Consensus on Transaction Commit

JIM GRAY and LESLIE LAMPORT
Microsoft Research

The distributed transaction commit problem requires reaching agreement on whether a transaction is committed or aborted. The classic Two-Phase Commit protocol blocks if the coordinator fails. Fault-tolerant consensus algorithms also reach agreement, but do not block whenever any majority of the processes are working. The Paxos Commit algorithm runs a Paxos consensus algorithm on the commit/abort decision of each participant to obtain a transaction commit protocol that uses $2F + 1$ coordinators and makes progress if at least $F + 1$ of them are working properly. Paxos Commit has the same stable-storage write delay, and can be implemented to have the same message delay in the fault-free case as Two-Phase Commit, but it uses more messages. The classic Two-Phase Commit algorithm is obtained as the special $F = 0$ case of the Paxos Commit algorithm.

Categories and Subject Descriptors: D.4.1 [**Operating Systems**]: Process Management—*Concurrency*; D.4.5 [**Operating Systems**]: Reliability—*Fault-tolerance*; D.4.7 [**Operating Systems**]: Organization and Design—*Distributed systems*

General Terms: Algorithms, Reliability

Additional Key Words and Phrases: Consensus, Paxos, two-phase commit

1. INTRODUCTION

A distributed transaction consists of a number of operations, performed at multiple sites, terminated by a request to commit or abort the transaction. The sites then use a transaction commit protocol to decide whether the transaction is committed or aborted. The transaction can be committed only if all sites are willing to commit it. Achieving this all-or-nothing atomicity property in a distributed system is not trivial. The requirements for transaction commit are stated precisely in Section 2.

The classic transaction commit protocol is Two-Phase Commit [Gray 1978], described in Section 3. It uses a single coordinator to reach agreement. The failure of that coordinator can cause the protocol to block, with no process knowing the outcome, until the coordinator is repaired. In Section 4, we use the Paxos consensus algorithm [Lamport 1998] to obtain a transaction commit protocol

Authors' addresses: J. Gray, Microsoft Research, 455 Market St., San Francisco, CA 94105; email: Jim.Gray@microsoft.com; L. Lamport, Microsoft Research, 1065 La Avenida, Mountain View, CA 94043.

that uses multiple coordinators; it makes progress if a majority of the coordinators are working. Section 5 compares Two-Phase Commit and Paxos Commit. We show that Two-Phase Commit is a degenerate case of the Paxos Commit algorithm with a single coordinator, guaranteeing progress only if that coordinator is working. Section 6 discusses some practical aspects of transaction management. Related work is discussed in the conclusion.

Our computation model assumes that algorithms are executed by a collection of processes that communicate using messages. Each process executes at a node in a network. A process can save data on stable storage that survives failures. Different processes may execute on the same node. Our cost model counts internode messages, message delays, stable-storage writes, and stable-storage write delays. We assume that messages between processes on the same node have negligible cost. Our failure model assumes that nodes, and hence their processes, can fail; messages can be lost or duplicated, but not (undetectably) corrupted. Any process executing at a failed node simply stops performing actions; it does not perform incorrect actions and does not forget its state. Implementing this model of process failure requires writing information to stable storage, which can be an expensive operation. We will see that the delays incurred by writes to stable storage are the same in Two-Phase Commit and Paxos Commit.

In general, there are two kinds of correctness properties that an algorithm must satisfy: safety and liveness. Intuitively, a safety property describes what is allowed to happen, and a liveness property describes what must happen [Alpern and Schneider 1985].

Our algorithms are asynchronous in the sense that their safety properties do not depend on timely execution by processes or on bounded message delay. Progress, however, may depend on how quickly processes respond and how quickly messages are delivered.

We define a nonfaulty node to be one whose processes respond to messages within some known time limit. A network of nodes is nonfaulty iff all its nodes are nonfaulty and messages sent between processes running on those nodes are delivered within some time limit.

The main body of this article informally describes transaction commit and our two protocols. The Appendix contains formal TLA$^+$ [Lamport 2003] specifications of their safety properties—that is, specifications omitting assumptions and requirements involving progress or real-time constraints. We expect that only the most committed readers will look at those specifications. The progress properties of our algorithms and the concomitant definition of nonfaulty can also be formalized—for example, as in the Termination property of De Prisco et al. [1997]—but we explain them only informally.

2. TRANSACTION COMMIT

In a distributed system, a transaction is performed by a collection of processes called *resource managers* (RMs), each executing on a different node. The transaction ends when one of the resource managers issues a request either to commit or to abort the transaction. For the transaction to be committed,

each participating RM must be willing to commit it. Otherwise, the transaction must be aborted. Prior to the commit request, any RM may spontaneously decide to abort its part of the transaction. The fundamental requirement is that all RMs must eventually agree on whether the transaction is committed or aborted.[1]

To participate, an RM must first join the transaction. For now, we assume a fixed set of participating RMs determined in advance. Section 6.2 discusses how RMs join the transaction.

We abstract the requirements of a transaction commit protocol as follows. We assume a set of RM processes, each beginning in a *working* state. The goal of the protocol is for the RMs all to reach a *committed* state or all to reach an *aborted* state.

Two safety requirements of the protocol are the following:

—*Stability*. Once an RM has entered the *committed* or *aborted* state, it remains in that state forever.

—*Consistency*. It is impossible for one RM to be in the *committed* state and another to be in the *aborted* state.

These two properties imply that, once an RM enters the *committed* state, no other RM can enter the *aborted* state, and vice versa.

Each RM also has a *prepared* state. We require that

—an RM can enter the *committed* state only after all RMs have been in the *prepared* state.

These requirements imply that the transaction can commit, meaning that all RMs reach the *committed* state, only by the following sequence of events:

—all the RMs enter the *prepared* state, in any order;

—all the RMs enter the *committed* state, in any order.

The protocol allows the following event that prevents the transaction from committing:

—Any RM in the *working* state can enter the *aborted* state.

The stability and consistency conditions imply that this spontaneous abort event cannot occur if some RM has entered the *committed* state. In practice, a working RM will abort when it realizes that it cannot perform its part of the transaction.

These requirements are summarized in the state-transition diagram of Figure 1.

The goal of the algorithm is for all RMs to reach the *committed* or *aborted* state, but this cannot be achieved in a nontrivial way if RMs can fail or become isolated through communication failure. (A trivial solution is one in which all RMs always abort.) Moreover, the classic theorem of Fischer, Lynch, and Paterson [1985] implies that a deterministic, purely asynchronous algorithm

[1]In some descriptions of transaction commit, there is a client process that ends the transaction and must also learn if it is committed. We consider such a client to be one of the RMs.

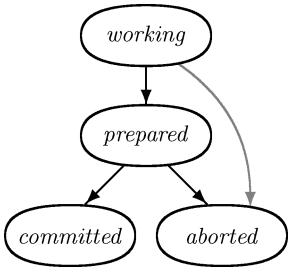

Fig. 1. The state-transition diagram for a resource manager. It begins in the *working* state, in which it may decide that it wants to abort or commit. It aborts by simply entering the *aborted* state. If it decides to commit, it enters the *prepared* state. From this state, it can commit only if all other resource managers also decided to commit.

cannot satisfy the stability and consistency conditions and still guarantee progress in the presence of even a single fault. We therefore require progress only if timeliness hypotheses are satisfied. Our two liveness requirements for a transaction commit protocol are as follows:

—*Nontriviality* If the entire network is nonfaulty throughout the execution of the protocol, then (a) if all RMs reach the *prepared* state, then all RMs eventually reach the *committed* state, and (b) if some RM reaches the *aborted* state, then all RMs eventually reach the *aborted* state.

—Nonblocking If, at any time, a sufficiently large network of nodes is nonfaulty for long enough, then every RM executed on those nodes will eventually reach either the *committed* or *aborted* state.

A precise statement of these two conditions would require a precise definition of what it means for a network of nodes to be nonfaulty. The meaning of "long enough" in the nonblocking condition depends on the response times of nonfaulty processes and communication networks. The nontriviality and nonblocking conditions can be stated precisely, but we will not do so here.

We can more precisely specify a transaction commit protocol by specifying its set of legal behaviors, where a behavior is a sequence of system states. We specify the safety properties with an initial predicate and a next-state relation that describes all possible steps (state transitions). The initial predicate asserts that all RMs are in the *working* state. To define the next-state relation, we first define two state predicates:

—*canCommit*. True iff all RMs are in the *prepared* or *committed* state.

—*notCommitted*. True iff no RM is in the *committed* state.

The next-state relation asserts that each step consists of one of the following two actions performed by a single RM:

—*Prepare*. The RM can change from the *working* state to the *prepared* state.

—*Decide*. If the RM is in the *prepared* state and *canCommit* is true, then it can transition to the *committed* state; and if the RM is in either the *working* or

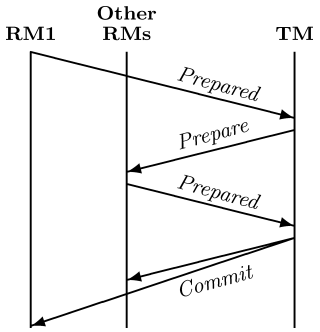

Fig. 2. The message flow for Two-Phase Commit in the normal failure-free case, where RM1 is the first RM to enter the *prepared* state.

prepared state and *notCommitted* is true, then it can transition to the *aborted* state.

3. TWO-PHASE COMMIT

3.1 The Protocol

The Two-Phase Commit protocol is an implementation of transaction commit that uses a *transaction manager* (TM) process to coordinate the decision-making procedure. The RMs have the same states in this protocol as in the specification of transaction commit. The TM has the following states: *init* (its initial state), *preparing*, *committed*, and *aborted*.

The Two-Phase Commit protocol starts when an RM enters the *prepared* state and sends a *Prepared* message to the TM. Upon receipt of the *Prepared* message, the TM enters the *preparing* state and sends a *Prepare* message to every other RM. Upon receipt of the *Prepare* message, an RM that is still in the *working* state can enter the *prepared* state and send a *Prepared* message to the TM. When it has received a *Prepared* message from all RMs, the TM can enter the *committed* state and send *Commit* messages to all the other processes. The RMs can enter the *committed* state upon receipt of the *Commit* message from the TM. The message flow for the Two-Phase Commit protocol is shown in Figure 2.

Figure 2 shows one distinguished RM spontaneously preparing. In fact, any RM can spontaneously go from the *working* to *prepared* state and send a *prepared* message at any time. The TM's *prepare* message can be viewed as an optional suggestion that now would be a good time to do so. Other events, including real-time deadlines, might cause working RMs to prepare. This observation is the basis for variants of the Two-Phase Commit protocol that use fewer messages.

An RM can spontaneously enter the *aborted* state if it is in the *working* state; and the TM can spontaneously enter the *aborted* state unless it is in the *committed* state. When the TM aborts, it sends an *abort* message to all RMs. Upon receipt of such a message, an RM enters the *aborted*

state. In an implementation, spontaneous aborting can be triggered by a timeout.[2]

In Two-Phase Commit, as in any asynchronous algorithm, process failure and restart is easy to handle. Each process records its current state in stable storage before sending any message while in that state. For example, upon receipt of a *Prepared* message, the TM records in stable storage that it has entered the *preparing* state and then sends the *Prepare* messages. When a failed process is restarted, it can simply restore its state from stable storage and continue executing the algorithm. Process failure and restart is equivalent to the process pausing, which is permitted by an asynchronous algorithm. Section 6.4 discusses in more detail what happens when a process fails and restarts in our transaction commit protocols.

Two-Phase Commit is described in many texts [Bernstein et al. 1987]; it is specified formally in Section A.2 of the Appendix, along with a theorem asserting that it implements the specification of transaction commit. This theorem has been checked by the TLC model checker for large enough configurations (numbers of RMs) so it is unlikely to be incorrect.

3.2 The Cost of Two-Phase Commit

The important efficiency measure for a transaction commit protocol is the cost of the normal case, in which the transaction is committed. Let N be the number of RMs. The Two-Phase Commit protocol sends the following sequence of messages in the normal case:

—The initiating RM enters the prepared state and sends a *Prepared* message to the TM. (1 message)
—The TM sends a *Prepare* message to every other RM. ($N - 1$ messages)
—Each other RM sends a *Prepared* message to the TM. ($N - 1$ messages)
—The TM sends a *Commit* message to every RM. (N messages)

Thus, in the normal case, the RMs learn that the transaction has been committed after four message delays. A total of $3N - 1$ messages are sent. It is typical for the TM to be on the same node as the initiating RM. In that case, two of the messages are intranode and can be discounted, leaving $3N - 3$ messages and three message delays.

As discussed in Section 3.1, we can eliminate the TM's *Prepare* messages, reducing the message complexity to $2N$. But in practice, this requires either extra message delays or some real-time assumptions.

In addition to the message delays, the two-phase commit protocol incurs the delays associated with writes to stable storage: the write by the first RM to prepare, the writes by the remaining RMs when they prepare, and the write by the TM when it makes the commit decision. This can be reduced to two write delays by having all RMs prepare concurrently.

[2]In practice, an RM may notify the TM when it spontaneously aborts; we ignore this optimization.

3.3 The Problem with Two-Phase Commit

In a transaction commit protocol, if one or more RMs fail, the transaction is usually aborted. For example, in the Two-Phase Commit protocol, if the TM does not receive a *Prepared* message from some RM soon enough after sending the *Prepare* message, then it will abort the transaction by sending *Abort* messages to the other RMs. However, the failure of the TM can cause the protocol to block until the TM is repaired. In particular, if the TM fails right after every RM has sent a *Prepared* message, then the other RMs have no way of knowing whether the TM committed or aborted the transaction.

A nonblocking commit protocol is one in which the failure of a single process does not prevent the other processes from deciding if the transaction is committed or aborted. They are often called *Three-Phase Commit protocols*. Several have been proposed, and a few have been implemented [Bernstein et al. 1987; Borr 1981; Skeen 1981]. They have usually attempted to "fix" the Two-Phase Commit protocol by choosing another TM if the first TM fails. However, we know of none that provides a complete algorithm proven to satisfy a clearly stated correctness condition. For example, the discussion of nonblocking commit in the classic text of Bernstein et al. [1987] fails to explain what a process should do if it receives messages from two different processes, both claiming to be the current TM. Guaranteeing that this situation cannot arise is a problem that is as difficult as implementing a transaction commit protocol.

4. PAXOS COMMIT

4.1 The Paxos Consensus Algorithm

The distributed computing community has studied the more general problem of *consensus*, which requires that a collection of processes agree on some value. Many solutions to this problem have been proposed, under various failure assumptions [Dwork et al. 1988; Pease et al. 1980]. These algorithms have precise fault models and rigorous proofs of correctness.

In the consensus problem, a collection of processes called *acceptors* cooperate to choose a value. Each acceptor runs on a different node. The basic safety requirement is that only a single value be chosen. To rule out trivial solutions, there is an additional requirement that the chosen value must be one proposed by a client. The liveness requirement asserts that, if a large enough subnetwork of the acceptors' nodes is nonfaulty for a long enough time, then some value is eventually chosen. It can be shown that, without strict synchrony assumptions, $2F + 1$ acceptors are needed to achieve consensus despite the failure of any F of them.

The Paxos algorithm [De Prisco et al. 1997; Lamport 1998, 2001; Lampson 1996] is a popular asynchronous consensus algorithm. It uses a series of ballots numbered by nonnegative integers, each with a predetermined coordinator process called the *leader*. The leader of ballot 0 is called the *initial* leader. In the normal, failure-free case when the initial leader receives a proposed value, it sends a phase 2a message to all acceptors containing this value and ballot

number 0. (The missing phase 1 is explained below.) Each acceptor receives this message and replies with a phase 2b message for ballot 0. When the leader receives these phase 2b messages from a majority of acceptors, it sends a phase 3 message announcing that the value is chosen.

The initial leader may fail, causing ballot 0 not to choose a value. In that case, some algorithm is executed to select a new leader—for example, the algorithm of Aguilera et al. [2001]. Selecting a unique leader is equivalent to solving the consensus problem. However, Paxos maintains consistency, never allowing two different values to be chosen, even if multiple processes think they are the leader. (This is unlike traditional Three-Phase Commit protocols, in which multiple coordinators can lead to inconsistency.) A unique nonfaulty leader is needed only to ensure liveness.

A process that believes itself to be a newly elected leader initiates a ballot, which proceeds in the following phases. (Since there can be multiple leaders, actions from several phases may be performed concurrently.)

—*Phase 1a*. The leader chooses a ballot number *bal* for which it is the leader and that it believes to be larger than any ballot number for which phase 1 has been performed. The leader sends a phase 1a message for ballot number *bal* to every acceptor.

—*Phase 1b*. When an acceptor receives the phase 1a message for ballot number *bal*, if it has not already performed any action for a ballot numbered *bal* or higher, it responds with a phase 1b message containing its current state, which consists of
  —the largest ballot number for which it received a phase 1a message, and
  —the phase 2b message with the highest ballot number it has sent, if any.

  The acceptor ignores the phase 1a message if it has performed an action for a ballot numbered *bal* or greater.

—*Phase 2a*. When the leader has received a phase 1b message for ballot number *bal* from a majority of the acceptors, it can learn one of two possibilities:
  —*Free*. None of the majority of acceptors reports having sent a phase 2b message, so the algorithm has not yet chosen a value.
  —*Forced*. Some acceptor in the majority reports having sent a phase 2b message. Let μ be the maximum ballot number of all the reported phase 2b messages, and let $\mathcal{M}_\mu$ be the set of all those phase 2b messages that have ballot number μ. All the messages in $\mathcal{M}_\mu$ have the same value v, which might already have been chosen.

  In the free case, the leader can try to get any value accepted; it usually picks the first value proposed by a client. In the forced case, it tries to get the value v chosen by sending a phase 2a message with value v and ballot number *bal* to every acceptor.

—*Phase 2b*. When an acceptor receives a phase 2a message for a value v and ballot number *bal*, if it has not already received a phase 1a or 2a message for a larger ballot number, it *accepts* that message and sends a phase 2b message for v and *bal* to the leader. The acceptor ignores the message if it has already participated in a higher-numbered ballot.

—*Phase 3*. When the leader has received phase 2b messages for value v and ballot *bal* from a majority of the acceptors, it knows that the value v has been chosen and communicates that fact to all interested processes with a phase 3 message.

Ballot 0 has no phase 1 because there are no lower-numbered ballots, so there is nothing for acceptors to report in phase 1b messages.

An explanation of why the Paxos algorithm is correct can be found in the literature [De Prisco et al. 1997; Lamport 1998, 2001; Lampson 1996]. As with any asynchronous algorithm, process failure and restart is handled by having each process record the necessary state information in stable storage.

The algorithm can be optimized in two independent ways. We can reduce the number of messages in the normal fault-free case by having the leader send phase 2a messages only to a majority of the acceptors. The leader will know that value v is chosen if it receives phase 2b messages from that majority of acceptors. It can send phase 2a messages to additional acceptors if it does not receive enough phase 2b messages. The second optimization is to eliminate the message delay of phase 3, at the cost of extra messages, by having acceptors send their phase 2b messages directly to all processes that need to know the chosen value. Like the leader, those processes learn the chosen value when they receive phase 2b messages from a majority of the acceptors.

The Paxos algorithm guarantees that at most one value is chosen despite any nonmalicious failure of any part of the system—that is, as long as processes do not make errors in executing the algorithm and the communication network does not undetectably corrupt messages. It guarantees progress if a unique leader is selected and if the network of nodes executing both that leader and some majority of acceptors is nonfaulty for a long enough period of time. A precise statement and proof of this progress condition has been given by De Prisco et al. [1997].

In practice, it is not difficult to construct an algorithm that, except during rare periods of network instability, selects a suitable unique leader among a majority of nonfaulty acceptors. Transient failure of the leader-selection algorithm is harmless, violating neither safety nor eventual progress. One algorithm for leader selection was presented by Aguilera et al. [2001].

4.2 The Paxos Commit Algorithm

In the Two-Phase Commit protocol, the TM decides whether to abort or commit, records that decision in stable storage, and informs the RMs of its decision. We could make that fault-tolerant by simply using a consensus algorithm to choose the *committed*/*aborted* decision, letting the TM be the client that proposes the consensus value. This approach was apparently first proposed by Mohan et al. [1983], who used a synchronous consensus protocol. However, in the normal case, the leader must learn that each RM has prepared before it can try to get the value *committed* chosen. Having the RMs tell the leader that they have prepared requires at least one message delay. How our *Paxos Commit* algorithm eliminates that message delay is described below.

Paxos Commit uses a separate instance of the Paxos consensus algorithm to obtain agreement on the decision each RM makes of whether to prepare or abort—a decision we represent by the values *Prepared* and *Aborted*. So, there is one instance of the consensus algorithm for each RM. The transaction is committed iff each RM's instance chooses *Prepared*; otherwise the transaction is aborted. The idea of performing a separate consensus on each RM's decision can be used with any consensus algorithm, but how one uses this idea to save a message delay depends on the algorithm.

Paxos Commit uses the same set of $2F + 1$ acceptors and the same current leader for each instance of Paxos. So, the cast of characters consists of N RMs, $2F+1$ acceptors, and the current leader. We assume for now that the RMs know the acceptors in advance. In ordinary Paxos, a ballot 0 phase 2a message can have any value v. While the leader usually sends such a message, the Paxos algorithm obviously remains correct if the sending of that message is delegated to any single process chosen in advance. In Paxos Commit, each RM announces its prepare/abort decision by sending, in its instance of Paxos, a ballot 0 phase 2a message with the value *Prepared* or *Aborted*.

Execution of Paxos Commit normally starts when some RM decides to prepare and sends a *BeginCommit* message to the leader. The leader then sends a *Prepare* message to all the other RMs. If an RM decides that it wants to prepare, it sends a phase 2a message with value *Prepared* and ballot number 0 in its instance of the Paxos algorithm. Otherwise, it sends a phase 2a message with the value *Aborted* and ballot number 0. For each instance, an acceptor sends its phase 2b message to the leader. The leader knows the outcome of this instance if it receives $F + 1$ phase 2b messages for ballot number 0, whereupon it can send its phase 3 message announcing the outcome to the RMs. (As observed in Section 4.1 above, phase 3 can be eliminated by having the acceptors send their phase 2b messages directly to the RMs.) The transaction is committed iff every RM's instance of the Paxos algorithm chooses *Prepared*; otherwise the transaction is aborted.

For efficiency, an acceptor can bundle its phase 2b messages for all instances of the Paxos algorithm into a single physical message. The leader can distill its phase 3 messages for all instances into a single *Commit* or *Abort* message, depending on whether or not all instances chose the value *Prepared*.

The instances of the Paxos algorithm for one or more RMs may not reach a decision with ballot number 0. In that case, the leader (alerted by a timeout) assumes that each of those RMs has failed and executes phase 1a for a larger ballot number in each of their instances of Paxos. If, in phase 2a, the leader learns that its choice is free (so that instance of Paxos has not yet chosen a value), then it tries to get *Aborted* chosen in phase 2b.

An examination of the Paxos algorithm—in particular, of how the decision is reached in phase 2a—shows that the value *Prepared* can be chosen in the instance for resource manager *rm* only if *rm* sends a phase 2a message for ballot number 0 with value *Prepared*. If *rm* instead sends a phase 2a message for ballot 0 with value *Aborted*, then its instance of the Paxos algorithm can choose only *Aborted*, which implies that the transaction must be aborted. In this case, Paxos Commit can short-circuit and use any broadcast protocol to inform

all processes that the transaction has aborted. (Once a process knows that the transaction has been aborted, it can ignore all other protocol messages.) This short-circuiting is possible only for phase 2a messages with ballot number 0. It is possible for an instance of the Paxos algorithm to choose the value *Prepared* even though a leader has sent a phase 2a message (for a ballot number greater than 0) with value *Aborted*.

We briefly sketch an intuitive proof of correctness of Paxos Commit. Recall that, in Section 2, we stated that a nonblocking algorithm should satisfy four properties: stability, consistency, nontriviality, and nonblocking. The algorithm satisfies stability because, once an RM receives a decision from a leader, it never changes its view of what value has been chosen. Consistency holds because each instance of the Paxos algorithm chooses a unique value, so different leaders cannot send different decisions. Nontriviality holds if the leader waits long enough before performing phase 1a for a new ballot number so that, if there are no failures, then each Paxos instance will finish performing phase 2 for ballot 0. The nonblocking property follows from the Paxos progress property, which implies that each instance of Paxos eventually chooses either *Prepared* or *Aborted* if a large enough network of acceptors is nonfaulty. More precisely, the nonblocking property holds if Paxos satisfies the liveness requirement for consensus, which is the case if the leader-selection algorithm ensures that a unique nonfaulty leader is chosen whenever a large enough subnetwork of the acceptors' nodes is nonfaulty for a long enough time.

The safety part of the algorithm—that is, the algorithm with no progress requirements—is specified formally in Section A.3 of the Appendix, along with a theorem asserting that it implements transaction commit. The correctness of this theorem has been checked by the TLC model checker on configurations that are too small to detect subtle errors, but are probably large enough to find simple "coding" errors. Rigorous proofs of the Paxos algorithm convince us that it harbors no subtle errors, and correctness of the Paxos Commit algorithm is a simple corollary of the correctness of Paxos.

4.3 The Cost of Paxos Commit

We now consider the cost of Paxos Commit in the normal case, when the transaction is committed. The sequence of message exchanges is shown in Figure 3.

We again assume that there are N RMs. We consider a system that can tolerate F faults, so there are $2F+1$ acceptors. However, we assume the optimization in which the leader sends phase 2a messages to $F+1$ acceptors, and only if one or more of them fail are other acceptors used. In the normal case, the Paxos Commit algorithm uses the following potentially internode messages:

—The first RM to prepare sends a *BeginCommit* message to the leader. (1 message)

—The leader sends a *Prepare* message to every other RM. ($N-1$ messages)

—Each RM sends a ballot 0 phase 2a *Prepared* message for its instance of Paxos to the $F+1$ acceptors. ($N(F+1)$ messages)

—For each RM's instance of Paxos, an acceptor responds to a phase 2a message by sending a phase 2b *Prepared* message to the leader. However, an acceptor

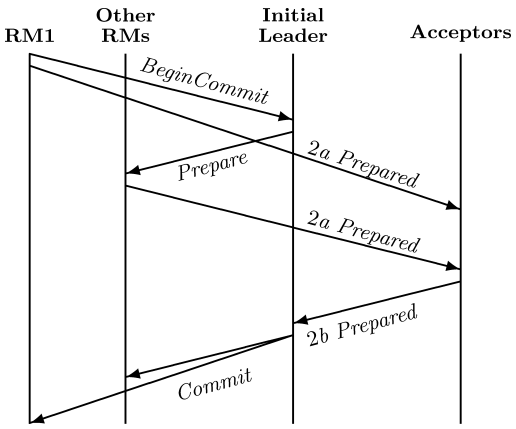

Fig. 3. The message flow for Paxos Commit in the normal failure-free case, where RM1 is the first RM to enter the prepared state, and 2a *Prepared* and 2b *Prepared* are the phase 2a and 2b messages of the Paxos consensus algorithm.

can bundle the messages for all those instances into a single message. ($F+1$ messages)

—The leader sends a single *Commit* message to each RM containing a phase 3 *Prepared* message for every instance of Paxos. (N messages)

The RMs therefore learn after five message delays that the transaction has been committed. A total of $(N+1)(F+3)-2$ messages are sent. If the initial leader is on the same node as one of the acceptors, then that acceptor's phase 2b *Prepared* message is intranode and can be discounted. Moreover, the first RM's *BeginCommit* message can combine with its phase 2a *Prepared* message to that acceptor, reducing the total number of messages to $(N+1)(F+3)-4$. If $N \geq F$ and each acceptor is on the same node as an RM, with the first RM being on the same node as the leader, then the messages between the first RM and the leader and an additional F of the phase 2a messages are intranode, leaving $N(F+3)-3$ intranode messages.

As observed above, we can eliminate phase 3 of Paxos by having each acceptor send its phase 2b messages directly to all the RMs. This allows the RMs to learn the outcome in only four message delays, but a total of $N(2F+3)$ messages are required. Letting the leader be on the same node as an acceptor eliminates one of those messages. If each acceptor is on the same node as an RM, and the leader is on the same node as the first RM, then the initial *BeginCommit* message, $F+1$ of the phase 2a messages, and $F+1$ of the phase 2b messages can be discounted, leaving $(N-1)(2F+3)$ messages.

We have seen so far that Paxos Commit requires five message delays, which can be reduced to four by eliminating phase 3 and having acceptors send extra phase 2b messages. Two of those message delays result from the sending of *Prepare* messages to the RMs. As observed in Section 3.1, these delays can be eliminated by allowing the RMs to prepare spontaneously, leaving just two message delays. This is optimal because implementing transaction commit requires reaching consensus on an RM's decision, and it can be shown that any

	Two-Phase Commit	Paxos Commit	Faster Paxos Commit
Message delays	4	5	4
Messages			
No colocation	$3N-1$	$(N+1)(F+3)-4$	$N(2F+3)-1$
With colocation	$3N-3$	$N(F+3)-3$	$(N-1)(2F+3)$
Stable storage			
Write delays	2	2	2
Writes	$N+1$	$N+F+1$	$N+F+1$

Fig. 4. Corresponding complexity.

fault-tolerant consensus algorithm requires at least two message delays to choose a value [Charron-Bost and Schiper 2000]. The only previous algorithm that achieves the optimal message delay of the optimized version of Paxos Commit is by Guerraoui et al. [1996], discussed briefly in the conclusion.

The RMs perform the same writes to stable storage in Paxos Commit as in Two-Phase Commit—namely, when entering the *Prepared* state. In the Paxos consensus algorithm, an acceptor must record in stable storage its decision to send a phase 2b message before actually sending it. Paxos Commit does this with a single write for all instances of the consensus algorithm. This write corresponds to the TM's write to stable storage before sending a *Commit* message in Two-Phase Commit. Paxos Commit therefore has the same delay caused by writing to stable storage as Two-Phase Commit, and it performs a total of $N+F+1$ writes.

5. PAXOS VERSUS TWO-PHASE COMMIT

In the Two-Phase Commit protocol, the TM both makes the abort/commit decision and stores that decision in stable storage. Two-Phase Commit can block indefinitely if the TM fails. Had we used Paxos simply to obtain consensus on a single decision value, this would have been equivalent to replacing the TM's stable storage by the acceptors' stable storage, and replacing the single TM by a set of possible leaders. Our Paxos Commit algorithm goes further in essentially eliminating the TM's role in making the decision. In Two-Phase Commit, the TM can unilaterally decide to abort. In Paxos Commit, a leader can make an *abort* decision only for an RM that does not decide for itself. The leader does this by initiating a ballot with number greater than 0 for that RM's instance of Paxos. (The leader must be able to do this to prevent blocking by a failed RM.)

Sections 3.2 and 4.3 describe the normal-case cost in messages and writes to stable storage of Two-Phase Commit and Paxos Commit, respectively. Both algorithms have the same three stable storage write delays (two if all RMs prepare concurrently). The other costs are summarized in Figure 4. The entries for Paxos Commit assume that the initial leader is on the same node as an acceptor. Faster Paxos Commit is the algorithm optimized to remove phase 3 of the Paxos consensus algorithm. For Two-Phase Commit, colocation means that the initiating RM and the TC are on the same node. For Paxos Commit, it means that each acceptor is on the same node as an RM, and that the initiating

RM is the on the same node as the initial leader. In Paxos Commit without colocation, we assume that the initial leader is an acceptor.

For the near future, system designers are likely to be satisfied with a commit algorithm that is nonblocking despite at most one failure—the $F = 1$ case. In this case, for a transaction with 5 RMs, the Two-Phase Commit uses 12 messages, regular Paxos Commit uses 17, and Faster Paxos Commit uses 20 (with colocation). For larger values of N, the three algorithms use about $3N$, $4N$, and $5N$ messages, respectively (with or without colocation).

Consider now the trivial case of Paxos Commit with $F = 0$, so there is just a single acceptor and a single possible leader, and the algorithm does not tolerate any acceptor faults. (The algorithm can still tolerate RM faults.) Let the single acceptor and the leader be on the same node. The single phase 2b message of the Paxos consensus algorithm then serves as a phase 3 message, making phase 3 unnecessary. Paxos Commit therefore becomes the same as Faster Paxos Commit. Figure 4 shows that, when $F = 0$, Two-Phase Commit and Paxos Commit use the same number of messages, $3N - 1$ or $3N - 3$, depending on whether or not colocation is assumed. In fact, Two-Phase Commit and Paxos Commit are essentially the same when $F = 0$. The two algorithms are isomorphic under the following correspondence:

Two-Phase Commit		Paxos Commit
TM	↔	acceptor/leader
Prepare message	↔	*Prepare* message
Prepared message	↔	phase 2a *Prepared* message
Commit message	↔	*Commit* message
Aborted message	↔	phase 2a *Aborted* message
Abort message	↔	*Abort* message

The phase 2b/phase 3 *Aborted* message that corresponds to a TM *abort* message is one generated by any instance of the Paxos algorithm, indicating that the transaction is aborted because not all instances chose *Prepared*. The phase 1 and 2 messages that precede it are all sent between the leader and the acceptor, which are on the same node.

The Two-Phase Commit protocol is thus the degenerate case of the Paxos Commit algorithm with a single acceptor.

6. TRANSACTION CREATION AND REGISTRATION

So far, we have been considering a single transaction with a fixed set of participating resource managers. In a real system, a transaction is first created and then RMs join it. Only the RMs that have joined the transaction participate in the commit/abort decision. We now describe how the transaction commit protocols are modified to handle a dynamically varying set of RMs.

Section 5 showed that Two-Phase Commit is the $F = 0$ case of Paxos Commit, in which the transaction manager performs the functions of the one acceptor and the one possible leader. We therefore consider only Paxos Commit.

To accommodate a dynamic set of RMs, we introduce a *registrar* process that keeps track of what RMs have joined the transaction. The registrar acts much like an additional RM, except that its input to the commit protocol is the set

of RMs that have joined, rather than the value *Prepared* or *Aborted*. As with an RM, Paxos Commit runs a separate instance of the Paxos consensus algorithm to decide upon the registrar's input, using the same set of acceptors. The transaction is committed iff the consensus algorithm for the registrar chooses a set of RMs and the instance of the consensus algorithm for each of those RMs chooses *Prepared*.

The registrar is generally on the same node as the initial leader, which is typically on the same node as the RM that creates the transaction. In Two-Phase Commit, the registrar's function is usually performed by the TM rather than by a separate process. (Recall that, for the case of Two-Phase Commit, the Paxos consensus algorithm is the trivial one in which the TM simply chooses the value and writes it to stable storage.)

We now describe how the dynamic Paxos algorithm works.

6.1 Transaction Creation

Each node has a local transaction service that an RM can call to create and manage transactions. To create a transaction, the service constructs a *descriptor* for the transaction, consisting of a unique identifier (uid) and the names of the transaction's *coordinator* processes. The coordinator processes are all processes other than the RMs that take part in the commit protocol—namely, the registrar, the initial leader, the other possible leaders, and the acceptors.

Any message sent during the execution of a transaction contains the transaction descriptor, so a recipient knows which transaction the message is for. A process might first learn about the existence of transaction by receiving such a message. The descriptor tells the process the names of the coordinators that it must know to perform its role in the protocol.

6.2 Joining a Transaction

An RM joins a transaction by sending a *join* message to the registrar. As observed above, the *join* message must contain the transaction descriptor if it might be the first message received by the registrar for this transaction. The RM that creates the transaction sends the descriptor to any other RM that might want to join the transaction.

Upon receipt of a *join* message, the registrar adds the RM to the set of participating RMs and sends it an acknowledgment. Receipt of the acknowledgment tells the RM that it is a participant of the transaction.

6.3 Committing a Transaction

When an RM wants to commit the transaction, it sends a *BeginCommit* message to the registrar rather than to the initial leader. (In Two-Phase Commit, the *BeginCommit* message is the *Prepared* message of the first RM to enter the *prepared* state.) The registrar then sends the *Prepare* messages to the other RMs that have joined the transaction. From that point on, the registrar no longer allows RMs to join the transaction, responding to any subsequent *join* message with a negative acknowledgment.

Receipt of the *BeginCommit* message also causes the registrar to begin an instance of the Paxos consensus algorithm to choose the set $\mathcal{J}$ of RMs that

have joined the transaction. It does this by sending a ballot 0 phase 2a message containing $\mathcal{J}$ to the acceptors. (The transaction descriptor lists the acceptors.) This instance of the consensus algorithm is executed in the same way as the instances for the RMs. Failure of the registrar could cause a leader to begin a higher-numbered ballot and get *Aborted* chosen as the registrar's value.

The registrar must never send a ballot 0 phase 2a message with an incorrect value of $\mathcal{J}$, even if it fails and restarts. The registrar can record in stable storage when it begins executing the transaction and simply not send the phase 2a message if it subsequently fails and restarts. It is possible to eliminate even this one write per transaction by having the registrar write once to stable storage whenever it restarts from a failure.

Meanwhile, as described in Section 4.2, each RM initiates its instance of the consensus algorithm by sending a ballot 0 phase 2a message with the value *Prepared* or *Aborted* to the acceptors. The transaction is defined to be committed if the registrar's instance of the consensus algorithm chooses a set $\mathcal{J}$ and the instance for each RM in $\mathcal{J}$ chooses *Prepared*. The transaction is defined to be aborted if the instance for any RM in $\mathcal{J}$ chooses *Aborted*, or if the registrar's instance chooses *Aborted* instead of a set $\mathcal{J}$.

Having a dynamically chosen set of RMs requires one change to the execution of the multiple instances of the Paxos consensus algorithm. Recall that an acceptor combines into a single message its phase 2b messages for all instances. The acceptor waits until it knows what phase 2b message to send for all instances before sending this one message. However, "all instances" includes an instance for each participating RM, and the set of participating RMs is chosen by the registrar's instance. To break this circularity, we observe that, if the registrar's instance chooses the value *Aborted*, then it doesn't matter what values are chosen by the RMs' instances. Therefore, the acceptor waits until it is ready to send a phase 2b message for the registrar's instance. If that message contains a set $\mathcal{J}$ of RMs as a value, then the acceptor waits until it can send the phase 2b message for each RM in $\mathcal{J}$. If the phase 2b message for the registrar's instance contains the value *Aborted*, then the acceptor sends only that phase 2b message.

As explained in Section 4.2, the protocol can be short-circuited and *abort* messages sent to all processes if any participating RM chooses the value *Aborted*. Instead of sending a phase 2a message, the RM can simply send an *abort* message to the coordinator processes. The registrar can relay the *abort* message to all other RMs that have joined the transaction.

Failure of the registrar before it sends its ballot 0 phase 2a message causes the transaction to abort. However, failure of a single RM can also cause the transaction to abort. Fault-tolerance means only that failure of an individual process does not prevent a commit/abort decision from being made.

6.4 Learning the Outcome

The description above shows that, when there is no failure, the dynamic commit protocol works essentially as described in Figure 3 of Section 4.3. We now consider what happens in the event of failure.

The case of acceptor failure is straightforward. If the transaction is created to have $2F + 1$ acceptors, then failure of up to F of them causes no problem. If more acceptors fail, the protocol simply blocks until there are $F + 1$ working acceptors, whereupon it continues as if nothing had happened.

Before considering other process failures, let us examine how a process P, knowing only the transaction descriptor, can discover the outcome of the protocol—that is, whether the transaction was committed or aborted. For example, P might be a restarted RM that had failed after sending a phase 2a *Prepared* message but before recording the outcome in its stable storage.

Having the descriptor, P knows the set of all possible leader processes. It sends them a message containing the descriptor and asking what the outcome was. If all the leader processes have failed, then P must wait until one or more of them are restarted. (Each node that has an acceptor process usually has a leader process as well, so there are $2F + 1$ leader processes.) If some nonfaulty leader process knows the outcome, it tells P. However, even if the protocol has completed, it is possible that no nonfaulty leader process knows the outcome. For example, the initial leader might have failed and this could be the first time the other leader processes hear about the transaction.

Suppose none of the nonfaulty leader processes know the outcome. These leader processes choose a current leader L that begins a new ballot for the registrar's instance of the Paxos consensus algorithm. If there are $F + 1$ nonfaulty acceptors, then L will learn the registrar's chosen value, which is either the set $\mathcal{J}$ of participants or *Abort*. In the latter case, the transaction has aborted. In the former case, L begins a new ballot for the consensus algorithm instance of each RM in $\mathcal{J}$. When L learns the value chosen by each of those instances (either *Prepared* or *Aborted*), it knows the outcome of the transaction. Once L learns the outcome, it informs P and any other interested processes that may not already know the outcome—for example, other leader processes and RMs that had joined the transaction.

This learning scenario can fail for any number of reasons. For example, two processes concurrently trying to learn the outcome might, because of a network partition, contact disjoint sets of leader processes. These two sets of leaders could choose two different processes to be the current leader. Those two leader processes could keep sending conflicting messages to the acceptors, preventing the instances of the consensus algorithm from succeeding. However, the correctness of the Paxos consensus algorithm ensures that the commit protocol's consistency property is never violated. It also ensures that process P will learn the outcome if there is a unique current leader that can communicate with P and with at least $F + 1$ nonfaulty acceptors.

For the case of Two-Phase Commit, learning the outcome is easy. The single TM process plays the roles of the one leader, the one acceptor, and the registrar. Process P learns the outcome by simply asking the TM. If the TM has failed, P just waits until it is restarted.

We now return to the question of what happens when an RM, the registrar, or the initial leader fails. Such a failure causes the protocol temporarily to hang. Progress is resumed when some process attempts to learn the outcome of the transaction, using the procedure described above. For example, the process

could be an RM that sent a phase 2a *Prepared* message and timed out without learning the outcome. Learning the transaction's outcome forces the transaction to commit or abort if it had not already done so.

7. CONCLUSION

Two-Phase Commit is the classical transaction commit protocol. Indeed, it is sometimes thought to be synonymous with transaction commit [Newcomer 2002]. Two-Phase Commit is not fault-tolerant because it uses a single coordinator whose failure can cause the protocol to block. We have introduced Paxos Commit, a new transaction commit protocol that uses multiple coordinators and makes progress if a majority of them are working. Hence, $2F + 1$ coordinators can make progress even if F of them are faulty. Two-Phase Commit is isomorphic to Paxos Commit with a single coordinator.

In the normal, failure-free case, Paxos Commit requires one more message delay than Two-Phase Commit. This extra message delay is eliminated by Faster Paxos Commit, which has the theoretically minimal message delay for a nonblocking protocol.

Nonblocking transaction commit protocols were first proposed in the early 1980s [Bernstein et al. 1987; Borr 1981; Skeen 1981]. The initial algorithms had two message delays more than Two-Phase Commit in the failure-free case; later algorithms reduced this to one extra message delay [Bernstein et al. 1987]. All of these algorithms used a coordinator process and assumed that two different processes could never both believe they were the coordinator—an assumption that cannot be implemented in a purely asynchronous system. Transient network failures could cause them to violate the consistency requirement of transaction commit. It is easy to implement nonblocking commit using a consensus algorithm—an observation also made in the 1980s [Mohan et al. 1983]. However, the obvious way of doing this leads to one message delay more than that of Paxos Commit. The only algorithm that achieved the low message delay of Faster Paxos Commit was that of Guerraoui et al. [1996]. It is essentially the same as Faster Paxos Commit in the absence of failures. (It can be modified with an optimization analogous to the sending of phase 2a messages only to a majority of acceptors to give it the same message complexity as Faster Paxos Commit.) This similarity to Paxos Commit is not surprising, since most asynchronous consensus algorithms (and most incomplete attempts at algorithms) are the same as Paxos in the failure-free case. However, their algorithm is more complicated than Paxos Commit. It uses a special procedure for the failure-free case and calls upon a modified version of an ordinary consensus algorithm, which adds an extra message delay in the event of failure.

With $2F + 1$ coordinators and N resource managers, Paxos Commit requires about $2FN$ more messages than Two-Phase Commit in the normal case. Both algorithms incur the same delay for writing to stable storage. In modern local area networks, messages are cheap, and the cost of writing to stable storage can be much larger than the cost of sending messages. So in many systems, the

benefit of a nonblocking protocol should outweigh the additional cost of Paxos Commit.

Paxos Commit implements transaction commit with the Paxos consensus algorithm. Some readers may find this paradoxical, since there are results in the distributed systems theory literature showing that transaction commit is a strictly harder problem than consensus [Guerraoui 1995]. However, those results are based on a stronger definition of transaction commit in which the transaction is required to commit if all RMs are nonfaulty and choose to prepare—even in the face of unpredictable communication delays. In contrast, our nontriviality condition requires the transaction to commit only under the additional assumption that the entire network is nonfaulty—meaning that all messages sent between the nodes are delivered within some known time limit. (Guerraoui et al. [1996] stated this condition more abstractly in terms of failure detectors.) The stronger definition of transaction commit is not implementable in typical transaction systems, where occasional long communication delays must be tolerated.

APPENDIX

A.1 The Specification of a Transaction Commit Protocol

MODULE $TCommit$

CONSTANT RM The set of participating resource managers
VARIABLE $rmState$ $rmState[rm]$ is the state of resource manager rm.

$TCTypeOK \triangleq$
The type-correctness invariant.
$rmState \in [RM \to \{\text{“working”, “prepared”, “committed”, “aborted”}\}]$

$TCInit \triangleq rmState = [rm \in RM \mapsto \text{“working”}]$
The initial predicate.

$canCommit \triangleq \forall\, rm \in RM : rmState[rm] \in \{\text{“prepared”, “committed”}\}$
True iff all RMs are in the “*prepared* ” or “*committed* ” state.

$notCommitted \triangleq \forall\, rm \in RM : rmState[rm] \neq \text{“committed”}$
True iff no resource manager has decided to commit.

We now define the actions that may be performed by the RMs, and then define the complete next-state action of the specification to be the disjunction of the possible RM actions.

$$Prepare(rm) \triangleq \land\, rmState[rm] = \text{“working”} \\ \land\, rmState' = [rmState \text{ EXCEPT } ![rm] = \text{“prepared”}]$$

$$Decide(rm) \triangleq \lor\, \land\, rmState[rm] = \text{“prepared”} \\ \land\, canCommit \\ \land\, rmState' = [rmState \text{ EXCEPT } ![rm] = \text{“committed”}] \\ \lor\, \land\, rmState[rm] \in \{\text{“working”, “prepared”}\}$$

$\land\ notCommitted$
$\land\ rmState' = [rmState \text{ EXCEPT } ![rm] = \text{“aborted”}]$

$TCNext \triangleq \exists\, rm \in RM : Prepare(rm) \lor Decide(rm)$

The next-state action.

$TCSpec \triangleq TCInit \land \Box[TCNext]_{rmState}$

The complete specification of the protocol.

We now assert invariance properties of the specification.

$TCConsistent \triangleq$

A state predicate asserting that two RMs have not arrived at conflicting decisions.

$\forall\, rm1,\ rm2 \in RM : \neg \land\ rmState[rm1] = \text{“aborted”}$
$\qquad\qquad\qquad\qquad\land\ rmState[rm2] = \text{“committed”}$

THEOREM $TCSpec \Rightarrow \Box(TCTypeOK \land TCConsistent)$

Asserts that *TCTypeOK* and *TCInvariant* are invariants of the protocol.

A.2 The Specification of the Two-Phase Commit Protocol

MODULE $TwoPhase$

This specification describes the Two-Phase Commit protocol, in which a transaction manager (TM) coordinates the resource managers (RMs) to implement the Transaction Commit specification of module *TCommit*. In this specification, RMs spontaneously issue *Prepared* messages. We ignore the *Prepare* messages that the TM can send to the RMs.

For simplicity, we also eliminate *Abort* messages sent by an RM when it decides to abort. Such a message would cause the TM to abort the transaction, an event represented here by the TM spontaneously deciding to abort.

This specification describes only the safety properties of the protocol–that is, what is allowed to happen. What must happen would be described by liveness properties, which we do not specify.

CONSTANT RM The set of resource managers.

VARIABLES

$rmState$, $tmState$, $tmPrepared$, $msgs$

$rmState[rm]$ is the state of resource manager RM.
The state of the transaction manager.
The set of RMs from which the TM has received *“Prepared”* messages.

In the protocol, processes communicate with one another by sending messages. Since we are specifying only safety, a process is not required to receive a message, so there is no need to model message loss. (There's no difference between a process not being able to receive a message because the message was lost and a process simply ignoring the message.) We therefore represent message passing with a variable *msgs* whose value is the set of all messages that have been sent. Messages are never removed from *msgs*. An action that, in an implementation, would be enabled by the receipt of a certain message is here enabled by the existence of that message in *msgs*. (Receipt of the same message twice is therefore allowed; but in this particular protocol, receiving a message for the second time has no effect.)

$Message \triangleq$

The set of all possible messages. Messages of type "*Prepared*" are sent from the RM indicated by the message's *rm* field to the TM. Messages of type "*Commit*" and "*Abort*" are broadcast by the TM, to be received by all RMs. The set *msgs* contains just a single copy of such a message.

$[type : \{\text{“Prepared”}\},\ rm : RM] \ \cup \ [type : \{\text{“Commit”},\ \text{“Abort”}\}]$

$TPTypeOK \triangleq$

The type-correctness invariant

$\land\ rmState \in [RM \to \{\text{“working”},\ \text{“prepared”},\ \text{“committed”},\ \text{“aborted”}\}]$
$\land\ tmState \in \{\text{“init”},\ \text{“committed”},\ \text{“aborted”}\}$
$\land\ tmPrepared \subseteq RM$
$\land\ msgs \subseteq Message$

$TPInit \triangleq$

The initial predicate.

$\land\ rmState = [rm \in RM \mapsto \text{“working”}]$
$\land\ tmState = \text{“init”}$
$\land\ tmPrepared = \{\}$
$\land\ msgs = \{\}$

We now define the actions that may be performed by the processes, first the TM's actions, then the RMs' actions.

$TMRcvPrepared(rm) \triangleq$

The TM receives a "*Prepared*" message from resource manager *rm*.

$\land\ tmState = \text{“init”}$
$\land\ [type \mapsto \text{“Prepared”},\ rm \mapsto rm] \in msgs$
$\land\ tmPrepared' = tmPrepared \cup \{rm\}$
$\land\ \text{UNCHANGED}\ \langle rmState,\ tmState,\ msgs\rangle$

$TMCommit \triangleq$

The TM commits the transaction; enabled iff the TM is in its initial state and every RM has sent a "*Prepared*" message.

$\land\ tmState = \text{“init”}$
$\land\ tmPrepared = RM$
$\land\ tmState' = \text{“committed”}$
$\land\ msgs' = msgs \cup \{[type \mapsto \text{“Commit”}]\}$
$\land\ \text{UNCHANGED}\ \langle rmState,\ tmPrepared\rangle$

$TMAbort \triangleq$

The TM spontaneously aborts the transaction.

$\land\ tmState = \text{“init”}$
$\land\ tmState' = \text{“aborted”}$
$\land\ msgs' = msgs \cup \{[type \mapsto \text{“Abort”}]\}$
$\land\ \text{UNCHANGED}\ \langle rmState,\ tmPrepared\rangle$

$RMPrepare(rm) \triangleq$

Resource manager *rm* prepares.

$\land\ rmState[rm] = \text{“working”}$
$\land\ rmState' = [rmState\ \text{EXCEPT}\ ![rm] = \text{“prepared”}]$

$\land\ msgs' = msgs \cup \{[type \mapsto \text{“Prepared”},\ rm \mapsto rm]\}$
$\land$ UNCHANGED $\langle tmState,\ tmPrepared\rangle$

$RMChooseToAbort(rm) \triangleq$

Resource manager *rm* spontaneously decides to abort. As noted above, *rm* does not send any message in our simplified spec.

$\land\ rmState[rm] = \text{“working”}$
$\land\ rmState' = [rmState$ EXCEPT $![rm] = \text{“aborted”}]$
$\land$ UNCHANGED $\langle tmState,\ tmPrepared,\ msgs\rangle$

$RMRcvCommitMsg(rm) \triangleq$

Resource manager *rm* is told by the TM to commit.

$\land\ [type \mapsto \text{“Commit”}] \in msgs$
$\land\ rmState' = [rmState$ EXCEPT $![rm] = \text{“committed”}]$
$\land$ UNCHANGED $\langle tmState,\ tmPrepared,\ msgs\rangle$

$RMRcvAbortMsg(rm) \triangleq$

Resource manager *rm* is told by the TM to abort.

$\land\ [type \mapsto \text{“Abort”}] \in msgs$
$\land\ rmState' = [rmState$ EXCEPT $![rm] = \text{“aborted”}]$
$\land$ UNCHANGED $\langle tmState,\ tmPrepared,\ msgs\rangle$

$TPNext \triangleq$
$\lor\ TMCommit \lor TMAbort$
$\lor\ \exists rm \in RM :$
$\quad TMRcvPrepared(rm) \lor RMPrepare(rm) \lor RMChooseToAbort(rm)$
$\quad\ \lor RMRcvCommitMsg(rm) \lor RMRcvAbortMsg(rm)$

$TPSpec \triangleq TPInit \land \Box[TPNext]_{\langle rmState,\ tmState,\ tmPrepared,\ msgs\rangle}$

The complete spec of the Two-Phase Commit protocol.

THEOREM $TPSpec \Rightarrow \Box TPTypeOK$

This theorem asserts that the type-correctness predicate TPTypeOK is an invariant of the specification.

We now assert that the Two-Phase Commit protocol implements the Transaction Commit protocol of module *TCommit*. The following statement defines *TC*!*TCSpec* to be formula *TSpec* of module *TCommit*. (The TLA$^+$ INSTANCE statement is used to rename the operators defined in module *TCommit* to avoid any name conflicts that might exist with operators in the current module.)

$TC \triangleq$ INSTANCE $TCommit$

THEOREM $TPSpec \Rightarrow TC!TCSpec$

This theorem asserts that the specification TPSpec of the Two-Phase Commit protocol implements the specification TCSpec of the Transaction Commit protocol.

The two theorems in this module have been checked with TLC for six RMs, a configuration with 50816 reachable states, in a little over a minute on a 1-GHz PC.

A.3 The Paxos Commit Algorithm

MODULE *PaxosCommit*

This module specifies the Paxos Commit algorithm. We specify only safety properties, not liveness properties. We simplify the specification in the following ways.

— As in the specification of module *TwoPhase*, and for the same reasons, we let the variable *msgs* be the set of all messages that have ever been sent. If a message is sent to a set of recipients, only one copy of the message appears in *msgs*.

— We do not explicitly model the receipt of messages. If an operation can be performed when a process has received a certain set of messages, then the operation is represented by an action that is enabled when those messages are in the set *msgs* of sent messages. (We are specifying only safety properties, which assert what events can occur, and the operation can occur if the messages that enable it have been sent.)

— We do not model leader selection. We define actions that the current leader may perform, but do not specify who performs them.

As in the specification of Two-Phase commit in module *TwoPhase*, we have RMs spontaneously issue Prepared messages and we ignore *Prepare* messages.

EXTENDS *Integers*

$Maximum(S) \triangleq$

If $\mathcal{J}$ is a set of numbers, then this defines $Maximum(S)$ to be the maximum of those numbers, or -1 if $\mathcal{J}$ is empty.

IF $S = \{\}$ THEN -1
ELSE CHOOSE $n \in S : \forall\, m \in S : n \geq m$

CONSTANT RM, The set of resource managers.
$Acceptor$, The set of acceptors.
$Majority$, The set of majorities of acceptors.
$Ballot$ The set of ballot numbers.

ASSUME We assume these properties of the declared constants.
$\land\ Ballot \subseteq Nat$
$\land\ 0 \in Ballot$
$\land\ Majority \subseteq$ SUBSET $Acceptor$
$\land\ \forall\, MS1, MS2 \in Majority : MS1 \cap MS2 \neq \{\}$

All we assume about the set *Majority* of majorities is that any two majorities have nonempty intersection.

$Message \triangleq$

The set of all possible messages. There are messages of type "*Commit*" and "*Abort*" to announce the decision, as well as messages for each phase of each instance of *ins* of the Paxos consensus algorithm. The *acc* field indicates the sender of a message from an acceptor to the leader; messages from a leader are broadcast to all acceptors.

$[type : \{\text{“phase1a”}\}, ins : RM, bal : Ballot \setminus \{0\}]$
$\cup$
$[type : \{\text{“phase1b”}\}, ins : RM, mbal : Ballot, bal : Ballot \cup \{-1\},$
$val : \{\text{“prepared”}, \text{“aborted”}, \text{“none”}\}, acc : Acceptor]$
$\cup$
$[type : \{\text{“phase2a”}\}, ins : RM, bal : Ballot, val : \{\text{“prepared”}, \text{“aborted”}\}]$
$\cup$
$[type : \{\text{“phase2b”}\}, acc : Acceptor, ins : RM, bal : Ballot,$

val : {"prepared", "aborted"}]
$\cup$
[$type$: {"Commit", "Abort"}]

VARIABLES

$rmState$,	$rmState[rm]$ is the state of resource manager rm.
$aState$,	$aState[ins][ac]$ is the state of acceptor ac for instance ins of the Paxos algorithm.
$msgs$	The set of all messages ever sent.

$PCTypeOK \triangleq$

The type-correctness invariant. Each acceptor maintains the values $mbal$, bal, and val for each instance of the Paxos consensus algorithm.

$\land\ rmState \in [RM \to$ {"working", "prepared", "committed", "aborted"}]
$\land\ aState \in [RM \to [Acceptor \to [mbal : Ballot,$
$bal : Ballot \cup \{-1\},$
$val : \{$"prepared", "aborted", "none"$\}]]]$
$\land\ msgs \in$ SUBSET $Message$

$PCInit \triangleq$ The initial predicate.

$\land\ rmState = [rm \in RM \mapsto$ "working"]
$\land\ aState = [ins \in RM \mapsto$
$[ac \in Acceptor \mapsto [mbal \mapsto 0, bal \mapsto -1, val \mapsto$ "none"]]]
$\land\ msgs = \{\}$

The Actions

$Send(m) \triangleq msgs' = msgs \cup \{m\}$

An action expression that describes the sending of message m.

RM Actions

$RMPrepare(rm) \triangleq$

Resource manager rm prepares by sending a phase 2a message for ballot number 0 with value *"prepared"*.

$\land\ rmState[rm] =$ "working"
$\land\ rmState' =$ [$rmState$ EXCEPT ![rm] = "prepared"]
$\land\ Send([type \mapsto$ "phase2a", $ins \mapsto rm, bal \mapsto 0, val \mapsto$ "prepared"])
$\land$ UNCHANGED $aState$

$RMChooseToAbort(rm) \triangleq$

Resource manager rm spontaneously decides to abort. It may (but need not) send a phase 2a message for ballot number 0 with value *"aborted"*.

$\land\ rmState[rm] =$ "working"
$\land\ rmState' =$ [$rmState$ EXCEPT ![rm] = "aborted"]
$\land\ Send([type \mapsto$ "phase2a", $ins \mapsto rm, bal \mapsto 0, val \mapsto$ "aborted"])
$\land$ UNCHANGED $aState$

$RMRcvCommitMsg(rm) \triangleq$

Resource manager rm is told by the leader to commit. When this action is enabled, $rmState[rm]$ must equal either *"prepared"* or *"committed"*. In the latter case, the action leaves the state unchanged (it is a "stuttering step").

$\land [type \mapsto \text{"Commit"}] \in msgs$
$\land rmState' = [rmState \text{ EXCEPT } ![rm] = \text{"committed"}]$
$\land \text{UNCHANGED } \langle aState, msgs \rangle$

$RMRcvAbortMsg(rm) \triangleq$

Resource manager rm is told by the leader to abort. It could be in any state except *"committed"*.

$\land [type \mapsto \text{"Abort"}] \in msgs$
$\land rmState' = [rmState \text{ EXCEPT } ![rm] = \text{"aborted"}]$
$\land \text{UNCHANGED } \langle aState, msgs \rangle$

Leader Actions

The following actions are performed by any process that believes itself to be the current leader. Since leader selection is not assumed to be reliable, multiple processes could simultaneously consider themselves to be the leader.

$Phase1a(bal, rm) \triangleq$

If the leader times out without learning that a decision has been reached on resource manager rm's prepare/abort decision, it can perform this action to initiate a new ballot bal. (Sending duplicate phase 1a messages is harmless.)

$\land Send([type \mapsto \text{"phase1a"}, ins \mapsto rm, bal \mapsto bal])$
$\land \text{UNCHANGED } \langle rmState, aState \rangle$

$Phase2a(bal, rm) \triangleq$

The action in which a leader sends a phase 2a message with ballot $bal > 0$ in instance rm, if it has received phase 1b messages for ballot number bal from a majority of acceptors. If the leader received a phase 1b message from some acceptor that had sent a phase 2b message for this instance, then $mu \geq 0$ and the value v the leader sends is determined by the phase 1b messages. (If $v =$*"prepared"*, then rm must have prepared.) Otherwise, $mu = -1$ and the leader sends the value *"aborted"*.

The first conjunct asserts that the action is disabled if any leader has already sent a phase 2a message with ballot number bal. In practice, this is implemented by having ballot numbers partitioned among potential leaders, and having a leader record in stable storage the largest ballot number for which it sent a phase 2a message.

$$
\begin{array}{l}
\land \neg \exists m \in msgs : \land m.type = \text{"phase2a"} \\
\qquad\qquad\qquad\qquad\quad \land m.bal = bal \\
\qquad\qquad\qquad\qquad\quad \land m.ins = rm \\
\land \exists MS \in Majority : \\
\quad \text{LET } mset \triangleq \{m \in msgs : \land m.type = \text{"phase1b"} \\
\qquad\qquad\qquad\qquad\qquad\qquad\quad \land m.ins = rm \\
\qquad\qquad\qquad\qquad\qquad\qquad\quad \land m.mbal = bal \\
\qquad\qquad\qquad\qquad\qquad\qquad\quad \land m.acc \in MS\} \\
\qquad mu \triangleq Maximum(\{m.bal : m \in mset\}) \\
\qquad v \triangleq \text{IF } mu = -1 \text{ THEN "aborted"} \\
\qquad\qquad\qquad\qquad\qquad \text{ELSE } (\text{CHOOSE } m \in mset : m.bal = mu).val \\
\quad \text{IN} \quad \land \forall ac \in MS : \exists m \in mset : m.acc = ac \\
\qquad\quad \land Send([type \mapsto \text{"phase2a"}, ins \mapsto rm, bal \mapsto bal, val \mapsto v]) \\
\land \text{UNCHANGED } \langle rmState, aState \rangle
\end{array}
$$

$Decide \triangleq$

A leader can decide that Paxos Commit has reached a result and send a message announcing the result if it has received the necessary phase 2b messages.

$\land$ LET $Decided(rm,\ v) \triangleq$

True iff instance *rm* of the Paxos consensus algorithm has chosen the value v.

$\exists\, b \in Ballot,\ MS \in Majority :$
$\forall\, ac \in MS : [type \mapsto$ "phase2b", $ins \mapsto rm,$
$bal \mapsto b,\ val \mapsto v,\ acc \mapsto ac] \in msgs$

IN $\lor \land \forall\, rm \in RM : Decided(rm,$ "prepared")
$\land\ Send([type \mapsto$ "Commit"])
$\lor \land \exists\, rm \in RM : Decided(rm,$ "aborted")
$\land\ Send([type \mapsto$ "Abort"])

$\land$ UNCHANGED $\langle rmState,\ aState\rangle$

Acceptor Actions

$Phase1b(acc) \triangleq$
$\exists\, m \in msgs :$
$\land\ m.type =$ "phase1a"
$\land\ aState[m.ins][acc].mbal < m.bal$
$\land\ aState' = [aState$ EXCEPT $![m.ins][acc].mbal = m.bal]$
$\land\ Send([type \mapsto$ "phase1b",
$ins \mapsto m.ins,$
$mbal \mapsto m.bal,$
$bal \mapsto aState[m.ins][acc].bal,$
$val \mapsto aState[m.ins][acc].val,$
$acc \mapsto acc])$
$\land$ UNCHANGED $rmState$

$Phase2b(acc) \triangleq$
$\land \exists\, m \in msgs :$
$\land\ m.type =$ "phase2a"
$\land\ aState[m.ins][acc].mbal \leq m.bal$
$\land\ aState' = [aState$ EXCEPT $![m.ins][acc].mbal = m.bal,$
$![m.ins][acc].bal = m.bal,$
$![m.ins][acc].val = m.val]$
$\land\ Send([type \mapsto$ "phase2b", $ins \mapsto m.ins,\ bal \mapsto m.bal,$
$val \mapsto m.val,\ acc \mapsto acc])$
$\land$ UNCHANGED $rmState$

$PCNext \triangleq$ The next-state action.
$\lor \exists\, rm \in RM :\ \lor RMPrepare(rm)$
$\lor RMChooseToAbort(rm)$
$\lor RMRcvCommitMsg(rm)$
$\lor RMRcvAbortMsg(rm)$
$\lor \exists\, bal \in Ballot \setminus \{0\},\ rm \in RM : Phase1a(bal,\ rm) \lor Phase2a(bal,\ rm)$

$\lor\ Decide$
$\lor\ \exists\, acc \in Acceptor : Phase1b(acc) \lor Phase2b(acc)$

$PCSpec \triangleq PCInit \land \Box[PCNext]_{\langle rmState, aState, msgs\rangle}$

The complete spec of the Paxos Commit protocol.

THEOREM $PCSpec \Rightarrow PCTypeOK$

We now assert that the two-phase commit protocol implements the transaction commit protocol of module TCommit. The following statement defines *TC*!*TCSpec* to be the formula *TCSpec* of module *TCommit*. (The TLA$^+$ INSTANCE statement is used to rename the operators defined in module *TCommit* to avoid possible name conflicts with operators in the current module having the same name.)

$TC \triangleq$ INSTANCE $TCommit$

THEOREM $PCSpec \Rightarrow TC!TCSpec$

REFERENCES

AGUILERA, M. K., DELPORTE-GALLET, C., FAUCONNIER, H., AND TOUEG, S. 2001. Stable leader election. In *DISC '01: Proceedings of the 15th International Conference on Distributed Computing*, J. L. Welch, Ed. Lecture Notes in Computer Science, vol. 2180. Springer-Verlag, Berlin, Germany, 108–122.

ALPERN, B. AND SCHNEIDER, F. B. 1985. Defining liveness. *Inf. Process. Lett. 21*, 4 (Oct.), 181–185.

BERNSTEIN, P. A., HADZILACOS, V., AND GOODMAN, N. 1987. *Concurrency Control and Recovery in Database Systems*. Addison-Wesley, Reading, MA.

BORR, A. J. 1981. Transaction monitoring in encompass: Reliable distributed transaction processing. In *Proceedings of the 1981 ACM SIGMOD International Conference on Management of Data* (Ann Arbor, MI, April 29-May 1), Y. E. Lien, Ed. ACM Press, New York, NY, 155–165.

CHARRON-BOST, B. AND SCHIPER, A. 2000. Uniform consensus is harder than consensus (extended abstract). Tech. rep. DSC/2000/028. École Polytechnique Fédérale de Lausanne, Switzerland.

DE PRISCO, R., LAMPSON, B., AND LYNCH, N. 1997. Revisiting the Paxos algorithm. In *Proceedings of the 11th International Workshop on Distributed Algorithms (WDAG 97)*, M. Mavronicolas and P. Tsigas, Eds. Lecture Notes in Computer Science, vol. 1320. Springer-Verlag, Saarbruken, Germany, 111–125.

DWORK, C., LYNCH, N., AND STOCKMEYER, L. 1988. Consensus in the presence of partial synchrony. *J. Assoc. Comput. Mach. 35*, 2 (Apr.), 288–323.

FISCHER, M. J., LYNCH, N., AND PATERSON, M. S. 1985. Impossibility of distributed consensus with one faulty process. *J. Assoc. Comput. Mach. 32*, 2 (Apr.), 374–382.

GRAY, J. 1978. Notes on data base operating systems. In *Operating Systems: An Advanced Course*, R. Bayer, R. M. Graham, and G. Seegmuller, Eds. Lecture Notes in Computer Science, vol. 60. Springer-Verlag, Berlin, Heidelberg, Germany/New York, NY, 393–481.

GUERRAOUI, R. 1995. Revisiting the relationship between nonblocking atomic commitment and consensus. In *Proceedings of the 9th International Workshop on Distributed Algorithms* (WDAG95), J.-M. Hélary and M. Raynal, Eds. Lecture Notes in Computer Science, vol. 972. Springer-Verlag, Le Mont-Saint-Michel, France, 87–100.

GUERRAOUI, R., LARREA, M., AND SCHIPER, A. 1996. Reducing the cost for nonblocking in atomic commitment. In *Proceedings of the 16th International Conference on Distributed Computing Systems (ICDCS)*. IEEE Computer Society Press, Los Alamitos, CA, 692–697.

LAMPORT, L. 1998. The part-time parliament. *ACM Trans. Comput. Syst. 16*, 2 (May), 133–169.

LAMPORT, L. 2001. Paxos made simple. *ACM SIGACT News* (Distributed Computing Column) *32*, 4 (Dec.), 18–25.

LAMPORT, L. 2003. *Specifying Systems*. Addison-Wesley, Boston, MA. A link to an electronic copy can be found online at `http://lamport.org`.

LAMPSON, B. W. 1996. How to build a highly available system using consensus. In *Distributed Algorithms*, O. Babaoglu and K. Marzullo, Eds. Lecture Notes in Computer Science, vol. 1151. Springer-Verlag, Berlin, Germany, 1–17.

MOHAN, C., STRONG, R., AND FINKELSTEIN, S. 1983. Method for distributed transaction commit and recovery using Byzantine agreement within clusters of processors. In *Proceedings of the Second Annual ACM Symposium on Principles of Distributed Computing*. The ACM Press, New York, NY, 29–43.

NEWCOMER, E. 2002. *Understanding Web Services*. Addison-Wesley, Boston, MA.

PEASE, M., SHOSTAK, R., AND LAMPORT, L. 1980. Reaching agreement in the presence of faults. *J. Assoc. Comput. Mach. 27*, 2 (Apr.), 228–234.

SKEEN, D. 1981. Nonblocking commit protocols. In *SIGMOD '81: Proceedings of the 1981 ACM SIGMOD International Conference on Management of Data*. ACM Press, New York, NY, 133–142.

Received August 2004; revised February 2005, August 2005; accepted September 2005