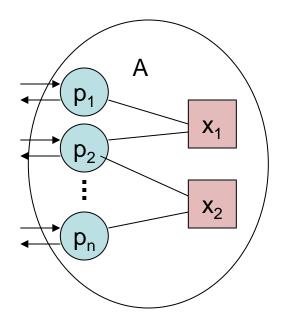
6.852: Distributed Algorithms Fall, 2015

Lecture 15

Today's plan

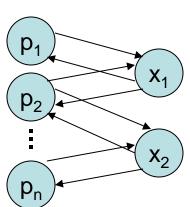
- Asynchronous shared-memory system model
- The Mutual Exclusion problem
- Dijkstra's algorithm
- Peterson's algorithms
- Lamport's Bakery algorithm
- Reading: Chapter 9, Sections 10.1-10.5, 10.7
- Next:
 - More Mutual Exclusion algorithms
 - Lower bound on the number of shared variables
 - Resource allocation
- Reading: Sections 10.6,10.8, Chapter 11 (skim)

Asynchronous Shared-Memory Systems



Asynchronous Shared-Memory Systems

- We've covered basics of non-fault-tolerant asynchronous network algorithms:
 - How to model them.
 - Basic asynchronous network protocols---broadcast, spanning trees, leader election,...
 - General methods for designing asynchronous network algorithms:
 - Synchronizers
 - Logical time
 - Global snapshots
- Now consider asynchronous shared-memory systems:
- Processes, interacting via shared objects, possibly subject to some access constraints.
- Shared objects have types, e.g.:
 - Read/write (weak)
 - Read-modify-write, compare-and-swap (strong)
 - Queues, stacks, others (in between)



Asynch Shared-Memory systems

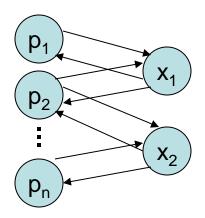
- Theory of ASM systems has much in common with theory of asynchronous networks:
 - Similar algorithms and impossibility results.
 - Even with failures.
 - Transformations from ASM model to asynch network model allow ASM algorithms to run in asynchronous networks.
 - "Distributed shared memory".
- Historically, theory for ASM began first.
- Arose long ago, in study of early operating systems, in which several processes run on a single processor, sharing memory, with possibly-arbitrary interleavings of steps.
- Currently, ASM models are used to describe multiprocessor shared-memory systems, in which several processes run on separate processors and share memory.

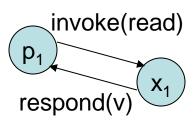
Topics

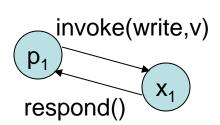
- Define the basic system model, without failures.
- Basic problems:
 - Mutual Exclusion.
 - Other resource-allocation problems (briefly).
- Then, introduce process failures into the model.
- More basic problems:
 - Distributed consensus
 - Implementing atomic objects:
 - Atomic snapshot objects
 - Atomic read/write registers
- Wait-free and fault-tolerant computability theory

Basic ASM Model, Version 1

- Processes + objects, modeled as automata.
- Arrows:
 - Represent invocations and responses for operations on the objects.
 - Modeled as input and output actions.
- Fine-granularity model, can describe:
 - Delay between invocation and response.
 - Concurrent (overlapping) operations:
 - Object could reorder operations.
 - Could allow them to run concurrently, interfering with each other.
- We'll begin with a simpler, coarser model:
 - Object runs ops in invocation order, one at a time.
 - In fact, collapse each operation into a single step.
- Return to the finer model next week.

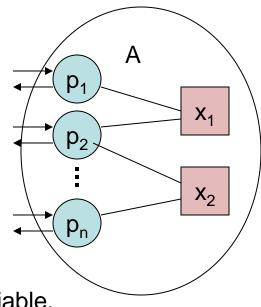






Basic ASM Model, Version 2

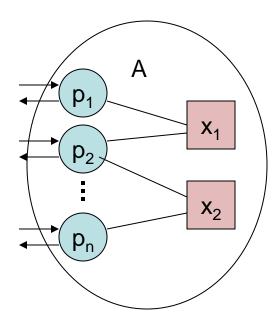
- One big shared memory system automaton A.
- External actions at process "ports".
- Each process i has:
 - A set states, of states.
 - A subset start of start states.
- Each variable x has:
 - A set values_x of values it can take on.
 - A subset initial_x of initial values.
- Automaton A:
 - States: State for each process, a value for each variable.
 - Start: Start states, initial values.
 - Actions: Each action associated with one process, and some also with a single shared variable.
 - Input/output actions: At the external boundary.
 - Transitions: Correspond to local process steps and variable accesses.
 - Action enabling, which variable is accessed, depend only on process state.
 - Changes to variable and process state depend also on variable value.
 - Must respect the type of the variable.
 - Tasks: One or more per process (threads).



Basic ASM Model

Execution of A:

- As specified by general definitions of executions, fair executions for I/O automata.
- By fairness definition, each task gets infinitely many chances to take steps.
- Model environment as a separate automaton, to express restrictions on environment behavior.



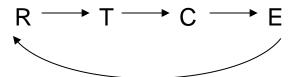
Commonly-used variable types:

- Read/write registers: Most basic object type.
 - Allows access using separate read and write operations.
- Read-modify-write: Most powerful object type:
 - Atomically, read variable, do local computation, write to variable.
- Compare-and-swap, fetch-and-add, queues, stacks, etc.
- Different computability and complexity results hold for different variable types.

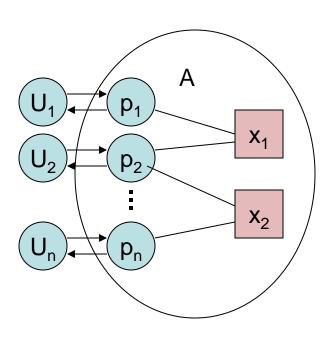
- Share one resource among n user processes, U₁, U₂,...,U_n.
 - E.g., printer, portion of a database.
- U_i has four "regions".
 - Subsets of its states, described by portions of its code.
 - C critical; R remainder; T trying; E exit

Protocols for obtaining and relinquishing the resource

Cycle:



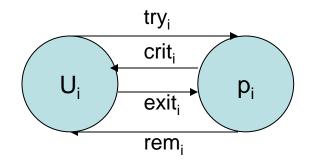
- Architecture:
 - U_is and A are IOAs, compose.

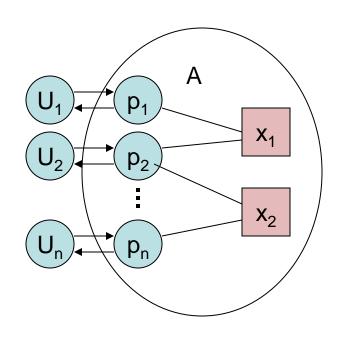


- Actions at user interface:
 - Connect U_i to P_i
 - p_i is U_i's "agent"
- Correctness conditions:
 - Well-formedness (Safety):
 - System also obeys cyclic discipline.
 - E.g., doesn't grant resource when it wasn't requested.

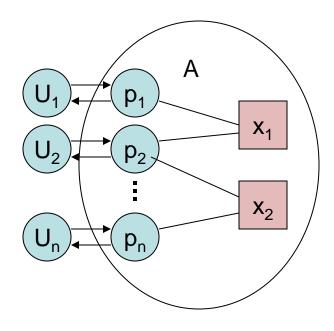


- System never grants to > 1 user simultaneously.
- Trace safety property.
- Or, there's no reachable system state in which >1 user is in C at once.
- Progress (Liveness):
 - From any point in a fair execution:
 - If some user is in T and no user is in C then at some later point, some user enters C.
 - If some user is in E then at some later point, some user enters R.



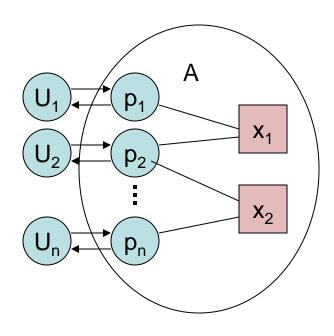


- Well-formedness (Safety):
 - System obeys cyclic discipline.
- Mutual exclusion (Safety):
 - System never grants to > 1 user.
- Progress (Liveness):
 - From any point in a fair execution:
 - If some user is in T and no user is in C then at some later point, some user enters C.
 - If some user is in E then at some later point, some user enters R.



- Conditions constrain only system automaton A, not users.
 - System determines if/when users enter C and R.
 - Users determine if/when users enter T and E.
 - We don't state any requirements on the users, except that users respect well-formedness.

- Well-formedness (Safety):
- Mutual exclusion (Safety):
- Progress (Liveness):
 - From any point in a fair execution:
 - If some user is in T and no user is in C then at some later point, some user enters C.
 - If some user is in E then at some later point, some user enters R.



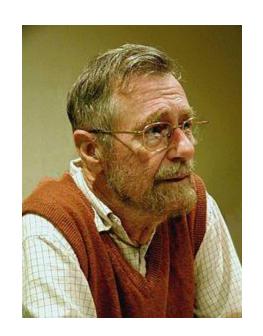
Fairness assumption:

- Progress condition requires fairness assumption (all process tasks continue to get turns to take steps).
- Needed to guarantee that some user enters C or R.
- In general, in the asynchronous model, liveness properties require fairness assumptions.
- Contrast: Well-formedness and mutual exclusion are safety properties, don't depend on fairness.

One more assumption...

- No permanently active processes.
 - Locally-controlled actions enabled only when user is in T or E.
 - No always-awake, dedicated processes.
 - Motivation:
 - Multiprocessor settings, where users can run processes when needed, but are otherwise not involved in the protocol.
 - Avoid "wasting a processor".

Dijkstra's Mutual Exclusion Algorithm [Dijkstra 65]



Mutual Exclusion algorithm

- Based on Dekker's 2-process solution.
- Pseudocode, p. 265-266
 - Written in traditional sequential style, then translated into more detailed state/transition description.
- Shared variables: Read/write registers.
 - turn, in {1,2,...,n}, multi-writer, multi-reader (mWmR), initially any
 - for each process i:
 - flag(i), in {0,1,2}, single-writer, multi-reader (1WmR), initially 0
 - Written by i, read by everyone.
- Process i's Stage 1:
 - Set flag := 1, test to see if turn = i.
 - If not, and turn's current owner is seen to be inactive, then set turn := i.
 - Otherwise go back to to testing...
 - When you see turn = i, move to Stage 2.

Dijkstra's algorithm

Stage 2:

- Set flag(i) := 2.
- Check (one at a time, any order) that no other process has flag = 2.
- If check completes successfully, go to C.
- If not, go back to the beginning of Stage 1.

Exit protocol:

- Set flag(i) := 0.
- Problem with the sequential code style:
 - Unclear what constitutes an atomic step.
 - E.g., need three separate steps to test turn, test flag(turn), and set turn.
 - Must rewrite to make this clear:
 - E.g., precondition/effect code (p. 268-269)
 - E.g., sequential-style code with explicit reads and writes, one per line.

Dijkstra's algorithm, pre/eff code

- One transition definition for each kind of atomic step.
- Explicit program counter, pc.
- Transitions:
 - set-flag-1; Sets flag to 1 and prepares to test turn.
 - test-turn_i: Tests turn, and either moves to Stage 2 or prepares to test the current owner's flag.
 - test-flag(j)_i: Tests j's flag, and either goes on to set turn or goes back to test turn again.
 - ...
 - set-flag-2_i: Sets flag to 2 and initializes set S, preparing to check all other processes' flags.
 - check(j)_i: If flag(j) = 2, go back to beginning.
 - **–** ...
- S keeps track of which processes have been successfully checked in Stage 2.

Precondition/effect code

Shared variables:

```
turn \in \{1,...,n\}, initially arbitrary for every i: flag(i) \in \{0,1,2\}, initially 0
```

Actions of process i:

```
Input: try<sub>i</sub>, exit<sub>i</sub>
```

Output: criti, remi

Internal: set-flag-1_i, test-turn_i, test-flag(j)_i, set-turn_i, set-flag-2_i, check(j)_i, reset_i

Precondition/effect code, Dijkstra process i

```
test-flag(j)i
try<sub>i</sub>:
                                           Pre: pc = test-flag(j)
Eff: pc := set-flag-1
                                           Eff: if flag(j) = 0 then pc := set-turn
                                              else pc := test-turn
set-flag-1;:
                                           set-turn;:
Pre: pc = set-flag-1
                                           Pre: pc = set-turn
Eff: flag(i) := 1
                                           Eff: turn := i
  pc := test-turn
                                              pc := set-flag-2
test-turn;:
                                           set-flag-2;:
Pre: pc = test-turn
                                           Pre: pc = set-flag-2
Eff: if turn = i then pc := set-flag-2
                                           Eff: flag(i) := 2
  else pc := test-flag(turn)
                                              S := \{i\}
                                              pc := check
```

More code, Dijkstra process i

```
check(j)<sub>i</sub>:
Pre: pc = check
     j ∉ S
Eff: if flag(j) = 2 then
    S := \emptyset
    pc := set-flag-1
 else
    S := S \cup \{j\}
    if |S| = n then pc := leave-try
crit<sub>i</sub>:
Pre: pc = leave-try
Eff: pc := crit
```

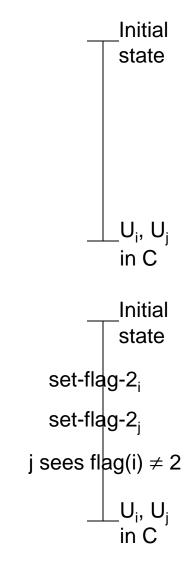
```
exit<sub>i</sub>
Eff: pc := reset
reset;:
Pre: pc = reset
Eff: flag(i) := 0
  S := \emptyset
  pc := leave-exit
rem<sub>i</sub>:
Pre: pc = leave-exit
Eff: pc := rem
```

Note on code style

- Explicit pc makes atomicity clear, but may look awkward.
- pc is often needed in invariants.
- Alternative idea:
 - Use sequential style, with explicit reads or writes (or other operations), one per line.
 - Need line numbers:
 - Play same role as pc.
 - Used in invariants: "If process i is at line 7 then..."

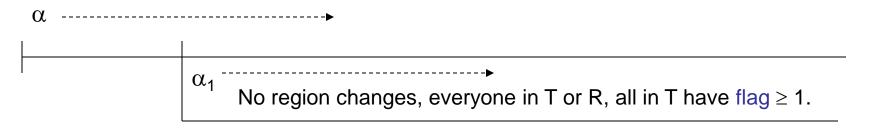
Correctness

- Well-formedness: Obvious.
- Mutual exclusion:
 - Argue using event order in executions, instead of invariants as usual.
 - By contradiction: Assume U_i, U_j find themselves in C at the same time.
 - Both must set-flag-2 before entering C; consider the last time they do this.
 - WLOG, suppose set-flag-2; comes first.
 - Then flag(i) = 2 from that point onward (until the assumed point when they are both in C).
 - However, j must see flag(i) ≠ 2, in order to enter C.
 - Impossible.

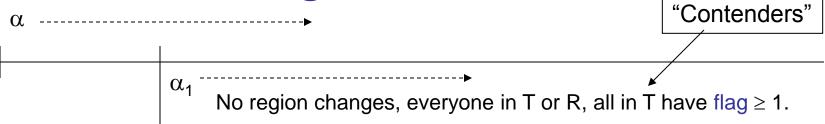


Progress

- Interesting case: Trying region.
- Proof by contradiction:
 - Suppose α is a fair execution, reaches a point where some process is in T, no process is in C, and thereafter, no process ever enters C.
 - Now start removing complications...
 - Eventually, all region changes stop and all in T keep their flags ≥ 1.
 - Then it must be that everyone is in T and R, and all in T have flag ≥ 1.



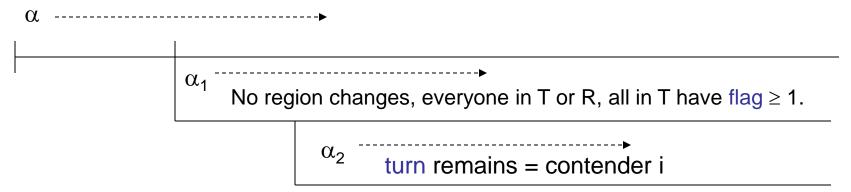
Progress, cont'd



- Then whenever turn is reset in α₁, it must be set to a contender's index.
- Claim: In α₁, turn eventually acquires a contender's index.
- Proof:
 - Suppose not---it stays non-contender forever.
 - Consider any contender i.
 - If it ever reaches test-turn, then it will set turn := i, since it sees a non-contending process, yielding a contradiction.
 - Why must process i reach test-turn?
 - Either that, or it succeeds in reaching C.
 - But we have assumed no one reaches C.

Progress, cont'd

- In α_1 , once turn = contender's index, it is thereafter always = some contender's index.
 - Because contenders are the only processes that can change turn.
- May change several times.
- Eventually, turn stops changing (because tests come out negative), stabilizes to some contender index, say i.



- Thereafter, all contenders $j \neq i$ wind up looping in Stage 1.
 - If j reaches Stage 2, it returns to Stage 1, since it doesn't go to C.
 - But then j's tests always fail, so j stays in Stage 1.
- But then nothing stops process i from entering C.

Mutual exclusion, Proof 2

- Use invariants.
- Must show they hold after any number of steps.
- Main goal invariant: | {i : pc_i = crit } | ≤ 1.
- To prove by induction, need more:
 - 1. If $pc_i = crit$ (or leave-try or reset) then $|S_i| = n$.
 - 2. There do not exist i, j, i \neq j, with i in S_i and j in S_i .
- 1 and 2 easily imply mutual exclusion.
- Proof of 1: Easy induction
- Proof of 2:
 - Needs some easy auxiliary invariants saying what S-values go with what flag values and what pc values.
 - Key step: When j gets added to S_i, by check(j)_i event.
 - Then must have flag(j) ≠ 2.
 - But then S_j = Ø (by auxiliary invariant), so i ∉ S_j, can't break invariant.

Running Time

- Upper bound on time from when some process is in T until some process is in C.
- Assume upper bound of I on successive turns for each process task (here, all steps of each process are in one task).
- Time upper bound for [Dijkstra]: O(I n).
- Proof: LTTR (see p. 275)

Mutual Exclusion Algorithms with Fairness Guarantees [Peterson]

Adding fairness guarantees

- Dijkstra's algorithm does not guarantee fairness in granting the resource to different users.
- This might not be important in practice, if contention is rare.
- Other theoretical algorithms add fairness guarantees.
- [Peterson]: a suite of algorithms guaranteeing lockoutfreedom.
- Lockout-freedom: In any (low-level) fair execution:
 - If all users always return the resource then any user that enters T eventually enters C.
 - Any user that enters E eventually enters R.

Peterson 2-process algorithm

- Shared variables:
 - turn, in {0,1}, 2W2R read/write register, initially arbitrary.
 - for each process i in {0,1}:
 - flag(i), in {0,1}, 1W1R register, initially 0
 - Written by i, read by 1-i.
- Process i's trying protocol:
 - Sets flag(i) := 1, sets turn := i.
 - Waits for either flag(1-i) = 0 or turn \neq i.

Other process not active. Other process has the turn variable.

- Toggles between the two tests.
- Exit protocol:
 - Sets flag(i) := 0

Precondition/effect code

Shared variables:

```
turn \in \{0,1\}, initially arbitrary for every i \in \{0,1\}: flag(i) \in \{0,1\}, initially 0
```

Actions of process i:

Input: try, exit,

Output: criti, remi

Internal: set-flag_i, set-turn_i, check-flag_i, check-turn_i, reset_i

Precondition/effect code, Peterson 2P, process i

tryi

Eff: pc := set-flag

set-flag_i

Pre: pc = set-flag

Eff: flag(i) := 1

pc := set-turn

set-turn_i

Pre: pc = set-turn

Eff: turn := i

pc := check-flag

check-flagi

Pre: pc = check-flag

Eff: if flag(1-i) = 0 then pc := leave-try

else pc := check-turn

check-turn_i

Pre: pc = check-turn

Eff: if turn \neq i then pc := leave-try

else pc := check-flag

More code, Peterson 2P, process i

crit_i

Pre: pc = leave-try

Eff: pc := crit

exit_i

Eff: pc := reset

reset_i

Pre: pc = reset

Eff: flag(i) := 0

pc := leave-exit

rem_i

Pre: pc = leave-exit

Eff: pc := rem

Correctness: Mutual exclusion

Key invariant:

If pc_i ∈ {leave-try, crit, reset} (essentially in C), and pc_{1-i} ∈ {check-flag, check-turn, leave-try, crit, reset} (engaged in the competition or has won the competition), then turn ≠ i.

That is:

- If i has won and 1-i is currently competing then turn is set favorably for i---which means it is set to 1-i.
- Implies mutual exclusion: If both are in C then turn must be set both ways, contradiction.
- Proof of invariant: All cases of inductive step are easy.
 - E.g.: a successful check-turn_i, causing i to advance to leave-try.
 - This explicitly checks that turn \neq i, as needed.

Correctness: Progress

- By contradiction:
 - Suppose someone is in T, and no one is ever thereafter in C.
 - Then the execution eventually stabilizes so no new region changes occur.
 - After stabilization:
 - If exactly one process is in T, then it sees the other's flag = 0 and enters C.
 - If both processes are in T, then turn is set favorably to one of them, and it enters C.

Correctness: Lockout-freedom

- Argue that neither process can enter C three times while the other stays in T, after setting its flag := 1.
- Bounded bypass.
- Proof: By contradiction.
 - Suppose process i is in T and has set flag := 1, and subsequently process (1-i) enters C three times.
 - In each of the second and third times through T, process (1-i) sets
 turn := 1-i but later sees turn = i.
 - That means process i must set turn := i at least twice during that time.
 - But process i sets turn := i only once during its one execution of T.
 - Contradiction.
- Bounded bypass + progress imply lockout-freedom.

Time complexity

- Time from when any particular process i enters T until it enters C: c + O(I), where:
 - c is an upper bound on the time any user remains in the critical section, and
 - I is an upper bound on local process step time.
- Detailed proof: See book, p. 283.
- Rough idea:
 - Either process i either enters immediately, or has to wait for (1-i).
 - But in that case, it only has to wait for one criticalsection time, since if (1-i) reenters, it will set turn favorably for i.

Peterson n-process algorithms

- Extend 2-process algorithm for lockout-free mutual exclusion to an n-process algorithm, in two ways:
 - Using linear sequence of competitions, or
 - Using binary tree of competitions.

Sequence of competitions

- Competitions 1,2,...,n-1.
- Competition k has one loser, up to n-k winners.
- Thus, only one can win in competition n-1, implying mutual exclusion.
- Shared vars:
 - For each competition k in {1,2,...,n-1}:
 - turn(k) in {1,2,...n}, mWmR register, written and read by all, initially arbitrary.
 - For i in $\{1,2,...n\}$:
 - flag(i) in {0,1,2,...,n-1}, 1WmR register, written by i and read by all, initially 0.
- Process i trying protocol:
 - For each level k:
 - Set flag(i) := k, indicating that i is competing at level k.
 - Set turn(k) := i.
 - Wait for either turn(k) ≠ i, or everyone else's flag < k (check flags one at a time).
- Exit protocol:
 - Set flag(i) := 0

- Definition: Process i is a winner at level k if either:
 - level_i > k, or
 - $|evel_i| = k = n-1$ and $pc_i \in \{|eave-try|, crit, reset\}$.
- Definition: Process i is a competitor at level k if either:
 - Process i is a winner at level k, or
 - $|evel_i| = k$ and $pc_i \in \{check-flag, check-turn\}$.
- Invariant 1: If process i is a winner at level k, and process j ≠ i is a competitor at level k, then turn(k) ≠ i.
- Proof: By induction, similar to 2-process case.
 - Complication: More steps to consider.
 - Now have many flags, checked in many steps.
 - Need auxiliary invariants saying something about what is true in the middle of checking a set of flags.

- Invariant 2: For any k, 1 ≤ k ≤ n-1, there are at most n-k winners at level k.
- Proof: By induction, on level number, for a particular reachable state (not induction on number of steps).
 - Basis: k = 1:
 - Suppose false, for contradiction.
 - Then all n processes are winners at level 1.
 - Then Invariant 1 implies that turn(1) is unequal to all indices, contradiction.
 - Inductive step: Assume for k, $1 \le k \le n-2$, show for k+1.

• ...

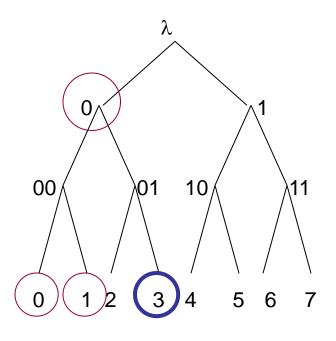
- Invariant 2: For any k, 1 ≤ k ≤ n-1, there are at most n k winners at level k.
- Inductive step: Assume for k, $1 \le k \le n-2$, show for k+1.
 - Suppose false, for contradiction.
 - Then more than n (k + 1) processes, that is, at least n k processes, are winners at level k + 1: $| Win_{k+1} | ≥ n k$.
 - Every level k+1 winner is also a level k winner: $Win_{k+1} \subseteq Win_k$.
 - By inductive hypothesis, $| Win_k | \le n-k$.
 - So $Win_{k+1} = Win_k$, and $|Win_{k+1}| = |Win_k| = n k$.
 - Q: What is the value of turn(k+1)?
 - Can't be the index of any process in Win_{k+1}, by Invariant 1.
 - Must be the index of some competitor at level k+1 (Invariant, LTTR).
 - But every competitor at level k+1 is a winner at level k, so is in Wink.
 - Contradiction, since Win_{k+1} = Win_k.

Progress, Lockout-freedom

- Lockout-freedom proof idea:
 - Let k be the highest level at which some process, say i, gets stuck.
 - Then turn(k) must remain = i.
 - That means no one else ever reenters the competition at level k.
 - Eventually, winners from level k will finish, since k is the highest level at which anyone gets stuck.
 - Then all other flags will be < k, so i advances.
- Alternatively, prove lockout-freedom by showing a time bound for each process, from →T until →C. (See book)
 - Define T(0) = maximum time from when a process \rightarrow T until \rightarrow C.
 - Define T(k), $1 \le k \le n-1 = max$ time from when a process wins at level k until →C.
 - $T(n-1) \leq I$.
 - $T(k) \le 2 T(k+1) + c + (3n+2) I$, by detailed analysis.
 - Solve recurrences, get exponential bound, good enough for showing lockout-freedom.

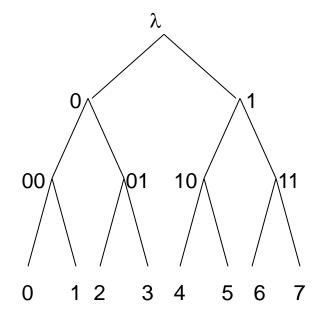
Peterson Tournament Algorithm

- Assume $n = 2^h$.
- Processes = leaves of binary tree of height h.
- Competitions = internal nodes, labeled by binary strings.
- Each process engages in log n competitions, following path up to root.
- Each process i has:
 - A unique competition x at each level k.
 - A unique role in x (0 = left, 1 = right).
 - A set of potential opponents in x.



Peterson Tournament Algorithm

- Shared variables:
 - For each process i, flag(i) in {0,...,h}, indicating level, initially 0
 - For each competition x, turn(x), a Boolean, initially arbitrary.
- Process i's trying protocol: For each level k:
 - Set flag(i) := k.
 - Set turn(x) := b, where:
 - x is i's level k competition,
 - b is i's "role", 0 or 1
 - Wait for either:
 - turn(x) = opposite role, or
 - all flags of potential opponents in x are < k.
- Exit protocol:
 - Set flag(i) := 0.



Correctness

Mutual exclusion:

- Similar to before.
- Key invariant: At most one process from any particular subtree rooted at level k is currently a winner at level k.
- Time bound (from \rightarrow T until \rightarrow C): (n-1) c + O(n² I)
 - Implies progress, lockout-freedom.
 - Define: $T(0) = \max \text{ time from } \rightarrow T \text{ until } \rightarrow C$.
 - T(k), 1 ≤ k ≤ log n = max time from winning at level k until \rightarrow C.
 - T(log n) ≤ I.
 - $T(k) \le 2 T(k+1) + c + (2^{k+1} + 2^k + 7) I$ (see book).
 - Roughly: Might need to wait for a competitor to reach C, then finish C, then for yourself to reach C.
 - Solve recurrences.

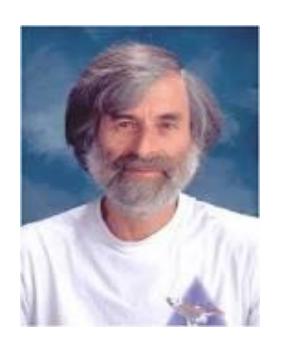
Bounded Bypass?

 Peterson's Tournament algorithm has a low time bound from →T until →C:

$$(n - 1) c + O(n^2 I)$$

- Implies lockout-freedom, progress.
- Q: Does it satisfy bounded bypass?
- No! There's no upper bound on the number of times one process could bypass another in the trying region. E.g.:
 - Process 0 enters, starts competing at level 1, then pauses.
 - Process 7 enters, quickly works its way to the top, enters C, leaves C.
 - Process 7 enters again...repeats any number of times.
 - All while process 0 is paused.
- No contradiction between small time bound and unbounded bypass.
 - Because of the way we're modeling timing of asynchronous executions, using upper bound assumptions.
 - When processes go at very different speeds, we say that the slow processes are going at normal speed, faster processes are going very fast.

Lamport's Bakery Algorithm





Lamport's Bakery Algorithm

- Like taking tickets for service in a bakery.
- Nice features:
 - Uses only single-writer, multi-reader registers.
 - Extends to even weaker ("safe") registers, in which operations have durations, and a read that overlaps a write receives an arbitrary response.
 - Guarantees lockout-freedom, in fact, almost-FIFO behavior.

But:

- Registers are of unbounded size.
 - Algorithm can be simulated using bounded registers, but not easily (uses "Bounded Concurrent Timestamps").
- Shared variables:
 - For each process i:
 - choosing(i), a Boolean, written by i, read by all, initially 0
 - number(i), a natural number, written by i, read by all, initially 0

Bakery Algorithm

- First part, up to choosing(i) := 0 (the "Doorway", D):
 - Process i chooses a number > all the numbers it reads for the other processes; writes this in number(i).
 - While doing this, keeps choosing(i) = 1.
 - Two processes could choose the same number (unlike in a real bakery).
 - Break ties with process ids.

Second part:

- Wait to see that no others are choosing, and no one else has a smaller number.
- That is, wait to see that your ticket is the smallest.
- Never go back to the beginning of this part---just proceed step by step, waiting when necessary.

Code

Shared variables: for every i $\in \{1, \dots, n\}$:

```
for every i \in \{1,...,n\}:

choosing(i) \in \{0,1\}, initially 0, writable by i, readable by all j \neq i

number(i), a natural number, initially 0, writable by i, readable by j \neq i.
```

```
try<sub>i</sub>
choosing(i) := 1
number(i) := 1 + max_{i \neq i} number(j)
choosing(i) := 0
for j \neq i do
    waitfor choosing(j) = 0
    waitfor number(j) = 0 or (number(i), i) < (number(j), j)
crit<sub>i</sub>
exit<sub>i</sub>
number(i) := 0
rem<sub>i</sub>
```

Key invariant: If process i is in C, and process j ≠ i is in (T – D) ∪ C,

Trying region after doorway, or critical region

then (number(i),i) < (number(j),j).

- Proof:
 - Could prove by induction.
 - Instead, give argument based on events in executions.

- Invariant: If i is in C, and j ≠ i is in (T D) ∪ C, then (number(i),i) < (number(j),j).
- Proof:
 - Consider a point where i is in C and j \neq i is in (T D) \cup C.
 - Then before i entered C, it must have read choosing(j) = 0, event π .

```
\pi: i reads choosing(j) = 0 i in C, j in (T – D) \cup C
```

- Case 1: j sets choosing(j) := 1 (starts choosing) after π .
 - Then number(i) is set before j starts choosing.
 - So j sees the "correct" number(i) and chooses something bigger.
 - That suffices.
- Case 2: j sets choosing(j) := 0 (finishes choosing) before π .
 - Then when i reads number(j) in its second waitfor loop, it gets the "correct" number(j).
 - Since i decides to enter C, it must see (number(i),i) < (number(j),j).

- Invariant: If i is in C, and j ≠ i is in (T D) ∪ C, then (number(i),i) < (number(j),j).
- Proof of mutual exclusion:
 - Apply invariant both ways.
 - Contradictory requirements.

Liveness Conditions

Progress:

- By contradiction.
- If not, eventually region changes stop, leaving everyone in T or R, and at least one process in T.
- Everyone in T eventually finishes choosing.
- Then nothing blocks the smallest (number, index) process from entering C.

Lockout-freedom:

- Consider any i that enters T.
- Suppose for contradiction that i never reaches C.
- Eventually it finishes the doorway.
- Thereafter, any newly-entering process picks a bigger number.
- Progress implies that some processes continue to enter C, as long as i is still in T.
- In fact, this must happen infinitely many times!
- But those with bigger numbers can't get past i, contradiction.

FIFO Condition

- Not really FIFO (\rightarrow T vs. \rightarrow C), but almost:
 - FIFO after the doorway: if j leaves D before i →T, then j →C before i →C.
- But the "doorway" is an artifact of this algorithm, so this isn't a meaningful way to evaluate the algorithm!
- Maybe say "there exists a doorway such that"...
- But then we could take D to be the entire trying region, making the property trivial.
- To make the property nontrivial:
 - Require D to be "wait-free": a process is guaranteed to complete D it if it keeps taking steps, regardless of what other processes do.
 - D in the Bakery Algorithm is wait-free.
- The algorithm is FIFO after a wait-free doorway.

Impact of Bakery Algorithm

- Originated some important ideas:
 - Wait-freedom
 - Fundamental notion for theory of fault-tolerant asynchronous distributed algorithms.
 - Weakly coherent memories
 - Beginning of formal study: definitions, and some algorithmic strategies for coping with them.



Next time...

- More Mutual Exclusion algorithms:
 - Burns' algorithm
- Number of registers needed for mutual exclusion.
- Reading:
 - Sections 10.6,10.8
- Generalized resource allocation and exclusion problems
- Reading:
 - Chapter 11