# General Consensus Protocols

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#### Abstract

Distributed applications are realized by cooperation of multiple processes interconnected by communication networks. In the distributed applications, a group of processes have to make consensus. In this paper, we discuss a general model of consensus protocol which is composed of four steps, i.e. pre-voting, voting, global decision, and final local decision. We describe various consensus protocols like two-phase commitment one in terms of the model. In the general consensus protocol, the processes can change the mind after notifying other processes of the opinion, various kinds of global decision logics can be adopted, and the coordination among the processes is controlled in centralized and distributed schemes.

#### 1 Introduction

Distributed systems are composed of multiple processors interconnected by communication networks. Distributed applications are realized by the cooperation of multiple processes, each of which is computed in one processor. The distributed applications like a groupware are realized by a group of multiple processes which are cooperated by communicating with one another. The processes in the group have to make some consensus in order to do the cooperation among them. There are kinds of consensus protocols required by various distributed applications and distributed database systems [9]. For example, the two-phase commitment (2PC) [6] and three-phase commitment (3PC) [10] protocols are used to realize the atomic commitment [2] among multiple database systems, that is, all database systems either commit or abort the transaction. In the commitment protocols, each process cannot change the mind after notifying other processes of the vote, i.e. Yes(commit) or No(abort). After sending the vote to the coordinator process, the process is in an uncertain state [10], where all the processes can do is wait for the decision from the coordinator because every process cannot change the vote. However, in the human society, individuals often change the minds even after notifying others of the votes. For example, individuals often change the schedules if they have to do higher-priority jobs than the jobs in the schedules decided. In other applications, if some processes make an agreement even if the others disagree with them, the processes may make

consensus. For example, in a meeting of multiple individuals, something may be decided if a majority of the participants agree on it. In addition to the atomic commitment, various kinds of decision logics have to be considered. When considering the cooperation of multiple processes, we have to think about what process coordinates the cooperation among the processes. In the 2PC protocol, the coordinator process plays a role of the centralized controller. In some meeting, there is no chair, i.e. every participant makes decision by itself. In addition to the centralized control, we have to consider the distributed control where there is no centralized controller.

In this paper, we assume that the communication network is reliable, i.e. each process can deliver messages to any processes with no message loss in the sending order. In addition, we assume that the network is not partitioned. We would like to discuss a general framework of consensus protocols in the presence of process fault, i.e. stop-by-failure. The following points have to be taken into account when thinking about the general consensus model:

- 1 each process can change the opinion even after notifying other processes of the opinion,
- 2 each process can express the opinion No-idea and Anyone-OK in addition to Yes and No.
- 3 various kinds of decision logics like allor-nothing and majority-consensus can be adopted,
- 4 each process may be autonomous for the group i.e. it may not obey the global decision, and
- 5 how to control the coordination among the processes, i.e. centralized and distributed controls.

In this paper, we discuss a general consensus protocol which is composed of four steps, pre-voting, voting, global decision, and final local decision.

In section 2, we present a general model of consensus protocol. In section 3, we would like to discuss various consensus protocols based on the general model.

## 2 General Consensus Model

## 2.1 Examples

A distributed system is composed of multiple processors interconnected by communication networks. A distributed application is realized by the cooperation of n > 0 processes  $p_1, \ldots, p_n$ , each of which is computed in one processor. In the distributed applications,  $p_1, \ldots, p_n$  have to make

some consensus among themselves.

[Example 1] The distributed database system [9] includes multiple database systems as the processes. In order to commit a transaction manipulating multiple database systems, it has to be guaranteed that the transaction either updates all the database systems or more of them. It is an atomic commitment [6, 10]. There is one coordinator process  $p_0$  in the two-phase commitment (2PC) protocol [2, 6]. If a transaction would terminate,  $p_0$  sends Vote Req message to all the processes  $p_1, \ldots, p_n$ . Each  $p_i$  sends Yes message to  $p_0$  if  $p_i$  could commit the transaction. If not,  $p_i$  sends No to  $p_0$  and then aborts the transaction. If  $p_1$  receives Yes message from every process,  $p_0$  sends Commit to  $p_1, \ldots, p_n$ . If  $p_0$  receives No,  $p_0$  sends Abort to all the processes voting Yes. On receipt of Commit,  $p_i$  commits the transaction. Figure 1 and Figure 2 shows the 2PC protocol in a case that the transaction commits, and aborts, respectively.

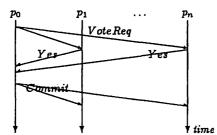
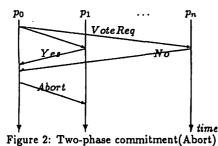


Figure 1: Two-phase commitment(Commit)



rigare 2. 1 wo-phase confinement(Abort)

The commitment protocols like 2PC and 3PC protocols assume the following points:

- 1 no process can change the opinion after voting it,
- 2 the decision logic is based on the atomic commitment, i.e. all-or-nothing principle,
- 3 there is one centralized controller, i.e. the coordinator which coordinates the cooperation of the participate processes p<sub>1</sub>,..., p<sub>n</sub>.
- 4 process is not autonomous, i.e. it obeys the decision of the coordinator, and

5 No dominates Yes, i.e. processes voting No abort unilaterally without waiting for the decision from the coordinator, and processes voting Yes may abort if the decision of the coordinator is Abort.

Next, we would like to consider a more general example in the human society.

[Example 2] Let us consider an example that a group of individuals would like to go eating lunch together. First, the individuals in the group exchange the tentative opinions on going out. Here, one individual may say "I would like to go eating lunch together". Someone may say "No, I would not like to go eating lunch together". One may say "I have no idea". After listening to them, each individual expresses the opinion, i.e. Yes, No, No-idea, or Anyone-OK. Someone may expressed first. This means that he may change his mind here.

Now, the group obtains the opinions from all the individuals. The group has some logic to decide whether to go lunch. For example, only if all the individuals in the group agree on going eating lunch, they may go eating. They may go eating lunch if a majority of the group agree on it. Here, suppose that the group obtains a global decision, say "go eating".

Next point is whether each individual obeys the global decision or not. One individual p may obey the global decision even if the global decision is different from the opinion of p. If p is autonomous for the group, p may not obey the global decision if p would not like to obey it. For example, some individual may not go eating lunch together with the group even if it is globally decided to go eating.

When considering the applications like the groupware as presented in the example, the assumptions on the commitment protocols have to be relaxed. Following the examples, the general consensus protocol has to take into account the following points:

- 1 each process can change the opinion even after notifying other processes of the opinion,
- 2 each process can express the opinion No-idea in addition to Yes and No;
- 3 various kinds of decision logics like allor-nothing and majority-consensus can be adopted.
- 4 each process may be autonomous, i.e. it may not obey the global decision, and
- 5 There are kinds of coordination among the processes, i.e. how to control the coordination among the processes, i.e. centralized and distributed controls.

# 2.2 General consensus protocols

A consensus protocol coordinates the cooperation among processes  $p_1, \ldots, p_n$  in order to reach some decision. The general consensus protocol is composed of the following four steps.

[General consensus protocol]

1 First, each process p, is required to express the opinion. p, notifies all the processes of its

opinion  $pv_i$  which is named a pre-vote of  $p_i$ . This step is referred to as pre-voting.

- 2  $p_i$  receives all the pre-votes  $pv_1, \ldots, pv_n$  from  $p_1, \ldots, p_n$ .  $p_i$  makes a local decision on the basis of  $pv_1, \ldots, pv_n$ . Here,  $p_i$  can change the tentative opinion again.  $p_i$  expresses the opinion  $pv_i$  obtained by the final local decision. Formally,  $p_i$  obtains the vote  $v_i = V_i(pv_1, \ldots, pv_n)$ . Here,  $V_i$  is a function which gives some value for a tuple of values  $pv_1, \ldots, pv_n$ .  $p_i$  sends  $v_i$  to all the processes. This step is referred to as voting.
- 3 For the votes  $v_1, \ldots, v_n$  obtained from  $p_1, \ldots, p_n$ , a global decision  $v = GD(v_1, \ldots, v_n)$  is obtained. GD is a function which gives v for a tuple of the votes  $v_1, \ldots, v_n$ . All the processes are informed of v. This step is referred to as global decision.
- 4  $p_i$  obtains the global decision v. Based on v and the votes  $v_1, \dots, v_{n_1}$   $p_i$  makes the final decision and obtains  $d_i = LD_i(v_1, \dots, v_n, v)$ .  $LD_i$  is a function which gives the final local decision  $d_i$  from the votes  $v_1, \dots, v_n$  and v. This step is referred to as final local decision.

The consensus problem is defined as follows. Let D be a set  $\{d_1,\cdots,d_m,\bot,\top\}$  of values. Here,  $\bot$  means that it is not decided which one from  $d_1,\cdots,d_m$  is taken, e.g. process  $p_i$  has no idea on the decision.  $\top$  means that any of  $d_1,\cdots,d_m$  is allowed, e.g.  $p_i$  can vote anyone of  $d_i,\cdots,d_n$ . Initially,  $p_i$  has one value  $pv_i$  in D as the pre-vote.  $V_i$  is a function from  $D^n$  into D, i.e. for every  $pv_j \in D$  ( $j=1,\ldots,n$ ),  $V_i(pv_1,\ldots,pv_n)=v_i \in D$ . For example, if  $p_i$  has no idea,  $p_i$  notifies all the processes of  $\bot$ .  $p_i$  receives the pre-votes  $pv_1,\ldots,pv_n$  from all the processes. Based on the pre-votes obtained,  $p_i$  makes the final local decision by  $V_i$ . For example, if  $p_i$  obeys  $p_j$ 's opinion,  $v_i = V_i(pv_1,\ldots,pv_n) = pv_j$ . Here, it is noted that  $v_i$  may be different from  $pv_i$ . While listening to other opinions, i.e. pre-votes,  $p_i$  can change the opinion.  $p_i$  notifies all the processes of the vote  $v_i$  obtained by  $V_i$ .

Here, all the votes  $v_1, \ldots, v_n$  are collected by one process or every process. The global decision  $v = GD(v_1, \ldots, v_n)$  is obtained. GD is a function from  $D^n$  into D. As an example, let us consider the atomic commitment where  $D = \{1, 0, \bot, \top\}$ . Each process means a database server. Each process  $p_i$  votes  $v_i \in \{1, 0\}$ . If all the processes vote 1, they commit. If at least one process votes 0, all the processes abort. Hence,  $GD(v_1, \ldots, v_n) = 1$  if  $v_j = 1$  for  $j = 1, \ldots, n$ .  $GD(v_1, \ldots, v_n) = 0$  if some  $v_j = 0$ . If the global decision is a value voted by a majority of the processes,  $GD(v_1, \ldots, v_n) = v$  if  $|\{v_i|v_i = v\}| > \frac{n}{2}$ .

Each process  $p_i$  receives the global decision v. Problem is how  $p_i$  behaves on obtaining v, i.e.  $p_i$  obeys v or not.  $p_i$  has to obey v if  $p_i$  is not autonomous. If  $p_i$  is autonomous,  $p_i$  may not obey v even if v is decided globally as presented in Example 2.  $p_i$  makes a final local decision by  $LD_i(v_1, \ldots, v_n, v)$ .  $LD_i$  is a function from  $D^{n+1}$  to D. For example, if  $p_i$  makes the decision of  $v_i$  inde-

pendently of v,  $LD_i(v_1, \ldots, v_n, v) = v_i$ . If  $p_i$  agrees on v,  $LD_i(v_1, \ldots, v_n, v) = v$ . If  $p_i$  depends on another  $p_j$ ,  $LD_i(v_1, \cdots, v_n, v) = v_j$ .

#### 2.3 Process states

A local state of each process  $p_i$  is given as a tuple  $\langle pv_i, v_i, d_i \rangle$  where  $pv_i$  is the pre-vote,  $v_i$  is the vote, and  $d_i$  is the value finally decided by  $p_i$ .  $p_i$  changes the local state on receipt of messages. Here, let D be  $\{1,0,\perp,\top\}$  for simplicity. First, let us consider an initial state of  $p_i$ . Table 1 shows the possible initial states of  $p_i$ . Type 1, i.e.  $\langle 1,1,1 \rangle$  means that  $p_i$  initially decides the decision of 1 and notifies all the processes of it.  $p_i$  never changes the mind.  $p_i$  makes the decision of 1 whatever the global decision is. Type 2,  $\langle 1,1,\perp \rangle$  means that  $p_i$  makes the final local decision based on the global decision while voting 1. Type 3,  $\langle 1,\perp,\perp \rangle$  means that  $p_i$  has only the tentative opinion.  $p_i$  expresses some vote based on pre-votes of other processes. Type 4,  $\langle \perp, \perp, \perp \rangle$  means that  $p_i$  has no opinion. Type 5, 6, and 7 are dual of 3, 2, and 1, respectively.  $\langle \top, \top, \top \rangle$  of Type 8 means that  $p_i$  can vote anyone of 1 and 0. For every state  $\langle a,b,c \rangle$ , b=c=1 if a=1

For every state (a, b, c),  $b = c = \bot$  if  $a = \bot$  and  $c = \bot$  if  $b = \bot$ . A state (a, b, c) is referred

Table 1: Initial states

Туре	$pv_i$	$v_i$	di
1	1	1	1
2	1	1	Н
3	1	$\Box$	
4	1.		
5	0	I	1
6	0	0	
7	0	0	0
8	-	Н	T

to as transitable if  $b=\bot$  or  $c=\bot$ . For example,  $(1,\bot,\bot)$  can be changed to  $(1,0,\bot)$  while (1,1,1) can not be changed. (a,b,c) is referred as mind-changeable if  $b=\bot$ . For example, after expressing  $(1,\bot,\bot)$  as the pre-votes 1,  $p_i$  can have  $(1,0,\bot)$  as the vote 0 different from the pre-vote.

For a, b, and  $c \in D$ , if  $(a, b, \bot)$  is changed to (a, b, c), c is referred to as dominate b if  $b \neq c$  (written as  $c \succ b$ ). For example, in the commitment protocol,  $0 \succ 1$  because the process voting 0 only aborts, never commits as shown Figure 2. Figure 3 shows the state transition of the two-phase commitment (2PC) protocol. (0, 0, 0) means that a process voting 0 aborts.  $(1, 1, \bot)$  means that the process votes 1. Up to the global decision,  $(1, 1, \bot)$  is transited to (1, 1, 1) if the process commits, (1, 1, 0) if the process aborts.

D is a partially ordered set on  $\prec$ . Since  $\top$  can be changed to any value in D,  $\top$  can be considered to be a bottom of D, i.e. for every d in D,  $\top \prec d$ . A value  $d_k$  in D is referred to as minimal in D iff there is no value  $d_k$  in D such that  $d_k \prec d_h$ . For example, in the two-phase commitment (2PC) protocol,  $D = \{1, 0, \bot, \top\}$ , 0 is minimal in D. If D has only one minimal value d named minimum, i.e. for every  $d_h$  in D,  $d \prec d_h$ , each process p; can vote the minimum d instead of voting  $\top$ . For

example, in the 2PC protocol,  $p_i$  can vote 1 if  $p_i$  can commit and abort. A value  $d_k$  in D is referred to as maximal in D iff there is no value  $d_k$  in D such that  $d_h \prec d_k$ . If there is only one maximal value d in D, i.e. for every  $d_h$  in D,  $d_h \prec d$ , d is the top of D. If  $p_i$  votes d,  $p_i$  never changes the mind.

For every pair of  $d_k$  and  $d_h$  in D, the upper bound of  $d_k$  and  $d_h$  is a set  $\{d|d \in D, d_k \prec d, \text{ and } d_h \prec d\}$ .  $d_k \cup d_h$  denotes the least upper bound (lub) of  $d_k$  and  $d_h$  if the upper bound of  $d_h$  and  $d_k$  exists. If not exists,  $d_k \cup d_h = \bot$ 

Let (a,b,c) be a state. If b is maximal in D, c has to be b because process voting b cannot change the vote. Hence, if b is maximal, c=b, i.e. (a,b,b). For example, if b=0, i.e. process  $p_i$  votes No, c=0, i.e.  $p_i$  aborts, i.e. (0,0,0). Thus, if b is maximal, (a,b,c) cannot be transited into another state. The state (a,b,c) where b is maximal is referred to as maximal. Here, let us consider a state transition from a state  $(a,b_1,c_1)$  into  $(a,b_2,c_2)$  where  $b_1$  is not maximal. If  $b_1 \prec b_2$ , or  $b_1=b_2$  and  $c_1 \prec c_2$ ,  $(a,b_1,c_1)$  can be transited into  $(a,b_2,c_2)$ . For example,  $1 \prec 0$  in the 2PC protocol. (1,1,1,1) can be transited into (1,1,0) and (1,1,1) while (0,0,0) cannot be transited. Processes which are in a transitable state after voting have to wait for the global decision. On the other hand, processes which are in a maximal state can terminate, because they made their decisions already.

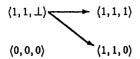


Figure 3: State transition of two phase commitment

#### 2.4 Global decision

After obtaining the votes  $v_1, \ldots, v_n$  from all the processes  $p_1, \ldots, p_n$ , the global value v is globally decided by using the function  $GD: D^n \to D$ . For every tuple  $\langle v_1, \cdots, v_n \rangle \in D^n$ ,  $GD(v_1, \cdots, v_n)$  gives some value v in D. If  $v_1 \cup \cdots \cup v_n \preceq v$ , every process  $p_i$  can change the vote  $v_i$  to v. Unless  $v_i \prec v$  for some  $i, p_i$  cannot change the vote to v. For example, suppose that there are three database systems A, B and C, which votes 0, i.e. abort, votes 1, i.e. commit, and 1, respectively, in the 2PC protocol. If GD(0, 1, 1) = 0, B and C can change the vote, i.e. can abort. On the other hand, suppose that GD(0, 1, 1) = 1, A cannot commit because B aborts already although B and C can commit. Here, GD is referred to as regular if for every  $\langle v_1, \cdots, v_n \rangle \in D^n$ ,  $v_1 \cup \cdots \cup v_n \preceq GD(v_1, \cdots, v_n)$ . If GD is regular, every process can change the vote into the global decision. If not, some process  $p_i$  may not obey the global decision unless  $v_i \preceq v$ .

There are the following kinds of global decisions:

1 Commitment decision:  $GD(v_1, ..., v_n) = 1$ if every  $v_i = 1$ ,  $GD(v_1, ..., v_n) = 0$  if some  $v_i = 0$  where  $D = \{1, 0, \bot, \top\}$ . 2 Majority-consensus decision on

2 Majority-consensus decision on  $v: GD(v_1, \ldots, v_n) = v$  if  $|\{v_i|v_i = v\}| > \frac{n}{2}$ , otherwise  $GD(v_1, \ldots, v_n) = v_1 \cup \cdots \cup v_n$ .

3 ( ) -decision on v:  $GD(v_1, \ldots, v_n) = v$ every  $v_i = v$ , otherwise  $GD(v_1, \ldots, v_n) = v_1 \cup \cdots \cup v_n$ .

4 (;) -decision on v:  $GD(v_1, \ldots, v_n) = v$  if  $|\{v_i|v_i = v\}| \geq r$ , otherwise  $GD(v_1, \ldots, v_n) = v_1 \cup \cdots \cup v_n$ .

5 Minimal-decision:  $GD(v_1, \dots, v_n) = v_1 \cup \dots \cup v_n$ .

In the commitment decision, only if all the votes are 1, 1 is globally decided. If some process votes 0, 0 is decided. It is used by the 2PC protocol. The commitment decision on  $\{0,1,\bot,\top\}$  named a binary commitment can be extended to  $D = \{d_1,\cdots,d_m,\bot,\top\}$ .  $GD(v_1,\cdots,v_n) = v$  if every  $v_i = v$ . If some  $v_i$  is not  $v,GD(v_1,\cdots,v_n) = v_1\cup\cdots\cup v_n$   $v_1\cup\cdots\cup v_n$  means a value to which every  $v_i$  can be changed. If such a value does not exist, i.e.  $v_1\cup\cdots\cup v_n = \bot$ , nothing is decided. In the 2PC protocol,  $1 \prec 0$ . Hence, if some  $v_j = 0$ ,  $v_1\cup\cdots\cup v_n = 0$ .

In the majority decision on v, if a majority votes some v, v is globally decided. Otherwise, nothing is decided if  $v_1 \cup \cdots \cup v_n = \bot$ .

In the  $\binom{n}{n}$ -decision on v, if all the processes vote some v, v is globally decided. Otherwise, nothing is decided if  $v_1 \cup \cdots \cup v_n = \bot$ .

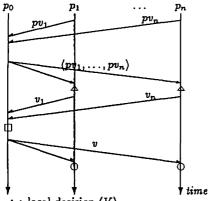
In the  $\binom{r}{r}$  -decision on  $v_1$  if  $r \leq n$  processes vote some  $v_1$   $v_2$  is globally decided. If  $r > \frac{n}{2}$ , the  $\binom{r}{r}$  -decision is the majority one on  $v_2$ . In the minimal decision, every process  $p_1$  agrees on the value  $v_1 = v_1 \cup \cdots \cup v_n$  where  $v_2$  is minimal in values which every  $v_1$  can be changed to. If  $v_1 \cup \cdots \cup v_n = 1$ , nothing is decided. The binary commitment decision is a kind of the minimal decision.

In addition, GD can be defined based on the application semantics. For example, if every process obeys  $p_i$ 's opinion,  $GD(v_1, \ldots, v_n) = v_i$ .

## 2.5 Control schemes

Another point is concerned with which process coordinates the cooperation among the processes  $p_1, \dots, p_n$ . If one process  $p_0$  named a coordinator coordinates the cooperation of the processes, it is referred to as centralized control. The 2PC [6] and 3PC [10] protocols are the examples of the centralized control. In the centralized control [Figure 4], every  $p_i$  first sends the pre-votes  $pv_i$  to  $p_0$ .  $p_0$  collects  $pv_1, \dots, pv_n$ , and sends  $\langle pv_1, \dots, pv_n \rangle$  to  $p_1, \dots, p_n$ . On receipt of  $\langle pv_1, \dots, pv_n \rangle$ ,  $p_i$  decides the vote  $v_i = V_i(pv_1, \dots, pv_n)$ .  $p_i$  sends  $v_i$  to  $p_0$ . On receipt of all the votes  $v_1, \dots, v_n, v_0$  makes the global decision of  $v = GD(v_1, \dots, v_n)$ , and then sends v to  $p_1, \dots, p_n$ . On receipt of v,  $p_i$  makes the final local decision of  $d_i = LD_i(v_1, \dots, v_n, v)$ .

If there is no centralized controller, it is referred to as distributed control. In the distributed control [Figure 5], each process  $p_i$  sends the pre-vote  $pv_i$  to  $p_1, \ldots, p_n$ . On receipt of  $pv_1, \ldots, pv_n$ ,  $p_i$  makes the local decision of  $v_i = V_i(pv_1, \ldots, pv_n)$ 



 $\triangle$ : local decision (V)  $\square$ : global decision (GD)

O: final local decision (LD)

Figure 4: Centralized control

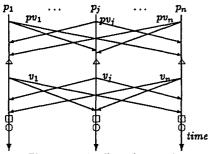


Figure 5: Distributed control

by itself.  $p_i$  sends the vote  $v_i$  to  $p_1, \ldots, p_n$ . On receipt of  $v_1, \ldots, v_n$ , every  $p_i$  makes the same global decision of  $v = GD(v_1, \ldots, v_n)$ . Then,  $p_i$  makes the final local decision of  $d_i = LD_i(v_i, \ldots, v_n, v)$ . Each  $p_i$  has the same GD and makes the decision by itself on the basis of GD.  $p_i$  can make the decision without waiting for the decision from the coordinator. In the distributed control, every process  $p_i$  has to send message m to all the other processes. If the broadcast network is used,  $p_i$  can send m to all the processes by issuing one data transmission request of m to the network. If not,  $p_i$  has to issue n requests.

## 3 Consensus Protocols

We would like to describe various consensus protocols in terms of the general model.

#### 3.1 Atomic commitment

First, we would like to present the atomic commitment protocol [6, 10] as shown in Figure 1 and Figure 2. In the commitment protocol, suppose that 1 means commit and 0 means abort.

Since each process cannot change the mind, the pre-vote is the same as vote. All the processes voting 0 abort unilaterally, i.e. without waiting for the global decision. The initial state of each process  $p_i$  is either  $\{1,1,\bot\}$  or  $\{0,0,0\}$ .  $\{0,0,0\}$  is a maximal state since 0 is maximal. On the other hand, processes voting 1 can not only commit but also abort up to the global decision. Hence, 0 dominates 1, i.e. 0 > 1.

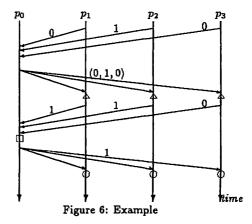
Only if all the processes vote 1, they commit. If some process votes 0, all the processes abort. The global decision GD is the commitment decision,  $GD(1, \ldots, 1) = 1$  and  $GD(\ldots, 0, \ldots) = 0$ . GD is regular.

The final local decision is  $LD_i(v_1, \ldots, v_n, v) = v$  because  $p_i$  voting 1 obeys the global decision. That is the processes voting 1 are not autonomous.

# 3.2 (; )-decision

Here, the (  $\stackrel{\cdot}{r}$  )-decision means that the global decision on d is d if at least r processes vote d, otherwise  $\bot$ , where  $r \leq n$ . Here, let D be  $\{1,0,\top\}$  and let us consider the ( $\stackrel{\cdot}{r}$ )-global decision on 1.

Figure 6 shows an example of  $\binom{2}{2}$ -consensus protocol among three processes  $p_1, p_2$ , and  $p_3$  in the centralized control where  $p_0$  is a coordinator. First,  $p_1, p_2$ , and  $p_3$  send the pre-votes 0, 1, and



0 to  $p_0$ , respectively.  $p_0$  collects the pre-votes as (0,1,0) and sends it to  $p_1,p_2$ , and  $p_3$ . Based on the pre-votes (0,1,0) received from  $p_0$ ,  $p_2$  votes 1, and  $p_3$  votes 0 by using their local decision functions  $V_1$ ,  $V_2$ , and  $V_3$ , respectively. Here,  $p_1$  changes the mind from 0 to 1 and then votes 1. On receipt of votes from  $p_1,p_2$  and  $p_3$ ,  $p_0$  makes the global decision of 1 by the  $\binom{3}{2}$ -decision logic on 1 because two  $p_1$  and  $p_2$  of three processes vote 1.  $p_0$  sends 1 to  $p_1$ ,  $p_2$ , and  $p_3$ .  $p_1$ ,  $p_2$ , and  $p_3$  obeys 1. Here, neither  $0 \succ 1$  nor  $1 \succ 0$ . There is no top value. The states  $(*, 1, \bot)$  and  $(*, 0, \bot)$  can be transited which \* is some value in D. That is, after voting, every process  $p_i$  has to wait for the global decision from  $p_0$ .

#### 3.3 Extended commitment protocol

As presented before, each process can vote either 1(Yes) or 0(No) in the conventional commitment protocols. We would like to extend the commitment protocol so that each process can vote  $\bot$  (no idea) and  $\top$  (Anyone-OK). In the commitment protocol, each process  $p_i$  may not be able to vote even if  $p_i$  receives VoteReq from the coordinator  $p_0$ , e.g.  $p_i$  is too heavy-loaded to vote. In such a case,  $p_i$  can vote  $\bot$  instead of voting Yes or  $No_i$  or  $p_i$  can be considered to vote  $\bot$  if no reply of VoteReq is received in some time units. Processes voting  $\bot$  or  $\top$  are referred to as undecided. Processes voting 0 or 1 are referred to as decided. First, we would like to present the basic protocol. [Basic protocol]

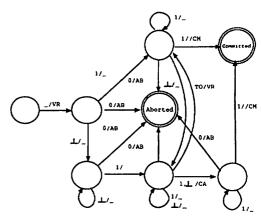
- 1 First, the coordinator  $p_0$  sends VoteReq to all the processes  $p_1, \ldots, p_n$ , e.g. if a transaction T finishes all the operations.
- 2 On receipt of VoteReq from  $p_0$ , each  $p_i$  sends 1 or 0 to  $p_0$  as presented in the commitment protocol. In addition,  $p_i$  may send  $\bot$  to  $p_0$  if  $p_i$  could not decide 1 or 0.  $p_i$  may send  $\top$  to  $p_0$  if  $p_i$  could commit or abort the transaction.
- 3 If p<sub>0</sub> receives 1 from all the processes and p<sub>0</sub> would like to commit, p<sub>0</sub> sends Commit to p<sub>1</sub>,..., p<sub>n</sub>. If p<sub>0</sub> receives 0 from at least one process and p<sub>0</sub> would not like to commit, p<sub>0</sub> sends Abort to all the processes voting 1, \(\perp\), or \(\pi\).
- 4 Here, some process p<sub>i</sub> votes ⊥. If all the decided processes vote 1, p<sub>0</sub> sends Commitable to the undecided processes.
- 5 If p<sub>i</sub> votes \(\perp \), on receipt of Commitable, p<sub>i</sub> sends 1 to p<sub>0</sub> if p<sub>i</sub> could commit, 0 to p<sub>0</sub> if p<sub>i</sub> could abort. p<sub>i</sub> sends \(\perp \) to p<sub>0</sub> again if p<sub>i</sub> still could not decide 1 or 0.
- 6 If  $p_0$  could not receive 1 or 0 from all the undecided processes after sending *Commitable*  $m(\geq 1)$  times,  $p_0$  sends *Abort* to all the processes, i.e. voting 1 or 0.
- 7 After voting 1, ⊥, or ⊤ if p, receives Abort from p<sub>0</sub>, p, aborts. After voting ⊤ and 1, if p; receives Commit from p<sub>0</sub>, p; commits. □

Figure 7 shows the state transition diagrams of the coordinator  $p_0$  and process  $p_i$ . Here,  $\alpha/\beta$  means that  $\beta$  is sent on receipt of  $\alpha$ .  $\alpha//$  means that  $\alpha$  is received by every process.

Next, let us consider a case that some process stops by failure. Suppose that  $p_0$  faults after each process  $p_i$  votes before sending the reply to all the processes. After voting, each process  $p_i$  voting 1 or  $\perp$  invokes the following termination protocol if  $p_i$  times out.

# [Termination protocol]

- 1 p; sends StateReq to all the processes.
- 2 On receipt of StateReq from p<sub>i</sub>, each process p<sub>i</sub> sends the local state to p<sub>i</sub>, i.e. 1 if p<sub>j</sub> votes 1, 0 if p<sub>i</sub> votes 0, \(\perp \) if p<sub>i</sub> votes \(\perp \), \(\perp \) if p<sub>i</sub> votes \(\perp \), \(\perp \) commitable if p<sub>i</sub> receives Commitable, Commit if p<sub>i</sub> receives Commit, and Abort of p<sub>j</sub> receives Abort.
- 3 p; makes the decision by the termination rule if p; receives the replies of StateReq. □



(a) Coordinator Po

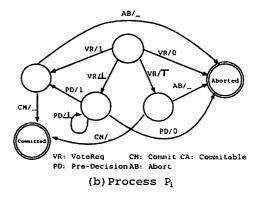


Figure 7: State transition diagram

#### [Termination rule]

- 1 If p<sub>i</sub> receives Commitable from some process, p<sub>i</sub> commits if p<sub>i</sub> votes 1 or T.
- 2 If p<sub>i</sub> receives Abortable from some process, p<sub>i</sub> aborts.
- 3 If p<sub>i</sub> receives ⊥ from some process and p<sub>i</sub> votes ⊥, p<sub>i</sub> aborts.
- 4 If pi receives 1 from all the processes, pi waits.
- 5 If  $p_i$  votes  $\bot$  and receives the states except Commit or Abort,  $p_i$  votes 1 or 0. □

If all the operational processes are in the state of 1, they have to wait, i.e. block like the two-phase commitment (2PC) protocol [10].

Next, suppose that a process  $p_i$  recovers from the failure. Suppose that  $p_i$  records the local state in the log  $L_i$ .  $p_i$  invokes the following recovery procedure if  $p_i$  recovers.

[Recovery protocol]

- 1  $p_i$  restores the state where  $p_i$  failed by using  $L_i$ .
- 2 If p<sub>i</sub> is not in a state of Commitable, Aborted, \(\perp, or \(\tau\), p<sub>i</sub> asks other processes in the same

way as the termination protocol.

3 If  $p_i$  is in a state of  $\perp$  or  $\top$ ,  $p_i$  aborts.  $\square$ 

# 3.4 Distributed extended commitment protocol

Next, we would like to consider the distributed control of the extended commitment protocol presented in the preceding subsection. Processes  $p_1, \ldots, p_n$  cooperate as follows without any centralized controller.

# [Basic protocol]

- Some p broadcasts Vote Req to all the processes.
- 2 On receipt of VoteReq, p<sub>i</sub> broadcasts the votes, i.e. 1, 0, \(\perp\), or \(\pi\).
- 3 On receipt of 1 from all the processes, p<sub>i</sub> commits.
- 4 On receipt of 0 from some process, p; aborts.
- 5 If p<sub>i</sub> receives 1 from at least one process and 1 or ⊤ from the all the other processes, p<sub>i</sub> commits.
- 6 If p<sub>i</sub> receives 1 from at least one process and 1 or ⊥ from all the other processes, p<sub>i</sub> waits. If p<sub>i</sub> times out, p<sub>i</sub> sends VoteReq to the processes voting ⊥.
- 7 If p<sub>i</sub> votes ⊥, on receipt of VoteReq, p<sub>i</sub> votes by step 2. □

Suppose that  $p_k$  stops by failure. If  $p_i$  had not received the vote of  $p_j$ ,  $p_i$  invokes the termination protocol.

#### [Termination protocol]

- 1 p<sub>i</sub> broadcasts State Req to all the operational processes.
- 2 On receipt of  $StateReq_1 p_i$  sends the state.
- 3 On receipt of the states from all the processes, p; makes the decision by the termination rule.

#### 4 Concluding Remarks

This paper discusses general framework of various consensus protocols. The general consensus protocol is composed of four steps, i.e. pre-voting, voting, global decision, and final local decision. We have described various consensus protocols in terms of the model. By committing the procedures for pre-voting, voting, global decision, and final local decision, we can make the consensus protocols required in the applications.

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