階層型トランザクションの補償時に生じるデッドロックの二つの解法

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あらまし 階層型トランザクションの同時実行により生じるデッドロック問題について考える。トランザクションのアポート方法としては、更新された物理的なページ状態をログに記憶し、これにより更新前の状態に戻す方法がこれまでのシステムでは用いられてきている。しかし、CAD等のトランザクションは、従来のトランザクションとは異なり、実行時間が長くかつ多くのデータオブジェクトを利用する。こうしたシステムでは、ページの状態をログに記憶する方法では、ログが大きくなってしまう問題点がある。このために、本論文では、ページ状態ではなく実行された演算をログに記憶し、トランザクションをアポートするためには、ログ内の演算の補償演算を実行する方法を考える。補償演算自体もトランザクションであることから、トランザクションのアポート時にデッドロックが生じる場合がある。本論文では、ある補償演算の実行により解除できないデッドロックが存在することを示すとともに、これの解決方法として、退避点を用いるものと、用いないものを示す。

Two Methods to Resolve Deadlock to Compensate Nested Transactions

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Abstract Since transactions in new applications like CAD require more objects for longer time than the conventional ones, there is higher possibility that deadlock occurs, and also it is important to reduce data stored in the log to abort and restart transactions. In the conventional database systems, when some deadlock occurs, one deadlocked transaction T is selected and the whole part is aborted by restoring the old states in the log. Another way to abort T is to execute a compensate operation op of each operation op executed in T. Each op is a transaction which restores the old state on which op is applied. By this method, we can reduce time for aborting and restarting T since only a part of T is aborted, and can reduce the log size since operations are stored in the log in stead of storing the state. The compensate operations may cause further deadlock, since the compensate operations are also transactions and require locks on the objects. In this paper, we show that there exists unresolvable deadlock which cannot be resolved by some compensate operations. We show that there is some system where no unresolvable deadlock occurs. Also, we show two methods for resolving the unresolvable deadlock, i.e. stack and save-point based ones.

1. Introduction

Transactions in conventional database systems are flat sequences of read/write operations on physical page objects. In order to realize complex applications, transactions have to be composed of transactions as modules, i.e. nested [1, 15-17, 21-23]. Since these transactions require more objects and take longer time than the conventional ones, there is higher probability that deadlock [11, 18] occurs. In this paper, we discuss how to resolve deadlock in the interleaved execution of nested transactions. The deadlock is detected if a wait-for graph [10, 11] includes some deadlock cycle. One transaction T in the cycle is selected and is aborted by restoring the old state from the state log [2, 9]. Since nested transactions hold more objects for longer time, it is important to reduce cost for aborting the transactions and storing recovery data in the log. In our method, only a part of T which is necessary to resolve the deadlock is aborted instead of aborting the whole part to reduce cost for aborting and restarting T. Also, operations are stored in the log in stead of storing the page image to reduce the log size. In order to abort the operations in T, the compensate operations [6, 13] are executed. We assume that every operation op has some compensate operation op^{\sim} such that for every system state s, $op^{\sim}(op(s)) = s$. Since the compensate operations are also transactions, they require locks of objects. Another deadlock may occur by the compensate operations. We show that there exists deadlock which cannot be resolved by some compensate operations. Also, we present two methods, i.e. stack and save point based ones to resolve the unresolvable deadlock when it is detected.

In section 2, we describe a system model. In section 3, we define the deadlock of nested transactions. In section 4, the compensate operations are discussed. In section 5, we discuss the unresolvable deadlock. In section 6, we present one method to resolve the unresolvable deadlock.

2. System Model

2.1 System Structure

A system M is composed of objects. Each object o is an abstract data type [14], i.e. a pair of data structure and two kinds of operations for manipulating, i.e. primitive and non-primitive operations. Users can manipulate o by using only the non-primitive operations. The primitive operations directly manipulate o without using any lock [5] and do not call another operations. Each non-primitive operation of o requests a lock on o in a mode mode(op) and can call primitive operations of o and non-primitive operations.

[Example 2.1] A banking system B is composed of two objects, Bank and File. The accounts of individuals are stored in File, Bank is a view of File, Bank provides nonprimitive operations Withdrawal, Deposit, Check, Open, and Close. File provides non-primitive operations Read and Write, and primitive ones Fread and Fwrite. Withdrawal(x) withdrawals money from an account x and calls Read and Write on File. Deposit(x) calls Read and Write on File to deposit money in x. Check(x) reads x and calls Read on File. Open(x) and Close(x) opens and closes x, respectively, which call Write on File. Read and Write are realized by primitive Fread, and Fread and Fwrite, respectively. Fread(x) and Fwrite(x) read and write x in File without locking x, respectively. For example, Write(x) is realized by a lock, Fread, and Fwrite on x. In Bank, Withdrawal and Deposit are compatible, but they are not compatible with Check, Open, and Close. Check, Open, and Close are not compatible. In File, Read and Write, and two Write are not compatible. \Box

2.2 Transactions

A transaction T is an atomic sequence of operations [5, 8]. Each operation op calls another operations $op_1, ..., op_n$, which is written as $<[op, op_1, ..., op_n, op]>$. [op and op] denote begin and commit of op, respectively. Each op_i may call another operations $op_{i_1}, ..., op_{i_{i_1}}$. Here, op_i, op_{i_j} are said to be called by op. Thus, T is structured in an ordered tree, i.e. nested [17]. The depth-first ordering of nodes in the tree denotes the execution sequence of operations. op_1 precedes op_2 if op_1 is executed before op_2 in T. The immediate successor and predecessor are defined as usual $lca(op_1, op_2)$ denotes a least common ancestor of op_1 and op_2 in T. Here, let op_T denote an operation op in T.

[Example 2.2] A transaction V to transfer money from an account x to y, i.e. withdrawal the money from x and deposit it to y, is represented as shown in Fig.1. Here, let W, D, C, r, and w denote Withdrawal, Deposit, Close, Read, and Write, respectively. Also, let fr and fw be Fread and Fwrite, respectively. V denotes the root transaction. The leaves like fr(x) are primitive operations. <[V, [W(x), [w(x), fr(x), fw(x), w(x)], W(x)], [D(y), [w(y), fr(y), fw(y), w(y)], D(y)], <math>V]> denotes the execution sequence of operations in V. Another transaction U transfers all the money from x to y, and then closes x. \square

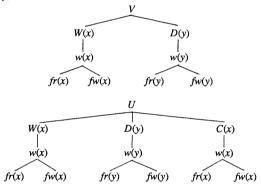


Fig.1 Transaction Trees

On *Bank* of Fig.1, any interleaved sequence like $L_1 = \langle W_V(x), W_U(x), D_U(y), D_V(y), C_U(x) \rangle$ and $L_2 = \langle W_V(x), W_U(x), D_U(y), C_U(x), D_V(y) \rangle$ is serializable with respect to the compatibility relation among the operations of *Bank*. From [15-17, 21], $\langle w_V(x), w_U(x), w_U(y), w_V(y), w_U(x) \rangle$ obtained from L_1 is *semantically* correct although it is not serializable from the serializablility theories [2, 5].

T has a local state, i.e. the local variables. The total state of the system M is a pair of the system state and the collection of the transaction states. The system state is a set of object states. The transaction state of T is stored in a ransaction stack ST_T . The local variables of op_j are allocated in ST_T when op (directly) calls op_j , and are popped up when op_j commits.

2.3 Synchronization Method

For a nested transaction T, the following synchronization mechanism is used to execute an operation op on an object o [16]. Here, Lock(op) is a set of objects held by op or by the operations called by op.

- [Locking scheme] (1) If op is the root, nothing is done and $Lock(op) = \phi$.
- (2) [op is not the root] If o is already locked, (2-1) if mode(op) is compatible with every mode of operation which locks o, op can be applied to o, (2-2) otherwise, op waits until (2-1) holds.
- (3) When op₁, ..., op_m called by op commit, all the locks in Lock(op) are released if op is the root of T. Otherwise, no lock in Lock(op) is released, and Lock(op) = {o} ∪ Lock(op₁) ∪...∪ Lock(op_m). □

The locking scheme is two-phase locked [5]. Here, o is held and obtained by op iff op locks o and iff o is held by op or by operations called by op, respectively. [op is a lock on o and allocates area for storing the local state in ST_T . op] releases ST_T and locks obtained in op if op is the root of T. If not, op] denotes only the end of op, and releases the local state from ST_T .

Among two modes m_1 and m_2 of o, m_1 is less exclusive than m_2 ($m_1 \subseteq m_2$) [12] iff for every mode m_3 , (1) if m_1 is compatible with m_3 , then m_2 is compatible with m_3 , and (2) if m_3 is compatible with m_2 , then m_3 is compatible with m_1 . For example, $mode(Withdrawal) \subseteq mode(Close)$. m_1 and m_2 are equivalent iff $m_1 \subseteq m_2$ and $m_2 \subseteq m_1$. Let \cup be a least upper bound (lub) on \subseteq . If T uses the same object o by multiple operations, the lock mode on o has to be converted [12]. For example, suppose that Bank is locked by Withdrawal and then by Close in Example 2.1. Here, the mode on Bank has to be converted from mode(Withdrawal) to mode(Close) when Close is applied. Since T is two-phase locked, the mode cannot be converted to a less exclusive mode. Suppose that o is locked in a mode m_1 by T already, and op_2 in T tries to lock o in a mode m_2 . If $m_1 \subseteq m_2$, the mode is converted to m_2 if m_2 is compatible with every mode of the holders of o. If $m_2 \subseteq m_1$, op_2 uses o without converting the modes. If neither $m_1 \subseteq m_2$ nor $m_2 \subseteq m_1$, the mode is converted to $m_1 \cup m_2$ if $m_1 \cup m_2$ is compatible with every mode of the holders of o.

3. Deadlock

A state s of the system M is represented in a well-known wait-for (WF) graph[10, 11]. We extend the WF graph to include the precedence relation among the operations. First, an operation op_1 depends on op_2 $(op_1 \rightarrow op_2)$ iff (1) op_1 waits on an object held by op_2 in an incompatible mode, (2) op_1 precedes op_2 for some transaction T, or (3) for some op_3 , $op_1 \rightarrow op_3 \rightarrow op_2$. An extended wait-for (EWF) graph G is a directed graph whose nodes are operations, and whose edges denote the dependency relation \rightarrow . An operation op is deadlocked iff it is included in a directed cycle of G, i.e. $op \rightarrow op$.

Let Current(T) denote the current operation being executed in T. Let FirstD(T) be a directly deadlocked operation in T such that there is no directly deadlocked operation which precedes it. In Fig.2, Current(V) is [w(y)], and FirstD(V) is [w(x)].

[Example 3.1] In Fig.1, when $[w_V(y)]$ requires y, y is already obtained by $[w_U(y)]$. Thus, $[w_V(y)]$ waits for $[w_U(y)]$. Also, $[C_U(x)]$ waits on x obtained by $[W_V(x)]$ because C and W on the same object are incompatible. The EWF is represented in Fig.2. Here, $[w_V(y)] \to [w_U(y)] \to [C_U(x)] \to [W_V(x)] \to [w_V(y)]$. Thus, V and U are deadlocked. \square

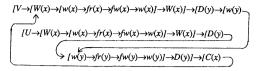


Fig.2 EWF Graph and Deadlock

4. Compensation

4.1 Stack Based (STB) Compensation

A compensate op of op is an operation such that for every system state s, $op^{\sim}(op(s)) = s$. The meaning and properties of the compensate operations are discussed in [13]. It is noted that compensate operations are also transactions, i.e. they require locks on objects. In this paper, we assume that for every op, at least one compensate operation op^{\sim} is defined based on the application semantics. $op_1, ..., op_m > 1$ is $op_m > 1$. For example, Withdrawal is Deposit, and Deposit is Withdrawal in Example 2.1.

Another point to be considered in the compensation is that each operation op in T has a local state. Suppose that op calls $op_1, ..., op_m$. Each time when op_i is called, the state is changed from $\langle S_{j-1}, L_{j-1} \rangle$ to $\langle S_j, L_j \rangle$ where S_i is a system state and L_i is a local state of op (j = 1, ..., m). Then, when opm commits, op commits and the local state is released from ST_T . Finally, op changes the system state from S_0 to S_m . Here, suppose that some failure occurs just after on: commits, i.e. the state is $\langle S_i, L_i \rangle$ and op_i has to be aborted. S_{i-1} is restored by op_i^{\sim} . Problem is whether op_i can be restarted after op_j is compensated by op_j^{\sim} . If op_j is executed on $\langle S_{j-1}, L_j \rangle$, the different result might be obtained from the first execution of op, However, if op is restarted after all op1, ..., op, called by op are aborted and the local state of op is released from ST_T , the problem mentioned here does not occur since the local state of op is newly created when op is called again.

[Example 4.1] Let us consider Move which transfers all the money in an account x to y and closes x which is shown as follows. Here, suppose that the operations from (2) to (5) have to be aborted after (1) to (5) complete. By the compensate operations of (5) and (2), the update effect on x and y are removed and (2) is restarted. Although the states of x and y are restored by the compensate operations. the local state of t is not restored, i.e. still one obtained by (4). If (2) is restarted, t's value obtained at (4) is used to withdrawal money from x by (2). Here, (2) fails because xis over- withdrawn. Therefore, in order to restart the operation aborted, the local state of Transfer is also restored. After compensating (5) and (2), and releasing the area for the local state from the stack ST_{Move} , if Transfer is called again, (2) and (5) can be restarted because the local states of t and u are recreated in ST_{Move} . \square

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Move(x, y) account x, y;

{ int t, u; (1) t = Read(x); (2) Withdrawal(x, t);

(3) u = Read(y); (4) t = t + u; (5) Deposit(y, t);

(6) Close(x);}
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In order to restart the operations, both the old system and local states must be restored as explained in Example 4.1. Suppose that op_1 is Current(T) and op_2 is FirstD(T). If operations from op_1 to op_2 in T are aborted, the deadlock can be resolved. Also, we assume that the local state of each op is created in ST_T when op is called. Let op_0 be $lca(op_1, op_2)$. Let op_{00} be an operation which calls op_0 . The local state of op_{00} is stored in ST_T . Therefore, if all the

operations in op_0 are aborted by the compensate operations, op_0 can be restarted from ST_T .

[Example 4.2] In Example 3.1, the operations from [W(x)] to [r(y)] are deadlocked [Fig.3]. Since lca(W(x), r(y)) is the root V, V has to be aborted. One method is to abort all the operations from [V] to [r(y)] by $<([r(y))^-, [D(y)^-, (W(x)])^-, (W(x)])^-, [W(x)]^-, [W(x$

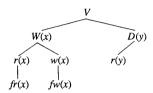


Fig.3 Transaction Tree

In Example 4.2, <[V, W(x), [D(y), [r(y)> is called a greatest committed sequence (GCS) of V from <math>[V] to the current [r(y)], where it does not include operations called by operations committed. A GCS of T from op_0 to op_1 is defined to be an operation sequence obtained by the following GCS procedure. Here, for a sequence $L = <a_1, ..., a_m>$, let L_i denote the ith element a_i . For a sequence $I = <i_1, ..., i_k>$, <L, I> denotes $<a_1, ..., a_m, i_1, ..., i_k>$.

[GCS Procedure $GCS(T, op_0, op_1)$] (1) Let L be a subsequence of T from op_0 to op_1 . Let M be ϕ . Let m be the number of the elements in L.

(2) For i = m, m-1, ..., 1,

if $L_i = opj$, then $\{ j = i; \text{ do } j = j \text{ -1 while } L_j \text{ is not } fop \text{ and } j > 0; \}$

if j > 0 /* [op is found */, then M = <<op>, M>; i = j;} else /* not found */ M = <<L>, M>;

else $M = \langle L_i, M \rangle$; (3) M is the greatest committed sequence. \square

The GCS includes only begin/commit operations and committed operations. Let GCS(T) denote GCS(T, lca(FirstD(T), Current(T)), Current(T)). On the other hand, a subsequence from lca(FirstD(T), Current(T)) to Current(T) is named a transaction sequence (TRS) of T, TRS(T). For example, <[V, W(x), [D(y), [r(y)> is GCS(V)]] and TRS(V) is <[V, [W(x), [w(x), fr(x), fw(x), w(x)], W(x)], [D(y), [r(y)> in Fig.1].

4.2 Save Point Based (SPB) Compensation

In a save point of T, the local state of T, i.e. ST_T is saved in the transaction $\log L_T$ by an operation Save. [Example 4.3] For V in Example 3.1, suppose that operations from f(x) to f(x) are directly deadlocked, and V takes a save point s after f(y) in f(x) as shown in Fig.4. Unless s is taken in V, the f(x) from f(x) to f(x), i.e. f(x), f(x), f(x) is compensated and then f(x) is restarted. However, since f(x) is taken just before f(x), after compensating the f(x) for f(x), f(x), f(x), f(x), f(x) from f(x) to f(x), the local state of f(x) is restored from f(x) saved by f(x), and the operations are restarted from f(x).

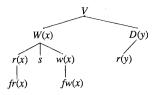


Fig.4 Save Point

Suppose that T is deadlocked, $op_1 = Current(T)$, and $op_2 = FirstD(T)$. Let sp be a save point preceding and nearest to op_2 in T. The procedure to abort and restart T is shown as follows.

[Save Point Based (SPB) Compensation] (1) A GCS G from sp to op_1 is obtained by $GCS(T, sp, op_1)$.

- (2) The compensate of G obtained by (1) is executed.
- (3) The local state is restored from L_T obtained at sp.
- (4) T is restarted from sp. \square

Unless any save point is taken before op_2 , all the operations on T have to be aborted, i.e. totally aborted.

5. Unresolvable Deadlock

5.1 Definition

[Example 5.1] Suppose that $T_1 = \langle T_1, [a, b, [c, d, [e \rangle$ where a deadlock cycle exists from [c to [e, is selected to be aborted. $\langle [c, d, [e \rangle \text{ in } T_1 \text{ is aborted by } \langle ([e)^{\sim}, d^{\sim},$ $(fc)^{\sim}$ where d^{\sim} calls a sequence $< d_1, d_2, d_3, ...>$. $(fe)^{\sim}$ means that T_1 stops requesting the object of e. Then, the system is in a state s, $T_1 = \langle [T_1, [a, [b, ..., b], [c, [d, ..., d],$ $[d^{T}, d_1, d_2, [d_3] > and the GCS < [T_1, [a, b, [c, d, [e, ([e)]], d]])$ $[d^{\tilde{}}, d_1, d_2, [d_3>. Also, <[T_2, [k, l, m, [m^{\tilde{}}, m_1, [m_2> where$ m^{\sim} calls $\langle m_1, m_2, ... \rangle$. Suppose that $[m_2]$ requests a lock on x held by $[a, and [d_3]$ requests a lock on y held by [k]. In order to resolve the deadlock, one operation, say [a, is selected to be aborted. First, <[d $^{-}$, d₁, d₂, [d₃> $^{-}$ is executed. One problem is that another deadlock may occur while it is being aborted. Here, suppose that the abortion is successful. In order to abort d, d^{\sim} has to be executed again. However, $d^{-} = \langle [d^{-}, d_1, d_2, d_3, ... \rangle$ implies the same deadlock as shown in Fig.5. Even if T2 is tried to be partially aborted, the deadlock cannot be resolved in the same way. Such deadlock is unresolvable.

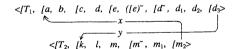


Fig.5 Unresolvable Deadlock

Unresolvable deadlock is deadlock which may not be resolved by the compensate of the GCS. Now, we define formally what is the unresolvable deadlock. The following notations are defined for T. Let I(T) be a compensate operation appeared lastly in T, and L(T) be a set of operations which precede I(T) in T. T is said to unsafely depend on a transaction U iff there is some operation op in L(U) such that Current(T) depends on (\Rightarrow_L) op.

[**Definition**][19] T is said to be *unresolvable deadlocked* in a state *iff* T unsafely depends on T. \square

5.2 Safe System

In Example 4.2, $W(x)^-$ (= D(x)) uses the same Bank in the mode equivalent to W(x), and File is used by Read and

Write called by $W(x)^{\sim}$. Since Bank and File are held by W(x), $W(x)^{\sim}$ can use them without waiting. Like this, even if the compensate is executed, no unresolvable deadlock occurs. For each operation op in T, op^{\sim} is said to be safe if op^{\sim} and every operation called by op^{\sim} can use the objects without waiting on them to abort T.

Based on the conversion concept [12], a modified conversion C_x^y which has the following compatibility relation is introduced.

[Compatibility of C_x^y] (1) z is compatible with C_x^y if z is compatible with x, and y is compatible with z.

- (2) C_x^y is compatible with z if y is compatible with z.
- (3) C_x^y is compatible with C_v^w if x is compatible with v, and y and w are compatible with each other. \square

Here, (2) and (3) are the same as U_x^y [12]. Let op be an operation of T, and x and y be modes of op and op^- , respectively. Suppose that after op in T locks o in C_x^y , another transaction U locks o in z according to (1). When op^- would like to lock o, op^- can use o since y is compatible with both x and z. Here, it is noted that op precedes op^- in T. If every operation op obeys this conversion rule, op^- can use o without causing further deadlock.

[Conversion rule] (1) If $y \subseteq x$, op locks o in x and then op can use o in x.

- If x ⊆ y, op holds o in C_x, and op converts the mode to y.
- (3) If neither x ⊆ y nor y ⊆ x, op holds o in C_x^{x,y} and then op^x converts the mode to x∪y. □

Suppose that op_1 called by op^- tries to hold an object o_1 in a mode m_1 , and o_1 is already held in m_2 in T. If $m_2 \subseteq m_1$, op_1 can use o_1 in m_2 without waiting. For example, suppose that *Read* tries to use *record* locked in a *Write* mode by the same transaction. In this case, *Read* can use *record*. Unless $m_2 \subseteq m_1$, since op_1 has to require more exclusive lock than m_2 , op_1 may wait. This may cause further deadlock.

[Safe condition] For every operation op_1 called by $op \sim$, there exists op_2 called by op such that $mode(op_1) \subseteq mode(op_2)$. \square

If (1) op^{\sim} satisfies the conversion rule and (2) every operation called by op^{\sim} satisfies the safe condition, op^{\sim} is said to be *safe*. A system is *safe* if every compensate operation is safe. In Example 4.2, p^{\sim} and p^{\sim} are safe.

[Theorem 5.1] If the system is safe, no unresolvable deadlock occurs.

[Proof] According to the definition, every operation called by op^{\sim} can always use the object since they are already locked by op. Therefore, no deadlock occurs while the compensate operations are executed.

5.3 Logging

 op^{\sim} is executed to abort op after op commits in T. Hence, when op commits, the operations called by op can be removed from the transaction $\log L_T$. L_T can be realized as a stack. In the STB compensation, each op on o is logged by the following procedure.

[Stack Based (STB) Logging] (1) If op is non-primitive, before op is executed on o, $\langle lop \rangle$, $\{o\}$ is pushed down into L_T .

- (2) If op is primitive, before op is executed, $\langle [op] \rangle$, {}> is pushed down into L_T .
- (3) After op commits, i.e. op] is executed, operations are popped up from L_T until [op. Here, each time when <op', O'> is popped up, O = O ∪ O' where O is initially φ. <op, O> is pushed down into L_T. □

Here, O denotes a set of objects obtained by op. The EWF graph G is constructed from the transaction logs. Suppose that a current operation op_1 of T_1 waits on an object o_1 . If there is op_2 of T_2 such that $\langle op_2, O_2 \rangle$ is in the stack and o_1 is in O_2 , $op_1 \rightarrow op_2$ in G. Suppose that T is aborted from op_2 to the current op_1 . The abortion is done as follows.

[Stack Based (STB) Compensation] (1) $\langle op, O \rangle$ is popped up from L_T .

- (2) op is executed. The objects in O are released. Furthermore, all the objects obtained by op are released when op commits. The local state is popped up from STr.
- (3) If op is op₂, T is restarted from op₂, else go to (1). □ Next, let us consider save points. Each operation op is logged and then T is partially aborted from op₂ to the current op₁ by the following methods.

[Save Point Based (SPB) Logging] (1) and (2) are the same as the stack based logging method.

- (3) When Save is executed, the local state of T is pushed into L_T.
- (4) After op commits, the operations are searched from the top of L_T. If Save is found before [op is found, op] is pushed down into L_T. If [op is found, the operations are popped up from L_T until [op. <op, O> is pushed down into L_T where O is a set of objects held in op, which can be obtained by the same way as the STB logging. □

[Save Point Based (SPB) Compensation] (1), (2), (3) are the same as the stack based one.

(4) When Save is popped up before op₂, it is ignored. If Save is popped up after op₂, the local state of T is replaced by one saved in L_T. Then, T is restarted from the operation immediately preceded by the Save. □

6. Unsafe System

In an unsafe system, the compensate operations of T may require new locks which have not been obtained yet in T. The compensate of the TRS requires no other locks than ones obtained already since the TRS includes only primitive operations and no locks obtained in T are released. This is a point to resolve the unresolvable deadlock.

After deadlock is detected, one directly deadlocked transaction T is selected. Then, it is checked whether the deadlock is unresolvable or not. If not, T is aborted by the compensate of the GCS. If the deadlock is unresolvable, T is aborted by the compensate of the TRS. Here, every operation is saved in L_T . First, $op_0 = lca(FirstD(T), Curren(T))$ for the STB system or $op_0 =$ save point nearest to FirstD(T) for the SPB system is found in L_T . The following is executed for unresolvable deadlock.

[Unresolvable Deadlock Compensation (URC)] For each op in L_T (in the backward direction), if $op \neq op_0$, then execute op^{\sim} and remove op from L_T , otherwise terminate. \square

By the URC, all the operations called by op_0 are aborted and the local state of op_0 is released in the STB system. On the other hand, the local state of T is restored from L_T for the SPB system. Then, T is restarted from op_0 .

[Example 6.1] Let us consider an *EWF* graph of an *STB* system as shown in Fig.6. T_1 and T_2 are unresolvably deadlocked since [f called by a^{\sim} waits for s and [x called by v^{\sim} waits for b. Suppose that the unresolvable deadlock is detected and T_1 is selected to be aborted. By using the

URC, since lca(b, f) is k, T_1 is aborted from [k] to [f] by executing the compensate of $TRS(T_1)$, i.e. <[k], [a, [b, c, b], a], $[a^*$, $[d, e, [f^*]^*$. Since no lock operations are executed in the sequence, no further deadlock occurs. \square

$$[T_1 \rightarrow [i \rightarrow j \rightarrow i] \rightarrow [k \rightarrow (a \rightarrow [b \rightarrow c \rightarrow b] \rightarrow a] \rightarrow [a^{-} \rightarrow [d \rightarrow e \rightarrow f])$$

$$[T_2 \rightarrow [s \rightarrow t \rightarrow s] \rightarrow [u \rightarrow [v \rightarrow w \rightarrow v] \rightarrow [v^{-} \rightarrow [x \rightarrow b] \rightarrow a]$$

Fig.6 Unresolvable Deadlock

7. Concluding Remarks

In this paper, we have discussed how to resolve deadlock in the interleaved execution of nested transactions. In our method, a transaction is partially aborted, although whole transaction is aborted in the conventional database system. The compensate operations are used to abort the operations. The log size can be reduced since the state like page image is not stored in the log. Since each operation can be considered to be a transaction, the execution of the compensate operations requires the locks on the objects. This means that another deadlock may occur when the compensate operations are executed. We have proved that no unresolvable deadlock occurs in safe systems. We have shown methods based on the stack and the save point to resolve deadlock by executing the compensate operations.

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