schedule which is equivalent to $\beta''$.

Therefore, $\beta$ is serial.

Corollary 3: $\alpha'$ is a non-abortable request.

Proof. $\alpha'$ is not an orphan in $\alpha$. Since $\alpha'$ is not an orphan in $\alpha$, it is not an orphan in $\alpha'$. Let $T = \text{parent}(\text{transaction}(\pi))$ be visible in $\alpha$. Since $\alpha$ is a serial schedule, $T$ is visible in $\alpha'$.

Thus, $\alpha' = \text{visible}(\alpha, T)$. Since $\alpha$ is a serial schedule, $\alpha'$ is serial.

Now we show that $\alpha'$ is not abortable.

...
components $s_e$ (the weak controller state), and $s_X$ for every object $X$ (the lock managers).

Since the weak concurrent scheduler is able to perform $\text{ABORT}(T')$ in state $s$, it must be that $T'$ is in $\text{create}_{-}\text{requested}(s_e)$, and so it must be that $T''$ issues a $\text{REQUEST}_{-}\text{CREATE}(T')$ in $\alpha'$. Since $T''$ is visible to itself, and $\beta'$ is equivalent to visible$(\alpha', T')$, it follows that this $\text{REQUEST}_{-}\text{CREATE}(T')$ operation also occurs in $\beta'$. Therefore, $T'$ is in $\text{create}_{-}\text{requested}(s')$.

Since $\alpha$ cannot contain two $\text{ABORT}(T')$ operations, there cannot be an $\text{ABORT}(T')$ operation in $\alpha'$, and so there cannot be one in $\beta'$. Assume that there is a $\text{CREATE}(T'')$ in $\beta'$. Then $T'$ is visible to $T''$ in $\alpha'$, so $\text{COMMIT}(T')$ occurs in $\alpha'$. But then a $\text{COMMIT}(T')$ and $\text{ABORT}(T')$ both occur in $\alpha'$, which cannot occur. Therefore, there is neither an $\text{ABORT}(T')$ nor a $\text{CREATE}(T'')$ in $\beta'$, and so $T'$ is neither in aborteds$(s')$ nor in $\text{created}(s')$.

Fix $U \in \text{siblings}(T') \cap \text{created}(s')$. Then there is a $\text{CREATE}(U)$ in $\beta'$. But then $U$ is visible to $T''$ in $\alpha'$, so that a $\text{COMMIT}$ for $U$ occurs in $\alpha'$, and hence (because $\text{parent}(U)$ is visible to $T''$ in $\alpha'$) a $\text{COMMIT}$ for $U$ occurs in $\beta'$. Therefore, $U \in \text{returned}(s')$.

(4b): Immediate from Lemma 10.

(4c): The first equality follows from Lemma 10. Clearly, $\beta' = \text{visible}(\beta', T'')$ is a prefix of $\text{visible}(\beta' \beta_1, T'')$. Equality follows because any operation in $\beta_1$ visible to $T''$ in $\beta' \beta_1$ would also be visible to $T''$ in $\alpha'$, and so would be in $\beta'$ and not $\beta_1$. □

**Corollary 69.** Every weak concurrent schedule is serially correct for every non-orphan non-access transaction.

**Proof.** Let $\alpha$ be a weak concurrent schedule. Let $T$ be a non-access transaction that is not an orphan in $\alpha$. We must show that $\alpha|T$ is a serial schedule. Note that $T$ is not an orphan in any prefix of $\alpha$. There are three cases:

1. $\alpha|T$ is empty. Then the result is trivial.
2. $T$ is live in $\alpha$. Then Theorem 68 yields a serial schedule $\beta$ that is equivalent to $\text{visible}(\alpha, T)$. Thus, $\alpha|T = \text{visible}(\alpha, T)|T = \beta|T$, which suffices.
3. $T$ is a transaction which is live in some proper prefix of $\alpha$, but is not live in $\alpha$. Since $\alpha$ is well-formed, $\alpha$ has a prefix $\alpha' \pi$, where $\pi$ is a $\text{COMMIT}$ operation for $T$, $\alpha'|T = \alpha|T$ and $T$ is live in $\alpha'$. Then Theorem 68 yields a serial schedule $\beta$ that is equivalent to $\text{visible}(\alpha', T)|T$. Thus,

$$\alpha|T = \alpha'|T = \text{visible}(\alpha', T)|T = \beta|T,$$

which suffices. □

Now, since $T_0$ cannot become an orphan (having no ancestors to abort), our first major correctness result is immediate.
Corollary 70. Every weak concurrent schedule is serially correct for \( T_0 \).

Having proved correctness properties for weak concurrent schedules, we are now ready to prove the correctness of concurrent schedules.

Lemma 71. Every concurrent execution is a weak concurrent execution.

**Proof.** The proof is by induction on execution length, with a trivial basis. Let \( \gamma = \gamma', s', s, \pi, s \) be a concurrent execution with \((s', \pi, s)\) a single step of the concurrent system, and assume the lemma holds for \( \gamma' \). Let \( s'_c \) and \( s_c \) denote the states of the concurrent controller in system states \( s' \) and \( s \).

If \( \pi \) is any operation other than an **ABORT**, the result is immediate since the postconditions for all other operations are identical in the concurrent and weak concurrent systems, and the preconditions are either identical or are stronger in the concurrent system than in the weak concurrent system. Assume that \( \pi \) is an **ABORT**(\( T \)). We must show that \( T \in \text{create}\_\text{requested}(s'_c) - \text{returned}(s'_c) \).

Since \( \pi \) is enabled in state \( s'_c \) in the concurrent controller,

\[
T \in (\text{create}\_\text{requested}(s'_c) - \text{created}(s'_c) - \text{aborted}(s'))
\]

\[
\cup (\text{commit}\_\text{requested}(s'_c) - \text{returned}(s'_c)).
\]

If \( T \) is in \( \text{create}\_\text{requested}(s'_c) - \text{created}(s'_c) - \text{aborted}(s'_c) \), Lemma 45 implies that \( \gamma' \) contains no \text{CREATE}(T) or \text{ABORT}(T) operation. By well-formedness, \( \gamma' \) also contains no \text{COMMIT} operation for \( T \), and the result follows from Lemma 45. On the other hand, if \( T \) is in \( \text{commit}\_\text{requested}(s'_c) - \text{returned}(s'_c) \), Lemma 45 implies that a \text{REQUEST}\_\text{COMMIT} operation for \( T \) occurs in \( \gamma' \). By well-formedness, this is preceded by a \text{CREATE}(T) operation and, by the concurrent controller precondition, this is preceded by a \text{REQUEST}\_\text{CREATE} for \( T \). Finally, again by Lemma 45, the result follows. \( \square \)

Now we can prove the second major result of the paper.

Corollary 72. Every concurrent schedule is serially correct.

**Proof.** Let \( \alpha \) be a concurrent schedule. Then \( \alpha \) is also a weak concurrent schedule, by Lemma 71, and is well-formed, by Lemma 61. We must show that \( \alpha \) is serially correct for every transaction \( T \). There are three cases.

(1) \( \alpha|T \) is empty. Then the result is trivial.

(2) \( T \) is live in \( \alpha \). By Lemma 50, all of \( T \)'s ancestors are live in \( \alpha \), so that \( T \) is not an orphan in \( \alpha \). Then Corollary 69 yields the result.

(3) \( T \) is a transaction which is live in some proper prefix of \( \alpha \), but is not live in \( \alpha \). By Lemma 51, \( \alpha \) has a prefix \( \alpha' \pi \), where \( \pi \) is a return operation for \( T \), \( \alpha'|T = \alpha|T \) and \( T \) is the only transaction in \( \alpha' \pi \). Then \( \alpha \) is serially correct.

For completeness, we prove:

Theorem 53. Every TA, \( \alpha \), is serially correct.\( \alpha \).

**Proof.** Let \( \alpha \), then Lemma 72, Lemma 3, and second major result of the paper.

8. Discussion

In this paper, we consider the correctness of concurrent systems that may result from a major process in some of their operations.

First, the model is a parallel turing machine, which is a definition of a parallel machine which has expanded meanings for our purposes. The model is easy to read, easy to learn, and use, and is presented to us to the needs of the paper.

Our treatment of correctness properties of concurrent systems is usual in the literature, and that of the properties of transactions which gives this paper.

There are three fundamental properties of these systems, as shown in [3, 9, 19].

(1) The system is an automaton, or a set of transactions. When one transaction is live in some prefix of an execution, it can be continued without change. If a transaction is not used, we do not consider it.

and \( T \) is the only transaction in \( \alpha' \pi \). Then \( \alpha \) is serially correct.

For completeness, we prove:

Theorem 53. Every TA, \( \alpha \), is serially correct.
and $T$ is live in $\alpha'$. By Lemma 50, all of $T$'s ancestors are live in $\alpha'$, so $T$ is not an orphan in $\alpha'$. Then Corollary 69 implies that $\alpha'$ is serially correct for $T$, so that $\alpha$ is serially correct for $T$. \qed

For completeness, we include an analogue of Theorem 68 for concurrent schedules.

**Theorem 73.** Let $\alpha$ be a concurrent schedule, and $T$ any transaction which is live in $\alpha$. Then there is a serial schedule $\beta$ which is equivalent to $\text{visible}(\alpha, T)$.

**Proof.** Lemma 71 implies that $\alpha$ is a weak concurrent schedule. Since $T$ is live in $\alpha$, Lemma 50 implies that $T$ is not an orphan in $\alpha$. Then Theorem 68 yields the result. \qed

8. Discussion

In this paper, we have presented a formal model for describing nested transaction systems and their properties. The model has many features that we believe make it a major contribution to the understanding of transaction systems, and we highlight some of these below.

First, the entire model is based on a very general and very simple underlying model for concurrent computation, the I/O automaton model. The general definitions and properties of this underlying model provide the necessary underpinnings for our entire transaction modelling effort. This modelling is very easy to learn and use, and its usefulness extends much beyond transaction systems. Thus, it seems to us to be a very satisfactory foundation for our work.

Our transaction system model permits simple, yet completely rigorous description of concurrency control algorithms in ways which correspond very closely to the usual informal ways of understanding the algorithms. The important components of transaction systems, the transactions, data and schedulers, are described explicitly, which greatly facilitates reasoning about them.

There is a substantial amount of work in this area which does not represent all of these components explicitly, but only implicitly, by properties of their behavior [3, 9, 19, for example]. There are problems with this approach. A key ingredient that is usually absent from such implicit models is a clear notion of "causality", describing how particular actions (operations) are triggered by other actions or states. In contrast, our explicit representation of all system components as I/O automata makes it easy to understand exactly what causes all operations to occur. When causality is important in reasoning about algorithms, as in [9], implicit models can be extraordinarily difficult to use. Even in cases where implicit models can be used, we see the present work as providing a formal and intuitive basis for that work.
Our model represents transactions as essentially arbitrary automata, subject only to simple syntactic constraints. This approach is much more general than representing them as programs in some particular, overly-constrained language.

The I/O automata model permits description of algorithms in an abstract form which is not tied to a particular programming language or system, and which allows maximum nondeterminism. An implementation of an algorithm for a particular system will generally restrict the nondeterminism allowed in our presentation, because of the need to tailor the implementation to the requirements of a particular environment. However, since the implementation is just a restriction of the abstract algorithm, correctness properties of the algorithm within our model will hold a fortiori for the implementation.

Formulating nested transaction systems as I/O automata permits precise formulation of the correctness conditions to be satisfied by concurrency control algorithms; those correctness conditions can be stated at the transaction interface, an interface which does not contain explicit information about object representation. Because of this choice of interface, the correctness conditions can be stated in a robust way: the same conditions can be useful for describing the properties of many different kinds of algorithms, some of which manipulate the data in very different ways. Also, the correctness conditions can be described in a way that is meaningful to a user of the system.

The particular correctness conditions that we describe in this paper involve serial correctness at transaction interfaces. We believe that these particular correctness definitions are very interesting, and will be useful for describing the correctness of most of the usual algorithms studied in the concurrency control area. That is, the same conditions appear to be the right ones to use to describe correctness of many different kinds of algorithms, including those that use locking, timestamps, multiple versions, and replicated data.

The model permits rigorous correctness proofs to be carried out for concurrency control algorithms in ways that follow intuitive understanding of the algorithms. For example, in this paper, we have used the model to describe and show the correctness of a very important nested transaction concurrency control algorithm. Our correctness proofs are constructive and provide considerable intuition about the workings of the algorithm. In contrast to most correctness proofs for concurrent algorithms, our proofs are not voluminous low-level case-analyses; rather, they consist of a large number of clear and natural lemmas about the behavior of the algorithm. These lemmas can be understood individually, and build upon each other in the manner of good mathematics. Many of the lemmas should be reusable in extensions of this work as well.

A successful model of nested transactions should contain the classical theory as a special case, in a way which is natural and sheds some light on that case. We believe that our model has contributed much to the classical theory. For example, the I/O automaton model provides a general underlying model, a missing component of the classical theory. Also, our explicit and general modelling of the transactions unifies various forms of concurrency control algorithms.

Another advantage of our approach is that we can use our model to prove correctness of transaction interfaces, which is important when designing systems. Why is this? Because of the serial correctness conditions of the transaction layer, any external behavior of our model is the next step by the algorithm. The robustness of the system and the robustness of the model are fully justified.

By now you may wonder why is our model so simple? We think that usually modelers are too simple to form the right intuition about the system. There is a strong desire for simplicity in algorithms, as there is in programming languages, and this can lead to a simplification of the system. We believe the model is understandable and useful about the system.

We believe our model is very simple and the need for complications is unnecessary. We are trying to make our models simple using our powerful tools.

Throughout our model, we are trying to influence the way that we think about single-level systems. We believe that we have contributed much to the development of transaction systems, and that our model is in key terms of many other systems. We believe we have developed an approach to model correctness...
unifies the earlier collection of somewhat arbitrary approaches. Our use of the transaction interface for stating correctness conditions is also an improvement.

Another contribution to the classical theory is in motivating serializability as a correctness condition. Serializability consists of two criteria: individually, each transaction must see a consistent state, and together, they must appear to run in a serial order. (A schedule in which each transaction reads and writes the initial state of the database provides a consistent state to each transaction, but is not serializable.) Why is this second ordering property a part of the generally accepted correctness condition of the classical theory? Clearly, because of implicit nesting in the context of the transaction system. In practice, transactions perform tasks on behalf of some external entity or entities, which may expect one transaction to see the results of the next. In the natural formulation of classical systems within the present model, the classical transactions are children of $T_0$, with data accesses as their only children. The root is an explicit representation of the external environment in which the system runs. Thus, the ordering property of serializability is a natural consequence of the requirement that all transactions see serial schedules, including $T_0$. It does not have to be introduced as an independent requirement in need of separate justification.

By now, there has been a large amount of systems design and algorithms work that uses or implements nested transactions. It seems likely that these ideas will form the basis of future programming languages for distributed computing. However, there is currently a problem with the presentation of this work. Some of these algorithms are presented in the context of specific systems and programming languages. Very useful and general ideas are too intimately connected with details of the systems to be fully appreciated, particularly for readers with only a passing understanding of those systems. This level of detail also makes careful reasoning about the algorithms very difficult.

We believe that our model has provided the necessary framework and some of the necessary vocabulary for describing this work in a clear and unambiguous way. We are currently studying much of this work on systems design and algorithms using our model, and our preliminary results indicate that it works very well.

Throughout the paper, we have described connections with other people's work as appropriate. Here, we mention some of the particular modelling work that relates most closely to ours, and describe the connections in more detail.

First, the pioneering work of Bernstein and Goodman [5, etc.] has had a strong influence on this work. Quite early, they recognized the need for a model for single-level transaction systems, that would have many of the characteristics which we have sought for nested transaction systems. They have carried out extensive research on precise understanding of single-level transaction concurrency control algorithms. They have presented formal statements of correctness conditions, in terms of serializability of the accesses to data objects by different transactions. They have described some concurrency control algorithms with precision, and have proved correctness of some algorithms, using a lemma which characterizes serializability
by absence of cycles in a certain dependency relation. Their work has gone a long way toward providing precise understanding of the work in this area.

However, the particular models used by Bernstein and Goodman have some problems which limit their applicability. For instance, the basic correctness condition is stated in terms of the interface between the data objects and the algorithm. There are many algorithms which handle objects in very different ways, e.g., using multiple versions, or making multiple copies in order to permit “backing out” of operations. Since these algorithms do not preserve the specified object interface, they would not be considered correct under the same correctness condition. Thus, the correctness condition must be modified. Another limitation is that the proof technique, which involves proving absence of cycles, is a proof by contradiction; it does not give much insight into the operation of the algorithms. For many reasons, it is not at all clear how to extend these frameworks to handle nesting of transactions.

Earlier attempts in [4, 9, 19] to model nested transactions have made significant contributions. For example, [19] contains a language-independent model, which is used to give precise correctness conditions and a proof for a locking algorithm. Many of the ideas in that work have been useful in providing a vocabulary for talking about nested transactions. However, attempts to extend the model of [19] to handle correctness of orphans, as [9] demonstrates, are not sufficiently expressive. Certain aspects of the model lead to technical difficulties; for example, it fails to model the transactions explicitly, using instead a specification of their behavior. Our new model builds on the strengths of the earlier work, while managing (we believe) to avoid its weaknesses.

Finally, the very recent work in [3] proposes another general model for nested transactions. While on the surface the models appear quite different, they are actually “compatible”, in that the concepts described in [3] seem to be easily definable within our model. The style of the model in [3] is different from ours: their work models transactions and the scheduler implicitly, for instance. However, we believe that their important axiomatic statements of properties can be described as assumptions and lemmas about behaviors of components in our model. Also, the partial orders which they use to model executions can actually be defined simply and directly in terms of our linearly-ordered executions. There are many points of agreement: the use of the transaction interface for stating correctness conditions, and the use of the virtual root transaction $T_0$, to mention two.

On the other hand, the emphasis in [3] is on a different example from the one studied in this paper. They consider multiple levels of abstraction for the data, and regard transactions at any level of the transaction tree as accesses to data at a corresponding level of abstraction. This view meshes quite well with our model, where, for example, we use the same create notation for creation of a transaction and invocation of an operation on data. Their paper clarifies the concurrency control requirements for data at different levels, when the correctness condition is serial correctness at $T_0$. We hope and expect that it will be easy to restate their results as claims about our model.
We note that the work in [3] only treats concurrency control, but does not address the very critical and difficult issues of resiliency.

9. Further work

This paper is an embarkation on a major project to formulate a unified presentation of the most important algorithms for concurrency control and resiliency, especially those for nested transactions. In this paper, we have defined a general framework meeting the requirements outlined above. We have demonstrated the power of this framework by using it to specify two correctness conditions for nested transactions, to present two locking algorithms for implementing nested transactions, and to prove that the algorithms satisfy their respective requirements.

It is possible that additional work might yield shorter and more elegant correctness proofs for the algorithms of this paper. One idea which might be helpful is suggested by the close relationship between each resilient object and its corresponding lock manager. Instead of treating the two components separately, it might be useful to combine the resilient object and lock manager into a single object which handles both concurrency control and resiliency. By removing the need to reason about the interface between the resilient object and the lock manager, this strategy might permit simpler proofs. This remains to be seen, however.

We are currently using the same framework to study many other algorithms. For example, in [7], we consider a variant of the weak concurrent system of this paper, in which the only operations on objects are reads and writes, and in which read and write locks are maintained. The resulting algorithm is essentially that of Moss [22]. We give a description and complete correctness proof. We are currently generalizing the work of the present paper and that of [7], to a “generalized locking algorithm” for nested transactions; this algorithm will take advantage of special properties of the objects to permit flexible patterns of lock sharing. We are also considering timestamp and multiversion algorithms [1], and algorithms which use replicated data objects [8].

We are particularly interested in studying algorithms which give rise to live orphans, i.e., live transactions whose ancestors have aborted [9, 12, 17, 26]. Our serial correctness condition provides a formal definition of orphan correctness—that all transactions (including orphans) “see consistent data” [9]. In [11], we describe and prove correctness of several of the recently-developed algorithms for orphan management. This work is simplified by building on the foundation provided by the present paper.

Another direction of interest is the explicit representation of distribution within the model. It is fairly natural to model each transaction and object as located at different sites, each with a local automaton representing the resident portion of the (distributed) scheduler. These automata would communicate with each other in order to implement the (centralized) scheduler studied here. The natural next step
would be to model failure resilience, as various components lose information or fail altogether.

The reader might have noted that our correctness conditions do not guarantee anything about the system making progress, but only about "safety" properties. Further work is needed to incorporate guarantees of progress. This work is likely to be difficult, however. Only recently, in [20], have we achieved what we consider to be a satisfactory understanding of the eventuality and fairness issues for the basic I/O automaton model, so that we can even formulate the conditions we want to satisfy. But even with the ability to state such conditions, the algorithmic issues still seem difficult.

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References

Introduction to the theory of nested transactions


