# 6.852: Distributed Algorithms Fall, 2009

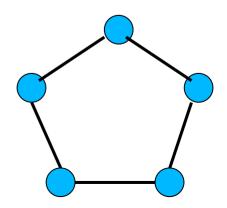
Class 16

# Today's plan

- Generalized resource allocation
- Asynchronous shared-memory systems with failures.
- Consensus in asynchronous shared-memory systems.
- Impossibility of consensus [Fischer, Lynch, Paterson]
- Reading: Chapter 11, Chapter 12
- Next: Chapter 13

### Generalized resource allocation

- Mutual exclusion: Problem of allocating a single non-sharable resource.
- Can generalize to more resources, some sharing.
- Exclusion specification E (for a given set of users):
  - Any collection of sets of users, closed under superset.
  - Expresses which users are incompatible, can't coexist in the critical section.
- Example: k-exclusion (any k users are ok, but not k+1)
  E = { E : |E| > k }
- Example: Reader-writer locks
  - Relies on classification of users as readers vs. writers.
    E = { E : |E| > 1 and E contains a writer }
- Example: Dining Philosophers [Dijkstra]
  E = { E : E includes a pair of neighbors }



### **Resource specifications**

- Some exclusion specs can be described conveniently in terms of requirements for concrete resources.
- Resource specification: Different users need different subsets of resources
  - Can't share: Users with intersecting sets exclude each other.

- Example: Dining Philosophers
  - **E** = { E : E includes a pair of neighbors }
  - Forks (resources) between adjacent philosophers; each needs both adjacent forks in order to eat.
  - Only one can hold a particular fork at a time, so adjacent philosophers must exclude each other.
- Not every exclusion problem can be expressed in this way.
  - E.g., k-exclusion cannot.

# Resource allocation problem, for a given exclusion spec E

- Same shared-memory architecture as for mutual exclusion (processes and shared variables, no buses, no caches).
- Well-formedness: As before.
- Exclusion: No reachable state in which the set of users in C is a set in E.
- Progress: As before.
- Lockout-freedom: As before.
- But these don't capture concurrency requirements.
- Any lockout-free mutual exclusion algorithm also satisfies
  E (provided that E doesn't contain any singleton sets).
- Can add concurrency conditions, e.g.:
  - Independent progress: If  $i \in T$  and every j that could conflict with i remains in R, then eventually  $i \rightarrow C$ .
  - Time bound: Obtain better bounds from  $i \rightarrow T$  to  $i \rightarrow C$ , even in the presence of conflicts, than we get for mutual exclusion.

# **Dining Philosophers**

- Dijkstra's paper posed the problem, gave a solution using strong shared-memory model.
  - Globally-shared variables, atomic access to all of shared memory.
  - Not very distributed.
- More distributed version: Assume the only shared variables are on the edges between adjacent philosophers.
  - Correspond to forks.
  - Use RMW shared variables.
- Impossibility result: If all processes are identical and refer to forks by local names "left" and "right", and all shared variables have the same initial values, then we can't guarantee DP exclusion + progress.
- **Proof:** Show we can't break symmetry:
  - Consider subset of executions that work in synchronous rounds, prove by induction on rounds that symmetry is preserved.
  - Then by progress, someone  $\rightarrow$  C.
  - So all do, violating DP exclusion.

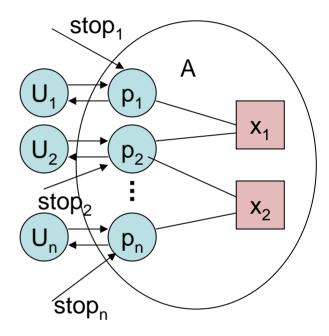
# **Dining Philosophers**

- Example: Simple symmetric algorithm where all wait for R fork first, then L fork.
  - Guarantees DP exclusion, because processes wait for both forks.
  - But progress fails---all might get R, then deadlock.
- So we need something to break symmetry.
- Solutions:
  - Number forks around the table, pick up smaller numbered fork first.
  - Right/left algorithm (Burns):
    - Classify processes as R or L (need at least one of each).
    - R processes pick up right fork first, L processes pick up left fork first.
    - Yields DP exclusion, progress, lockout freedom, independent progress, and good time bound (constant, for alternating R and L).
- Generalize to solve any resource problem
  - Nodes represent resources.
  - Edge between resources if some user needs both.
  - Color graph; order colors.
  - All processes acquire resources in order of colors.

Asynchronous shared-memory systems with failures

# Asynchronous shared-memory systems with failures

- Process stopping failures.
- Architecture as for mutual exclusion.
  - Processes + shared variables, one system automaton.
  - Users
- Add stop<sub>i</sub> inputs.
  - Effect is to disable all future non-input actions of process i.
- Fair executions:
  - Every process that doesn't fail gets infinitely many turns to perform locallycontrolled steps.
  - Just ordinary fairness---stop means that nothing further is enabled.
  - Users also get turns.



Consensus in asynchronous shared-memory systems with failures

### Consensus in Asynchronous Shared-Memory Systems

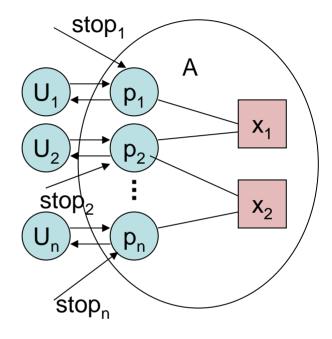
- Recall: Consensus in synchronous networks.
  - Algorithms for stopping failures:
    - FloodSet, FloodMin, Optimizations: f+1 rounds, any number of processes, low communication
  - Lower bounds: f+1 rounds
  - Algorithms for Byzantine failures
    - EIG: f+1 rounds, n > 3f, exponential communication
  - Lower bounds: f+1 rounds, n > 3f
- Asynchronous networks: Impossible
- Asynchronous shared memory:
  - Read/write variables: Impossible
  - Read-modify-write variables: Simple algorithms
- Impossibility results hold even if n is large and f is just 1.

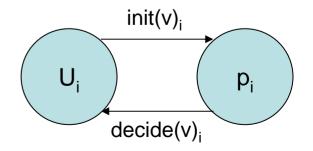
# Consequences of impossibility results

- Can't solve problems like transaction commit, agreement on choice of leader, fault diagnosis,...in the purely asynchronous model with failures.
- But these problems must be solved...
- Can strengthen the assumptions:
  - Rely on timing assumptions: Upper and lower bounds on message delivery time, on step time.
  - Probabilistic assumptions
- And/or weaken the guarantees:
  - Allow a small probability of violating safety properties, or of not terminating.
  - Conditional termination, based on stability for a "sufficiently long" interval of time.
- We'll see some of these strategies.
- But, first, the impossibility result!

## Architecture

- V, set of consensus values
- Interaction between user U<sub>i</sub> and process (agent) p<sub>i</sub>:
  - User U<sub>i</sub> submits initial value v with init(v)<sub>i</sub>.
  - Process p<sub>i</sub> returns decision v with decide(v)<sub>i</sub>.
  - I/O handled slightly differently from synchronous setting, where we assumed I and O in local variables.
  - Assume each user performs at most one init(v)<sub>i</sub> in an execution.
- Shared variable types:
  - Read/write registers (for now)





## Problem requirements 1

- Well-formedness:
  - At most one decide(\*), appears, and only if there's a previous init(\*).
- Agreement:
  - All decision values are identical.
- Validity:
  - If all init actions that occur contain the same v, then that v is the only possible decision value.
  - Stronger version: Any decision value is an initial value.
- Termination:
  - Failure-free termination (most basic requirement):
  - In any fair failure-free (ff) execution in which init events occur on all "ports", decide events occur on all ports.
- Basic problem requirements: Well-formedness, agreement, validity, failure-free termination.

#### Problem requirements 2: Fault-tolerance

- Failure-free termination:
  - In any fair failure-free (ff) execution in which init events occur on all ports, decide events occur on all ports.
- Wait-free termination (strongest condition):
  - In any fair execution in which init events occur on all ports, a decide event occurs on every port i for which no stop<sub>i</sub> occurs.
  - Similar to wait-free doorway in Lamport's Bakery algorithm: says i finishes regardless of whether the other processes stop or not.
- Also consider tolerating limited number of failures.
- Should be easier to achieve, so impossibility results are stronger.
- f-failure termination,  $0 \le f \le n$ :
  - In any fair execution in which init events occur on all ports, if there are stop events on at most f ports, then a decide event occurs on every port i for which no stop<sub>i</sub> occurs.
- Wait-free termination = n-failure termination = (n-1)-failure termination.
- 1-failure termination: The interesting special case we will consider in our proof.

# Impossibility of agreement

- Main Theorem [Fischer, Lynch, Paterson], [Loui, Abu-Amara]:
  - For  $n \ge 2$ , there is no algorithm in the read/write shared memory model that solves the agreement problem and guarantees 1-failure termination.
- Simpler Theorem [Herlihy]:
  - For  $n \ge 2$ , there is no algorithm in the read/write shared memory model that solves the agreement problem and guarantees wait-free termination.
- Let's prove the simpler theorem first.

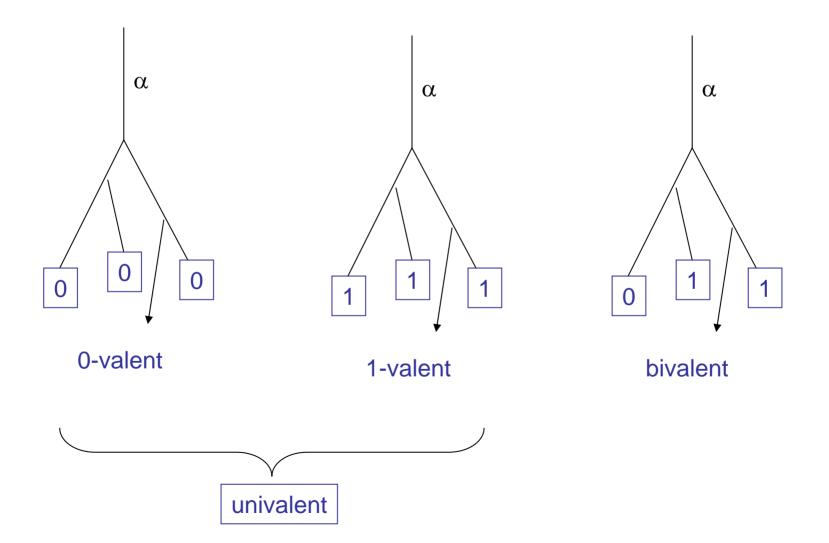
# Restrictions (WLOG)

- V = { 0, 1 }
- Algorithms are deterministic:
  - Unique start state.
  - From any state, any process has  $\leq$  1 locally-controlled action enabled.
  - From any state, for any enabled action, there is exactly one new state.
- Non-halting:
  - Every non-failed process always has some locallycontrolled action enabled, even after it decides.

# Terminology

- Initialization:
  - Sequence of n init steps, one per port, in index order:  $init(v_1)_1$ ,  $init(v_2)_2$ ,... $init(v_n)_n$
- Input-first execution:
  - Begins with an initialization.
- A finite execution  $\alpha$  is:
  - 0-valent, if 0 is the only decision value appearing in  $\alpha$  or any extension of  $\alpha$ , and 0 actually does appear in  $\alpha$  or some extension.
  - 1-valent, if 1 is the only decision value appearing in  $\alpha$  or any extension of  $\alpha$ , and 1 actually does appear in  $\alpha$  or some extension.
  - Univalent, if  $\alpha$  is 0-valent or 1-valent.
  - Bivalent, if each of 0, 1 occurs in some extension of  $\alpha$ .

#### **Univalence and Bivalence**



### **Exhaustive classification**

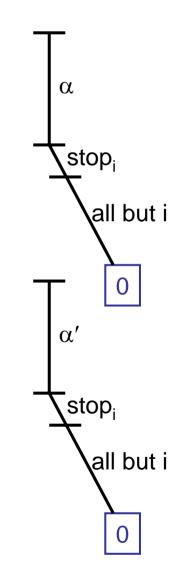
- Lemma 1:
  - If A solves agreement with ff-termination, then each finite ff execution of A is either univalent or bivalent.
- Proof:
  - Can extend to a fair execution, in which everyone is required to decide.

# **Bivalent initialization**

- From now on, fix A to be an algorithm solving agreement with (at least) 1-failure termination.
  - Could also satisfy stronger conditions, like f-failure termination, or wait-free termination.
- Lemma 2: A has a bivalent initialization.
- That is, the final decision value cannot always be determined from the inputs only.
- Contrast: In non-fault-tolerant case, final decision can be determined from the inputs only; e.g., take majority.
- Proof:
  - Same argument used (later) by [Aguilera, Toueg].
  - Suppose not. Then all initializations are univalent.
  - Define initializations  $\alpha_0$  = all 0s,  $\alpha_1$  = all 1s.
  - $\alpha_0$  is 0-valent,  $\alpha_1$  is 1-valent, by validity.

# **Bivalent initialization**

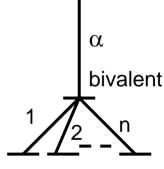
- A solves agreement with 1-failure termination.
- Lemma 2: A has a bivalent initialization.
- Proof, cont'd:
  - Construct chain of initializations, spanning from  $\alpha_0$  to  $\alpha_1$ , each differing in the initial value of just one process.
  - There must be 2 consecutive initializations, say  $\alpha$  and  $\alpha',$  where  $\alpha$  is 0-valent and  $\alpha'$  is 1-valent.
  - Differ in initial value of some process i.
  - Consider a fair execution extending  $\alpha$ , in which i fails right after  $\alpha$ .
  - All but i must eventually decide, by 1-failure termination; since  $\alpha$  is 0-valent, all must decide 0.
  - Extend  $\alpha'$  in the same way, all but i still decide 0, by indistinguishability.
  - Contradicts 1-valence of  $\alpha'$ .



- Simpler Theorem [Herlihy]:
  - For  $n \ge 2$ , there is no algorithm in the read/write shared memory model that solves the agreement problem and guarantees wait-free termination.
- Proof:
  - We already assumed A solves agreement with 1-failure termination.
  - Now assume, for contradiction, that A (also) satisfies wait-free termination.
  - Proof is based on pinpointing exactly how a decision gets determined, that is, how the execution moves from bivalence to univalence.

- Definition: A decider execution  $\alpha$  is a finite, failure-free, input-first execution such that:
  - $-\alpha$  is bivalent.
  - For every i,  $ext(\alpha,i)$  is univalent.

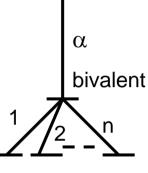




univalent

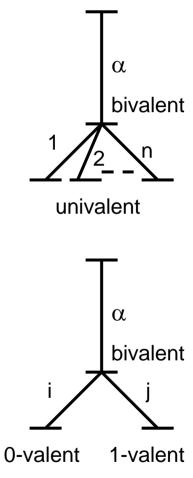
• Lemma 3: A (with wait-free termination) has a decider execution.

- Lemma 3: A (with w-f termination) has a decider.
- Proof:
  - Suppose not. Then any bivalent ff input-first execution has a 1-step bivalent ff extension.
  - Start with a bivalent initialization (Lemma 2), and produce an infinite ff execution  $\alpha$  all of whose prefixes are bivalent.
    - At each stage, start with a bivalent ff input-first execution and extend by one step to another bivalent ff execution.
    - Possible by assumption.
  - $\alpha$  must contain infinitely many steps of some process, say i.
  - Claim i must decide in  $\alpha$ :
    - Add stop events for all processes that take only finitely many steps.
    - Result is a fair execution  $\alpha'$ .
    - Wait-free termination says i must decide in  $\alpha'$ .
    - $\alpha$  is indistinguishable from  $\alpha'$ , by i, so i must decide in  $\alpha$  also.
  - Contradicts bivalence.



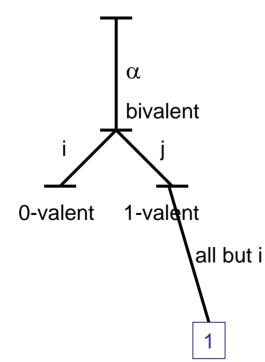
univalent

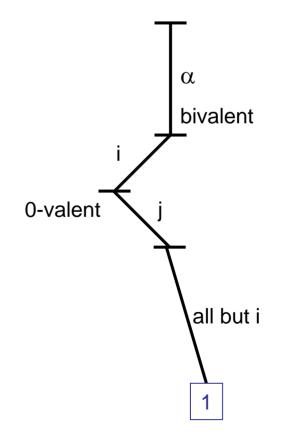
- Proof of theorem, cont'd:
  - Fix a decider,  $\alpha$ .
  - Since α is bivalent and all 1-step extensions are univalent, there must be two processes, say i and j, leading to 0-valent and 1-valent states, respectively.
  - Case analysis yields a contradiction:
    - 1. i's step is a read
    - 2. j's step is a read
    - 3. Both writes, to different variables.
    - 4. Both writes, to the same variable.



#### Case 1: i's step is a read

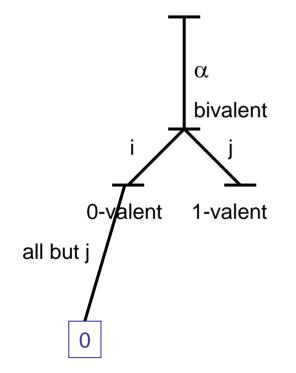
- Run all but i after  $ext(\alpha,j)$ .
- Looks like a fair execution in which i fails.
- So all others must decide; since  $ext(\alpha,j)$ , is 1-valent, they decide 1.
- Now run the same extension, starting with j's step, after ext( $\alpha$ ,i).
- They behave the same, decide 1.
  - Cannot see i's read.
- Contradicts 0-valence of ext(α,i).

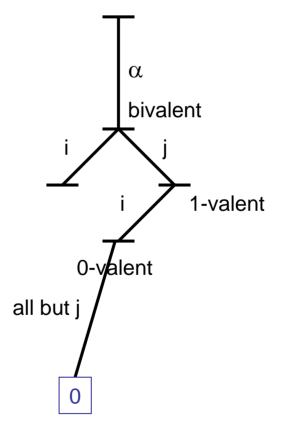




### Case 2: j's step is a read

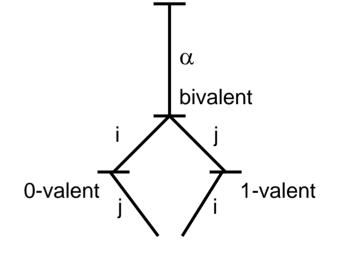
• Symmetric.





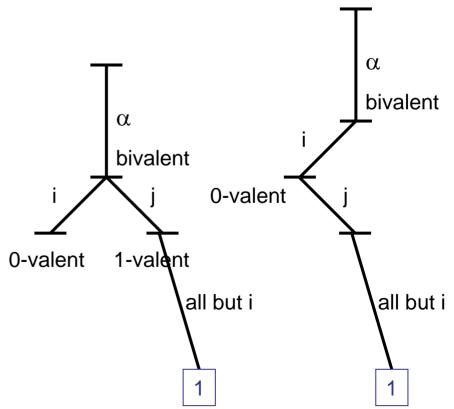
# Case 3: Writes to different shared variables

- Then the two steps are completely independent.
- They could be performed in either order, and the result should be the same.
- ext(α,ij) and ext(α,ji) are indistinguishable to all processes, and end up in the same system state.
- But ext(α,ij) is 0-valent, since it extends the 0-valent execution ext(α,i).
- And ext(α,ji) is 1-valent, since it extends the 1-valent execution ext(α,j).
- Contradictory requirements.



# Case 4: Writes to the same shared variable x.

- Run all but i after  $ext(\alpha,j)$ ; they must decide.
- Since ext(α,j), is 1-valent, they decide 1.
- Run the same extension, starting with j's step, after ext( $\alpha$ ,i).
- They behave the same, decide 1.
  - Cannot see i's write to x.
  - Because j's write overwrites it.
- Contradicts 0-valence of ext(α,i).



• So we have proved:

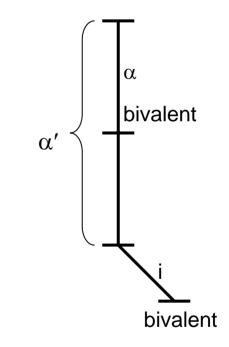
- Simpler Theorem: [Herlihy]
  - For n ≥ 2, there is no algorithm in the read/write shared memory model that solves the agreement problem and guarantees wait-free termination.

#### Impossibility for 1-failure temination

- Q: Why doesn't the previous proof yield impossibility for 1-failure termination?
- Lemma 2 (bivalent initialization) works for f = 1.
- In proof of Lemma 3 (existence of decider), wait-free termination is used to say that a process i must decide in any fair execution in which i doesn't fail.
- 1-failure termination makes a termination guarantee only when at most one process fails.
- Main Theorem:
  - For  $n \ge 2$ , there is no algorithm in the read/write shared memory model that solves the agreement problem and guarantees 1-failure termination.

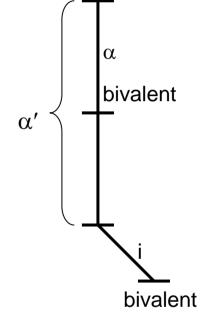
#### Impossibility for 1-failure temination

- From now on, assume A satisfies 1-failure termination, not necessarily wait-free termination (weaker requirement).
- Initialization lemma still works:
   Lemma 2: A has a bivalent initialization.
- New key lemma, replacing Lemma 3:
- Lemma 4: If α is any bivalent, ff, input-first execution of A, and i is any process, then there is some ff-extension α' of α such that ext(α',i) is bivalent.



### Lemma 4 $\Rightarrow$ Main Theorem

- Lemma 4: If α is any bivalent, ff, input-first execution of A, and i is any process, then there is some ff-extension α' of α such that ext(α',i) is bivalent.
- Proof of Main Theorem:
  - Construct a fair, ff, input-first execution in which no process ever decides, contradicting the basic ff-termination requirement.
  - Start with a bivalent initialization.
  - Then cycle through the processes round-robin: 1, 2, ..., n, 1, 2, ...
  - At each step, say for i, use Lemma 4 to extend the execution, including at least one step of i, while maintaining bivalence and avoiding failures.

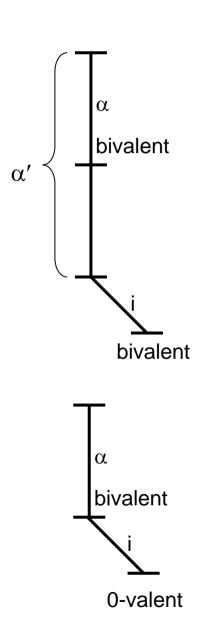


# Proof of Lemma 4

 Lemma 4: If α is any bivalent, ff, input-first execution of A, and i is any process, then there is some ff-extension α' of α such that ext(α',i) is bivalent.

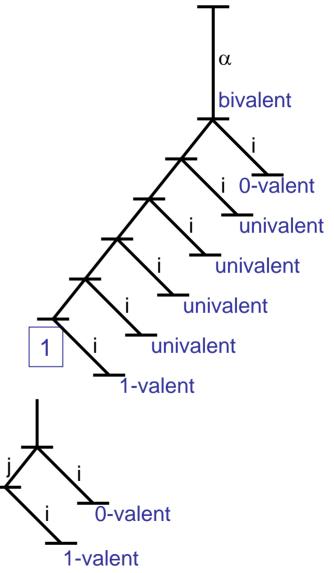
#### • Proof:

- By contradiction. Suppose there is some bivalent, ff, input-first execution α of A and some process i, such that for every ff extension α' of α, ext(α',i) is univalent.
- In particular,  $ext(\alpha,i)$  is univalent, WLOG 0-valent.
- Since  $\alpha$  is bivalent, there is some extension of  $\alpha$  in which someone decides 1, WLOG failure-free.



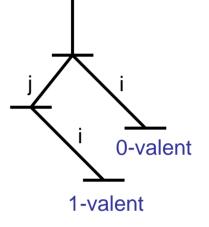
# Proof of Lemma 4

- There is some ff-extension of  $\alpha$  in which someone decides 1.
- Consider letting i take one step at each point along the "spine".
- By assumption, results are all univalent.
- 0-valent at the beginning, 1valent at the end.
- So there are two consecutive results, one 0-valent and the other 1-valent:
- A new kind of "decider".



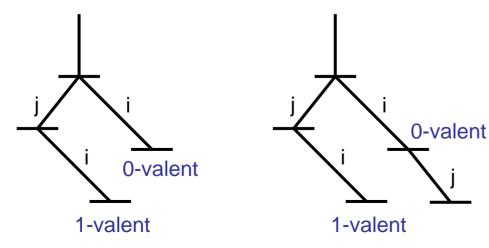
## New "Decider"

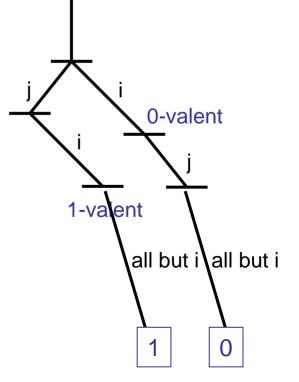
- Claim:  $j \neq i$ .
- Proof:
  - If j = i then:
    - 1 step of i yields 0-valence
    - 2 steps of i yield 1-valence
  - But process i is deterministic, so this can't happen.
    - "Child" of a 0-valent state can't be 1-valent.
- The rest of the proof is a case analysis, as before...



### Case 1: i's step is a read

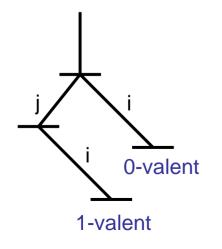
- Run j after i.
- Executions ending with ji and ij are indistinguishable to everyone but i (because this is a read step of i).
- Run all processes except i in the same order after both ji and ij.
- In each case, they must decide, by 1-failure termination.
- After ji, they decide 1.
- After ij, they decide 0.
- But indistinguishable, contradiction!

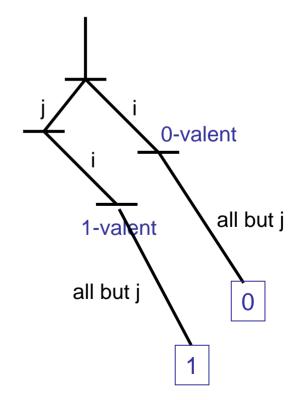




## Case 2: j's step is a read

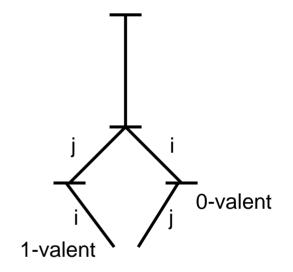
- Executions ending with ji and i are indistinguishable to everyone but j (because this is a read step of j).
- Run all processes except j in the same order after ji and i.
- In each case, they must decide, by 1-failure termination.
- After ji, they decide 1.
- After i, they decide 0.
- But indistinguishable, contradiction!





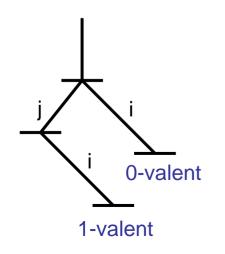
# Case 3: Writes to different shared variables

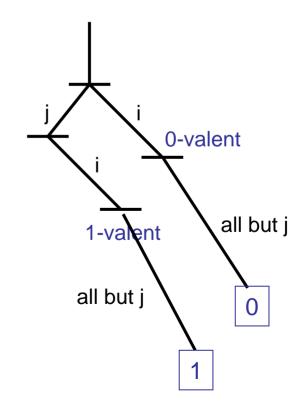
- As for the wait-free case.
- The steps of i and j are independent, could be performed in either order, indistinguishable to everyone.
- But the execution ending with ji is 1-valent, whereas the execution ending with ij is 0-valent.
- Contradiction.



# Case 4: Writes to the same shared variable x.

- As for Case 2.
- Executions ending with ji and i are indistinguishable to everyone but j (because i overwrites the write step of j).
- Run all processes except j in the same order after ji and i.
- After ji, they decide 1.
- After i, they decide 0.
- Indistinguishable, contradiction!





# Impossibility for 1-failure termination

• So we have proved:

- Main Theorem: [Fischer, Lynch, Paterson] [Loui, Abu-Amara]
  - For n ≥ 2, there is no algorithm in the read/write shared memory model that solves the agreement problem and guarantees 1-failure termination.

### Shared memory vs. networks

- Result also holds in asynchronous networks---revisit shortly.
- [Fischer, Lynch, Paterson 82, 85] proved first for networks.
- [Loui, Abu-Amara 87] extended result and proof to shared memory.

#### Significance of FLP impossibility result

- For distributed computing practice:
  - Reaching agreement is sometimes important in practice:
    - Agreeing on aircraft altimeter readings.
    - Database transaction commit.
  - FLP shows limitations on the kind of algorithm one can look for.
- For distributed computing theory:
  - Variations:
    - [Loui, Abu-Amara 87] Read/write shared memory.
    - [Herlihy 91] Stronger fault-tolerance requirement (wait-free termination); simpler proof.
  - Circumventing the impossibility result:
    - Strengthening the assumptions.
    - Weakening the requirements/guarantees.

## Strengthening the assumptions

- Using limited timing information [Dolev, Dwork, Stockmeyer 87].
  - Bounds on message delays, processor step time.
  - Makes the model more like the synchronous model.
- Using randomness [Ben-Or 83][Rabin 83].
  - Allow random choices in local transitions.
  - Weakens guarantees:
    - Small probability of a wrong decision, or
    - Small probability of not terminating, in any bounded time (Probability of not terminating approaches 0 as time approaches infinity.)

#### Weakening the requirements

- Agreement, validity must always hold.
- Termination required if system behavior "stabilizes":
  - No new failures.
  - Timing (of process steps, messages) within "normal" bounds.
- Good solutions, both theoretically and in practice.
- [Dwork, Lynch, Stockmeyer 88]: Dijkstra Prize, 2007
  - Keeps trying to choose a leader, who tries to coordinate agreement.
  - Coordination attempts can fail.
  - Once system stabilizes, unique leader is chosen, coordinates agreement.
  - Tricky part: Ensuring failed attempts don't lead to inconsistent decisions.
- [Lamport 89] Paxos algorithm.
  - Improves on [DLS] by allowing more concurrency.
  - Refined, engineered for practical use.
- [Chandra, Hadzilacos, Toueg 96] Failure detectors (FDs)
  - Services that encapsulate use of time for detecting failures.
  - Develop similar algorithms using FDs.
  - Studied properties of FDs, identified weakest FD to solve consensus.

### Extension to k-consensus

- At most k different decisions may occur overall.
- Solvable for k-1 process failures but not for k failures.
  - Algorithm for k-1 failures: [Chaudhuri 93].
  - Impossibility result:
    - [Herlihy, Shavit 93], [Borowsky, Gafni 93], [Saks, Zaharoglu 93]
    - Godel Prize, 2004.
    - Techniques from algebraic topology: Sperner's Lemma.
    - Similar to those used for lower bound on rounds for kagreement, in synchronous model.
- Open question (currently active):
  - What is the weakest failure detector to solve kconsensus with k failures?

#### Importance of read/write data type

- Consensus impossibility result doesn't hold for more powerful data types.
- Example: Read-modify-write shared memory
  - Very strong primitive.
  - In one step, can read variable, do local computation, and write back a value.
  - Easy algorithm:
    - One shared variable x, value in  $V \cup \{\bot\}$ , initially  $\bot$ .
    - Each process i accesses x once.
    - If it sees:
      - $\perp$ , then it changes the value in x to its own initial value and decides on that value.
      - Some v in V, then decides on that value.
- Read/write registers are similar to asynchronous FIFO reliable channels---we'll see the precise connection later.

#### Next time...

- Atomic objects
- Reading: Chapter 13

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