Fault-tolerant Wait-free Shared Objects*†

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Abstract

Wait-free implementations of shared objects tolerate the failure of processes, but not the failure of base objects from which they are implemented. We consider the problem of implementing shared objects that tolerate the failure of both processes and base objects.

We identify two classes of object failures: responsive and non-responsive. With responsive failures, a faulty object responds to every operation, but its responses may be incorrect. With non-responsive failures, a faulty object may also "hang" without responding. In each class, we define crash, omission, and arbitrary modes of failure.

We show that all responsive failure modes can be tolerated. More precisely, for all responsive failure modes \mathcal{F} , object types T, and $t \geq 0$, we show how to implement a shared object of type T which is t-tolerant for \mathcal{F} . Such an object remains correct and wait-free even if up to t base objects fail according to \mathcal{F} . In contrast to responsive failures, we show that even the most benign non-responsive failure mode cannot be tolerated. We also show that randomization can be used to circumvent this impossibility result.

Graceful degradation is a desirable property of fault-tolerant implementations: the implemented object never fails more severely than the base objects it is derived from, even if all the base objects fail. For several failure modes, we show whether this property can be achieved, and, if so, how.

1 Introduction

1.1 Problem addressed

We consider concurrent systems in which asynchronous processes communicate via typed linearizable shared objects. In such systems, complex (shared) objects, such as queues and stacks, are implemented in software from simple objects, such as registers and test&sets,

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which are often supported in hardware. Traditional implementations (for example, [CHP71]) use lock-based techniques and are consequently not fault-tolerant: if any process crashes while holding the lock, the other processes are effectively prevented from accessing the implemented object. Wait-free implementations, which have been the focus of much recent research, were introduced to overcome this drawback [Lam77]. An implementation is wait-free if every access by a non-faulty process is guaranteed a response, regardless of whether the other processes are slow, fast, or have crashed.

Wait-free implementations of shared objects tolerate the failure of processes, but not the failure of base objects from which they are implemented. We consider the problem of implementing shared objects that tolerate the failure of both processes and base objects.

We divide object failures into two broad classes: responsive and non-responsive. With responsive failures, a faulty object responds to every operation, but its responses may be incorrect. With non-responsive failures, a faulty object may also "hang" without responding.

We divide the responsive class into three failure modes: crash, omission, and arbitrary. An object that fails by crash behaves correctly until it fails and, once it fails, it returns a distinguished response \bot to every operation. Clearly, crash is the most benign failure mode. The most severe responsive failure mode is the arbitrary mode. Objects experiencing arbitrary failures may "lie", *i.e.*, they may return arbitrary responses. In terms of severity, omission falls between crash and arbitrary. When an object fails by omission, it returns normal responses to some operations and \bot to others, and satisfies the following property: the object would seem non-faulty if every operation that obtained the response \bot were treated like an incomplete operation that never obtained a response. Our study of omission failures is motivated by the fact that implementations tolerating such failures can be composed, but implementations tolerating the simpler crash failures cannot be.

Similarly, we divide the non-responsive class into NR-crash, NR-omission, and NR-arbitrary failure modes. An object that fails by NR-crash behaves correctly until it fails and, once it fails, it stops responding. An object that fails by NR-omission may fail to respond to the operations of an arbitrary subset of processes, but continue to respond to the operations of the remaining processes (forever). The behavior of an object that fails by NR-arbitrary is completely unrestricted: it may not respond to an operation and, even if it does, the response may be arbitrary.

An implementation \mathcal{I} is t-tolerant for failure mode \mathcal{F} if the implemented object remains wait-free and correct even if at most t base objects fail by \mathcal{F} . (We use the term derived object for the implemented object and the term base objects for the objects used in the implementation.) The resource complexity of \mathcal{I} is the number of base objects used in \mathcal{I} . \mathcal{I} is a self-implementation if all base objects are of the same type as the derived object.

Consider a t-tolerant implementation for failure mode \mathcal{F} . By definition, a derived object of this implementation is guaranteed to behave correctly even if up to t base objects fail by \mathcal{F} . But what happens if more than t base objects fail by \mathcal{F} ? In general, the derived object may experience a more severe failure than \mathcal{F} . In other words, implementations may "amplify" failures: derived objects may fail more severely than base objects. This

undesirable behavior is prevented by implementations that are "gracefully degrading". An implementation is gracefully degrading for failure mode \mathcal{F} if it has the following property: if base objects only fail by \mathcal{F} , then the derived object does not fail more "severely" than \mathcal{F} . Thus, if \mathcal{F} is guaranteed to be the most severe failure mode that hardware objects may experience, the graceful degradation property of an implementation makes it possible to extend the same guarantee to software objects.

We study the problem of designing t-tolerant and/or gracefully degrading implementations for the various responsive and non-responsive failure modes. An independent work by Afek, Greenberg, Merritt, and Taubenfeld [AGMT92] has the same general goal, but differs in many respects. We present a comparison of the two works in Section 8.

1.2 Summary of results

The three main topics studied are: tolerating responsive failures, tolerating non-responsive failures, and achieving graceful degradation. The following are the main conclusions: (1) it is feasible to design deterministic implementations that tolerate even the most severe of the responsive failures, viz., arbitrary failures, (2) Implementations cannot tolerate even the simplest of non-responsive failures, viz., crash failures, without the use of randomization, and (3) Of the two benign failure modes, viz., crash and omission, it is feasible to design gracefully degrading implementations for omission, but not for crash. Accordingly, we give three fault-tolerant universal constructions — a deterministic one for arbitrary failures, a randomized one for non-responsive arbitrary failures, and a deterministic one for omission failures that also guarantees graceful degradation.

In the following, we say type T has an implementation from a set S of types if it is possible to wait-free implement an object of type T from objects whose types are in S. (We use the type-writer font for the names of types.)

Herlihy and Plotkin showed that every type has an implementation from {consensus, register} [Her88, Her91b, Plo89]. Hence, if the types consensus and register have t-tolerant implementations, then every type has a t-tolerant implementation. We therefore focus on obtaining t-tolerant implementations of consensus and register.

1.2.1 Tolerating responsive failures

We give t-tolerant self-implementations of consensus for crash, omission, and arbitrary failures. For crash and omission failures, our self-implementation is optimal requiring only t+1 base consensus objects. For arbitrary failures, our self-implementation is efficient requiring $O(t \log t)$ base consensus objects. We also give t-tolerant self-implementations of register for crash, omission, and arbitrary failures. Combining the above results

¹ The type consensus supports two operations, propose 0 and propose 1, and has the following sequential specification: if propose v is the first operation, then every operation gets the response v. The register supports read and write operations with the standard specification that a read returns the most recently written value.

with the universality results in [Her91b, Plo89], we conclude that every type T has a t-tolerant implementation (from {consensus, register}) for all responsive failure modes. Moreover, if T implements both consensus and register, then T has a t-tolerant self-implementation. This implies that familiar types such as (2-process) fetch&add, queue, stack, test&set, and (N-process) compare&swap, move, memory-to-memory swap have t-tolerant self-implementations even for arbitrary failures.

1.2.2 Tolerating non-responsive failures

An object that fails non-responsively may not respond to operations. Thus, if a process invokes an operation on an object and waits for the response before proceeding further, then a non-responsive failure of the object can result in the process waiting for the response forever! To overcome this difficulty, we allow a process to have pending operations on more than one object. In other words, we allow a process to invoke an operation on some object O_1 and, without waiting for a response from O_1 , to proceed to invoke an operation on a different object O_2 . Thus, it is conceivable that t non-responsive failures can be tolerated by invoking n operations in parallel and waiting for n-t responses. Unfortunately, this is not the case. We show that there is no 1-tolerant implementation of consensus even for NR-crash failures, the most benign of the non-responsive failure modes.² This immediately implies that any type T that implements consensus, such as fetch&add, queue, stack, test&set, compare&swap, move, sticky-bit, and memory-to-memory swap, has no 1-tolerant implementation for NR-crash.

We ask whether randomization can be used to circumvent these impossibility results. The answer is yes. Specifically, we show that register has a t-tolerant (deterministic) self-implementation even for NR-arbitrary failures. Furthermore, randomized implementations of consensus from register are well-known (for example, see [Asp90]). These two results, together with the universality results in [Her91b, Plo89], imply that every type has a randomized t-tolerant implementation from register even for NR-arbitrary failures.

1.2.3 Achieving graceful degradation

If an implementation is gracefully degrading for failure mode \mathcal{F} , the derived object never fails more severely than \mathcal{F} provided that base objects fail only by \mathcal{F} (this property holds even if all base objects fail). Graceful degradation is clearly desirable. In fact, it also provides a method for automatically boosting the fault-tolerance of an implementation: We show that, given a 1-tolerant gracefully degrading self-implementation of any type T for any failure mode \mathcal{F} , one can construct a t-tolerant gracefully degrading self-implementation of T for \mathcal{F} .

Requiring graceful degradation may increase the cost of an implementation. For instance, consider t-tolerant implementations of consensus for omission failures. We present

² The impossibility of implementing a fault-tolerant consensus *object* from any finite set of base *objects*, one of which may fail by NR-crash, is shown using the impossibility of solving the consensus *problem* among a finite number of *processes*, one of which may crash [FLP85, LAA87, DDS87].

two such implementations. One uses only t+1 base objects, but is not gracefully degrading. The other is gracefully degrading, but requires 2t+1 base objects. In fact, we show that for all non-trivial deterministic types T, any t-tolerant gracefully degrading implementation of T for omission failures requires at least 2t+1 base objects (no matter what the types of the base objects are).

The main question, however, is whether graceful degradation can be achieved at all. We answer this question for the crash and omission failure modes. We show that there is a large class of types that have no gracefully degrading implementations for crash. This class includes many common types, such as queue, stack, test&set, and compare&swap. Intuitively, crash is so benign that it is impossible to ensure that the implemented object does not fail more severely than crash even when base objects fail only by crash. In contrast, we prove the following universality result for omission failures: Every type has a t-tolerant gracefully degrading implementation from {consensus, register} for omission.

1.2.4 Miscellaneous results

We also study the problem of translating severe failures into more benign failures [NT90]. In particular, given 3t+1 (base) consensus objects, at most t of which may experience arbitrary failures, we show how to implement a consensus object that can only fail by omission. We prove that this translation from arbitrary to omission is resource optimal.

Finally, we show that NR-arbitrary failures can be viewed as having two orthogonal components: NR-omission and arbitrary. Specifically, for any type T, given any t-tolerant self-implementations \mathcal{I}' and \mathcal{I}'' of T for NR-omission failures and arbitrary failures, respectively, we show how to construct a t-tolerant self-implementation of T for NR-arbitrary failures. This decomposition simplifies the problem of tolerating NR-arbitrary failures.

1.3 Organization

In Section 2, we describe the model. In Section 3, we define the responsive and non-responsive classes of failures, and the failure modes within each class. We define the concepts of t-tolerant implementation and graceful degradation in Section 4. The three main topics — tolerating responsive failures, tolerating non-responsive failures, and the feasibility of graceful degradation for crash and omission failure modes — are studied in Sections 5, 6, and 7, respectively. In Section 8, we present a comparison with the results in [AGMT92]. In Appendix A, we show how to translate arbitrary failures to omission failures for the type consensus. In Appendix B, we define all the types that appear in this paper.

2 Model

Our model is similar to Herlihy's [Her91b], but there are some differences due to the need to model implementations that are both wait-free and tolerant of non-responsive object failures. These differences will be pointed to as they arise.

2.1 I/O Automaton

A concurrent system consists of processes and objects. We model processes and objects as I/O automata [LT88].

An I/O Automaton A is a non-deterministic automaton with the following components:

- 1. States(A) is a finite/infinite set of states, including a distinguished set of starting states.
- 2. In(A) is a set of input events.
- 3. Out(A) is a set of output events.
- 4. Int(A) is a set of internal events.
- 5. Step(A) is a transition relation given by a set of tuples (s, e, s'), where s and s' are states, and e is an event. Such a triple is called a step, and it means that an automaton in state s can undergo a transition to state s' and that transition is associated with event e.

If (s, e, s') is a step, we say e is enabled in state s. I/O Automata (abbreviated hereafter as automata) must additionally satisfy the requirement that input, output, and internal events are disjoint, and every input event is enabled in every state. The latter captures the fact that an automaton has no control over when input events occur.

An execution of an automaton A is a finite sequence $s_0, e_1, s_1, e_2, s_2, \ldots, e_n, s_n$ or an infinite sequence $s_0, e_1, s_1, e_2, s_2, \ldots$ of alternating states and events such that s_0 is a starting state and (s_i, e_{i+1}, s_{i+1}) is a step of A. A history of an automaton is the subsequence of events in an execution.

A new automaton can be constructed by composing a set of compatible automata. A pair A, B of automata is compatible if (i) the internal events of either automaton are disjoint from the events of the other, and (ii) the output events of the two automata are disjoint; that is, $Int(A) \cap (In(B) \cup Int(B) \cup Out(B)) = \emptyset$, and $Int(B) \cap (In(A) \cup Int(A) \cup Out(A)) = \emptyset$, and $Out(A) \cap Out(B) = \emptyset$. A set of automata is compatible if every pair in the set is compatible. We compose a new automaton S from compatible (component) automata as follows. A state of S is a tuple of the components' states, and a starting state of S is a tuple of the components of the component automata. Int(S), the set of internal events of S, is the union of the sets of output events of the component automata. In(S), the set of input events of S, is IN - Out(S), where IN is the union of the sets of input events of the component automata. A triple (s, e, s') is in Step(S) if and only if, for all the component automata S, one of the following holds: (1) S is an event of S and the projection of the step onto S is in Step(S), or (2) S is not an event of S and the state of S is the same in S and S.

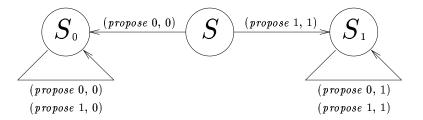


Figure 1: Sequential specification of consensus

Let E be an execution of an automaton composed from A_1, A_2, \ldots, A_k and H be the corresponding history. The *history of a component* A_i in E, denoted by $H|A_i$, is the subsequence of H consisting only of the events of A_i .

2.2 Object type

Every object has a type. The type specifies the expected behavior of the object. More precisely, a type T is a tuple (OP, RES, G, τ) where OP and RES are sets of operations and responses respectively, G is a directed finite or infinite multi-graph in which each edge has a label of the form (op, res) where $op \in OP$ and $res \in RES$, and τ is a history transformation function. We refer to G as the sequential specification of T and the vertices of G as the states of T. Intuitively, if there is an edge, labeled (op, res), from state s to state s', it means that applying the operation op to an object in state s may change the state to s' and return the response res. We explain the history transformation function τ later in Section 2.8.

A sequence $\sigma = (op_1, res_1), (op_2, res_2), \cdots, (op_l, res_l)$ is legal from state s of T if there is a path labeled σ in G from the state s. T is deterministic if, for all states s of T and for all operations $op \in OP$, there is at most one edge from s labeled (op, res) (for some $res \in RES$). T is non-deterministic otherwise. T is total if, for all states s of T and for all operations $op \in OP$, there is at least one edge from s labeled (op, res) (for some $res \in RES$). In this paper, we restrict our attention to total types. T is finite if it has only a finite number of states. T is infinite otherwise.

The types consensus and consensus with safe-reset are central to this paper. Their sequential specifications are presented in Figures 1 and 2. The sequential specifications of the remaining types mentioned in this paper are presented in Appendix B.

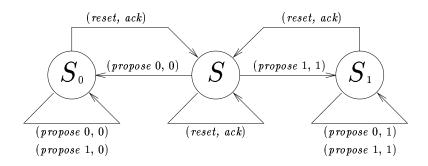


Figure 2: Sequential specification of consensus with safe-reset

2.3 Objects and Processes

As already mentioned, objects and processes are modeled as automata. Each object O has two attributes: a type T and a state s of T to which O is initialized.

We assume that a process can be made to crash (by an invisible adversary) at any point in an execution. We model this as follows. Every process P has a distinguished state FAIL(P), an input event crash(P), and an output event crashed(P). From any state, the input event crash(P) moves P to state FAIL(P) and, once in state FAIL(P), no event moves P out of that state. The output event crashed(P) is enabled only in FAIL(P).

Unless mentioned otherwise, we assume that a process is deterministic. This implies that, for every state s of a process and event e, there is no more than one s' such that (s, e, s') is a step of the process.

2.4 Clock

A clock is an automaton with a single state running, a single internal event tick, and a single step (running, tick, running) in its transition relation. It has no input or output events. Thus, a clock does no more than generating ticks.

2.5 Concurrent system

A concurrent system consisting of processes P_1, P_2, \ldots, P_n and objects O_1, \ldots, O_m is defined as the automaton composed from the process automata $P_i, 1 \leq i \leq n$, the object automata $O_j, 1 \leq j \leq m$, and a clock automaton. We write $(P_1, P_2, \ldots, P_n; O_1, \ldots, O_m)$ to denote such a concurrent system. The reader should notice that we have departed from the model in [Her91b] by including a clock as a component of a concurrent system, adding a FAIL state for every process, and making a fairness assumption on executions (see Section 2.6). These differences are motivated by the fact that our work introduces new concepts, such

as an implementation that is both wait-free and tolerant of non-responsive object failures. The fairness assumption guarantees that every process that attempts to take a step will eventually be able to do so. The clock ensures that, regardless of how processes and objects are specified, the system has infinite executions. Notice that the *ticks* generated by a clock are internal events of the clock. Thus, a process or an object cannot take advantage of the presence of a clock.

Let O_j be an object of type $T = (OP, RES, G, \tau)$. The input and output events of O_j include $invoke(P_i, op, O_j)$ and $respond(P_i, res, O_j)$, respectively, where P_i is a process and $op \in OP$. We call these events invocations and responses, respectively. The input and output events of a process P_i include $respond(P_i, res, O_j)$ and $invoke(P_i, op, O_j)$, respectively.

Let E be an execution of a concurrent system and H be the corresponding history. A response r matches an invocation i in H if i is the most recent invocation preceding r such that the process and object names of i and r agree. An operation in H is a pair of events, an invocation and its matching response.³ An incomplete operation in H is an invocation with no matching response. History H is complete if it has no incomplete operations. We define a relation $<_H$, which reflects the partial "real time" order of operations in H, as follows. For any two operations oper and oper' in H, oper $<_H$ oper' if the response of oper precedes the invocation of oper'. We say that oper precedes oper' in H. Two operations unrelated by $<_H$ (i.e., neither operation precedes the other) are said to be concurrent in H. History H is sequential if it has no concurrent operations.

We assume initially that a process is a single thread of control: after invoking an operation on an object, it waits to receive the response before it invokes another operation (on any object). We also assume that, for any process P_i and object O_j , the interaction between P_i and O_j is proper: first P_i invokes an operation on O_j , then O_j responds, and then P_i invokes on O_j , then O_j responds, and so on. We model these assumptions as follows. Let H be the history corresponding to an execution of a concurrent system. Recall that H|A denotes the history of component A in H, i.e., the subsequence of events in H which belong to the component A. Thus, $(H|P_i)|O_j$ denotes the subsequence of events common to Process P_i and Object O_j . These events are invocations on O_j from P_i and responses to P_i from O_j . History H is well-formed if, for all processes P_i and objects O_j , the following conditions hold: (i) no prefix of $H|P_i$ has more than one incomplete operation, and (ii) $(H|P_i)|O_j$ begins with an invocation and has alternating invocations and responses. Except in Section 6 (where we study non-responsive failures), we restrict ourselves to well-formed histories of a concurrent system.

When a process is restricted to be a single thread of control, it will block if an object fails to respond to its invocation. Thus, it will be impossible to construct fault-tolerant implementations in the presence of non-responsive object failures. Hence, in Section 6, where such implementations are sought, we relax Condition (i) above and allow a process to have multiple incomplete operations. We however continue to insist on Condition (ii) which implies that a process can have no more than one incomplete operation on any one

³ Thus, the term "operation" is overloaded. It will be however clear from the context whether a particular use of this term refers to an element of OP of a type $T = (OP, RES, G, \tau)$ or to a pair of events in a history.

object.

2.6 Fairness assumption

An execution E of a concurrent system is unfair if E is infinite and the following holds: there is an internal or output event e and a suffix E' of E such that (i) for all states s in E', e is enabled in s, and (ii) e is not in E'. This definition does not consider input events since input events are, as mentioned before, enabled in every state of an execution. An execution E of a concurrent system is fair if it is not unfair. We restrict our attention to fair executions of a concurrent system.

The above fairness assumptions has two implications. First, every process that wishes to take a step will eventually be able to do so. Second, the presence of a clock, together with the fairness assumption, guarantees that every concurrent system, regardless of how its processes are specified, has infinite executions. As we will see, the latter property leads to simple definitions for a wait-free implementation and a wait-free implementation which is tolerant of non-responsive failures.

2.7 Linearizability

The sequential specification of a type specifies how an object behaves in the absence of concurrent operations. To characterize an object's behavior in the presence of concurrent operations, we additionally need the concept of linearizability [HW90]. Linearizability requires that each operation, spanning over an interval of time from the invocation of the operation to its response, must appear to take effect at some instant in this interval. We make this more precise below.

Let H be the history of some object in an execution of a concurrent system. Let $T = (OP, RES, G, \tau)$ be a type and s be a state of T. A linearization of H with respect to (T, s) is a complete sequential history S with the following properties:

- 1. S is legal from state s of T.
- 2. S includes every complete operation in H.
- 3. Let invoke (P_i, op, \mathcal{O}) be an incomplete operation in H. Then, either S does not include this incomplete operation or S includes a complete operation (invoke (P_i, op, \mathcal{O}) , respond (P_i, res, \mathcal{O})) for some $res \in RES$.
 - Intuitively, this captures the notion that some incomplete operations in H did not take effect, while the others did.
- 4. S includes no operations other than the ones mentioned in 1 or 2.
- 5. For all operations oper, oper' in S, if $oper <_H oper'$ then $oper <_S oper'$. Thus, the order of non-overlapping operations in H is preserved in S.

Notice that H may have no linearization or may have several different linearizations. H is linearizable with respect to (T, s) if H has a linearization with respect to (T, s).

Let O be an object of type T, initialized to state s of T, and let H be the history of O in an execution E of a concurrent system. We say that O is linearizable in E if H is linearizable with respect to (T, s).

2.8 Well-behavedness

It is tempting to say that an object is well-behaved in an execution if and only if it is linearizable in that execution. However some important objects that appeared in literature are not linearizable. Here are some examples.

- Consider the type safe register, defined by Lamport [Lam86]. It supports read and write operations and has the same sequential specification as register: every read returns the value written by the most recent write. However, in the presence of concurrent operations, a safe register extends fewer guarantees than a (linearizable or "atomic") register. In particular, if a read operation on a safe register is concurrent with a write, then that read operation can return an arbitrary response. Thus, the history H of a safe register does not have to be linearizable. However, H satisfies the following weaker property [Lam86]: If H' is the result of removing all read operations in H that are concurrent with a write, then H' is linearizable.
- Consider the type consensus with safe-reset [Her91b]. Figure 2 presents its sequential specification. In using an object of this type, if a reset operation is concurrent with a propose or another reset operation, then the object is allowed to return arbitrary responses to all operations thereafter. Thus, the history H of an object of type consensus with safe-reset does not have to be linearizable. However, H satisfies the following weaker property [Her91b]: If H' is the maximal prefix of H in which no reset operation is concurrent with any other operation, then H' is linearizable.
- Consider the type 1-reader 1-writer register. A history H of an object of this type does not have to be linearizable if either more than one process reads or more than one process writes. However, H satisfies the following weaker property: If H' is the maximal prefix of H in which no more than one process reads and no more than one process writes, then H' is linearizable.
- Consider the type 1-reader 1-writer safe register. A history H of an object of
 this type satisfies the following property. Let H' be the maximal prefix of H in which
 no more than one process reads and no more than one process writes. Let H" be the
 result of removing all read operations in H' that are concurrent with a write. Then,
 H" is linearizable.

In all these examples, given a history H of an object of type T, we required that a transformation of H, not H itself, be linearizable with respect to T. This is the motivation for including a history transformation function τ as a component in the 4-tuple

defining a type. We are now ready to define well-behavedness. Let O be an object of type $T = (OP, RES, G, \tau)$ which is initialized to state s of T. Let H be the history of O in an execution E of a concurrent system. We say that O is well-behaved in E if $\tau(H)$ is linearizable with respect to (T, s).

For most types considered in this paper, such as consensus, register, and queue, the history transformation function is the identity function. Thus, for these types, well-behavedness is the same as linearizability. The following types are the exceptions in this paper: 1-reader 1-writer register, 1-reader 1-writer safe register, and consensus with safe-reset. The history transformation functions for these types should be obvious from the above discussion.

2.9 Wait-freedom and correctness

Recall that every process automaton has a FAIL state. A process P crashes in an execution E of a concurrent system if the state of P is FAIL(P) at any point in E. P is correct in E if it does not crash in E. An object O is wait-free in E if either E is finite or every invocation on O by a correct process has a matching response. An object O is correct in E if O is wait-free and well-behaved in E. Object O fails in E if O is not correct in E.

2.10 Implementation

Let T be a type and s be a state of T. Further, let $\mathcal{L} = (T_1, T_2, \cdots)$ be a list of types (the list may be infinite and the types in the list need not be distinct) and $\Sigma = (s_1, s_2, \cdots)$ be a list where s_i is a state of type T_i . An implementation of (T, s) from (\mathcal{L}, Σ) for processes P_1, P_2, \cdots, P_N is a function $\mathcal{I}(O_1, O_2, \cdots)$ satisfying the following properties:

- 1. There exist process automata F_1, F_2, \dots, F_N , known as the *front-ends*, such that if $\mathcal{O} = \mathcal{I}(O_1, O_2, \dots)$, then \mathcal{O} is the automaton $(F_1, F_2, \dots, F_N; O_1, O_2, \dots)$.
- 2. Front-ends F_i and F_i $(i \neq j)$ have no common events.
- 3. Let $\mathcal{O} = \mathcal{I}(O_1, O_2, \cdots)$. Each input event $invoke(P_i, op, \mathcal{O})$ of \mathcal{O} is matched with an input event of F_i ; each output event $respond(P_i, res, \mathcal{O})$ of \mathcal{O} is matched with an output event of F_i .
- 4. Each output event $crashed(P_i)$ of Process P_i is matched with the input event $crash(F_i)$ of the front-end F_i .
- 5. Let O_1, O_2, \cdots be distinct objects of types T_1, T_2, \cdots , initialized to states s_1, s_2, \cdots , respectively. Then, $\mathcal{O} = \mathcal{I}(O_1, O_2, \cdots)$ is an object of type T, initialized to state s, with the following property: for every execution E of the concurrent system $(P_1, P_2, \cdots, P_N; \mathcal{O})$, if O_1, O_2, \cdots are well-behaved in E, then \mathcal{O} is well-behaved in E.

Informally, the front-end F_i is represented by a set of access procedures $Apply(P_i, op, \mathcal{O})$ ($op \in OP(T)$). $Apply(P_i, op, \mathcal{O})$ specifies how process P_i should "simulate" the operation op on \mathcal{O} in terms of operations on O_1, O_2, \cdots . We say that \mathcal{O} is a derived object of the implementation \mathcal{I} , and O_1, O_2, \cdots are the base objects of \mathcal{O} . The resource complexity of \mathcal{I} is the number of base objects required by \mathcal{I} to implement a derived object.

Condition 1 above states that a derived object is constituted by base objects and access procedures (front-ends).

Condition 2 captures the notion that the execution of a step of the access procedure by one process P_i cannot affect the state of another process P_i .

Condition 3 captures the notion that (i) invoking an operation on \mathcal{O} by process P_i activates the front-end F_i or, equivalently, begins the execution of an access procedure, and (ii) the value returned by the front-end (access procedure) F_i is the response of \mathcal{O} .

Condition 4 captures our intuition that when a process P_i crashes, the front end F_i of that process must stop executing.

Condition 5 ensures that a derived object is well-behaved whenever all its base objects are well-behaved.

An implementation of (T, s) from (\mathcal{L}, Σ) is a *self-implementation* if every type in the list \mathcal{L} is T. Thus, in a self-implementation, base objects are of the same type as the derived object.

We say that \mathcal{I} is an implementation of (T,s) from a set \mathcal{S} of types for N processes if there is a list $\mathcal{L} = (T_1, T_2, \cdots)$ of types and a list $\Sigma = (s_1, s_2, \cdots)$ of states such that $T_i \in \mathcal{S}$, s_i is a state of T_i , and T_i is an implementation of (T,s) from (\mathcal{L},Σ) for N processes. We say that a type T has an implementation from a set \mathcal{S} of types for N processes if, for all states s of T, there is an implementation of (T,s) from \mathcal{S} for N processes. Finally, we say that T implements T' if there is an implementation of T' from T.

2.11 Wait-free implementation

An implementation for N processes is wait-free if every derived object \mathcal{O} has the following property: if E is an execution of $(P_1, P_2, \ldots, P_N; \mathcal{O})$ in which all base objects of \mathcal{O} are wait-free, then \mathcal{O} is wait-free in E.

Let us briefly examine how this definition captures our intuitive notion of what a wait-free implementation is. Consider an infinite execution E of the concurrent system $(P_1, P_2, \ldots, P_N; \mathcal{O})$. (As already mentioned, the clock and the fairness assumption, together, guarantee that such an infinite execution exists.) Assume that all base objects are wait-free in E. Thus, every base object returns a response to every operation from every correct process. By the fairness assumption, every correct process succeeds in taking all the steps that it attempts in E. Hence, if the implementation is wait-free, we expect every correct process to succeed in completing every operation it attempts on the derived object \mathcal{O} . In other words, we expect that \mathcal{O} is wait-free in E. That is precisely what the definition states.

An implementation for N processes is k-bounded wait-free if it is wait-free and every derived object \mathcal{O} has the following property: For all executions of $(P_1, P_2, \ldots, P_N; \mathcal{O})$ and for all P_i $1 \leq i \leq N$, between an invocation on \mathcal{O} by P_i and its matching response, P_i has no more than k invocations on all base objects of \mathcal{O} put together.

Intuitively, in a k-bounded wait-free implementation, a process completes its operation on a derived object in no more than k steps.

In this paper, we are primarily interested in wait-free implementations. From now on, we will therefore write "implementation" and "k-bounded implementation" as shorthand for "wait-free implementation" and "k-bounded wait-free implementation", respectively.

3 Failure modes

An object is only an abstraction with a multitude of possible implementations. For instance, it may be built as a hardware module in a tightly coupled multi-processor system, or as a server machine in a message passing distributed system. Whatever the implementation, the reality is that hardware components sometimes fail and, when this happens, the object fails to provide the intended abstraction.

Object failures lead to undesirable system behavior. Therefore, it is important to implement derived objects that behave correctly even if some of the base objects of the implementation fail. The complexity of such a fault-tolerant implementation depends on the *failure mode*, *i.e.*, the manner in which a failed object departs from correct behavior. In this section, we define a spectrum of failure modes that fall into two broad classes: responsive and non-responsive.

As we will see, a failed object \mathcal{O} may sometimes return a distinguished response \bot . If a process P receives \bot from \mathcal{O} , it can immediately infer that \mathcal{O} is faulty. Thus, it is reasonable to assume that P does not invoke operations on \mathcal{O} thereafter. We restrict our attention to executions in which this assumption holds.

3.1 Responsive failure modes

An object experiencing a responsive failure responds to every invocation, even though the response may be incorrect. Thus, responsive failure modes share the property that objects remain wait-free even if they fail. We describe below three increasingly severe responsive failure modes.

3.1.1 Crash

crash is the most benign of all failure modes, responsive or non-responsive. Informally, an object that fails by crash behaves correctly until it fails and, once it fails, it returns a distinguished response \bot to every invocation. This failure mode is based on the premise that an object detects when it becomes faulty and responds with \bot thereafter.

Let O be an object of type $T = (OP, RES, G, \tau)$, initialized to state s of T. Object O fails in an execution E by crash if it is not well-behaved in E, but satisfies the following properties:

- 1. \mathcal{O} is wait-free in E.
- 2. Every response from \mathcal{O} in E either belongs to RES or is \bot (where \bot is a distinguished value not in RES). An operation that returns \bot is an *aborted* operation.
- 3. Let \mathcal{H} be the history of \mathcal{O} in E, and let op and op' be two completed operations in \mathcal{H} . If op precedes op' and op is an aborted operation, then op' is also an aborted operation.
- 4. Let \mathcal{H}' be the history obtained by removing all aborted operations in \mathcal{H} . Then, $\tau(\mathcal{H}')$ is linearizable with respect to (T,s).

Property 3 is the "once \bot , everafter \bot " property of crash. Property 4 captures the notion that \mathcal{O} behaves correctly until it fails and that aborted operations do not take effect. Let us consider some examples. Let \mathcal{R} be an object of type register, initialized to 0.

- Consider the history \mathcal{H} of \mathcal{R} in Figure 3. (In the figure, a line segment represents the duration of an operation, from invocation to response. A triple (P_i, op, res) over the line segment denotes that P_i is the invoking process, op is the operation invoked, and res is the response from \mathcal{R} .) The failure of \mathcal{R} is by crash, as verified below. Removing aborted operations in \mathcal{H} results in $\mathcal{H}' = e_1^2, e_1^3, e_2^2, e_3^2, e_2^3, e_2^3, e_4^2$. (Event e_i^j denotes the i^{th} event of process P_j .) Clearly, \mathcal{H}' is linearizable with respect to (register, 0): $e_1^2, e_2^2, e_1^3, e_2^3, e_3^2, e_4^2$ is a linearization. The history transformation function τ for register is the identity function. Thus, $\tau(\mathcal{H}') = \mathcal{H}'$, and is linearizable with respect to (register, 0). Thus, Property 4 holds in \mathcal{H} . Other properties also hold and are trivial to verify.
- Consider the history \mathcal{H} of \mathcal{R} in Figure 4. Now $\mathcal{H}' = e_1^2, e_2^2, e_3^2, e_4^2$. Clearly, \mathcal{H}' (and hence, $\tau(\mathcal{H}')$) is not linearizable with respect to (register, 0). Thus, the failure of \mathcal{R} is not by crash.

3.1.2 Omission

We begin with the motivation for the omission failure mode. Consider an implementation \mathcal{I} , and a derived object \mathcal{O} of \mathcal{I} . Even if the base objects of \mathcal{O} may only fail by crash, \mathcal{O} itself may experience a more severe failure than crash. To see this, suppose that a base object o of \mathcal{O} fails by crash. Consider a process P that invokes an operation op on \mathcal{O} and executes $\operatorname{Apply}(P, op, \mathcal{O})$. If, during the execution of $\operatorname{Apply}(P, op, \mathcal{O})$, P accesses o, o returns \bot to P. This may cause $\operatorname{Apply}(P, op, \mathcal{O})$ to terminate and also return \bot . Strictly after this occurs, suppose that another process Q invokes some operation op' on \mathcal{O} , and that $\operatorname{Apply}(Q, op', \mathcal{O})$ is not required to access o. Then, while executing $\operatorname{Apply}(Q, op', \mathcal{O})$, Q does

$$(P_1, write 1, \bot)$$

$$e_1^1 \qquad e_2^1 \qquad (P_2, read, 2)$$

$$e_1^2 \qquad e_2^2 \qquad e_2^2 \qquad e_3^2 \qquad e_4^2 \qquad e_5^2 \qquad e_6^2$$

$$(P_3, write 2, ack)$$

$$e_1^3 \qquad e_2^3 \qquad e_2^3$$

Figure 3: Register \mathcal{R} , initialized to 0, fails by crash

$$\begin{array}{c|cccc}
 & & (P_1, write \ 1, \bot) \\
 & & e_1^1 & & e_2^1 \\
 & & & & \\
\hline
 & (P_2, read, 0) & & (P_2, read, 1) \\
 & & & & \\
 & & & & \\
 & & & & \\
\end{array}$$

Figure 4: Register \mathcal{R} , initialized to 0, fails by omission

Figure 5: Register \mathcal{R} , initialized to 0, fails by omission

$$(P_1, write 1, \bot)$$

$$e_1^1 \qquad e_2^1$$

$$(P_2, read, 0) \qquad (P_2, read, 1) \qquad (P_2, read, 0)$$

$$e_1^2 \qquad e_2^2 \qquad e_3^2 \qquad e_4^2 \qquad e_5^2$$

Figure 6: Safe register \mathcal{R} , initialized to 0, fails by omission

not notice the failure of o. So Apply (Q, op', \mathcal{O}) terminates "normally" and returns a non- \bot response. Thus, \mathcal{O} 's behavior violates the "once \bot , everafter \bot " property: \mathcal{O} returned \bot to P's operation and a non- \bot response to a strictly later operation by Q. We conclude that \mathcal{O} 's failure is more severe than crash. Does this mean that \mathcal{O} 's failure is arbitrary? We now argue that this is not the case.

Recall that after P receives \bot , we assume that P refrains from accessing \mathcal{O} again. Thus, to Q, the above scenario is indistinguishable from one in which P had crashed in the middle of the procedure $\operatorname{Apply}(P,op,\mathcal{O})$, while accessing o. Since the implementation \mathcal{I} (from which \mathcal{O} is derived) is wait-free, \mathcal{O} tolerates the apparent crash of process P. Thus, \mathcal{O} 's response to Q must be correct. We conclude that the failure of \mathcal{O} is more severe than crash, but is not completely arbitrary. Our model of omission, formally defined below, captures this type of failure.

Let \mathcal{O} be an object of type $T=(OP,RES,G,\tau)$, initialized to state s of T. Object \mathcal{O} fails in an execution E by omission if it is not well-behaved in E, but satisfies the following properties:

- 1. \mathcal{O} is wait-free in E.
- 2. Every response from \mathcal{O} in E either belongs to RES or is \perp .
- 3. Let \mathcal{H} be the history of \mathcal{O} in E. Let \mathcal{H}' be the history obtained by removing the response events associated with the aborted operations in \mathcal{H} . Then, $\tau(\mathcal{H}')$ is linearizable with respect to (T,s).

Suppose that an operation by process P receives the response \bot from \mathcal{O} . Property 3 states that this aborted operation must appear like an incomplete operation to all processes other than P.

Notice the subtle difference in the way we obtain \mathcal{H}' from \mathcal{H} for crash and omission. For crash, both invocation and response events associated with aborted operations are removed to obtain \mathcal{H}' . For omission, only the response events associated with aborted operations are removed. Let us consider some examples.

• Let \mathcal{R} be an object of type register, initialized to 0. Consider the history \mathcal{H} of \mathcal{R} in Figure 4. The failure of \mathcal{R} is by omission, as verified below. Removing the

response events of aborted operations in \mathcal{H} results in $\mathcal{H}' = e_1^2, e_1^1, e_2^2, e_3^2, e_4^2$. (e_2^1) is removed from \mathcal{H} to obtain \mathcal{H}' .) The write operation by P_1 becomes an incomplete operation in \mathcal{H}' . \mathcal{H}' is linearizable with respect to (register, 0): $e_1^2, e_2^2, e_1^1, e, e_3^2, e_4^2$ is a linearization, where e is a response event returning ack. Thus, in the linearization of \mathcal{H}' , the first read by P_2 takes effect first, then the write by P_1 (which is incomplete in \mathcal{H}') takes effect, and then the second read by P_2 takes effect. Since τ is the identity for register, it follows that $\tau(\mathcal{H}')$ is linearizable with respect to (register, 0). Thus, Property 3 of omission holds in \mathcal{H} . Other properties also hold and are trivial to verify.

• Let \mathcal{R} be an object of type register, initialized to 0. Consider the history \mathcal{H} of \mathcal{R} in Figure 5. The failure of \mathcal{R} is by omission, as verified below. Removing the response event e_2^1 of the aborted operation results in $\mathcal{H}' = e_1^1, e_1^2, e_2^2, e_3^2, e_4^2$. \mathcal{H}' (and hence, $\tau(\mathcal{H}')$) is linearizable with respect to (register, 0): $e_1^2, e_2^2, e_1^1, e, e_3^2, e_4^2$ is a linearization, where e is a response event returning ack. Thus, in the linearization of \mathcal{H}' , the first read by P_2 takes effect first, then the write by P_1 (which is aborted in \mathcal{H} and incomplete in \mathcal{H}') takes effect, and then the second read by P_2 takes effect.

This example shows that an aborted operation may take effect a long time after it completed.

- Let \mathcal{R} be an object of type register, initialized to 0. Consider the history \mathcal{H} of \mathcal{R} in Figure 6. Now, $\mathcal{H}' = e_1^2, e_1^1, e_2^2, e_3^2, e_4^2, e_5^2, e_6^2$. It is easy to verify that \mathcal{H}' (and hence, $\tau(\mathcal{H}')$) is not linearizable with respect to (register, 0). Thus, the failure of \mathcal{R} is not by omission.
- Same as the above example, but suppose that \mathcal{R} is of type safe register. Recall that the function τ for safe register removes all read operations that overlap with a write. Thus, $\tau(\mathcal{H}') = e_1^1$, and is obviously linearizable with respect to (safe register, 0). (The empty sequence is a linearization of $\tau(\mathcal{H}')$.) Thus, Property 3 of omission holds. Other properties also hold and are trivial to verify. Thus, \mathcal{R} fails by omission in \mathcal{H} .

3.1.3 Arbitrary

An object \mathcal{O} fails in an execution E by the arbitrary failure mode if it is not well-behaved in E, but is wait-free in E. Informally, \mathcal{O} responds to every invocation in E, but the responses may be arbitrary.

3.2 Non-responsive failure modes

With responsive failure modes, a faulty object remains wait-free. Non-responsive failure modes do not have this property.

3.2.1 NR-crash

NR-crash is the most benign of all non-responsive failure modes. Informally, an object that fails by NR-crash behaves correctly until it fails (Property 1 below) and, once it fails, it never responds to any invocation (Property 2 below).

An object \mathcal{O} fails in an execution E by NR-crash if it is not wait-free in E, but satisfies the following properties:

- 1. \mathcal{O} is well-behaved in E.
- 2. The total number of non- \perp responses from \mathcal{O} in E is finite.

3.2.2 NR-omission

An object \mathcal{O} fails in an execution E by NR-omission if it is not wait-free in E, but is well-behaved in E.

NR-omission is more severe than NR-crash. In particular, an object that fails by NR-omission does not necessarily satisfy Property 2 of NR-crash. Thus, the object may not respond to invocations from some processes and always respond to invocations from others.

3.2.3 NR-arbitrary

An object \mathcal{O} fails in an execution E by NR-arbitrary if it fails in E.

Thus, the behavior of an object that experiences an NR-arbitrary failure is completely unrestricted. Such an object may not respond to an invocation; even if it does, the response may be arbitrary.

4 Fault-tolerance and graceful degradation — definitions and properties

In the following, let \mathcal{I} be an implementation of (T, s) from (\mathcal{L}, Σ) for processes P_1, P_2, \ldots, P_N , where $\mathcal{L} = (T_1, T_2, \cdots)$ and $\Sigma = (s_1, s_2, \cdots)$.

We say that \mathcal{I} is t-tolerant for failure mode \mathcal{F} if it satisfies the following:

Let O_1, O_2, \cdots be distinct objects of types T_1, T_2, \cdots , initialized to states s_1, s_2, \cdots , respectively. Then, $\mathcal{O} = \mathcal{I}(O_1, O_2, \cdots)$ is an object of type T, initialized to state s, with the following property: for every execution E of the concurrent system $(P_1, P_2, \cdots, P_N; \mathcal{O})$, if at most t objects among O_1, O_2, \cdots fail, and they fail by \mathcal{F} , then \mathcal{O} is correct.

We say that \mathcal{I} is gracefully degrading for failure mode \mathcal{F} if it satisfies the following:

Let O_1, O_2, \cdots be distinct objects of types T_1, T_2, \cdots , initialized to states s_1, s_2, \cdots , respectively. Then, $\mathcal{O} = \mathcal{I}(O_1, O_2, \cdots)$ is an object of type T, initialized to state s, with the following property: for every execution E of the concurrent system $(P_1, P_2, \cdots, P_N; \mathcal{O})$, if all faulty objects among O_1, O_2, \cdots fail by \mathcal{F} , then either \mathcal{O} is correct or \mathcal{O} fails by \mathcal{F} .

Let \mathcal{O} be a derived object of an implementation that is both t-tolerant and gracefully degrading for failure mode \mathcal{F} . The above definitions imply that: (i) if at most t base objects of \mathcal{O} fail, and they fail by \mathcal{F} , then \mathcal{O} does not fail, and (ii) if more than t base objects of \mathcal{O} fail, and they fail by \mathcal{F} , then \mathcal{O} may fail, but it does not experience a more severe failure than \mathcal{F} . Property (i) is guaranteed by t-tolerance and property (ii) by graceful degradation.

4.1 Composing fault-tolerant implementations

Gracefully degrading implementations can be composed as stated by the following lemma. Given a list L of integers and an integer n, let MinSum(n, L) be the sum of the n smallest integers in L. If L_1 and L_2 are lists, let $L_1 \cdot L_2$ denote the concatenation of L_1 and L_2 .

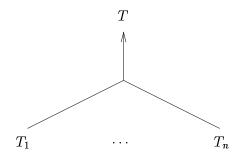
In the lemma below and in the rest of this paper, if we do not specify the number of processes for which an implementation is intended, it should be assumed that the implementation is for N processes, where N is arbitrary. Also, we say that a type T has a t-tolerant gracefully degrading implementation if, for all states s of T, there is a t-tolerant gracefully degrading implementation of (T, s). The lemma is illustrated in Figure 7.

Lemma 4.1 (Compositional Lemma) Suppose that T has a t-tolerant implementation from \mathcal{L} for failure mode \mathcal{F} , where $\mathcal{L} = (T_1, T_2, \ldots, T_n)$ is a list of types. Furthermore, suppose that each T_i has a t_i -tolerant gracefully degrading implementation from \mathcal{L}_i for failure mode \mathcal{F} . Then we have:

- 1. T has a t'-tolerant implementation from \mathcal{L}' for failure mode \mathcal{F} , where $\mathcal{L}' = \mathcal{L}_1 \cdot \mathcal{L}_2 \cdot \ldots \cdot \mathcal{L}_n$ and $t' = MinSum(t+1, \langle t_1+1, t_2+1, \ldots, t_n+1 \rangle) 1$.
- 2. If the t-tolerant implementation of T from \mathcal{L} is gracefully degrading for \mathcal{F} , then T has a t'-tolerant gracefully degrading implementation from \mathcal{L}' for failure mode \mathcal{F} .

Proof Sketch Let s be any state of T. By the statement of the lemma, (T, s) has a t-tolerant gracefully degrading implementation \mathcal{I} from (\mathcal{L}, Σ) for failure mode \mathcal{F} , for some $\Sigma = (s_1, s_2, \ldots, s_n)$ such that s_i is a state of T_i . For all i, let $\mathcal{L}_i = (T_{i1}, T_{i2}, \ldots, T_{ij_i})$. By the statement of the lemma, each (T_i, s_i) has a t_i -tolerant gracefully degrading implementation \mathcal{I}_i from $(\mathcal{L}_i, \Sigma_i)$ for failure mode \mathcal{F} , for some $\Sigma_i = (s_{i1}, s_{i2}, \ldots, s_{ij_i})$ such that s_{ik} is a state of T_{ik} .

Let $o_{11}, \ldots, o_{1j_1}, \ldots, o_{n1}, \ldots, o_{nj_n}$ be objects of types $T_{11}, \ldots, T_{1j_1}, \ldots, T_{n1}, \ldots, T_{nj_n}$, initialized to states $s_{11}, \ldots, s_{1j_1}, \ldots, s_{n1}, \ldots, s_{nj_n}$, respectively. Define an implementation \mathcal{I}' as follows: $\mathcal{I}'(o_{11}, \ldots, o_{1j_1}, \ldots, o_{n1}, \ldots, o_{nj_n}) = \mathcal{I}(O_1, \ldots, O_n)$, where $O_i = \mathcal{I}_i(o_{i1}, o_{i2}, \ldots, o_{ij_i})$.



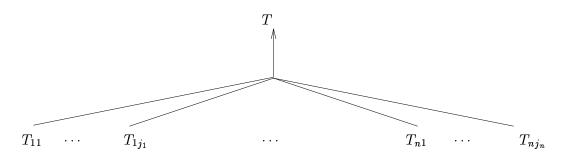
I: t-tolerant (and gracefully degrading)



 $\mathcal{I}_1:\,t_1 ext{-tolerant}$ and gracefully degrading

 \mathcal{I}_n : t_n -tolerant and gracefully degrading

implies



 $\mathcal{I}' \colon t'\text{-tolerant} \text{ (and gracefully degrading)}$

Figure 7: Illustration of the Compositional Lemma

Assume that each o_{kl} , if it fails, only fails by \mathcal{F} . Since \mathcal{I}_i is t_i -tolerant, O_i fails only if at least t_i+1 objects among o_{i1},\ldots,o_{1j_i} fail. Furthermore, since \mathcal{I}_i is gracefully degrading, O_i can only fail by \mathcal{F} , no matter how many base objects of O_i fail. From this and the fact that \mathcal{I} is t-tolerant for \mathcal{F} , it follows that $\mathcal{I}(O_1,\ldots,O_n)$ fails only if at least t+1 objects among O_1,\ldots,O_n fail. Thus, for $\mathcal{I}(O_1,\ldots,O_n)$ to fail, at least $MinSum(t+1,\langle t_1+1,t_2+1,\ldots,t_n+1\rangle)=t'+1$ objects among $o_{11},\ldots,o_{1j_1},\ldots,o_{n1},\ldots,o_{nj_n}$ must fail. In other words, \mathcal{I}' is a t'-tolerant implementation of (T,s) from (\mathcal{L}',Σ') , where $\Sigma'=\Sigma_1\cdot\Sigma_2\cdot\ldots\cdot\Sigma_n$. This completes the proof of the first part of the lemma.

Assume that the implementation \mathcal{I} is gracefully degrading for \mathcal{F} . Thus, if O_1, \ldots, O_n (which are the base objects of \mathcal{O}) only fail by \mathcal{F} , then \mathcal{O} , if it fails, only fails by \mathcal{F} . We have already argued that if objects $o_{11}, \ldots, o_{1j_1}, \ldots, o_{n1}, \ldots, o_{nj_n}$ only fail by \mathcal{F} , then each O_i , if it fails, only fails by \mathcal{F} . We conclude that if objects o_{11}, \ldots, o_{nj_n} only fail by \mathcal{F} , then \mathcal{O} , if it fails, only fails by \mathcal{F} . Thus, \mathcal{I}' is gracefully degrading for \mathcal{F} . This completes the proof of the second part of the lemma.

We now state a special case of the compositional lemma, obtained by setting t = 0 and $\forall 1 \leq i \leq n : t_i = t$. This lemma is used frequently in later sections.

Corollary 4.1 Suppose that T has a (0-tolerant) implementation from (T_1, T_2, \ldots, T_n) . Furthermore, suppose that each T_i has a t-tolerant gracefully degrading implementation from \mathcal{L}_i for failure mode \mathcal{F} , where \mathcal{L}_i is some list of types. Then we have:

- 1. T has a t-tolerant implementation from $\mathcal{L}_1 \cdot \mathcal{L}_2 \cdot \ldots \cdot \mathcal{L}_n$ for failure mode \mathcal{F}^4 .
- 2. If the (0-tolerant) implementation of T from (T_1, T_2, \ldots, T_n) is gracefully degrading for \mathcal{F} , then T has a t-tolerant gracefully degrading implementation from $\mathcal{L}_1 \cdot \mathcal{L}_2 \cdot \ldots \cdot \mathcal{L}_n$ for failure mode \mathcal{F} .

The compositional lemma can also be used to enhance the fault-tolerance of a self-implementation. This is the substance of the following corollary, obtained by setting $T_i = T$, $\mathcal{L}_i = \mathcal{L}$, and $t_i = t$ in Lemma 4.1. Below, we say that T has an implementation of resource complexity n if, for all states s of T, (T,s) has an implementation of resource complexity n.

Corollary 4.2 If T has a t-tolerant gracefully degrading self-implementation \mathcal{I} of resource complexity n for failure mode \mathcal{F} , then T has a $(t^2 + 2t)$ -tolerant gracefully degrading self-implementation \mathcal{I}' of resource complexity n^2 for \mathcal{F} .

Recursive application of the above corollary boosts the fault-tolerance of self-implementations.

Corollary 4.3 (Booster Lemma) If T has a 1-tolerant gracefully degrading self-implementation of resource complexity k for failure mode \mathcal{F} , then T has a t-tolerant gracefully degrading self-implementation of resource complexity $O(t^{\log_2 k})$ for \mathcal{F} .

⁴This part holds even if the implementation of each T_i is t-tolerant, but not gracefully degrading.

4.2 Graceful degradation for arbitrary failures

We show that if T has a t-tolerant k-bounded implementation, then T has a t-tolerant gracefully degrading k-bounded implementation for arbitrary failures. Thus, if we know how to obtain a bounded implementation, graceful degradation for arbitrary failures comes automatically and at no extra cost.

Observe that if an implementation guarantees that the derived object is wait-free whenever the base objects are wait-free, the implementation is gracefully degrading for arbitrary failures. The lemma below is based on this observation.

Lemma 4.2 If T has a t-tolerant k-bounded implementation from \mathcal{L} for arbitrary failures, then T has a t-tolerant gracefully degrading k-bounded implementation from \mathcal{L} for arbitrary failures.

Proof Sketch Let s be any state of T. By the statement of the lemma, (T,s) has a t-tolerant k-bounded implementation \mathcal{I} from (\mathcal{L}, Σ) , for some sequence Σ of states. Define the implementation \mathcal{I}' as follows. In \mathcal{I}' , a process applies an operation op on the derived object \mathcal{O} by first setting a local counter count to 0, and then proceeding as in the implementation \mathcal{I} . As the process executes the steps of \mathcal{I} , it increments count each time it applies an operation on a base object of \mathcal{O} . If count reaches k and the implementation \mathcal{I} has not yet returned a response, the process deduces that more than t base objects have failed (this deduction is sound since \mathcal{I} is a t-tolerant k-bounded implementation), and returns an arbitrary value as the response from \mathcal{O} to its operation op.

Since \mathcal{I} is a correct t-tolerant implementation, it follows that \mathcal{I}' is also a correct t-tolerant implementation. Clearly, \mathcal{I}' has the property that, if all base objects are wait-free, the derived object is also wait-free. Hence \mathcal{I}' is gracefully degrading for arbitrary failures. We conclude that \mathcal{I}' is a t-tolerant gracefully degrading k-bounded implementation of (T,s) from (\mathcal{L},Σ) for arbitrary failures. Hence the lemma.

5 Tolerating responsive failures

Herlihy [Her91b] and Plotkin [Plo89] showed that one can implement a (wait-free) object of any type using only consensus and register objects. Therefore, if consensus and register have t-tolerant implementations, then every type has a t-tolerant implementation. Hence we focus on fault-tolerant implementations of consensus and register.

5.1 Fault-tolerant implementation of consensus

In this section, we present a self-implementation of consensus that is t-tolerant for both crash and omission failures. This implementation requires t+1 base consensus objects and is thus resource optimal. Following that, we present an efficient t-tolerant self-implementation of consensus for arbitrary failures.

Achieving consensus among processes, some of which may fail, is a widely studied problem in the literature ([PSL80, LSP82, FLM86, Coa87, ST87, BGP89, DRS90, CW92], to cite a few). The reader may notice some similarity between this problem and the one studied here, namely, obtaining t-tolerant implementations of consensus. We therefore begin by contrasting these two problems. The existing solutions to the consensus problem are for synchronous message passing systems. In such systems, processes communicate by passing messages to each other; furthermore, bounds on message delays and bounds on the relative speeds of processes are assumed to be known. In contrast, we study the consensus problem for asynchronous shared-memory systems. The asynchrony in the system rules out the common paradigm in which a correct process "waits" until every process has either crashed or taken a step. We require solutions to be wait-free: a process should be able to decide regardless of how fast or slow the other processes are. Also, in synchronous message passing systems, solutions to the consensus problem, where processes are subject to arbitrary failures, assume that fewer than a third of the processes fail (without this assumption, the problem cannot be solved). In contrast, our solutions tolerate the crash failure of any number of processes and, in addition, the arbitrary failure of up to t shared objects. As a result of these differences, the problem of t-tolerant implementation of consensus does not reduce to any previous problem considered in the literature.

The "State Machine" approach [Lam78, Sch90] of replicating objects, applying an operation to all objects, and returning the majority response is not useful in deriving t-tolerant implementations of consensus. For example, consider the following implementation which uses 2t+1 base consensus objects $(O_1,O_2,\ldots,O_{2t+1})$ to tolerate the crash failure of any t of them. A process p proposes a value v_p to the derived consensus object \mathcal{O} by proposing v_p to each of O_1,O_2,\ldots,O_{2t+1} . At the end of this, p will have obtained the response 0 from, say, n_0 base objects, the response 1 from n_1 base objects, and the response \perp from $2t+1-n_0-n_1$ base objects. p returns 0 (as the response of \mathcal{O}) if $n_0>n_1$. Otherwise, it returns 1. Unfortunately, this implementation is not t-tolerant for crash. The following is a counterexample.

Let t=2. Suppose that processes p and q wish to propose 0 and 1, respectively, to the derived consensus object \mathcal{O} . Suppose that the steps of p and q interleave in the order specified below. Process p proposes 0 to O_1, O_2 , and O_3 , and all three return 0 to p. Objects O_1 and O_2 then fail by crash. Process q proposes 1 to all of O_1, O_2, \ldots, O_5 ; Objects O_1 and O_2 return \perp to q, O_3 returns 0, and O_4 and O_5 return 1. Process p resumes and proposes 0 to O_4 and O_5 , and both these objects return 1 to p. Thus, p obtained three 0's and two 1's, and q obtained two 1's and one 0. By the above implementation, p returns 0 and q returns 1. This implies that the derived object \mathcal{O} did not satisfy the agreement property despite the fact that only two base objects failed by crash. Thus, the implementation is not 2-tolerant for crash.

In the following, we first state the properties of a consensus object and then present the implementations. We use the properties in proving our implementations correct.

5.1.1 Properties of consensus

consensus supports two operations, propose 0 and propose 1, and has the sequential specification given in Figure 1. We will refer to the states S, S_0 , and S_1 of consensus as the uncommitted, 0-committed, and 1-committed states, respectively. In this section, we state the properties that a consensus object satisfies in executions. To state these properties, we need the following definitions. Let \mathcal{O} be an object of type consensus and let E be an execution of $(P_1, P_2, \ldots, P_N; \mathcal{O})$.

- Object \mathcal{O} satisfies *integrity* in E if and only if every response from \mathcal{O} in E is either 0 or 1.
- Object \mathcal{O} satisfies weak integrity in E if and only if every response from \mathcal{O} in E is either $0, 1, \text{ or } \perp$.
- Object \mathcal{O} satisfies validity in E if and only if the following holds in E. If there is a response of v from \mathcal{O} and $v \in \{0,1\}$, then there is an invocation of propose v on \mathcal{O} preceding this response.
- Object \mathcal{O} satisfies agreement in E if and only if the following holds in E. If \mathcal{O} returns v_1, v_2 to two invocations, and $v_1, v_2 \in \{0, 1\}$, then $v_1 = v_2$. (By this definition, if \mathcal{O} returns 0 to some processes and \bot to all others, it still satisfies agreement.)

The propositions below follow easily from the sequential specification of consensus and the definitions of linearizability and omission failures.

Proposition 5.1 Let \mathcal{O} be an object of type consensus, initialized to the uncommitted state. Let E be an execution of $(P_1, P_2, \ldots, P_N; \mathcal{O})$. Object \mathcal{O} is correct in E if and only if it is wait-free in E and satisfies integrity, validity, and agreement in E.

Proposition 5.2 Let \mathcal{O} be an object of type consensus, initialized to the uncommitted state. Let E be an execution of $(P_1, P_2, \ldots, P_N; \mathcal{O})$ in which \mathcal{O} fails. Object \mathcal{O} fails by omission in E if and only if it is wait-free in E and satisfies weak integrity, validity, and agreement in E.

In the following sections, we present several fault-tolerant implementations of consensus. In describing these implementations, we write $loc := Propose(P, v, \mathcal{O})^5$ to denote that process P invokes propose v on \mathcal{O} and stores the response in its local variable loc.

Implementing a consensus object \mathcal{O} initialized to the 0-committed (respectively, 1-committed) state is trivial: $\mathsf{Propose}(P, v, \mathcal{O})$ simply returns 0 (respectively, 1). Thus, the only interesting case is to implement a consensus object initialized to the uncommitted state. Consequently, throughout this paper, we use the phrase " \mathcal{I} is an implementation of consensus" to mean " \mathcal{I} is an implementation of (consensus, uncommitted state)".

⁵Throughout this paper, we write Propose (with upper case "P") if the operation is on a derived object, and propose (with lower case "p") if it is on a base object.

5.1.2 Tolerating crash and omission failures

We present a t-tolerant self-implementation of consensus for omission failures. The resource complexity is t+1 and is therefore optimal. Since omission failures are strictly more severe than crash, this self-implementation is also correct for crash.

Figure 8 presents a t-tolerant self-implementation of consensus for omission failures. (In all our algorithms, we use indentation to convey the scope of an **if** statement or a **for** statement.) This implementation uses t+1 base objects. A process p proposes to the derived object \mathcal{O} by accessing each of $O_1, O_2, \ldots, O_{t+1}$, in that order. At any point in the algorithm, p holds an estimate of the eventual return value in $estimate_p$. When p proposes its current estimate to a base object O_k , if O_k returns a non- \perp response w different from p's current estimate, p changes its estimate to w. After accessing all t+1 base objects, p returns its estimate as the response of the derived object \mathcal{O} .

 $O_1, O_2, \ldots, O_{t+1}$: consensus objects, initialized to the uncommitted state

```
\begin{aligned} \mathbf{Procedure} & \operatorname{Propose}(p, \, v_p, \, \mathcal{O}) & / ^* \, v_p \in \{0,1\} \,\, ^*/\\ & \textit{estimate}_p, \, w, \, k : \text{ integer local to } p \\ & \mathbf{begin} \\ & \textit{estimate}_p := v_p \\ & \mathbf{for} \,\, k := 1 \,\, \text{to} \,\, t + 1 \\ & w := \operatorname{propose}(p, \, \textit{estimate}_p, \, O_k) \\ & \quad \quad \mathbf{if} \,\, w \neq \bot \,\, \mathbf{then} \,\, \textit{estimate}_p := w \\ & \quad \quad \mathbf{return}(\textit{estimate}_p) \end{aligned}
```

Figure 8: t-tolerant self-implementation of consensus for omission

Theorem 5.1 Figure 8 presents a t-tolerant self-implementation of consensus for omission failures.⁶ The resource complexity of the implementation is t + 1 and is optimal.

Proof Let \mathcal{O} be a derived object of the implementation, and $O_1, O_2, \ldots, O_{t+1}$ be its base objects. Consider an execution E in which at most t base objects fail by omission, and the remaining objects are correct. We show that \mathcal{O} is correct in E.

1. $\underline{\mathcal{O}}$ satisfies validity: An easy induction on k, the variable in Figure 8, shows that if $\underline{estimate_p}$ equals some value u at any point in E, then there was a prior invocation (from some process q) of $\mathtt{Propose}(q, u, \mathcal{O})$. The induction will use Proposition 5.2, and the fact that p does not change $\underline{estimate_p}$ if a base object returns \bot .

⁶ Recall our convention that, if we do not mention the number of processes for which an implementation is intended, then the implementation is for N processes, where N is arbitrary.

2. $\underline{\mathcal{O}}$ satisfies agreement: Since at most t base objects fail, there is an O_k $(1 \leq k \leq t+1)$ that is correct. So O_k returns the same response $w \in \{0,1\}$ to every process that accesses it. This implies that for all p that access O_k , $estimate_p = w$ when p completes the k^{th} iteration of the loop. Since each base object in O_{k+1}, \ldots, O_{t+1} is either correct or fails by omission in E, by Propositions 5.1 and 5.2, each of these base objects satisfies validity. From these facts, it is easy to conclude from the implementation that $estimate_p$ never changes value from the (k+1)st iteration onwards. Thus \mathcal{O} returns the same response w to every p.

3. \mathcal{O} satisfies integrity: Obvious.

Since a base object that fails by omission remains wait-free, it is clear that \mathcal{O} is wait-free in E. By Proposition 5.1, \mathcal{O} is correct in E. It is obvious that the resource complexity of t+1 of our self-implementation is optimal.

We remark that the above implementation is *not* gracefully degrading. To see this, suppose that $v_p = 0$ and $v_q = 1$, and all the t+1 base objects fail by crash initially. It is easy to see that \mathcal{O} returns 0 to p and 1 to q. Thus, \mathcal{O} does not satisfy agreement and, by Proposition 5.2, the failure of \mathcal{O} is more severe than omission. Later, in Section 7, we will present a t-tolerant self-implementation of consensus that is also gracefully degrading (for omission). This implementation uses 2t+1 base objects. We will also prove that 2t+1 is a lower bound on the resource complexity of any t-tolerant gracefully degrading implementation of consensus for omission. Interestingly, as we will prove later in Section 7, consensus has no t-tolerant gracefully degrading implementation for crash.

5.1.3 Tolerating arbitrary failures

In this section, we present a t-tolerant self-implementation for arbitrary failures whose resource complexity is $O(t \log t)$. This self-implementation uses the divide-and-conquer strategy. The base step obtains a 1-tolerant self-implementation, and the recursive step obtains a t-tolerant self-implementation from a t/2-tolerant self-implementation.

Figure 9 presents the base step, the 1-tolerant self-implementation of consensus for arbitrary failures. This implementation uses six base objects O_1, \dots, O_6 , divided into two groups. The first group consists of O_1 , O_2 , and O_3 , and the second group consists of O_4 , O_5 , and O_6 . To propose a value v to the derived consensus object \mathcal{O} , process p proceeds as follows: it proposes v to the first group; then, it proposes the response of the first group to the second group; it regards the response of the second group to be the response of \mathcal{O} . To propose a value v to a group, p simply proposes v to all three objects in the group and obtains their responses. p regards the majority response from these objects to be the response of the group.

Since a consensus object that experiences an arbitrary failure may return a non-binary response, we always "filter" the responses to get binary responses. We do this using the procedure f-propose(p, v, O) which calls propose(p, v, O) and returns the response if it is 0 or 1, and returns 0 otherwise.

```
O_1,O_2,\cdots,O_6: consensus objects, initialized to the uncommitted state
Procedure Propose(p, v, \mathcal{O})
begin
    v := \mathtt{Majority}(p, O_1, O_2, O_3, v)
    v := \mathtt{Majority}(p, O_4, O_5, O_6, v)
    return(v)
end
Procedure Majority(p, O_1, O_2, O_3, v)
    count_p[0..1], w: integer local to p
begin
    count_p[0..1] := (0,0)
    for i := 1 to 3
        w := \texttt{f-propose}(p, v, O_i)
        count_p[w] := count_p[w] + 1
    if count_p[0] > count_p[1] then
        return(0)
    else return(1)
\mathbf{end}
```

Figure 9: 1-tolerant self-implementation of consensus for arbitrary failures

Lemma 5.1 Let i be either 1 or 4. If at most one object among O_i , O_{i+1} , and O_{i+2} fails, then $\mathtt{Majority}(p,O_i,O_{i+1},O_{i+2},v)$ returns \overline{v} only if there is a concurrent or preceding execution of $\mathtt{Majority}(q,O_i,O_{i+1},O_{i+2},\overline{v})$.

Proof Clear from the algorithm.

Lemma 5.2 Let i be either 1 or 4. If no object among O_i , O_{i+1} , and O_{i+2} fails, then, for all p and q, Majority $(p, O_i, O_{i+1}, O_{i+2}, v_p)$ returns the same value as Majority $(q, O_i, O_{i+1}, O_{i+2}, v_q)$.

Proof Clear from the algorithm.

Theorem 5.2 Figure 9 presents a 1-tolerant gracefully degrading self-implementation of consensus for arbitrary failures.

Proof Since the implementation is bounded, by Lemma 4.2, it is gracefully degrading for arbitrary failures. We now prove that the implementation is 1-tolerant.

Consider an execution E in which at most one of O_1, O_2, \ldots, O_6 fails by the arbitrary failure mode and the remaining are correct. Lemma 5.1 implies that \mathcal{O} satisfies validity in E. Clearly, either all of O_1, O_2 , and O_3 are correct in E, or all of O_4, O_5 , and O_6 are correct in E. In the latter case, Lemma 5.2 implies that \mathcal{O} satisfies agreement in E. In the former case, Lemmas 5.1 and 5.2 together imply that \mathcal{O} satisfies agreement in E. It is obvious that \mathcal{O} satisfies integrity and is wait-free in E. Thus, by Proposition 5.1, \mathcal{O} is correct in E. \square

Given this 1-tolerant self-implementation, by Booster Lemma (Corollary 4.3) we obtain a t-tolerant self-implementation of consensus for arbitrary failures. However, the resulting resource complexity is $O(t^{\log_2 6})$.

A more efficient recursive algorithm is presented in Figure 10. This algorithm implements a t-tolerant consensus object \mathcal{O} from O_1 , a $\lceil \frac{t-1}{2} \rceil$ -tolerant consensus object, O_2 , a $\lfloor \frac{t-1}{2} \rfloor$ -tolerant consensus object, and 10t+3 (0-tolerant) consensus objects — $A_0[1\ldots 3t+1]$, $A_1[1\ldots 3t+1]$, and $B[1\ldots 4t+1]$. Figure 11 illustrates the order in which the base objects of \mathcal{O} are accessed by a process proposing 0 on \mathcal{O} (the access pattern for a process proposing 1 on \mathcal{O} is symmetric). Before presenting a formal correctness proof, we provide some intuition for the implementation.

Consider an execution in which at most t base objects fail by the arbitrary failure mode. Since O_1 is $\lceil \frac{t-1}{2} \rceil$ -tolerant and O_2 is $\lfloor \frac{t-1}{2} \rfloor$ -tolerant, at least one of O_1 and O_2 is correct. The algorithm is based on this key observation.

The high level intuition behind the implementation of $\mathsf{Propose}(p, v_p, \mathcal{O})$ is as follows. Process p proposes v_p to O_1 and then checks if there is evidence to believe that O_1 has failed. If there is no such evidence, p adopts the value returned by O_1 as the return value of $\mathsf{Propose}(p, v_p, \mathcal{O})$. Otherwise, p proposes to O_2 and adopts the value returned by O_2 as the return value of $\mathsf{Propose}(p, v_p, \mathcal{O})$.

Process p uses objects $A_0[1...3t+1]$, $A_1[1...3t+1]$, and B[1...4t+1] to determine whether O_1 has failed. O_1 can fail in one of three ways: (i) by returning a value outside $\{0,1\}$, (ii) by returning a value $v \in \{0,1\}$ that was not proposed by any process, and (iii) by returning 0 to some processes and 1 to other processes. The first case is overcome by using f-propose as a "filter". The second and third cases are detected with the help of $A_0[1...3t+1]$, $A_1[1...3t+1]$, and B[1...4t+1].

The failure detection provided by $A_0[1...3t+1]$, $A_1[1...3t+1]$, and B[1...4t+1] is not perfect: if O_1 fails, some processes may not detect the failure. (However, it is never the case that, if O_1 is correct, some process believes that O_1 is faulty.) Thus, a process p may detect that O_1 failed, but a different process q may not. Then, q decides the value, say v, returned to it by O_1 . Process p, on the other hand, proposes to O_2 and decides the value returned by O_2 . To avoid disagreement between the decisions of p and q, our implementation ensures that p proposes v (and not \overline{v}) to O_2 . Since O_2 is correct (this follows from the fact that O_1 is faulty), O_2 returns v and, thus, p also decides v.

We state below two properties of our algorithm which are central to understanding its correctness.

- P1. If O_1 is correct and O_1 returns 0 to process p, then $count_p[0] \ge 2t+1$. (The symmetric property, resulting from replacing 0 by 1, also holds.)
 - If O_1 is correct and O_1 returns 0, then some process q proposed 0 to O_1 before any process got a response from O_1 . It follows from our implementation that (i) process q had proposed 0 to each of $A_0[1...3t+1]$ before it proposed 0 to O_1 , and (ii) no process proposed 1 to any of $A_0[1...3t+1]$ before q proposed 0 to O_1 . Thus, when p accesses the objects $A_0[1...3t+1]$, every correct object in $A_0[1...3t+1]$ returns 0. Since at least 2t+1 of the objects in $A_0[1...3t+1]$ are correct, we have $count_p[0] \geq 2t+1$.
- P2. If O_1 is correct and O_1 returns v, then, for all processes p, $WitnessCount_p[v] \geq 3t+1$. If O_1 is correct and O_1 returns v to some process, then O_1 returns v to every process. By the implementation, every process proposes v to every object in $B[1 \dots 4t+1]$. Since at least 3t+1 of the objects in $B[1 \dots 4t+1]$ are correct, we have $WitnessCount_p[v] \geq 3t+1$.

Thus, if a process p receives v from O_1 , $count_p[v] \geq 2t+1$, and $WitnessCount_p[v] \geq 3t+1$, then O_1 appears correct to p and, by line 13, p decides v. It is still possible that some process q, using the above properties, detected O_1 to be faulty. However, since $A_v[1\dots 3t+1]$ and $B[1\dots 4t+1]$ are consensus objects and no more than t of them fail, we have $count_q[v] \geq t+1$ and $WitnessCount_q[v] \geq 2t+1$. Thus, lines 12 through 18 of the implementation ensure that q proposes v to O_2 . Since O_2 is correct (this follows from the fact that O_1 is faulty), O_2 returns v and, thus, q also decides v.

We now provide a more rigorous proof of correctness for the implementation.

Theorem 5.3 Figure 10 presents a t-tolerant gracefully degrading self-implementation of consensus for arbitrary failures of resource complexity $O(t \log t)$.

```
A_0[1...3t+1], A_1[1...3t+1], B[1...4t+1] : (0-tolerant) consensus objects,
             initialized to the uncommitted state
O_1: \left\lceil \frac{t-1}{2} \right\rceil-tolerant consensus objects, initialized to the uncommitted state O_2: \left\lfloor \frac{t-1}{2} \right\rfloor-tolerant consensus objects, initialized to the uncommitted state
       Procedure Propose(p, v_p, \mathcal{O})
               count_p[0..1], \ WitnessCount_p[0..1], \ belief_p, ans1_p, \ ans2_p, \ v'_p, \ i, \ w : integer local to \ p
       begin
1
               count_{p}[0..1], WitnessCount_{p}[0..1] := (0.0)
2
               Phase 1: for i := 1 to 3t + 1
                                      \begin{split} w := \texttt{f-propose}(p, v_{p}, A_{v_{p}}[i]) \\ \text{if } w = v_{p} \text{ then } count_{p}[v_{p}] := count_{p}[v_{p}] + 1 \end{split}
3
4
5
               Phase 2: ans1_p := f\text{-propose}(p, v_p, O_1)
6
               Phase 3: for i := 1 to 4t + 1
                                       w := f\text{-propose}(p, ans1_p, B[i])
7
8
                                       WitnessCount_p[w] := WitnessCount_p[w] + 1
9
               Phase 4: for i := 1 to 3t + 1
                                      \begin{array}{l} w := \mathtt{f-propose}(p, v_{\scriptscriptstyle p}, A_{\overline{v_{\scriptscriptstyle p}}}[i]) \\ \mathtt{if} \ w = \overline{v_{\scriptscriptstyle p}} \ \mathtt{then} \ count_{\scriptscriptstyle p}[\overline{v_{\scriptscriptstyle p}}] := count_{\scriptscriptstyle p}[\overline{v_{\scriptscriptstyle p}}] + 1 \end{array}
10
11
12
               Phase 5: Choose belief_p such that WitnessCount_p[belief_p] > WitnessCount_p[\overline{belief_p}]
13
                                if WitnessCount_p[belief_p] \geq 3t+1 and count_p[belief_p] \geq 2t+1 then
14
                                       return(belief_p)
                                if WitnessCount_p[belief_p] \geq 2t+1 and count_p[belief_p] \geq t+1 then
15
16
                                       v_p' := \mathit{belief}_p
                                _{\mathbf{else}}
17
                                       v_p' := v_p
18
                                ans2_p := propose(p, v_p', O_2)
19
                                return(ans2_p)
       end
```

Figure 10: Efficient t-tolerant self-implementation of consensus for arbitrary failures

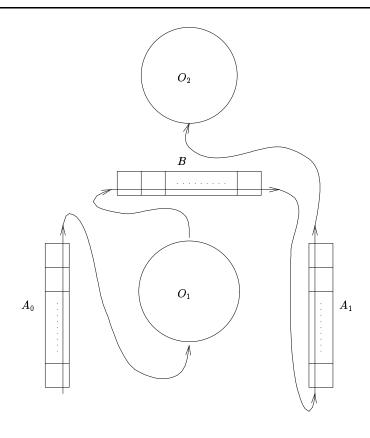


Figure 11: Execution trace of a process proposing 0 on $\mathcal O$

Proof Since the implementation is bounded, by Lemma 4.2, it is gracefully degrading for arbitrary failures. We now prove that the implementation is t-tolerant.

Consider an execution E in which at most t base objects fail by the arbitrary failure mode, and the remaining are correct. We show below, through a series of lemmas, that \mathcal{O} is correct in E; or equivalently (by Proposition 5.1), that \mathcal{O} satisfies validity, agreement, and integrity, and is wait-free in E. Proposition 5.1 is used very often in this proof. For brevity, we omit references to it.

Lemma 5.3 If O_1 fails in E, then O_2 is correct in E.

Proof Suppose both O_1 and O_2 fail in E. Since O_1 is derived from a $\lceil \frac{t-1}{2} \rceil$ -tolerant implementation, at least $\lceil \frac{t-1}{2} \rceil + 1$ base objects of O_1 must fail in E. Similarly, at least $\lfloor \frac{t-1}{2} \rfloor + 1$ base objects of O_2 must fail in E. Thus a total of $\lceil \frac{t-1}{2} \rceil + \lfloor \frac{t-1}{2} \rfloor + 2 > t$ base objects of \mathcal{O} fail in E, a contradiction to the definition of E.

Lemma 5.4 If O_1 is correct in E, \mathcal{O} satisfies validity and agreement in E.

Proof Suppose O_1 is correct. Thus, O_1 satisfies validity and agreement. By the agreement property of O_1 , $ans1_p = ans1_q$ for all p,q. Let $v = ans1_p$. Thus, every process proposes the same value v to every B[i] in Phase 3. Since at most t objects in B[1...4t+1] fail, $belief_p = v$ and $WitnessCount_p[belief_p] \ge 3t+1$ (for every p).

By the validity property of O_1 , some process q will have invoked $\operatorname{propose}(q, v, O_1)$ before any process gets the response v from O_1 . This implies that q will have finished Phase 1 before any process begins Phase 3. Since at least 2t+1 objects in $A_v[1\ldots 3t+1]$ are correct, it follows that, for all p, $\operatorname{count}_p[v] \geq 2t+1$ by the end of Phase 4 of p. Thus, we have $\operatorname{WitnessCount}_p[\operatorname{belief}_p] \geq 3t+1$ and $\operatorname{count}_p[\operatorname{belief}_p] \geq 2t+1$ (for every p). Hence, every p decides v (the proposal of q) by line 14.

Lemma 5.5 If O_1 fails in E, \mathcal{O} satisfies validity and agreement in E.

Proof Suppose O_1 fails. Then by Lemma 5.3, O_2 is correct, and thus satisfies validity and agreement. We need to consider two cases.

<u>CASE 1</u> Suppose some process p returns by line 14. This implies that $WitnessCount_p[belief_p] \ge 3t+1$ and $count_p[belief_p] \ge 2t+1$. Since at most t base objects fail, it follows that, for every q, $WitnessCount_q[belief_p] \ge 2t+1$ and $count_q[belief_p] \ge t+1$. By line 12, this implies that $belief_q = belief_p$. Let $V = belief_p$. Since $WitnessCount_q[belief_q] \ge 2t+1$ and $count_q[belief_q] \ge t+1$, either q returns $belief_q = V$ by line 14 and we have agreement between p and q, or q sets v'_q to $belief_q$ by line 16, making v'_q equal to V. Thus every q, that does not return by line 14, proposes $v'_q = V$ on O_2 . By the validity property of O_2 , $ans2_q = V$, and q returns V by line 19. Again we have agreement between p and q.

To see that \mathcal{O} satisfies validity, note that $count_p[belief_p] \geq 2t+1$ implies that some process proposed $belief_p = V$ on at least t+1 objects in $A_{belief_p}[1 \dots 3t+1]$.

<u>CASE 2</u> Suppose no process returns by line 14. Then every q returns $ans2_q$ by line 19. By the agreement property of O_2 , for all p,q, we have $ans2_p=ans2_q$. Thus, \mathcal{O} satisfies agreement. In the following, let $ans=ans2_p$.

By the validity property of O_2 , some process p must have proposed ans to O_2 . That is $v_p' = ans$. In the algorithm, v_p' equals either v_p or $belief_p$. If $v_p' = v_p$, then clearly $\mathcal O$ satisfies validity. If $v_p' = belief_p \neq v_p$, then p must have executed line 16. It follows that $count_p[belief_p] \geq t+1$. Since at most t objects in $A_{belief_p}[1 \dots 3t+1]$ fail, some process q proposed $v_q = belief_p$ on some object in $A_{belief_p}[1 \dots 3t+1]$. Thus, process q proposed v_q on $\mathcal O$. Thus, $\mathcal O$ satisfies validity.

Lemma 5.6 The resource complexity of the implementation in Figure 10 is $O(t \log t)$.

Proof Denoting the resource complexity of the t-tolerant self-implementation of consensus for arbitrary failures by f(t), we have the following recurrence: f(t) = 2f(t/2) + 2(3t+1) + (4t+1) and f(1) = 6.

It is obvious that \mathcal{O} satisfies integrity and is wait-free in E. By Lemmas 5.4 and 5.5, \mathcal{O} satisfies validity and agreement in E. Thus, by Proposition 5.1, \mathcal{O} is correct in E. This completes the proof of Theorem 5.3.

As we will see later, to obtain fault-tolerant implementations of generic types, it is useful to have a fault-tolerant implementation of consensus with safe-reset, not just of consensus. Let us first recall the type consensus with safe-reset. The sequential specification of this type is in Figure 2 and its history transformation function is explained in Section 2.8. Intuitively, an object of this type is like a consensus object, but it also supports the reset operation. Applying reset causes the object to move to the uncommitted state. Thus, the object can be used for multiple rounds of consensus by resetting it between rounds. However, the reset operation is guaranteed to work only if it is executed in "isolation": that is, if it is not concurrent with another reset operation or a propose operation. Otherwise the object may behave in an unrestricted manner.

Figures 10 and 12, with the following modifications, present a t-tolerant gracefully degrading self-implementation of consensus with safe-reset. In Figure 10, assume that objects $A_0[1\dots 3t+1]$, $A_1[1\dots 3t+1]$, and $B[1\dots 4t+1]$ are no longer just consensus objects, but are consensus-with-safe-reset objects, initialized to the uncommitted state. Also, assume that O_1 and O_2 are $\lceil \frac{t-1}{2} \rceil$ -tolerant and $\lfloor \frac{t-1}{2} \rfloor$ -tolerant consensus-with-safe-reset objects, initialized to the uncommitted state.

Theorem 5.4 Figures 10 and 12 present a t-tolerant gracefully degrading self-implementation of consensus with safe-reset for arbitrary failures.

Proof Sketch Let E be an execution in which a reset operation on \mathcal{O} is not concurrent with any other operation on \mathcal{O} . It is obvious that at the end of an execution of $\operatorname{Reset}(p,\mathcal{O})$, all correct objects among O_1 , O_2 , $A_0[1\ldots 3t+1]$, $A_1[1\ldots 3t+1]$, and $B[1\ldots 4t+1]$ are in the uncommitted state. The implementation of $\operatorname{Propose}(p,v_p,\mathcal{O})$, as well as its proof of correctness, is the same as before.

```
\begin{aligned} \mathbf{Procedure} & \, \mathtt{Reset}(p,\mathcal{O}) \\ & i: \, \mathtt{integer} \, \mathtt{local} \, \mathtt{to} \, p \\ \mathbf{begin} \\ & \, \mathtt{reset}(p,O_1) \\ & \, \mathtt{reset}(p,O_2) \\ & \, \mathbf{for} \, i:=1 \, \mathtt{to} \, 3t+1 \\ & \, \mathtt{reset}(p,A_0[i]) \\ & \, \mathtt{reset}(p,A_1[i]) \\ & \, \mathbf{for} \, i:=1 \, \mathtt{to} \, 4t+1 \\ & \, \mathtt{reset}(p,B[i]) \\ & \, \mathtt{return}(ack) \end{aligned}
```

Figure 12: Reset procedure of the t-tolerant self-implementation of consensus with safe-reset for arbitrary failures

5.2 Fault-tolerant implementation of register

The type n-valued register supports the operations read and $write\ v\ (0 \le v < n)$, and has a simple sequential specification: read returns the last value written. We write unbounded register for ∞ -valued register, and boolean register for 2-valued register. If a result holds for n-valued register, for all finite n and for $n = \infty$, in stating that result we simply write register without qualifying it as n-valued. The main result of this section is that register has a t-tolerant gracefully degrading self-implementation for arbitrary failures.

First, we present a t-tolerant gracefully degrading self-implementation of 1-reader 1-writer safe register in Figure 13.⁷ The implementation uses 2t+1 base registers. To read the derived register, the reader process P_r reads all 2t+1 base registers and collects their responses in S. It then returns mode(S), a value that occurs at least as many times in S as any other value. To write a value v into the derived register, the writer process P_w simply writes v to all 2t+1 base registers.

Lemma 5.7 Figure 13 presents a t-tolerant gracefully degrading self-implementation of 1-reader 1-writer safe register for arbitrary failures.

Proof Sketch Since the implementation is bounded, by Lemma 4.2, it is gracefully degrading

⁷Recall that this type has the same sequential specification as register, but has a different history transformation function, as explained in Section 2.8. Intuitively, if a read operation on an object of this type overlaps with a write, then that read operation is allowed to return any value [Lam86]. Furthermore, the object's behavior is unrestricted if either more than one process invokes read operations or more than one process invokes write operations.

$R_1, R_2, \dots, R_{2t+1}$: 1-reader 1-writer safe registers, initialized to the initial value of the derived register

```
\frac{\text{Apply}(P_w, write } v, \mathcal{R})}{i: \text{integer, local to } P_w}
Apply(P_r, read, \mathcal{R})
     val, i: integers, local to P_r
     S: multi-set of integers, local to P_r
begin
                                                                        begin
     S := \emptyset
                                                                              for i := 1 to 2t + 1
     for i := 1 to 2t + 1
                                                                                   apply(P_w, write\ v, R_i)
          val := \mathtt{apply}(P_r, \mathit{read}, R_i)
                                                                             return ack
          S := S \cup \{val\}
                                                                        end
     return mode(S)
end
```

Figure 13: t-tolerant self-implementation of 1-reader 1-writer safe register for arbitrary failures

for arbitrary failures. We now prove that the implementation is t-tolerant.

Let \mathcal{R} be a derived register of the implementation, and R_1, \dots, R_{2t+1} be its base registers. Let E be an execution in which at most one process, call it P_r , reads \mathcal{R} , and at most one process, call it P_w , writes \mathcal{R} . Also, assume that at most t base registers fail in E and they fail by the arbitrary failure mode. Consider a read operation r on \mathcal{R} by P_r that is not concurrent with any write operation on \mathcal{R} by P_w . Let $\text{Apply}(P_w, write\ v, \mathcal{R})$ be the latest write operation that precedes r. It is clear from the implementation that all correct base registers return v during the operation r. Since there are at least t+1 correct base registers, it follows that P_r receives v from at least t+1 base registers, and returns v. Hence the correctness of the implementation.

There are many results presenting bounded implementations of one type of register from another [Pet83, Lam86, VA86, Blo87, BP87, NW87, PB87, SAG87, Sch88, Vid88, Vid89, HV91]. Some of them (for example, [Lam86, SAG87, Sch88]) can be combined to implement a multi-reader, multi-writer, atomic register using 1-reader, 1-writer, safe registers. In our terminology, this means that register has a bounded implementation from 1-reader 1-writer safe register. This implies, by Lemma 4.2, that register has a 0-tolerant gracefully degrading implementation from 1-reader 1-writer safe register for arbitrary failures. Using this result and Lemma 5.7, and applying Corollary 4.1, we conclude that register has a t-tolerant gracefully degrading implementation from 1-reader 1-writer safe register for arbitrary failures. This trivially implies the following theo-

rem.

Theorem 5.5 register has a t-tolerant gracefully degrading self-implementation for arbitrary failures.

5.3 Fault-tolerant implementations of generic types

In this section, we describe how to obtain fault-tolerant gracefully degrading implementations of generic types for arbitrary failures. Since arbitrary failures are more severe than the benign crash and omission failures, these implementations tolerate such benign failures as well. They are however not gracefully degrading for crash or omission. We study the feasibility of gracefully degrading implementations for benign failure modes in Section 7.

The theorems of this section depend on the universality results due to Herlihy and Plotkin [Her91b, Plo89]. These results are stated below.

Theorem 5.6 (Herlihy) For all types T, there is a k such that T has a (0-tolerant) k-bounded implementation from {consensus with safe-reset, unbounded register}.

Herlihy's universal construction requires unbounded registers even to implement finite types. Plotkin's construction, on the other hand, requires only boolean registers in such a situation [Plo89]. (Jayanti and Toueg achieve the same result as Plotkin, but with a more intuitive construction [JT92].)

Theorem 5.7 (Plotkin) For all finite types T, there is a k such that T has a (0-tolerant) k-bounded implementation from {consensus with safe-reset, boolean register}.

From Plotkin's theorem and Lemma 4.2, it follows that every finite type has a (0-tolerant) gracefully-degrading implementation from {consensus with safe-reset, boolean register} for arbitrary failures. Using this, together with Theorems 5.4, 5.5, and Lemma 4.1, we obtain:

Corollary 5.1 Let T be any finite type.

- T has a t-tolerant gracefully degrading implementation from {consensus with safe-reset, boolean register} for arbitrary failures.
- If each of consensus with safe-reset and boolean register has a 0-tolerant gracefully degrading implementation from T for arbitrary failures, then T has a t-tolerant gracefully degrading self-implementation for arbitrary failures.

From Theorem 5.6 and Lemma 4.2, it follows that every type has a (0-tolerant) gracefully-degrading implementation from {consensus with safe-reset, unbounded register} for arbitrary failures. Using this, together with Theorems 5.4, 5.5, and Lemma 4.1, we obtain:

Corollary 5.2 Let T be any type.

- T has a t-tolerant gracefully degrading implementation from {consensus with safe-reset, unbounded register} for arbitrary failures.
- If each of consensus with safe-reset and unbounded register has a 0-tolerant gracefully degrading implementation from T for arbitrary failures, then T has a t-tolerant gracefully degrading self-implementation for arbitrary failures.

We now apply the above corollaries to show that several common types have t-tolerant self-implementations for arbitrary failures. However, to do this, we have to first show that common types implement both consensus with safe-reset and register.

It is known that fetch&add, queue, stack, and test&set implement consensus with safe-reset for two processes, and that compare&swap, move, and memory-to-memory swap (henceforth m-m swap) implement consensus with safe-reset for any number of processes [Her91b, KM93]. These are all bounded implementations and, by Lemma 4.2, are gracefully degrading for arbitrary failures.

We claim that compare&swap, move, m-m swap, and test&set implement 1-reader 1-writer boolean safe register, and that fetch&add, queue, and stack implement 1-reader 1-writer unbounded safe register. We will show a bounded implementation of 1-reader 1-writer boolean register from test&set, and this trivially implies that test&set implements 1-reader 1-writer boolean safe register. The other implementations claimed above are also bounded and are easy to obtain. We have therefore omitted their descriptions. As already mentioned, it is known that register has a bounded implementation from 1-reader 1-writer safe register. From these results, we conclude that boolean register has a bounded implementation from each of compare&swap, move, m-m swap, and test&set, and that unbounded register has a bounded implementation from each of fetch&add, queue, and stack. By Lemma 4.2, these implementations are gracefully degrading for arbitrary failures.

In Figure 14, we implement a 1-reader 1-writer boolean register \mathcal{R} from a test&set object TS. To complement the value in \mathcal{R} , the writer flips the state of TS. It does this by applying the test&set operation on TS. If this operation returns 0, the writer knows that it has flipped the state of TS. Otherwise, the writer applies the reset operation to flip the state of TS. To read \mathcal{R} , the reader obtains the current state of TS by applying the test&set operation on it. If the state of TS is 0, the reader deduces that, since its last read, the writer complemented the value of \mathcal{R} an odd number of times. Therefore, the reader returns the complement of the last value it returned. We omit the proof of correctness.

From the above, we have

⁸Our definition of the types move and m-m swap are weaker than the corresponding ones given by Herlihy [Her91b]. In our definition (see Appendix B), an object of either type consists of only a pair of cells whose contents can be moved or swapped. In [Her91b], a move/swap operation can move/swap the contents of any cell into any other cell in an infinite array of cells. Kleinberg and Mullainathan showed that, even with the weaker definitions, move and m-m swap can implement consensus with safe-reset for any number of processes [KM93].

```
TS: test&set object, initialized to state 1 

LastValueReturned: boolean, local to the reader process P_r, initialized to the initial value of the implemented register \mathcal{R} 

LastValueWritten: boolean, local to the writer process P_w, initialized to the initial value of the implemented register \mathcal{R} 

state_r: boolean, local to the reader process P_r, uninitialized state_w: boolean, local to the writer process P_w, uninitialized
```

```
\begin{array}{ll} & \underbrace{\mathsf{Apply}(P_r, read, \mathcal{R})}_{state_r} := \mathtt{test\&set}(P_r, \mathit{TS}) & \underbrace{\mathsf{if}\; (v \neq \mathit{LastValueWritten})\; \mathtt{then}}_{last\mathit{ValueReturned}} := v \\ & \underbrace{\mathit{LastValueReturned}}_{return\; \mathit{LastValueReturned}} & \underbrace{\mathit{state}_w := \mathtt{test\&set}(P_w, \mathit{TS})}_{return\; \mathit{ack}} \\ \end{array}
```

Figure 14: 1-reader 1-writer boolean register from test&set

Corollary 5.3 compare&swap, move, and m-m swap have t-tolerant self-implementations for arbitrary failures.

Corollary 5.4 queue, stack, test&set, and fetch&add have t-tolerant self-implementations for arbitrary failures. These implementations are for two processes.

6 Tolerating non-responsive failures

So far we have considered objects that remain responsive (i.e., wait-free) even if they fail. Thus, after invoking an operation, a process could afford to wait for a response before proceeding to invoke the next operation. Consequently, there has been no need so far for a process to have more than one incomplete operation at any time. With non-responsive failures, the situation is different. Since a failed object may not respond, waiting for a response could block the process forever. To overcome this difficulty, we allow a process to access base objects "in parallel". In other words, a process can have multiple incomplete operations at any time. However, we still restrict a process to have no more than one incomplete operation on any particular object.

The ability to access base objects in parallel allows us to build a t-tolerant implementation of register, even for NR-arbitrary failures. In contrast, we show that consensus does not have an implementation that can tolerate the failure of a single base object, even if we assume that the faulty object can only fail by NR-crash and even if we do not restrict the number or the type of base objects that can be used in the implementation. Consequently, test&set, compare&swap, queue, stack, and several other common types, which can implement consensus, have no fault-tolerant implementations for any non-responsive failure mode. However, we show that randomization can be used to circumvent this impossibility result. Every type has a t-tolerant randomized implementation from register, even for NR-arbitrary failures. These results are the subject of this section.

6.1 Impossibility of fault-tolerant implementation of consensus

In this section, we first prove that consensus has no 1-tolerant implementation for NR-crash. We then define an extremely weak non-responsive failure mode, called *unfairness to a known process*, and prove that consensus has no 1-tolerant implementation even for this failure mode.

In each case, to prove that a certain implementation \mathcal{I} does not exist, we show that if \mathcal{I} exists, it would violate well-known the impossibility result due to Loui and Abu-Amara [LAA87] and Dolev, Dwork, and Stockmeyer [DDS87]. This result is about the *consensus problem for n processes*, defined informally as follows. Each process P_i is initially given an input $v_i \in \{0,1\}$. Each correct process P_i must eventually decide a value d_i such that (i) $d_i \in \{v_1, v_2, \dots, v_n\}$, and (ii) for all processes P_i and P_j that decide, $d_i = d_j$.

Theorem 6.1 (Loui and Abu-Amara, Dolev, Dwork, and Stockmeyer)

The consensus problem for n processes has no solution if processes may communicate only via registers and at most one process may crash.

Theorem 6.2 There is no 1-tolerant implementation of consensus, even for two processes, for NR-crash.

Proof Suppose, for contradiction, there is a finite list $\mathcal{L} = (T_1, T_2, \dots, T_l)$ of types and a list $\Sigma = (s_1, s_2, \dots, s_l)$ of states such that there is a 1-tolerant implementation \mathcal{I} of consensus from (\mathcal{L}, Σ) , for two processes, for NR-crash. We will use this implementation to obtain a protocol for the consensus problem for l+2 processes. This protocol will require only registers for communication between processes and solves the consensus problem even if at most one process may crash.

Consider the concurrent system S consisting of l+2 processes, named $\{p_1,p_2\} \cup \{q_j \mid 1 \leq j \leq l\}$, and 4l+1 registers, named $\{invocation(i,j), response(j,i) \mid 1 \leq i \leq 2, 1 \leq j \leq l\} \cup \{decision\}$. We claim that the consensus problem for processes in S is solvable, even if at most one process may crash and processes communicate exclusively via the registers in S. The following is the protocol. Let $v_i \in \{0,1\}$ be the initial input of p_i . The basic idea consists of two steps:

- 1. Let O_1, O_2, \ldots, O_l be objects of type T_1, T_2, \ldots, T_l , initialized to states s_1, s_2, \ldots, s_l , respectively. Let $\mathcal{O} = \mathcal{I}(O_1, \ldots, O_l)$. Thus, \mathcal{O} is a consensus object that can be shared by two processes. Moreover, by definition of \mathcal{I} , \mathcal{O} remains correct even if one of its base objects fails by NR-crash.
- 2. In system S, process q_j $(1 \le j \le l)$ simulates the base object O_j , and process p_i (i = 1, 2) simulates the execution of Propose (p_i, v_i, \mathcal{O}) on the derived object \mathcal{O} .

The details of the protocol are given below. Here, decision is used as a multi-writer multi-reader register. All other registers are used as 1-reader 1-writer registers: p_i writes invocation(i,j) and q_j reads it; q_j writes response(j,i) and p_i reads it.

Initialize all 4l+1 registers to \bot . Process p_i simulates $\operatorname{Propose}(p_i,v_i,\mathcal{O})$ as follows. If $\operatorname{Propose}(p_i,v_i,\mathcal{O})$ requires p_i to invoke some operation op on O_j , p_i appends op to the contents of $\operatorname{invocation}(i,j)$. (Since p_i is the only process that writes $\operatorname{invocation}(i,j)$, appending op to the previous contents can be performed in one step.) If $\operatorname{Propose}(p_i,v_i,\mathcal{O})$ requires p_i to check if a response to some outstanding invocation on O_j has arrived, p_i checks if a response has been appended by q_j (which simulates O_j) to $\operatorname{response}(j,i)$. If $\operatorname{Propose}(p_i,v_i,\mathcal{O})$ returns a value v, p_i first writes v in $\operatorname{decision}$ register, and then decides v. In addition to (and concurrently with) the above, p_i periodically checks if the register $\operatorname{decision}$ contains a non- \bot value. If so, it decides that value.

Process q_j simulates the base object O_j as follows. Periodically q_j checks the registers invocation(1,j) and invocation(2,j), in a round-robin fashion. If q_j notices that some operation op has been appended to invocation(i,j), q_j simulates the application of op to O_j (using the sequential specification of the type T_j) and appends the corresponding response

to response(j, i). In addition to (and concurrently with) the above, q_j periodically checks if the register decision contains a non- \perp value. If so, it decides that value.

The above simulation protocol solves the consensus problem among the l+2 processes in the concurrent system S, even if one of them crashes. To see this, consider any execution E of the concurrent system S in which at most one process crashes. Let E' be the corresponding "simulated" execution of the derived object \mathcal{O} . Note that the crash of one process in S corresponds to the NR-crash of at most one (simulated) base object of the (simulated) derived object \mathcal{O} in E'. Since \mathcal{I} , the consensus implementation from which \mathcal{O} is derived, is 1-tolerant for NR-crash, \mathcal{O} is correct in E' (despite the NR-crash of one of its base objects). Thus, by Proposition 5.1, \mathcal{O} satisfies integrity, validity, and agreement, and is wait-free in E'. Since \mathcal{O} is wait-free (in E'), if p_i does not crash, Propose(p_i, v_i, \mathcal{O}) eventually returns some value v (in E'). Since \mathcal{O} satisfies integrity, $v \in \{0,1\}$. Since \mathcal{O} satisfies validity, v is either v_1 or v_2 . Since \mathcal{O} satisfies agreement, Propose(p_1, v_1, \mathcal{O}) and Propose(p_2, v_2, \mathcal{O}) never return different values. Thus, from the protocol, p_1 and p_2 do not write different values in register decision. Since at most one process crashes, at least one of p_1 and p_2 will eventually write a binary value v in register decision. Since all correct processes periodically check the decision register, they eventually decide v.

We showed that we can use \mathcal{I} to solve the consensus problem in system S. This contradicts Theorem 6.1. Thus, \mathcal{I} cannot exist.

We can strengthen the above result as follows. Suppose that at most one base object may fail and that it can only do so by being "unfair" (i.e., by not responding) to at most one process. Furthermore, suppose that the identity of this process is a priori "common knowledge" among all the processes. Even with this extremely weak failure mode, called unfairness to a known process, we can prove the following:

Theorem 6.3 There is no 1-tolerant implementation of consensus, even for two processes, for unfairness to a known process.

Proof Sketch Suppose, for contradiction, there is a finite list $\mathcal{L} = (T_1, T_2, \dots, T_l)$ of types and a list $\Sigma = (s_1, s_2, \dots, s_l)$ of states such that there is a 1-tolerant implementation \mathcal{I} of consensus from (\mathcal{L}, Σ) , for two processes, for unfairness to, say, process p_1 . Consider the concurrent system S, as defined in the proof of Theorem 6.2. Suppose processes in S run the same simulation protocol as in that proof. There are two cases:

- 1. No process q_k crashes. In this case, it is easy to see that processes in S solve the consensus problem (exactly as before).
- 2. Some process q_k crashes. In this case, processes in S may fail to solve the consensus problem for the following reason. The crash of q_k corresponds to the NR-crash of the simulated base object O_k . This object is now potentially unfair to both p_1 and p_2 . But \mathcal{I} tolerates unfairness to only p_1 . So the derived consensus object \mathcal{O} of \mathcal{I} is not necessarily correct.

To circumvent the problem that arises in Case 2, we modify the simulation protocol as follows: If $Propose(p_2, v_2, \mathcal{O})$ requires p_2 to invoke some operation op on some O_j , p_2 appends op to the contents of invocation(2, j), as before, but now it also waits until a corresponding response is appended to response(j, 2) by process q_j . The rest of the simulation protocol remains exactly as before. We now reconsider the above two cases with the modified simulation protocol.

- 1. No process q_k crashes. As before, it is easy to see that processes in S solve the consensus problem.
- 2. Some process q_k crashes. If p_2 attempts to access O_k after the crash of q_k , it will simply wait for the response forever. Therefore, at worst, it appears to process p_1 that O_k is unfair to p_1 and that p_2 is extremely slow. Since \mathcal{I} tolerates the unfairness of one base object to p_1 , \mathcal{O} remains correct. Since p_1 does not crash (we assumed that only one process in S crashes, and this is q_k), $\mathsf{Propose}(p_1, v_1, \mathcal{O})$ returns a value that p_1 writes into decision. The rest of the proof is as in Theorem 6.2.

Again, we have a contradiction to Theorem 6.1.

From the above two theorems we have:

Corollary 6.1 If a type T implements consensus for two processes, then T has no 1-tolerant implementation, for two processes, for NR-crash or for unfairness to a known process.

As mentioned in Section 5.3, consensus has an implementation, for two processes, from each of the following types: compare&swap, fetch&add, move, queue, stack, sticky-bit, m-m swap, and test&set. Thus, we have:

Corollary 6.2 None of the following types has a 1-tolerant implementation, for two processes, for NR-crash or for unfairness to a known process: compare&swap, fetch&add, move, queue, stack, sticky-bit, m-m swap, and test&set.

6.2 Fault-tolerant implementation of register

In contrast to the above impossibility results, we show in this section that **register** has a *t*-tolerant self-implementation even for NR-arbitrary failures.

First, we present a t-tolerant self-implementation of 1-reader 1-writer safe register in Figure 15. The implementation uses 5t + 1 base registers. To read the derived register, the reader process P_r invokes read on each base register (P_r delays this read if its previous read on the base register is still incomplete). When P_r gets responses from 4t + 1 base registers, which are collected in the multi-set Responses, it returns mode(Responses). (Recall

 $^{^{9}}$ Of course, it also continues to read the decision register periodically and decides if a non- \perp value is found there.

```
R_1,R_2,\cdots,R_{5t+1}: 1-reader 1-writer safe registers, initialized to the initial value of the derived register Pending_r: set, local to the reader process P_r, initialized to \emptyset
```

 $Pending_w$: set, local to the writer process P_w , initialized to \emptyset

```
Apply(P_r, read, \mathcal{R})
                                                             Apply(P_w, write\ v, \mathcal{R})
   Invoked_r: set, local to P_r
                                                                Invoked_w: set, local to P_w
   Responses<sub>m</sub>: multi-set, local to P_r
                                                                 Responses...: multi-set, local to P_w
   val, i : integers, local to P_r
                                                                val, i: integers, local to P_w
begin
                                                             begin
   Invoked_r := \emptyset
                                                                Invoked_w := \emptyset
                                                                \mathit{Responses}_w \, := \, \emptyset
   Responses_r := \emptyset
  i := 0
                                                                i := 0
   Loop
                                                                Loop
      i := (i \mod 5t + 1) + 1
                                                                    i := (i \mod 5t + 1) + 1
      if R_i \in Pending_m then
                                                                   if R_i \in Pending_m then
         Check if R_i responded
                                                                       Check if R_i responded
         if (yes) then
                                                                       if (yes) then
                                                                          Pending_w := Pending_w - \{R_i\}
            Pending_r := Pending_r - \{R_i\}
            Let val be the response
                                                                          Let val be the response
            if R_i \in Invoked_r then
                                                                          if R_i \in Invoked_r then
               \mathit{Responses}_r := \mathit{Responses}_r \cup \{val\}
                                                                             \mathit{Responses}_w := \mathit{Responses}_w \cup \{\mathit{val}\}
      if (R_i \not\in Pending_r) \land (R_i \not\in Invoked_r) then
                                                                   if (R_i \notin Pending_w) \land (R_i \notin Invoked_w) then
         Invoke read on R_i
                                                                       Invoke write v on R_i
                                                                       Invoked_w := Invoked_w \cup \{R_i\}
         Invoked_r := Invoked_r \cup \{R_i\}
         Pending_r := Pending_r \cup \{R_i\}
                                                                       Pending_{m} := Pending_{m} \cup \{R_{i}\}
   Until |Responses_r| = 4t + 1
                                                                 Until |Responses_w| = 4t + 1
  return mode(Responses_r)
                                                                return ack
end
                                                             end
```

Figure 15: t-tolerant self-implementation of 1-reader 1-writer safe register for NR-arbitrary failures

that mode(S) is a value that occurs at least as many times in S as any other value.) To write a value v into the derived register, the writer process P_w invokes write v on each base register (again, the writer delays invoking this write if its previous write on the base register is still incomplete). The writing of the derived register completes when the writer receives the response ack from 4t+1 base registers.

In the implementation, the reader and the writer maintain three sets each in their local memory. *Pending* is the set of base registers on which the process has incomplete operations. *Invoked* is the set of base registers on which the process has already invoked operations in the current execution of the operation on the derived object. *Responses* is the set of responses, from base registers, to the invocations made during the current execution of the operation on the derived object.

Lemma 6.1 Figure 15 presents a t-tolerant self-implementation of 1-reader 1-writer safe register for NR-arbitrary failures.

As mentioned in Section 5.2, it is known that register has an implementation from 1-reader 1-writer safe register. Using this result and Lemma 6.1, and applying Corollary $4.1,^{10}$ we conclude that register has a t-tolerant implementation from 1-reader 1-writer safe register for NR-arbitrary failures. This implies the following theorem.

Theorem 6.4 register has a t-tolerant self-implementation for NR-arbitrary failures.

6.3 Randomized fault-tolerant implementations of generic types

So far we assumed that processes are deterministic. Suppose instead that processes have access to "fair coins". A process can toss a coin and, based on the outcome of the toss, choose its step. Furthermore, let us informally define a randomized implementation as an implementation in which every correct process completes its operation on the derived object in a finite expected number of operations on the base objects. Interestingly, every type has a randomized implementation from register [Her91a], but most types have no (deterministic) implementations from register [Her91b]. In the following, we present a generalization of the former result.

consensus with safe-reset has a randomized implementation from register [Asp90]. Together with Theorem 6.4, this implies that consensus with safe-reset has a t-tolerant randomized implementation from register for NR-arbitrary failures. Combining this with Theorem 6.4, and Theorems 5.6 and 5.7 of Herlihy and Plotkin, we have

 $^{^{10}}$ Observe that every implementation is automatically gracefully degrading for NR-arbitrary failures. Thus, we are able to apply Corollary 4.1.

Theorem 6.5 Every finite type has a t-tolerant randomized implementation from boolean register for NR-arbitrary failures. Every infinite type has a t-tolerant randomized implementation from unbounded register for NR-arbitrary failures.

Thus, if a finite (respectively, infinite) type T implements boolean register (respectively, unbounded register), then T has a t-tolerant randomized self-implementation for NR-arbitrary failures. As mentioned in Section 5.3, each of test&set, compare&swap, move, and m-m swap implements boolean register, and each of fetch&add, queue, and stack implements unbounded register. Thus, each of the above types has a t-tolerant randomized self-implementation even for NR-arbitrary failures.

6.4 Decomposability of NR-arbitrary failures

The final result of this section concerns the nature of NR-arbitrary failures. It states that the problem of tolerating NR-arbitrary failures can be reduced to two strictly simpler problems: tolerating arbitrary failures and tolerating NR-omission failures.

Lemma 6.2 (Decomposability of NR-arbitrary failures) A type T has a t-tolerant self-implementation for NR-arbitrary failures if and only if T has t-tolerant self-implementations for arbitrary failures and for NR-omission failures.

Proof Sketch The "only if" direction is obvious. We now sketch the proof for the "if" direction. Let s be any state of T. Let \mathcal{I}_a be a t-tolerant self-implementation of (T,s) for arbitrary failures and \mathcal{I}_o be a t-tolerant self-implementation of (T,s) for NR-omission failures. Let m and n be the resource complexity of the implementations \mathcal{I}_a and \mathcal{I}_o , respectively. Define an implementation \mathcal{I} , of resource complexity $m \cdot n$, as follows: $\mathcal{I}(o_1, o_2, \ldots, o_{nm}) = \mathcal{I}_o(\mathcal{I}_a(o_1, \ldots, o_m), \ldots, \mathcal{I}_a(o_{(n-1)m+1}, \ldots, o_{nm}))$. We will verify below that \mathcal{I} is a t-tolerant self-implementation of (T,s) for NR-arbitrary failures.

Let \mathcal{O} be a derived object of \mathcal{I} and o_1, o_2, \ldots, o_{nm} be the base objects of \mathcal{O} . Thus, $\mathcal{O} = \mathcal{I}_o(O_1, O_2, \ldots, O_n)$ where $O_k = \mathcal{I}_a(o_{(k-1)m+1}, o_{(k-1)m+2}, \ldots, o_{km})$ $(1 \leq k \leq n)$. Assume that at most t objects among o_1, o_2, \ldots, o_{nm} fail, and they fail in an arbitrary manner. This trivially implies that, for each O_k , at most t base objects of O_k fail. Since O_k is not derived from an implementation that tolerates NR-arbitrary failures, O_k may not respond to an invocation; however, if it does respond, since it is derived from an implementation that is t-tolerant for arbitrary failures, its response is correct. We conclude that, if O_k fails, it fails by NR-omission. We also conclude that at most t objects among O_1, O_2, \ldots, O_n fail (this follows from the fact that at most t objects among o_1, o_2, \ldots, o_{nm} fail). From these conclusions and the fact that \mathcal{I}_o is t-tolerant for NR-omission, it follows that \mathcal{O} is correct. Hence the lemma.

7 Graceful degradation for benign failure modes

Graceful degradation is a desirable property of implementations: it ensures that an implemented object never fails more severely than any of its components. Furthermore, if faulttolerant implementations are gracefully degrading, then they can be composed (Lemma 4.1) and their degree of fault-tolerance can be automatically boosted (Lemma 4.3). In this section, we investigate the cost and the feasibility of achieving graceful degradation for the benign crash and omission failure modes. As one might expect, graceful degradation comes at a cost: for omission, consensus has a t-tolerant self-implementation of resource complexity t+1, but it has no t-tolerant gracefully degrading implementation of resource complexity less than 2t+1. With respect to feasibility, our results are as follows. We identify a class of "order sensitive" types that includes many common types such as queue, stack, test&set, and compare&swap. We prove that no type in this class has a fault-tolerant gracefully degrading implementation for crash. Thus, when an object of such a type is implemented in software from a set of hardware objects, the software object can fail more severely than crash even if the underlying hardware objects only fail by crash. In contrast, we show that graceful degradation for omission is achievable in a strong sense: For omission, every type has a t-tolerant gracefully degrading implementation from every universal set of types. (A set S of types is universal if every type has an implementation from S.)

7.1 Cost of achieving graceful degradation

We have seen that, for omission, consensus has a t-tolerant self-implementation of resource complexity t+1 (see Figure 8). But this implementation is not gracefully degrading for omission. In this section, we describe a self-implementation of consensus that is both t-tolerant and gracefully degrading for omission. The resource complexity of this implementation is 2t+1. We will then prove that, for any "non-trivial" type (such as consensus), 2t+1 is a lower bound on the resource complexity of any t-tolerant gracefully degrading implementation. From these results, we conclude that graceful degradation comes at a cost.

First, let us recall why the implementation in Figure 8 is not gracefully degrading. Suppose that $v_p = 0$ and $v_q = 1$, and all the t + 1 base objects $O_1, O_2, \ldots, O_{t+1}$ fail by crash initially. It is easy to see that \mathcal{O} returns 0 to p and 1 to q. Thus, \mathcal{O} does not satisfy agreement and, by Proposition 5.2, the failure of \mathcal{O} is more severe than omission.

In Figure 16, we present a t-tolerant gracefully degrading self-implementation of consensus for omission.¹¹ The implementation uses 2t+1 base consensus objects. A process p proposes to the derived object \mathcal{O} by accessing each of O_1,O_2,\ldots,O_{2t+1} , in that order. At any point in the algorithm, p holds an estimate of the eventual return value in $estimate_p$. When p proposes its current estimate to a base object O_k , if O_k returns a non- \bot response different from p's current estimate, p deduces that all of O_1,O_2,\ldots,O_{k-1} have failed. Accordingly, p sets each location in its local vector $V_p[1\ldots(k-1)]$ to \bot and changes its estimate to the response it received from O_k . This deduction by p is the most

¹¹As will be shown later in Theorem 7.4, there is no t-tolerant gracefully degrading implementation of consensus for crash (for t > 0).

 $O_1, O_2, \ldots, O_{2t+1}$: consensus objects, initialized to the uncommitted state

```
Procedure Propose(p, v_p, \mathcal{O})
                                                   /* v_p \in \{0,1\} */
          V_p[1...2t+1], estimate, k: integer local to p
    begin
1
         estimate_p := v_p
2
         for k := 1 \text{ to } 2t + 1
3
              V_p[k] := propose(p, estimate_p, O_k)
              \mathbf{if}(V_p[k] \neq \bot) \land (V_p[k] \neq estimate_p) \mathbf{then}
4
5
                   estimate_p := V_p[k]
                   V_p[1\ldots (k-1)] := (\perp, \perp, \ldots, \perp)
6
7
         if V_p has more than t \perp's then
8
              return(\bot)
         else
9
              return(estimate_p)
    end
```

Figure 16: t-tolerant gracefully degrading self-implementation of consensus for omission

important step in the algorithm and is intuitively justified as follows. Suppose that some O_l $(1 \le l \le k-1)$ were correct. By the integrity and agreement property of O_l , every process would receive the same non- \bot response, call it est, from O_l . Thus, every process will have the same estimate est, at the end of accessing O_l . Furthermore, since even objects that fail by omission satisfy validity and agreement, if a base object in $O_{l+1} \dots O_{2t+1}$ returns a non- \bot response, the response must be est. Thus, we conclude that, if O_k returns a response in $\{0,1\}$ which is different from p's current estimate, objects O_1,O_2,\dots,O_{k-1} are faulty. At the end of accessing all 2t+1 base objects, if p believes that no more than t base objects failed, it returns its current estimate. Otherwise it returns \bot .

Lemma 7.1 For every k, $1 \le k \le 2t+1$, at the end of the k^{th} iteration of the for loop of $Propose(p, v_p, \mathcal{O})$ in Figure 16, $estimate_p \in \{0, 1\}$, and $V_p[1..k]$ contains only \perp 's and $estimate_p$'s.

Proof By an easy induction on k.

Theorem 7.1 Figure 16 presents a t-tolerant gracefully degrading self-implementation of consensus for omission. The resource complexity of the implementation is 2t + 1.

Proof Let \mathcal{O} be a derived object of the implementation, and $O_1, O_2, \ldots, O_{2t+1}$ be its base objects. Consider an execution E in which all base objects that fail, fail by omission. (Note that we do not restrict the number of base objects that may fail in E.)

- 1. O is wait-free: Obvious since base objects that fail by omission remain wait-free.
- 2. $\underline{\mathcal{O}}$ satisfies validity: An easy induction on k, the loop variable in Figure 8, shows that, if $estimate_p$ equals some value u at any point in E, then there is an invocation (from some process q) of $Propose(q, u, \mathcal{O})$ earlier in E. The induction will use Proposition 5.2, and the fact that p does not change $estimate_p$ if a base object returns \bot .
- 3. $\underline{\mathcal{O}}$ satisfies agreement: Suppose, for a contradiction, there exist two processes p and q such that $\mathsf{Propose}(p, v_p, \mathcal{O})$ returns 0 and $\mathsf{Propose}(q, v_q, \mathcal{O})$ returns 1. From Lemma 7.1 and lines 7, 8, and 9 of the algorithm, it follows that V_p has at least t+1 0's at the end of the execution of $\mathsf{Propose}(p, v_p, \mathcal{O})$ and V_q has at least t+1 1's at the end of the execution of $\mathsf{Propose}(q, v_q, \mathcal{O})$. This is possible only if there is a k $(1 \le k \le 2t+1)$ such that $\mathsf{propose}(p, estimate_p, O_k)$ returned 0 and $\mathsf{propose}(q, estimate_q, O_k)$ returned 1. Thus O_k does not satisfy agreement. By Proposition 5.2, the failure of O_k in E is not by omission, a contradiction.
- 4. \mathcal{O} satisfies weak integrity: Obvious.
- 5. \mathcal{O} satisfies integrity if at most t base objects fail: Let $O_{k_1}, O_{k_2}, \cdots, O_{k_l}$ $(k_1 < k_2 < \ldots < k_l)$ be all the correct base objects. Since at most t fail, we have $l \geq t+1$. By Proposition 5.1, O_{k_1} satisfies integrity and agreement. Thus, there is a $v \in \{0,1\}$ such that, for all p, propose $(p, estimate_p, O_{k_1})$ returns v. Thus, for all p, $estimate_p = v$ at the end of k_1 iterations of the for-loop in Propose (p, v_p, \mathcal{O}) . Using this and Proposition 5.2, it is easy to verify that, at the end of the execution of Propose $(p, v_p, \mathcal{O}), V_p[k_i] = v$ and $estimate_p = v$ for all p and for all i, $1 \leq i \leq l$. This implies, by lines 7, 8 of the algorithm, that Propose (p, v_p, \mathcal{O}) returns v.

From 1, 2, 3, and 4 above and Proposition 5.2, we conclude that either \mathcal{O} is correct in E or \mathcal{O} fails by omission in E. From 1, 2, 3, and 5 above and Proposition 5.1, we conclude that if at most t base objects of \mathcal{O} fail in E, \mathcal{O} is correct in E. Thus, Figure 16 is a t-tolerant gracefully degrading self-implementation of consensus for omission.

We now prove a general lower bound on the resource complexity of gracefully degrading implementations of any non-trivial type for omission. Informally, a type is trivial if each operation has a fixed response. More precisely, $T = (OP, RES, G, \tau)$ is trivial if, for all states s of T, there is a function $f: OP \to RES$ such that for all finite sequences op_1, op_2, \ldots, op_k of operations, $(op_1, f(op_1)), (op_2, f(op_2)), \ldots, (op_k, f(op_k))$ is legal from state s of T. A type is non-trivial if it is not trivial. The following proposition is immediate.

Proposition 7.1 Let $T = (OP, RES, G, \tau)$ be a deterministic non-trivial type. Then, there exists a state s of T and operations $op_1, op_2 \in OP$ with the following property. Let $f : OP \to RES$ be the function such that, for all $op \in OP$, (op, f(op)) is legal from state s. Then, $(op_1, f(op_1)), (op_2, f(op_2))$ is not legal from s.

For an illustration of the proposition, consider consensus, which is clearly a deterministic and non-trivial type. Let s be the *uncommitted state*, and op_1 and op_2 be *propose*

0 and propose 1, respectively. Then, the function f is as follows: f(propose 0) = 0 and f(propose 1) = 1. Now, as the proposition claims, the sequence (propose 0, f(propose 0)), (propose 1, f(propose 1)) is not legal from the uncommitted state.

Theorem 7.2 Let $T = (OP, RES, G, \tau)$ be any deterministic non-trivial type such that, for all sequential histories H, $\tau(H) = H$. The resource complexity of any t-tolerant gracefully degrading implementation of T, for two processes, for omission is at least 2t + 1.

Proof Let s, op_1, op_2, f be as in Proposition 7.1. Assume that the theorem is false. Then, (T, s) has a t-tolerant gracefully degrading implementation \mathcal{I} from (\mathcal{L}, Σ) , for two processes, for omission, where $\mathcal{L} = (T_1, T_2, \ldots, T_{2t})$ is some list of types and $\Sigma = (s_1, s_2, \ldots, s_{2t})$ is a list of states. Let O_1, O_2, \ldots, O_{2t} be objects of type T_1, T_2, \ldots, T_{2t} , initialized to s_1, s_2, \ldots, s_{2t} , respectively. Let $\mathcal{O} = \mathcal{I}(O_1, O_2, \ldots, O_{2t})$ be the derived object of type T, initialized to state s. We will describe a scenario S in which two processes P and Q apply operations on the derived object \mathcal{O} . At the start of Scenario S, assume that all base objects of \mathcal{O} fail, as described below.

Objects O_i ($1 \leq i \leq t$) fail as follows: Whenever P invokes an operation on O_i , O_i returns a correct response to P and undergoes an appropriate change of state; but whenever Q invokes an operation on O_i , O_i returns \bot and does not undergo any change of state. Objects O_j ($t+1 \leq j \leq 2t$) fail in a symmetric manner, as follows: Whenever P invokes an operation on O_j , O_j returns \bot and does not undergo any change of state; but whenever Q invokes an operation on O_j , O_j returns a correct response to Q and undergoes an appropriate change of state.

Scenario S

- 1. Process Q applies the operation op_1 on \mathcal{O} . Let v_1 be the response of \mathcal{O} .
- 2. Process P applies the operation op_2 on \mathcal{O} .

(When we describe a scenario as above, we mean that all steps in Item 1 strictly precede every step in Item 2.) Note that:

- 1. The failure of each base object is by omission.
- 2. The scenario S is indistinguishable to Q from a scenario S' in which O_1, O_2, \ldots, O_t fail exactly as in S, but $O_{t+1}, O_{t+2}, \ldots, O_{2t}$ are correct. Since \mathcal{O} is derived from a t-tolerant implementation, the response of \mathcal{O} to Q in S' must be correct. By definition of f, it follows that this response is $f(op_1)$. Since S and S' are indistinguishable to Q, Q returns $f(op_1)$ as the response of \mathcal{O} also in S.
- 3. When P applies op_2 on \mathcal{O} (in Scenario S), the manner in which base objects have failed makes it impossible for P to know whether Q previously executed any operations on \mathcal{O} . Thus, Scenario S is indistinguishable to P from a scenario S" in which (i) P is the first process to invoke an operation on \mathcal{O} , and (ii) objects $O_{t+1}, O_{t+2}, \ldots, O_{2t}$ fail

exactly as in Scenario S, but objects O_1, O_2, \ldots, O_t are correct. Since \mathcal{O} is derived from a t-tolerant implementation, the response of \mathcal{O} to P in S'' must be correct. By definition of f, it follows that this response is $f(op_2)$. Since S is indistinguishable to P from S'', P returns $f(op_2)$ as the response of \mathcal{O} also in S.

By Proposition 7.1, $(op_1, f(op_1)), (op_2, f(op_2))$ is not legal from state s. So, the history H of object \mathcal{O} in Scenario S is not linearizable with respect to (T, s). Since H is a sequential history, by the premise of the theorem, $\tau(H) = H$. Thus, $\tau(H)$ is not linearizable with respect to (T, s). In other words, \mathcal{O} does not satisfy Property 3 of omission. We conclude that the failure of \mathcal{O} is not by omission, even though the base objects of \mathcal{O} have failed only by omission. This implies that \mathcal{I} , the implementation from which \mathcal{O} is derived, is not gracefully degrading for omission.

Corollary 7.1 Let \mathcal{I} be any t-tolerant gracefully degrading implementation of consensus, for two processes, for omission. The resource complexity of \mathcal{I} is at least 2t + 1.

7.2 Feasibility of achieving graceful degradation

In this section, we study the feasibility of achieving gracefully degrading implementations for the crash and omission failure modes. We identify a large class of types and prove that no type in this class has a fault-tolerant gracefully degrading implementation for crash. In contrast, we show that graceful degradation for omission is achievable in a strong sense: every type has a t-tolerant gracefully degrading implementation from every universal set of types for omission.

7.2.1 Graceful degradation for crash

Consider a system that supports a given set S of "hardware" objects. Assume that these objects may fail but, if they do, they are guaranteed to only fail by crash. Suppose that we wish to implement an object \mathcal{O} of type T using objects in S. We do not require \mathcal{O} to be fault-tolerant. However, if \mathcal{O} fails because one or more objects in S fail by crash, we would like \mathcal{O} to fail only by crash. This last requirement is desirable for two reasons:

- The benign failure semantics of crash are desirable.
- Such an object \mathcal{O} appears like any other hardware object of the system. In other words, with this "software implementation" of \mathcal{O} , the system would be no different, in functionality and failure semantics, from one that directly supports the objects in $S \cup \{\mathcal{O}\}$ in hardware.

In our terminology, we are seeking a gracefully degrading implementation of T for crash from the types (of the objects) in S. Unfortunately, as we show shortly, many types do not have such implementations, even from very powerful types. This negative result implies

that, in many cases, the simple and desirable failure semantics of crash cannot be achieved. Our negative result applies to the class of order-sensitive types, defined below.

A type $T = (OP, RES, G, \tau)$ is order-sensitive if it is deterministic, τ is the identity, and there is a state s with the following property. There exist operations op, op' (not necessarily distinct) in OP and values u, v, u', v' in RES such that each of (op, u), (op', u') and (op', v'), (op, v) is legal from state s of T, and $u \neq v$ and $u' \neq v'$. Intuitively, when an object \mathcal{O} of type T is in the state s, and two processes p and q invoke operations op and op', respectively, concurrently on \mathcal{O} , they can both determine, based on the return values, the order in which their operations are linearized. It is easy to see that every order-sensitive type implements consensus for two processes.

queue is an example of an order-sensitive type. To see this, let s be the state in which there are two elements 5 and 10 in the queue (5 at the front), and let both op and op' be deq. Now we have u=5, u'=10, v'=5, and v=10. Thus $u\neq v$ and $u'\neq v'$, as required. compare&swap, consensus, stack, and test&set are some other examples of order-sensitive types.

A type is non-order-sensitive if it is deterministic and is not order-sensitive. Examples of non-order-sensitive types include register, sticky-bit, move, and m-m swap. Thus, while every order-sensitive type implements consensus for two processes, not every type that implements consensus for two processes is order-sensitive. In other words, the set of order-sensitive types is a proper subset of the set of types that implement consensus for two processes. (Hereafter we will refer to the latter set as CONS2.)

We now present two theorems for crash. To prevent their long proofs from interrupting the flow, we state both theorems and discuss their implications before presenting the proofs.

Theorem 7.3 Let T be any order-sensitive type and S be any set of non-order-sensitive types. T has no gracefully degrading implementation from S for crash.

This negative result is significant in two ways. First, it holds even though we are not requiring the implementation to be fault-tolerant. Second, the set of non-order-sensitive types includes some universal types, such as sticky-bit, move, and m-m swap. The above result holds despite including such powerful types in S.

Requiring a derived object to inherit the crash failure semantics of its base objects is even more difficult if we add the requirement that the derived object be 1-tolerant: Even if we do not restrict the types of primitives available in the underlying system, such implementations do not exist for many objects of interest. This is the substance of the next theorem.

Theorem 7.4 There is no 1-tolerant gracefully degrading implementation of any order-sensitive type for crash.

The above two theorems raise serious concerns about the "practicality" of the crash mode: Even if "hardware" objects are designed to fail only by crash, "software" objects

usually don't. The omission mode does not have this severe limitation. In fact, we show in the next subsection that, for any $t \geq 0$, every type has a t-tolerant gracefully degrading implementation from every universal set of types for omission. In other words, implementations preserving the omission failure semantics of the underlying system always exist. This is a formal justification for adopting the omission failure mode.

We remark that there are no obvious ways to strengthen Theorem 7.4. For instance, consider the statement "There is no 1-tolerant gracefully degrading implementation of any type in CONS2 for crash". This statement is false. In fact, even the weaker version "There is no 1-tolerant gracefully degrading implementation of any type in CONS2 from any set of non-order-sensitive types for crash" does not hold: We can show that sticky-bit has a t-tolerant gracefully degrading implementation from $\{sticky-bit, register\}$ for crash. Since sticky-bit belongs to CONS2, and both sticky-bit and register are non-order-sensitive, such an implementation is a counter-example to the above statement. The details of this implementation are long and tedious, and are therefore omitted.

We now end Section 7.2.1 with the proofs of Theorems 7.3 and 7.4.

Proof of Theorem 7.3

Suppose that the theorem is false. Then, there is an order-sensitive type T which has a gracefully degrading implementation from some set of non-order-sensitive types for crash. For type T, let op, op', s, u, v, u', v' be as in the definition of an order-sensitive type. It follows that there is a list $\mathcal{L} = (T_1, T_2, \ldots, T_n)$ of non-order-sensitive types and a list $\Sigma = (s_1, s_2, \ldots, s_n)$ of states $(s_i$ is a state of T_i) such that (T, s) has a gracefully degrading implementation \mathcal{I} from (\mathcal{L}, Σ) for crash. We arrive at a contradiction after a series of lemmas involving bivalency arguments [FLP85] and indistinguishable scenarios.

Let $\mathcal{O} = \mathcal{I}(O_1, O_2, \ldots, O_n)$, where O_1, O_2, \ldots, O_n are objects of type T_1, T_2, \ldots, T_n , initialized to states s_1, s_2, \ldots, s_n , respectively. Thus, \mathcal{O} is a (derived) object of type T, initialized to state s. Consider the concurrent system consisting of processes p, q and the object \mathcal{O} . In the following, we will refer to a state of the concurrent system as a configuration. Let C_0 denote a configuration in which \mathcal{O} is in state s and processes p, q are about to execute Apply (p, op, \mathcal{O}) and Apply (q, op', \mathcal{O}) , respectively.

Lemma 7.2 Suppose all base objects are correct. For any interleaving of the steps in the complete executions of $\operatorname{Apply}(p,op,\mathcal{O})$ and $\operatorname{Apply}(q,op',\mathcal{O})$, either $\operatorname{Apply}(p,op,\mathcal{O})$ returns u and $\operatorname{Apply}(q,op',\mathcal{O})$ returns u', or $\operatorname{Apply}(p,op,\mathcal{O})$ returns v and $\operatorname{Apply}(q,op',\mathcal{O})$ returns v'.

Proof In the linearization of the history of object \mathcal{O} , either $\mathtt{Apply}(p,op,\mathcal{O})$ immediately precedes $\mathtt{Apply}(q,op',\mathcal{O})$, or $\mathtt{Apply}(q,op',\mathcal{O})$ immediately precedes $\mathtt{Apply}(p,op,\mathcal{O})$. This, together with the definitions of u,u',v,v', and the fact that T is a deterministic type, implies the lemma.

 $^{^{12}}$ This statement is stronger than Theorem 7.4 since, as remarked earlier, the set of order-sensitive types is a proper subset of CONS2.

Let C denote a configuration reached from C_0 after some interleaving of (partial) executions of $\operatorname{Apply}(p,op,\mathcal{O})$ and $\operatorname{Apply}(q,op',\mathcal{O})$. We say C is X-valent if, in the absence of base object failures, $\operatorname{Apply}(p,op,\mathcal{O})$ returns X, no matter how the steps of $\operatorname{Apply}(p,op,\mathcal{O})$ and $\operatorname{Apply}(q,op',\mathcal{O})$ interleave when execution resumes from C. By Lemma 7.2, if C is X-valent, either X=u or X=v. C is monovalent if C is either u-valent or v-valent. C is bivalent if it is neither u-valent nor v-valent.

Lemma 7.3 C_0 is bivalent.

Proof Starting from C_0 , if p completes all the steps of $Apply(p, op, \mathcal{O})$ before q starts $Apply(q, op', \mathcal{O})$, then $Apply(p, op, \mathcal{O})$ returns u. Thus C_0 is not v-valent.

Similarly, starting from C_0 , if q completes all the steps of $\operatorname{Apply}(q,op',\mathcal{O})$ before p starts $\operatorname{Apply}(p,op,\mathcal{O})$, then $\operatorname{Apply}(q,op',\mathcal{O})$ returns v'. Thus, by Lemma 7.2, when $\operatorname{Apply}(p,op,\mathcal{O})$ completes, it returns v. Thus C_0 is not u-valent.

Since C_0 is neither u-valent nor v-valent, it is bivalent.

We say C' is a reachable configuration from C if, starting from the configuration C, there is some interleaving of the steps of p and q such that C' is the configuration at the end of that interleaving. Given a configuration C, let C(p) denote the configuration that results when p takes a single step of $Apply(p, op, \mathcal{O})$ from C. C(q) is similarly defined.

Lemma 7.4 There is a bivalent configuration C_{crit} reachable from C_0 such that $C_{crit}(p)$ and $C_{crit}(q)$ are both monovalent.

Proof Interleave the steps of $Apply(p, op, \mathcal{O})$ and $Apply(q, op', \mathcal{O})$ as shown in Figure 17. Since \mathcal{O} is wait-free, the **repeat** ... **until** loop in the figure must terminate after a finite number of iterations. Let C_{crit} be the value of C just when the loop terminates. It is easy to verify that C_{crit} satisfies the properties required by the lemma. \Box

```
C:=C_0
repeat

if C(p) is bivalent then

C:=C(p)

if C(q) is bivalent then

C:=C(q)

until (C(p) is monovalent)\land (C(q)) is monovalent)
```

Figure 17: Reaching a *critical* bivalent configuration

Since C_{crit} is bivalent, $C_{crit}(p)$ and $C_{crit}(q)$ cannot both be X-valent for the same X. Thus, either $C_{crit}(p)$ is u-valent and $C_{crit}(q)$ is v-valent, or $C_{crit}(p)$ is v-valent and $C_{crit}(q)$ is u-valent. Without loss of generality, we will assume the former.

Lemma 7.5 The enabled steps of p and q in C_{crit} access the same base object.

Proof Suppose not. Then $(C_{crit}(p))(q)$ and $(C_{crit}(q))(p)$ are identical configurations, and yet, the former is u-valent and the latter v-valent. This is impossible since $u \neq v$.

Assume that O_k is the base object mentioned in the above lemma, and $\operatorname{Apply}(p, oper, O_k)$, $\operatorname{Apply}(q, oper', O_k)$ are the enabled steps of p and q respectively in C_{crit} . Since O_k is an object of a non-order-sensitive type, either $\operatorname{Apply}(q, oper', O_k)$ returns the same value whether applied in C_{crit} or $C_{crit}(p)$, or $\operatorname{Apply}(p, oper, O_k)$ returns the same value whether applied in C_{crit} or $C_{crit}(q)$. In the following, we will deal with the former case. The latter case can be handled similarly and is omitted.

Lemma 7.6 Consider

Scenario S1 (Starts from the configuration C_{crit})

- 1. Process q takes the step $Apply(q, oper', O_k)$.
- 2. Process p completes the execution of Apply (p, op, \mathcal{O}) .
- 3. All base objects O_1, O_2, \ldots, O_n fail by crash.
- 4. Process q resumes and completes the execution of Apply (q, op', \mathcal{O}) .

Then $Apply(p, op, \mathcal{O})$ returns v and $Apply(q, op', \mathcal{O})$ returns v'.

Proof Since q takes the step from C_{crit} , and $C_{crit}(q)$ is v-valent, and no base object failures occur before p completes the execution of $Apply(p, op, \mathcal{O})$ in Item 2, $Apply(p, op, \mathcal{O})$ returns v in Item 2 of the scenario.

Suppose $\mathtt{Apply}(q,op',\mathcal{O})$ returns \bot . Since \mathcal{I} is gracefully degrading, \mathcal{O} must either be correct or fail by crash. Given that $\mathtt{Apply}(p,op,\mathcal{O})$ returns a non- \bot response, this requires that $\mathtt{Apply}(p,op,\mathcal{O})$ precedes $\mathtt{Apply}(q,op',\mathcal{O})$ in the linearization order. Doing so, however, implies that (op,v) is legal from state s of T. This is false since (op,u) is the only sequence legal from state s of T, and $v \neq u$. Thus $\mathtt{Apply}(q,op',\mathcal{O})$ cannot return \bot .

Suppose $\operatorname{Apply}(q,op',\mathcal{O})$ returns w, where $\bot \neq w \neq v'$. Since in the linearization, either $\operatorname{Apply}(p,op,\mathcal{O})$ precedes $\operatorname{Apply}(q,op',\mathcal{O})$, or $\operatorname{Apply}(q,op',\mathcal{O})$ precedes $\operatorname{Apply}(p,op,\mathcal{O})$, it follows that either (op,v),(op',w) or (op',w),(op,v) is legal from state s of T. This is false since (op,u),(op',u') and (op',v'),(op,v) are the only sequences legal from state s of T, and $u\neq v,\ w\neq v'\neq v$.

We conclude that $Apply(q, op', \mathcal{O})$ must return v'.

Lemma 7.7 Consider

Scenario S2 (Starts from the configuration C_{crit})

1. Process p takes the step $Apply(p, oper, O_k)$.

- 2. Process q takes the step $Apply(q, oper', O_k)$.
- 3. Process p resumes and completes the execution of $Apply(p, op, \mathcal{O})$.
- 4. All base objects O_1, O_2, \ldots, O_n fail by crash.
- 5. Process q resumes and completes the execution of Apply (q, op', \mathcal{O}) .

Then $Apply(p, op, \mathcal{O})$ returns u and $Apply(q, op', \mathcal{O})$ returns v'.

Proof Since p takes the step from C_{crit} , $C_{crit}(p)$ is u-valent, and no base object failures occur before p completes the execution of $\text{Apply}(p, op, \mathcal{O})$ in Item 3, $\text{Apply}(p, op, \mathcal{O})$ returns u in Item 3 of the scenario. Since $\text{S2} \approx_q \text{S1}$, $\text{Apply}(q, op', \mathcal{O})$ returns v' as in S1.

Neither (op, u), (op', v') nor (op', v'), (op, u) is legal from state s of T. Hence, the execution in Lemma 7.7 is not linearizable. Thus, the failure of \mathcal{O} in S2 is not by crash. We conclude that \mathcal{I} is not a gracefully degrading implementation for crash, a contradiction. This concludes the proof of Theorem 7.3.

Proof of Theorem 7.4

Suppose that the theorem is false. Then, there is an order-sensitive type T which has a 1-tolerant gracefully degrading implementation for crash. For type T, let op, op', s, u, v, u', v' be as in the definition of an order-sensitive type. It follows that there is a list $\mathcal{L} = (T_1, T_2, \ldots, T_n)$ of types and a list $\Delta = (s_1, s_2, \ldots, s_n)$ of states $(s_i$ is a state of T_i) such that (T, s) has a 1-tolerant gracefully degrading implementation \mathcal{I} from (\mathcal{L}, Δ) for crash. We arrive at a contradiction after a series of lemmas involving indistinguishable scenarios.

Let $\mathcal{O} = \mathcal{I}(O_1, O_2, \ldots, O_n)$, where O_1, O_2, \ldots, O_n are objects of type T_1, T_2, \ldots, T_n , initialized to states s_1, s_2, \ldots, s_n , respectively. Thus, \mathcal{O} is a (derived) object of type T, initialized to state s. Consider the concurrent system consisting of processes p, q and the object \mathcal{O} . Suppose that \mathcal{O} is in state s, and p, q are about to execute $\mathsf{Apply}(p, op, \mathcal{O})$ and $\mathsf{Apply}(q, op', \mathcal{O})$, respectively.

Lemma 7.8 Suppose all base objects are correct. For any interleaving of the steps in the complete executions of $Apply(p, op, \mathcal{O})$ and $Apply(q, op', \mathcal{O})$, either $Apply(p, op, \mathcal{O})$ returns u and $Apply(q, op', \mathcal{O})$ returns u', or $Apply(p, op, \mathcal{O})$ returns v and $Apply(q, op', \mathcal{O})$ returns v'.

Proof Same as Lemma 7.2.

Lemma 7.9 There exists a (possibly empty) sequence Σ of steps of p and a step σ of p such that the following Scenarios S1 and S2 are possible.

Scenario S1 (scenario starts with \mathcal{O} in state s)

1. Process p initiates and partially executes $Apply(p, op, \mathcal{O})$ by completing the steps in Σ .

- 2. Process q initiates and completes (all the steps of) Apply (q, op', \mathcal{O}) , returning v'.
- 3. p completes the remaining steps of Apply (p, op, \mathcal{O}) , returning v.

Scenario S2 (scenario starts with \mathcal{O} in state s)

- 1. p initiates and (partially) executes Apply (p, op, \mathcal{O}) by completing the steps in $\Sigma \cdot \sigma$.
- 2. q initiates and completes (all the steps of) Apply (q, op', \mathcal{O}) , returning u'.
- 3. p completes the remaining steps of Apply (p, op, \mathcal{O}) , returning u.

Proof Clearly, if process p executes no steps of $\operatorname{Apply}(p,op,\mathcal{O})$ before process q initiates and completes $\operatorname{Apply}(q,op',\mathcal{O})$, then $\operatorname{Apply}(q,op',\mathcal{O})$ must return v'. Further, if p initiates and completes all the steps of $\operatorname{Apply}(p,op,\mathcal{O})$ (let Γ be this sequence of steps) before q initiates and completes $\operatorname{Apply}(q,op',\mathcal{O})$, then $\operatorname{Apply}(q,op',\mathcal{O})$ must return u'. Together with Lemma 7.8 by which $\operatorname{Apply}(q,op',\mathcal{O})$ must return either u' or v', the above implies that there exists a sequence Σ of steps and a step σ such that $\Sigma \cdot \sigma$ is a prefix of Γ for which the lemma holds.

Hereafter we will assume O_k is the base object accessed by p in step σ .

Lemma 7.10 Consider

Scenario S3 (scenario starts with \mathcal{O} in state s)

- 1. p initiates and (partially) executes $Apply(p, op, \mathcal{O})$ by completing the steps in $\Sigma \cdot \sigma$.
- 2. q initiates and completes (all the steps of) Apply (q, op', \mathcal{O}) , returning u' (as in S2).
- 3. O_1, O_2, \ldots, O_n fail by crash.
- 4. p completes the remaining steps of Apply (p, op, \mathcal{O}) .

Then Apply (p, op, \mathcal{O}) returns u.

Proof Suppose $\operatorname{Apply}(p, op, \mathcal{O})$ returns \bot . Since \mathcal{I} is gracefully degrading, \mathcal{O} must either be correct or fail by crash. This requires, given that $\operatorname{Apply}(q, op', \mathcal{O})$ returns a non- \bot response, that $\operatorname{Apply}(q, op', \mathcal{O})$ precedes $\operatorname{Apply}(p, op, \mathcal{O})$ in the linearization order. Doing so, however, implies that (op', u') is legal from state s of T. This is false since $u' \neq v'$, T is deterministic, and (op', v') is legal from state s of T. Thus $\operatorname{Apply}(p, op, \mathcal{O})$ cannot return \bot .

Suppose $\operatorname{Apply}(p,op,\mathcal{O})$ returns w where $\bot\neq w\neq u$. Since in the linearization, either $\operatorname{Apply}(p,op,\mathcal{O})$ precedes $\operatorname{Apply}(q,op',\mathcal{O})$ or $\operatorname{Apply}(q,op',\mathcal{O})$ precedes $\operatorname{Apply}(p,op,\mathcal{O})$, it follows that either (op,w),(op',u') or (op',u'),(op,w) is legal from state s of T. This is false since (op,u),(op',u') and (op',v'),(op,v) are the only sequences legal from state s of T, and $w\neq u, u'\neq v'$.

We conclude that $Apply(p, op, \mathcal{O})$ must return u.

Lemma 7.11 Consider

Scenario S4 (scenario starts with \mathcal{O} in state s)

- 1. p initiates and (partially) executes Apply (p, op, \mathcal{O}) by completing the steps in $\Sigma \cdot \sigma$.
- 2. O_k fails by crash.
- 3. q initiates and completes (all the steps of) Apply (q, op', \mathcal{O}) .
- 4. O_1, \ldots, O_{k-1} and O_{k+1}, \ldots, O_n also fail by crash.
- 5. p completes the remaining steps of Apply (p, op, \mathcal{O}) .

Then $Apply(p, op, \mathcal{O})$ returns u and $Apply(q, op', \mathcal{O})$ returns u'.

Proof Clearly, $S4 \approx_p S3$. Therefore, as in S3, $Apply(p,op,\mathcal{O})$ returns u in S4. Since \mathcal{I} is 1-tolerant, and since only O_k has failed by the completion of $Apply(q,op',\mathcal{O})$, $Apply(q,op',\mathcal{O})$ must return a non- \bot response. From the definitions of u,u',v, and v', it is easy to verify that the only non- \bot response that satisfies linearizability is u'.

Lemma 7.12 Consider

Scenario S5 (scenario starts with \mathcal{O} in state s)

- 1. p initiates and partially executes $Apply(p, op, \mathcal{O})$ by completing the steps in Σ .
- 2. O_k fails by crash.
- 3. q initiates and completes (all the steps of) Apply (q, op', \mathcal{O}) .
- 4. O_1, \ldots, O_{k-1} and O_{k+1}, \ldots, O_n also fail by crash.
- 5. p completes the remaining steps of Apply (p, op, \mathcal{O}) .

Then Apply (p, op, \mathcal{O}) returns u.

Proof Clearly S5 \approx_q S4. Therefore Apply (q, op', \mathcal{O}) returns u' as in S4. By arguments similar to those in Lemma 7.10, it can be shown that Apply (p, op, \mathcal{O}) returns u.

Lemma 7.13 Consider

Scenario S6 (scenario starts with \mathcal{O} in state s)

- 1. p initiates and partially executes $Apply(p, op, \mathcal{O})$ by completing the steps in Σ .
- 2. q initiates and completes (all the steps of) Apply (q, op', \mathcal{O}) .
- 3. All base objects O_1, O_2, \ldots, O_n fail by crash.

4. p completes the remaining steps of Apply (p, op, \mathcal{O}) .

Then $Apply(p, op, \mathcal{O})$ returns u, and $Apply(q, op', \mathcal{O})$ returns v'.

Proof Since S6 \approx_p S5, Apply (p, op, \mathcal{O}) returns u as in S5. Since S6 \approx_q S1, Apply (q, op', \mathcal{O}) returns v' as in S1.

Neither (op, u), (op', v') nor (op', v'), (op, u) is legal from state s of T. Hence the execution in Lemma 7.13 is not linearizable. Thus the failure of \mathcal{O} in S6 is not by crash. We conclude that \mathcal{I} is not a gracefully degrading implementation for crash, a contradiction which concludes the proof of Theorem 7.4.

7.2.2 Graceful degradation for omission

In this subsection, we study the feasibility of achieving gracefully degrading implementations for omission. In this subsection, if we make a statement and omit to mention the failure mode in consideration, the failure mode is understood to be omission.

A set S of types is universal if every type has an implementation from S. An example of such a set is {consensus with safe-reset, register} [Her91b]. The main result of this section is the graceful degradation theorem for omission, stated as follows: Every type has a t-tolerant gracefully degrading implementation from every universal set of types for omission. We prove this result through three key lemmas. Below, we list these lemmas and explain how they are used in proving the main result.

- Lemma 7.14 Every 0-tolerant implementation can be transformed into a 0-tolerant implementation which is gracefully degrading for omission.
- Lemma 7.18 register has a t-tolerant gracefully degrading self-implementation for omission.
- Lemma 7.19 consensus with safe-reset has a t-tolerant gracefully degrading implementation from {consensus with safe-reset, register} for omission.

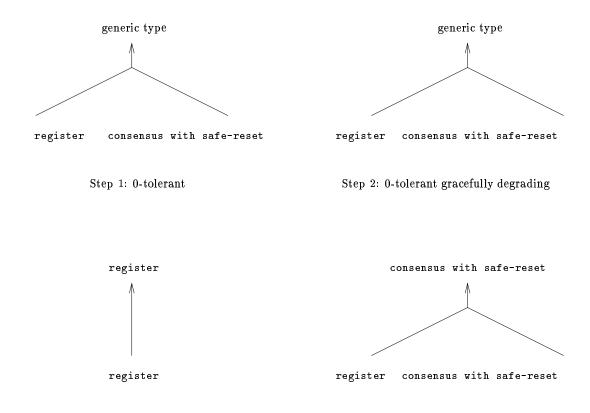
We now explain the steps involved in obtaining the graceful degradation theorem for omission. Figures 18 and 19 depict these steps.

Step 1. Every type has a 0-tolerant implementation from {register, consensus with safe-reset}.

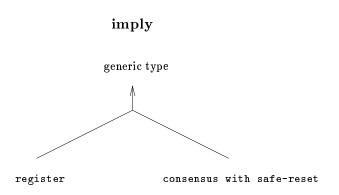
This follows from Herlihy's universality result [Her91b].

Step 2. Every type has a 0-tolerant gracefully degrading implementation from {register, consensus with safe-reset}.

This follows from Step 1 and Lemma 7.14.



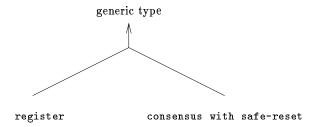
Step 3: t-tolerant gracefully degrading



Step 4: t-tolerant gracefully degrading

Figure 18: First steps in the derivation of the graceful degradation theorem for omission

t-tolerant gracefully degrading

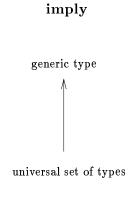


t-tolerant gracefully degrading



Step 5: 0-tolerant gracefully degrading

Step 6: 0-tolerant gracefully degrading



t-tolerant gracefully degrading

Figure 19: Later steps in the derivation of the graceful degradation theorem for omission

- Step 3. register has a t-tolerant gracefully degrading self-implementation. This is Lemma 7.18.
- Step 4. consensus with safe-reset has a t-tolerant gracefully degrading implementation from {register, consensus with safe-reset}. This is Lemma 7.19.

From Steps 2, 3, and 4, and Corollary 4.1, we conclude that every type has a t-tolerant gracefully degrading implementation from {register, consensus with safe-reset} for omission. From this conclusion, Steps 5 and 6 below, and the compositional lemma (Lemma 4.1), we have the main theorem: Every type has a t-tolerant gracefully degrading implementation from every universal list of types for omission.

Step 5. register has a 0-tolerant gracefully degrading implementation from any universal set of types.

By definition of a universal set of types, register has a 0-tolerant implementation from such a set. This, together with Lemma 7.14, implies Step 5.

Step 6. consensus with safe-reset has a 0-tolerant gracefully degrading implementation from any universal set of types.

The reasoning is the same as for Step 5.

We now prove the three lemmas mentioned above.

A transformation to realize graceful degradation

We present a transformation \mathcal{G} such that if \mathcal{I} is any 0-tolerant implementation, then $\mathcal{G}(\mathcal{I})$ is a 0-tolerant implementation which is gracefully degrading for omission. For all implementations $\mathcal{I}, \mathcal{G}(\mathcal{I})$ is obtained as follows. Let \mathcal{O} be a derived object of $\mathcal{G}(\mathcal{I})$. A process P applies an operation op on \mathcal{O} as in the implementation \mathcal{I} . However, as P executes the procedure to apply op on \mathcal{O} , if some base object of \mathcal{O} returns \bot to P, P immediately terminates its operation on \mathcal{O} and returns \bot as the response of \mathcal{O} to op.

Lemma 7.14 Let T be a type, s be a state of T, and \mathcal{I} be a 0-tolerant implementation of (T,s) from (\mathcal{L},Σ) , for processes P_1,\ldots,P_N . Then, $\mathcal{G}(\mathcal{I})$ is a 0-tolerant gracefully degrading implementation of (T,s) from (\mathcal{L},Σ) , for processes P_1,\ldots,P_N , for omission.

Proof Sketch In the absence of base object failures, it is obvious that a derived object of $\mathcal{G}(\mathcal{I})$ behaves identically as a derived object of \mathcal{I} . Since \mathcal{I} is a 0-tolerant implementation of (T,s), it follows that $\mathcal{G}(\mathcal{I})$ is also a 0-tolerant implementation of (T,s). We now show that $\mathcal{G}(\mathcal{I})$ is gracefully degrading for omission. In the following, let $T = (OP, RES, G, \tau)$.

Let \mathcal{O} be a derived object of $\mathcal{G}(\mathcal{I})$. Let E be an execution of $(P_1, \ldots, P_N; \mathcal{O})$ in which (i) one or more base objects of \mathcal{O} fail, (ii) each base object that fails, fails by omission, and (iii) if a process gets the response \bot from \mathcal{O} , that process does not subsequently invoke an

operation on \mathcal{O} . We claim that if \mathcal{O} fails in E, it fails by omission. This claim implies that $\mathcal{G}(\mathcal{I})$ is gracefully degrading for omission. To prove the claim, we must show that all three properties stated in the definition of omission hold for \mathcal{O} in the execution E. Property 2, that every response of \mathcal{O} is from $RES \cup \{\bot\}$, is obvious. We verify Properties 1 and 3 below.

Let H(E) denote the history in execution E. Let $H_{proc} = H(E)|\{P_1, \ldots, P_N\}$, the subsequence of H(E) consisting of the events of processes. Thus, H_{proc} contains the internal events of processes, invocations of processes on \mathcal{O} and on the base objects of \mathcal{O} , and the responses from \mathcal{O} and from the base objects of \mathcal{O} .¹³ Construct a sequence H'_{proc} from H_{proc} as follows: for all response events e which correspond to a base object O returning \bot to a process P, replace e with Crash(P) and remove all events of P following e. Intuitively, by transforming H_{proc} to H'_{proc} , we "shift the blame" from the base object O, by stopping O from returning \bot to P, to the process P, by crashing P after P's invocation on O. We claim that there exists an execution E' of $(P_1, \ldots, P_N; \mathcal{O})$ such that $H'_{proc} = H(E')|\{P_1, \ldots, P_N\}$. (We leave the proof of this claim to the reader.)

We make two claims below which, together, imply that each base object of \mathcal{O} is correct in the execution E'. The justification of each claim follows its statement. We write H(E,O) to denote the subsequence of events in E, consisting of only invocations on O and responses from O.

• Each base object O is well-behaved in E'.

We assumed earlier that either O is correct in E or O fails by omission in E. Suppose that O is correct in E. Then, from the definition of E', H(E,O) = H(E',O). Thus, O is correct also in E'. In particular, O is well-behaved in E'.

Suppose that O fails by omission in E. Let H'(E,O) be the history obtained by removing response events associated with the aborted operations in H(E,O). By Property 3 of omission, $\tau(H'(E,O))$ is linearizable with respect to (T',s'), where T' is the type of O and s' is the state of T' to which O was initialized. From the definition of E', observe that H(E',O) = H'(E,O). It follows that $\tau(H(E',O))$ is also linearizable with respect to (T',s'). That is, O is well-behaved in E'.

• Each base object O is wait-free in E'.

We assumed earlier that either O is correct in E or O fails by omission in E. Suppose that O is correct in E. Then, from the definition of E', H(E,O) = H(E',O). Thus, O is correct also in E'. In particular, O is wait-free in E'.

Suppose that O fails by omission in E. By Property 1 of omission, O is wait-free in E. From the definition of E', observe that if O responds to an invocation by a process P in E, but does not respond to the corresponding invocation by process P in E', then P is crashed in E'. From the above, we conclude that O is wait-free in E'.

¹³ Recall that $\mathcal{O} = (F_1, \dots, F_N; O_1, \dots, O_M)$ where F_1, \dots, F_N are the front-ends and O_1, \dots, O_M are the base objects of \mathcal{O} . Thus, strictly speaking, if $H_{proc} = H_E | \{P_1, \dots, P_N\}, H_{proc}$ does not contain invocations on O_i 's or responses from O_i 's. However, in this proof sketch, we will refer to the events of F_i as the events of P_i . Thus, H_{proc} contains the events of P_i 's and also the events of F_i 's.

Thus, all base objects are correct in E'. It follows that \mathcal{O} is correct in E'. In particular, \mathcal{O} is wait-free and well-behaved in E'.

We now argue that \mathcal{O} is wait-free in E. Assume, for a contradiction, that it is not. Then, E is infinite and there is a process P such that P is correct in E and P has an incomplete operation on \mathcal{O} in E. We claim that, in E, P did not receive the response \bot from any base object of \mathcal{O} . Because, if it did, P would return \bot as the response of \mathcal{O} and would not subsequently invoke an operation on \mathcal{O} ; thus, P would have no incomplete operation on \mathcal{O} in E, a contradiction. Thus, in E, P is correct, P never receives \bot from any base object of \mathcal{O} , and P has an incomplete operation on \mathcal{O} . From this and the definition of E', P is correct in E' and P has an incomplete operation on \mathcal{O} in E'. Furthermore, since E is infinite, so is E'. The above two facts imply that \mathcal{O} is not wait-free in E'. This contradicts the conclusion reached in the previous paragraph. Thus, \mathcal{O} is wait-free in E and, consequently, Property 1 of omission holds for \mathcal{O} in E.

Let $H'(E,\mathcal{O})$ be the history obtained by removing response events associated with the aborted operations in $H(E,\mathcal{O})$. From the definition of E', observe that $H(E',\mathcal{O}) = H'(E,\mathcal{O})$. We already concluded that \mathcal{O} is well-behaved in E'; that is, $\tau(H(E',\mathcal{O}))$ is linearizable with respect to (T,s). It follows that $\tau(H'(E,\mathcal{O}))$ is also linearizable with respect to (T,s). The latter implies that Property 3 of omission holds for \mathcal{O} in E. This completes the proof of the lemma.

Graceful degradation for register

We show that **register** has a *t*-tolerant gracefully degrading self-implementation for omission. The following are the steps involved.

- S1. We present a 1-tolerant gracefully degrading self-implementation of 1-reader 1-writer safe register.
- S2. As mentioned before, it is known that there is a 0-tolerant implementation of register from 1-reader 1-writer safe register. It follows from Lemma 7.14 that there is a 0-tolerant gracefully degrading implementation of register from 1-reader 1-writer safe register.
- **S3.** Combining the results in Steps **S1** and **S2** with Corollary 4.1, we obtain a 1-tolerant gracefully degrading self-implementation of register. By Booster Lemma, this can be turned into a t-tolerant gracefully degrading self-implementation of register.

Figure 20 presents a 1-tolerant gracefully degrading self-implementation of 1-reader 1-writer safe register. The implementation uses four base registers. The reader process P_r maintains a local variable $FAILED_r$ to remember the faulty base registers it has so far encountered. The writer process P_w similarly maintains $FAILED_w$. To read the derived register, P_r reads each base register that has so far not appeared faulty to it. It adds base registers that return \bot to the set $FAILED_r$ and collects the responses from other base registers in the multi-set ValuesRead. If, at the end, P_r has detected two or more base registers

```
R_1,R_2,R_3,R_4: 1-reader 1-writer safe register, initialized to the same value as the initial value of the derived register FAILED_w: set, local to the writer process P_w, initialized to \emptyset FAILED_r: set, local to the reader process P_r, initialized to \emptyset ValuesRead: multi-set, local to P_r
```

```
\texttt{Apply}(P_r, read, \mathcal{R})
                                                                          \texttt{Apply}(P_w, write\ v, \mathcal{R})
ValuesRead := \emptyset
                                                                          for i := 1 to 4
for i := 1 to 4
                                                                              if R_i \notin \mathit{FAILED}_w then
   if R_i \notin FAILED_r then
                                                                                  resp := \mathtt{write}(P_w, v, R_i)
                                                                                  if resp = \bot then
       resp := read(P_r, R_i)
       if resp = \bot then
                                                                                      FAILED_w := FAILED_w \cup \{R_i\}
           FAILED_r := FAILED_r \cup \{R_i\}
                                                                          if |\mathit{FAILED}_w| \geq 2 then
       \mathbf{else} \ \mathit{ValuesRead} := \mathit{ValuesRead} \cup \{\mathit{resp}\}
                                                                              return ⊥
if |\mathit{FAILED}_r| \geq 2 then
                                                                           else return ack
   return \perp
else return mode(ValuesRead)
```

Figure 20: 1-tolerant gracefully degrading self-implementation of 1-reader 1-writer safe register for omission

to be faulty, it returns \bot . Otherwise it returns mode(ValuesRead), a value that occurs at least as many times in ValuesRead as any other value. To write a value v in the derived register, the writer process P_w writes v in each base register that has so far not appeared faulty to it. Like P_r , P_w also adds base registers that return \bot to the set $FAILED_w$. If, at the end, P_w has detected two or more base registers to be faulty, it returns \bot . Otherwise it returns ack.

We now prove that the implementation is correct. Consider the concurrent system $S = (P_r, P_w; \mathcal{R})$, where \mathcal{R} is a derived object of the implementation. Let R_1, R_2, R_3 , and R_4 be the base objects of \mathcal{R} . We present two lemmas below. The first proves that it is a gracefully degrading implementation of 1-reader 1-writer safe register, and the second proves that it is 1-tolerant.

Lemma 7.15 Let E be any execution of S which satisfies the following.

- **A1.** P_r invokes only Read operations on \mathcal{R} and P_w invokes only Write operations on \mathcal{R} .
- **A2.** If a process $(P_r \text{ or } P_w)$ gets the response \perp from \mathcal{R} , it does not subsequently invoke an operation on \mathcal{R} .
- **A3.** If a base object of \mathcal{R} fails, it fails by omission.

Then, if R fails in E, it fails by omission.

Proof To prove the lemma, it suffices to show that \mathcal{R} satisfies Properties 1, 2, and 3 of omission in E. By A3, each base object of \mathcal{R} either fails by omission or is correct in E. It follows that each base object is wait-free in E. From this and the implementation, it is easy to see that \mathcal{R} is wait-free in E. Thus, \mathcal{R} satisfies Property 1 of omission in E. Property 2 of omission, that every response from \mathcal{R} is either \bot or from RES, is obvious. Below, we verify that \mathcal{R} satisfies Property 3 of omission in E.

Let H be the history of \mathcal{R} in E. Let H' be obtained by removing response events in H that return \bot . (As a result, a read operation r and a write operation w, which are not concurrent in H, may become concurrent in H'. This will happen if w returned \bot and w preceded r in H.) To verify that \mathcal{R} satisfies Property 3 of omission in E, it suffices to show that, in the history H', every complete read operation, which is not concurrent with a write operation, returns the most recent value written.

Let r be any complete read operation in H' that is not concurrent with a write operation in H'. Let V be the response returned by r. Let $\operatorname{Apply}(P_w, write\ V', \mathcal{R})$, denoted by w, be the latest write operation in H' that precedes r. By construction of H' and the fact that r and w are complete operations in H', we have (i) $V \neq \bot$ and (ii) w returned ack (as opposed to \bot). Let $\mathbf{F_r}$ be the value of $FAILED_r$ at the end of the read operation r in E. Since r returned $V \neq \bot$, it follows from the implementation that $|\mathbf{F_r}| \leq 1$. Let $\mathbf{F_w}$ be the value of $FAILED_w$ at the end of w. Since w returned ack, it follows from the implementation that $|\mathbf{F_r}| \leq 1$. Let $S = \{R_1, R_2, R_3, R_4\} - (\mathbf{F_r} \cup \mathbf{F_w})$. The above implies that either |S| > 2 or $\mathbf{F_r} = 1$ and |S| = 2. Also, when the reader P_r reads a register $R \in S$ during the execution

of r, it is obvious that R returns V'. Therefore, at the end of r, either V' occurs at least three times in ValuesRead, or V' occurs exactly twice in ValuesRead and $\mathbf{F_r}=1$. In either case, at the end of r, mode(ValuesRead)=V'. Hence r returns V'. We conclude that V=V'. In other words, every complete read operation in H', which is not concurrent with a write operation in H', returns the most recent value written. This verifies that \mathcal{R} satisfies Property 3 of omission in E. Hence the lemma.

Lemma 7.16 Let E be any execution of S which satisfies conditions A1, A2, and A3 listed in the previous lemma. Additionally, assume that at most one base object of R fails in E. Then, R is correct in E.

Proof We have to show that \mathcal{R} is well-behaved and wait-free in E. Consider any complete read operation r in E that is not concurrent with a write operation. Let $Apply(P_w, write\ V, \mathcal{R})$ be the latest write operation in E that precedes r. Since at most one base object fails, it is obvious that P_r reads V from at least three base registers during the execution of r. Hence the value returned by the read operation r is V. This implies that \mathcal{R} is well-behaved in E.

Each base register R_i either fails by omission or is correct in E. In either case, R_i is wait-free in E. From this and the implementation, it is obvious that \mathcal{R} is wait-free in E. \square

Lemma 7.17 Figure 20 presents a 1-tolerant gracefully degrading self-implementation of 1-reader 1-writer safe register for omission.

Proof Immediate from Lemmas 7.15 and 7.16.

By the reasoning presented in Steps S1, S2, and S3 earlier, we have:

Lemma 7.18 register has a t-tolerant gracefully degrading self-implementation for omission.

Graceful degradation for consensus with safe-reset

We present a t-tolerant gracefully degrading implementation of consensus with safe-reset from {consensus with safe-reset, register} for omission. This implementation is similar to, but more complex than, the t-tolerant gracefully degrading self-implementation of consensus presented earlier in Figure 16. The added complexity is due to the fact that a reset operation has to be supported.

To understand the difficulty in supporting the reset operation, we first extend the implementation in Figure 16 in the obvious manner and show why it does not work. First, assume that the base objects $O_1, O_2, \ldots, O_{2t+1}$ are not just consensus objects, but are consensus-with-safe-reset objects. Second, implement $\operatorname{Reset}(P, \mathcal{O})$, a reset of the derived object \mathcal{O} by Process P, by resetting each base object of \mathcal{O} . If no more than t base objects return \bot , P returns ack; otherwise, P returns \bot . Assume that the implementation of the propose operation on \mathcal{O} remains as in Figure 16. Unfortunately, the above implementation is

not correct. To see this, suppose that the steps of processes P and Q interleave in the order described below. Process P wishes to reset \mathcal{O} and begins the execution of Reset (P,\mathcal{O}) . As P resets each base object of \mathcal{O} , assume that each of O_1O_2,\ldots,O_{2t} is correct and returns ackto P, but O_{2t+1} fails by omission and returns \perp to P. P completes Reset (P,\mathcal{O}) , returning ack. Process Q wishes to propose 0 to \mathcal{O} and begins the execution of Propose $(P,0,\mathcal{O})$. As Q proposes 0 to each base object, each of O_1, O_2, \ldots, O_{2t} , being correct, returns 0 to P. Therefore, at the end of 2t iterations of the for-loop in Figure 16, $estimate_q = 0$. Thus, in the last iteration of the for-loop, Q proposes 0 to O_{2t+1} . Since O_{2t+1} has failed by omission, it behaves as if the aborted reset operation of P on O_{2t+1} were an incomplete operation (see Property 3 of omission failure). Thus, from O_{2t+1} 's point of view, the propose operation by Q on O_{2t+1} is concurrent with the "incomplete" reset operation by P on O_{2t+1} . Recall that a consensus-with-safe-reset object may return arbitrary responses to operations if any operation is concurrent with a reset. Thus, the response from O_{2t+1} to the propose operation by Q is arbitrary. Assume that this response is 1. From Figure 16, it is clear that estimate_q changes to 1 and Q terminates $Propose(P, 0, \mathcal{O})$, returning 1. This violates the validity property of \mathcal{O} : \mathcal{O} returned 1 to \mathcal{Q} even though no process proposed 1 to \mathcal{O} . We conclude that the implementation is not even 1-tolerant.

Before presenting the correct implementation, we state two propositions that characterize the type consensus with safe-reset. These propositions will be useful when we prove the correctness of our implementation. For ease of stating the propositions, we need some definitions.

In the following, let \mathcal{O} be an object of type consensus with safe-reset, initialized to the uncommitted state. Let E be an execution of $(P_1, P_2, \ldots, P_N; \mathcal{O})$. As just mentioned, if a reset overlaps with any other operation, including another reset operation, \mathcal{O} can behave in an unrestricted manner, though still responsive. This leads us to define $\phi(E)$ to be the maximal prefix of E in which a reset operation is not concurrent with any other operation.

- Object \mathcal{O} satisfies *integrity* in E if and only if every response from \mathcal{O} to a propose operation in $\phi(E)$ is either 0 or 1, and every response from \mathcal{O} to a reset operation in $\phi(E)$ is ack.
- Object \mathcal{O} satisfies weak integrity in E if and only if every response from \mathcal{O} to a propose operation in $\phi(E)$ is either 0, 1, or \bot , and every response from \mathcal{O} to a reset operation in $\phi(E)$ is either ack or \bot .

An epoch of \mathcal{O} in E is any of the following: (i) a subsequence of $\phi(E)$ beginning with the event immediately following the response of a reset operation to the event immediately preceding the invocation of the next reset operation, or (ii) the prefix of $\phi(E)$ up to the event immediately preceding the first invocation of reset, or (iii) the suffix of $\phi(E)$ ranging from the the event immediately following the response of the last reset in $\phi(E)$. Notice that there may be several epochs of \mathcal{O} in E. An epoch is clean if every operation (reset or propose) that precedes the epoch returns a non- \bot response. Thus, all operations which complete before the start of a clean epoch return non- \bot responses. Notice that if \mathcal{O} satisfies integrity in E, then every epoch of \mathcal{O} in E is clean.

- Object \mathcal{O} satisfies *epoch-validity* in E if and only if the following holds. If \mathcal{O} returns a response v to a propose operation in some clean epoch and $v \in \{0,1\}$, then there is an invocation of *propose* v on \mathcal{O} , in the same epoch, preceding this response.
- Object \mathcal{O} satisfies epoch-agreement in E if and only if the following holds. If \mathcal{O} returns v_1, v_2 to two propose operations in some clean epoch and $v_1, v_2 \in \{0, 1\}$, then $v_1 = v_2$. (By this definition, if \mathcal{O} returns 0 to some processes and \bot to all others, it still satisfies epoch-agreement.)

Notice how these definitions generalize the ones in Section 5.1.1. The propositions below follow easily from the specification of consensus with safe-reset, and the definitions of linearizability and omission failures. These propositions are similar to Propositions 5.1 and 5.2.

Proposition 7.2 Let \mathcal{O} be an object of type consensus with safe-reset and let E be an execution of $(P_1, P_2, \ldots, P_N; \mathcal{O})$. Object \mathcal{O} is correct in E if and only if \mathcal{O} is wait-free in E and satisfies integrity, epoch-validity, and epoch-agreement in E.

Proposition 7.3 Let \mathcal{O} be an object of type consensus with safe-reset and let E be an execution of $(P_1, P_2, \ldots, P_N; \mathcal{O})$ in which \mathcal{O} fails. Object \mathcal{O} fails by omission in E if and only if it is wait-free in E and satisfies weak-integrity, epoch-validity, and epoch-agreement in E.

Figure 21 presents a t-tolerant gracefully degrading implementation of consensus with safe-reset from {consensus with safe-reset, register} for omission. The implementation uses 2t+1 consensus-with-safe-reset objects $(O_1,O_2,\ldots,O_{2t+1})$ and 2t+1 t-tolerant gracefully degrading boolean registers $(\mathcal{R}_1,\mathcal{R}_2,\ldots,\mathcal{R}_{2t+1})$. (By Lemma 7.18, \mathcal{R}_i 's can be implemented from registers.) The register \mathcal{R}_i is set to 1 if any process detects O_i to be faulty, i.e., if any process obtains the response \bot from O_i . The following is an important running feature of our implementation: If, during the execution of an operation on the derived object \mathcal{O} , a process P gets a response of \bot from any \mathcal{R}_i , P returns \bot as the response of \mathcal{O} . This is justified on the basis that \mathcal{R}_i is t-tolerant, and thus, more than t base objects of \mathcal{R}_i must have failed for \mathcal{R}_i to fail. Since \mathcal{O} needs to be only t-tolerant, \mathcal{O} may fail and return \bot if more than t base objects of \mathcal{O} fail, or equivalently, if any \mathcal{R}_i fails. We now describe the procedures $\mathsf{Reset}(P_i, \mathcal{O})$ and $\mathsf{Propose}(P_i, v_i, \mathcal{O})$.

To reset \mathcal{O} , a process P_i first reads all \mathcal{R}_k 's and collects the identities of the faulty objects among $\{O_1, O_2, \ldots, O_{2t+1}\}$. P_i then resets each non-faulty object in $\{O_1, O_2, \ldots, O_{2t+1}\}$. If, during this resetting, an object O_k responds with \bot to P_i , P_i writes 1 in \mathcal{R}_k to record the fact that O_k is faulty. At the end of this, P_i returns with the response ack.

To propose v_i to \mathcal{O} , a process P_i first reads all \mathcal{R}_k 's and collects the identities of the faulty objects among $\{O_1, O_2, \ldots, O_{2t+1}\}$. With a few minor differences, the rest of the implementation parallels the one in Figure 16. At any point in the algorithm, P_i holds an estimate of the eventual return value in $estimate_i$. To start with, $estimate_i$ is set to v_i .

```
\mathcal{R}_1, \mathcal{R}_2, \dots, \mathcal{R}_{2t+1}: t-tolerant gracefully degrading boolean registers, initialized to 0 O_1, O_2, \dots, O_{2t+1}: (0-tolerant) consensus-with-safe-reset objects
```

```
Procedure Propose(P_i, v_i, \mathcal{O})
                                                                Procedure Reset(P_i, \mathcal{O})
    V_i[1 \dots 2t+1], estimate, resp, k,
                                                                     set-of-failed, resp, k: local to Pi
    set-of-failed: local to P_i
                                                                 begin
begin
                                                                     set-of-failed := \emptyset
    estimate_i := v_i
                                                                     for k := 1 to 2t + 1
    set-of-failed := \emptyset
                                                                         resp := \mathtt{Read}(P_i, \mathcal{R}_k)
    for k := 1 \text{ to } 2t + 1
                                                                         if resp = \bot then
        resp := \operatorname{Read}(P_i, \mathcal{R}_k)
                                                                              return ⊥
        if resp = \bot then
                                                                         else if resp = 1 then
                                                                              set-of-failed := set-of-failed \cup \{O_k\}
             return ⊥
        else if resp = 1 then
                                                                     for k := 1 to 2t + 1
             set-of-failed := set-of-failed \cup \{O_k\}
                                                                         if O_k \not\in set-of-failed then
    for k := 1 to 2t + 1
                                                                              resp := reset(P_i, O_k)
        if O_k \in set-of-failed then
                                                                              if resp = \bot then
                                                                                  resp := Write(P_i, 1, \mathcal{R}_k)
             V_i[k] := \bot
        else
                                                                                  if resp = \bot then
             resp := propose(P_i, estimate_i, O_k)
                                                                                       return 1
             if resp = \bot then
                                                                     return ack
                 resp := Write(P_i, 1, \mathcal{R}_k)
                                                                end
                 if resp = \bot then
                      return ⊥
             else if resp \neq estimate_i then
                  estimate_i := resp
                  V_i[1...(k-1)] := (\bot, \bot, ..., \bot)
    if V_i has more than t \perp's then
        return 1
    else return estimatei
\mathbf{end}
```

Figure 21: t-tolerant gracefully degrading implementation of consensus with safe-reset for omission

 P_i then goes through $O_1, O_2, \ldots, O_{2t+1}$, in that order, and performs the following steps on each of them. If O_k is known to be faulty, P_i does not access O_k ; it simply pretends that O_k returned \bot . Otherwise, P_i proposes its current estimate to O_k . If O_k returns a non- \bot response, P_i proceeds exactly as in Figure 16. If O_k returns \bot , P_i writes 1 in \mathcal{R}_k to record the fact that O_k is faulty. After going through all of $O_1, O_2, \ldots, O_{2t+1}, P_i$ applies the same rules as in Figure 16 to compute the return value.

Lemma 7.19 Figure 21 presents a t-tolerant gracefully degrading implementation of consensus with safe-reset from $\{\text{consensus with safe-reset}, \text{ register}\}\$ for omission.

Proof Let \mathcal{R}_i $(1 \leq i \leq 2t+1)$ be a derived object of the t-tolerant gracefully degrading implementation of register (such an implementation exists by Lemma 7.18). Let

 $R_{i,1}, R_{i,2}, \ldots, R_{i,m}$ be the base registers of \mathcal{R}_i . Let \mathcal{O} be derived from the implementation in Figure 21 using $O_1, O_2, \ldots, O_{2t+1}$ and $\mathcal{R}_1, \mathcal{R}_2, \ldots, \mathcal{R}_{2t+1}$. Thus, $O_1, O_2, \ldots, O_{2t+1}$ and $R_{i,j}$ $(1 \leq i \leq 2t+1, 1 \leq j \leq m)$ are the base objects of \mathcal{O} . Consider an execution E of $(P_1, P_2, \ldots, P_N; \mathcal{O})$ in which all base objects that fail, fail by omission. Let \mathcal{E} be a clean epoch of \mathcal{O} in E. Let $FAILED(\mathcal{E})$ be the set of all O_j $(1 \leq j \leq 2t+1)$ such that some process had written 1 in \mathcal{R}_j before epoch \mathcal{E} started. Thus, $FAILED(\mathcal{E})$ is the subset of $\{O_1, O_2, \ldots, O_{2t+1}\}$ that failed before the start of \mathcal{E} . We make the following observations.

- **O1.** For each base object $O \in \{O_1, O_2, \dots, O_{2t+1}\}$ $FAILED(\mathcal{E}), \mathcal{E}$ is a clean epoch of O.
- **O2.** In epoch \mathcal{E} , no process invokes an operation on a base object in $FAILED(\mathcal{E})$.
- **O3.** In the execution of $Propose(P_i, v_i, \mathcal{O})$, at the end of the k^{th} iteration of the for-loop $(1 \le k \le 2t + 1)$, $estimate_i \in \{0, 1\}$, and $V_i[1..k]$ contains only \bot 's and $estimate_i$'s.

We now use these observations to show that \mathcal{O} satisfies the required properties in E.

- 1. \mathcal{O} is wait-free: Recall that base objects that fail by omission remain wait-free. From this and the implementation, it is obvious that \mathcal{O} is wait-free.
- 2. $\underline{\mathcal{O}}$ satisfies epoch-validity: Suppose that an execution of $\operatorname{Propose}(P_i, v_i, \mathcal{O})$ in epoch $\overline{\mathcal{E}}$ returns $v \in \{0,1\}$. (Let e_{ret} denote the event of completion of this execution.) It follows that, during this execution, some base object O_j returns v to P_i when P_i performs $\operatorname{propose}(P_i, estimate_i, O_j)$. Let e_f denote the first response event in \mathcal{E} in which a base object among $\{O_1, O_2, \ldots, O_{2t+1}\}$ returns the response v. Let O_f be the base object associated with the event e_f . By $\mathbf{O2}$, $O_f \in \{O_1, O_2, \ldots, O_{2t+1}\}$ $FAILED(\mathcal{E})$. By $\mathbf{O1}$, \mathcal{E} is a clean epoch of O_f . Since O_f either is correct or fails by omission, by Propositions 7.2 and 7.3, O_f satisfies epoch-validity. That is, there is an invocation of $\operatorname{propose}(P_l, v, O_f)$ in \mathcal{E} before the response event e_f . From the implementation and the definition of e_f , this invocation of $\operatorname{propose}(P_l, v, O_f)$ is possible only during the execution of $\operatorname{Propose}(P_l, v, \mathcal{O})$. Thus, the invocation of $\operatorname{Propose}(P_l, v, \mathcal{O})$ precedes the invocation of $\operatorname{propose}(P_l, v, O_f)$, which, in turn, $\operatorname{precedes} e_f$. Furthermore, e_f precedes e_{ret} . This implies that the invocation of $\operatorname{Propose}(P_l, v, \mathcal{O})$ precedes e_{ret} . We conclude that \mathcal{O} satisfies epoch-validity in E.
- 3. Osatisfies epoch-agreement: Suppose that, in E, there is an execution of Propose (Pi, vi, O) and one of Propose (Pj, vj, O), which return 0 and 1, respectively. We will refer to these executions as exec1 and exec2. From O3 and the implementation, it follows that Vi has at least t + 1 0's at the end of exec1. Similarly, Vj has at least t + 1 1's at the end of exec2. This implies that there is a k (1 ≤ k ≤ 2t + 1) such that Ok returns 0 when Pi performs propose(Pi, estimatei, Ok) in exec1 and returns 1 when Pj performs propose(Pj, estimatej, Ok) in exec2. By O2, Ok ∈ {O1, O2, ..., O2t+1} − FAILED(E). It follows from O1 that E is a clean epoch for Ok. Since Ok either is correct or fails by omission, by Propositions 7.2 and 7.3, Ok satisfies epoch-agreement. This contradicts the earlier conclusion that Ok returns 0 to Pi and 1 to Pj. We conclude that Ok satisfies epoch-agreement in E.

- 4. \mathcal{O} satisfies weak integrity: Obvious.
- 5. \mathcal{O} satisfies integrity if at most t base objects fail: Suppose that no more than t base objects of \mathcal{O} fail. For all j, $1 \leq j \leq 2t+1$, since \mathcal{R}_j is t-tolerant, \mathcal{R}_j will be correct. It follows from the implementation that every reset operation on \mathcal{O} in E returns ack. We now make some observations to show that every propose operation on \mathcal{O} in $\phi(E)$ returns either 0 or 1. In the following, let \mathcal{E} be any (not necessarily clean) epoch of \mathcal{O} in E.
 - (a) Let $O_{k_1}, O_{k_2}, \ldots, O_{k_l}$ $(k_1 < k_2 < \ldots < k_l)$ be all the base objects among $\{O_1, O_2, \ldots, O_{2t+1}\}$ which are correct in E. Since at most t fail, we have $l \ge t+1$.
 - (b) From the fact that O_{k_1} is correct in E, it is easy to verify that \mathcal{E} is a clean epoch for O_{k_1} . Since O_{k_1} is correct and \mathcal{E} is a clean epoch for O_{k_1} , by Proposition 7.2, O_{k_1} satisfies integrity and epoch-agreement in epoch \mathcal{E} . Thus, there is a $v \in \{0,1\}$ such that every propose operation on O_{k_1} in epoch \mathcal{E} returns v. This implies that, for every execution of $\operatorname{Propose}(P_i, v_i, \mathcal{O})$ in \mathcal{E} , estimate_i = v at the end of k_1 iterations of the for-loop.
 - (c) For all $1 \leq j \leq l$, O_{k_j} is correct in E. From this, it is easy to verify that \mathcal{E} is a clean epoch for O_{k_j} . Since O_{k_j} is correct and \mathcal{E} is a clean epoch for O_{k_j} , by Proposition 7.2, O_{k_j} satisfies integrity, epoch-validity, and epoch-agreement in epoch \mathcal{E} . In particular, if every process that proposes to O_{k_j} in epoch \mathcal{E} proposes the value v, then O_{k_j} returns only v in \mathcal{E} .
 - (d) Let $O_j \in \{O_1, O_2, \ldots, O_{2t+1}\} \{O_{k_1}, O_{k_2}, \ldots, O_{k_l}\}$. By definition, O_j fails by omission in E, returning \bot to some process. Let P be the first process to receive \bot from O_j and let oper denote the execution of P's operation on the derived object \mathcal{O} during which P received \bot from O_j . Consider the following two cases. In the first case, assume that O_j returned \bot to P before epoch \mathcal{E} started. Since \mathcal{E} is a clean epoch, it follows that oper completed before \mathcal{E} started. This implies that P wrote 1 in \mathcal{R}_j before the start of epoch \mathcal{E} . It follows from the implementation that no process invokes an operation on O_j in epoch \mathcal{E} . In the second case, assume that O_j never returned \bot to any process before the start of epoch \mathcal{E} . Then, it is easy to see that \mathcal{E} is a clean epoch for O_j . Thus, by Proposition 7.3, if every process that proposes to O_j in epoch \mathcal{E} proposes the value v, O_j returns either v or \bot in \mathcal{E} .

Consider any execution of $Propose(P_i, v_i, \mathcal{O})$ in epoch \mathcal{E} . We claim that $estimate_i = v$ at the end of k_1 iterations of the for-loop and the value of $estimate_i$ does not change in the subsequent iterations. The claim follows directly from the above observations and the fact that a process does not change its estimate if a base object O_j returns \bot . This claim, together with the fact that $O_{k_1}, O_{k_2}, \ldots, O_{k_l}$ are correct, implies that, at the end of the execution, (i) $estimate_i = v$ and (ii) for all $1 \le j \le l$, $V_i[k_j] = v$. From the implementation, it follows that $Propose(P_i, v_i, \mathcal{O})$ returns v. We conclude that \mathcal{O} satisfies integrity.

From 1, 2, 3, and 4 above, and Proposition 7.3, we conclude that either \mathcal{O} is correct in E or \mathcal{O} fails by omission in E. Thus, the implementation is gracefully degrading for omission. From 1, 2, 3, and 5 above, and Proposition 7.2, we conclude that if at most t base objects of \mathcal{O} fail in E, and they fail by omission, then \mathcal{O} is correct in E. Thus, the implementation is t-tolerant for omission. This completes the proof of the lemma. \square

Graceful degradation theorem for omission

From the previous three lemmas, and the argument presented at the beginning of Section 7.2.2, we have

Theorem 7.5 Every type has a t-tolerant gracefully degrading implementation from every universal set of types for omission.

8 Related work

In an independent work, Afek et al. consider the problem of coping with shared memory subject to memory failures [AGMT92]. Informally, each failure is modeled as a faulty write. The following failure modes are considered:

- **A.** There is a bound m on the total number of faulty writes.
- **B.** There is a bound f on the total number of data objects that may be affected by memory failures, and a bound k on the number of faulty writes on each faulty object. A different failure model is obtained for $k = \infty$.

In our terminology, these failure modes are responsive. The second one, with $k = \infty$, corresponds to our arbitrary failure mode.

[AGMT92] focuses on fault-tolerant implementations of the following types of objects: safe, atomic, binary, and V-valued register from various types of registers; N-process test&set from N-process test&set and bounded register; and N-consensus from read-modify-write (RMW). [AGMT92] also gives a universal fault-tolerant implementation from unbounded RMW, based on Herlihy's universal implementation. The main differences between [AGMT92] and this paper are as follows:

- 1. [AGMT92] does not consider any non-responsive failure mode.
- 2. Amongst the responsive failure modes, benign ones, such as crash and omission, are also not considered in [AGMT92].
- 3. This paper does not consider failure modes that bound the number of times faulty objects can fail (in [AGMT92], each "faulty write" is counted as a failure).

- 4. The two approaches to modeling failures appear to be fundamentally different. There is no direct way to model benign failures, such as crash and omission failures, with "faulty writes". On the other hand, our approach—defining how each faulty object deviates from its type—is not suited to handle Model A above.
- 5. This paper introduces the concept of graceful degradation, and presents several related results, in particular, for crash and omission failure modes. For arbitrary failures, graceful degradation reduces to the "strong wait-freedom" concept introduced in [AGMT92].
- 6. In the Open Problems section of [AGMT92] it is stated:

"It would be particularly interesting to implement memory-fault tolerant data objects directly from similar, faulty objects, such as test-and-set from test-and-set, without using atomic registers, or read-modify-write from read-modify-write, without using an unbounded universal construction."

It is interesting to note that both of these types do have fault-tolerant self-implementations. For bounded RMW, this is a direct consequence of Corollary 5.1. For N-process test&set, one can combine the fault-tolerant implementation of test&set from {test&set, bounded register} [AGMT92], with the implementation of bounded register from test&set presented in Figure 14.

- 7. The existence of a fault-tolerant *self*-implementation of consensus, shown in this paper, does not follow from the results in [AGMT92].
- 8. The fault-tolerant implementation of N-process test&set from {test&set, bounded register}, shown in [AGMT92], does not follow from our results (when N > 2).

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A Translation from arbitrary failure mode to omission failure mode

In this section, we define the notion of a translation between failure modes. We also present a t-tolerant translation from arbitrary failure mode to omission failure mode for the type consensus. We prove that its resource complexity of 3t+1 is optimal. This translation can be used along with the t-tolerant self-implementation of consensus for omission (presented in Section 5.1.2) to obtain a t-tolerant self-implementation of consensus for

arbitrary failures. However, the resource complexity of the resulting implementation will be $(3t+1) \cdot (t+1)$, which is more than the $O(t \log t)$ complexity achieved by the direct implementation presented earlier in Figure 10.

A t-tolerant translation of (T, s) from failure mode \mathcal{F} to failure mode \mathcal{F}' is a self-implementation \mathcal{I} with the following property:

Let \mathcal{O} be a derived object of \mathcal{I} and E be an execution. If at most t base objects of \mathcal{O} fail in E, and they fail by \mathcal{F} , then either \mathcal{O} is correct in E or \mathcal{O} fails by \mathcal{F}' in E.

A type T has a t-tolerant translation from failure mode \mathcal{F} to failure mode \mathcal{F}' if, for all states s of T, (T, s) has a t-tolerant translation from \mathcal{F} to \mathcal{F}' .

The motivation for translation is as follows. Suppose that the hardware of a system supports objects of type T. Suppose further that these objects, if they fail, fail by (a severe mode) \mathcal{F} . If the translation defined above is available, then it is easy to make it seem as if the system supported objects of type T which, if they fail, will fail by (the less severe mode) \mathcal{F}' .

A[1...2t+1], B[1...t]: consensus objects, initialized to the uncommitted state

```
Procedure Propose(p, v_p, \mathcal{O})
          count_p[0..1], w, i, belief_p: integer local to p
          Phase 1: count_p[0..1] := (0,0)
1
^{2}
                       for i := 1 to 2t + 1
                             w := \mathtt{f-propose}(p, v_p, A[i])
3
                             count_p[w] := count_p[w] + 1
4
         Phase 2: Choose belief_p such that
5
                             count_{p}[belief_{p}] > count_{p}[\overline{belief_{p}}]
                       for i := 1 to t
6
                             \textbf{if } \textit{belief}_p \neq \texttt{f-propose}(p, \textit{belief}_p, B[i]) \textbf{ then}
7
8
9
                       return(belief_n)
    end
```

Figure 22: t-tolerant translation from arbitrary to omission for consensus

In Figure 22, we present a t-tolerant translation of consensus from arbitrary failure mode to omission failure mode. Below, we prove its correctness through a series of lemmas. Let \mathcal{O} be a consensus object, initialized to the uncommitted state, derived from this translation. The base objects of \mathcal{O} are A[1...2t+1], B[1...t].

 $\textbf{Lemma A.1} \ \ \mathcal{O} \ \textit{satisfies integrity in any execution in which all base objects of } \mathcal{O} \ \textit{are correct}.$

Proof Clear from the algorithm.

Lemma A.2 \mathcal{O} is wait-free in any execution in which all base objects of \mathcal{O} are wait-free.

Proof Clear from the algorithm.

In the following lemmas, let E be an execution in which at most t base objects experience arbitrary failures, and the remaining are correct.

Lemma A.3 \mathcal{O} satisfies weak integrity in E.

Proof Clear from the algorithm.

Lemma A.4 \mathcal{O} satisfies validity in E.

Proof Suppose \mathcal{O} returns $v \in \{0,1\}$ to the invocation $\mathsf{Propose}(p,v_p,\mathcal{O})$ (from process p). Then $v = belief_p$ (by line 9), and $count_p[v] = count_p[belief_p] \ge t+1$ (by line 5). So there is at least one correct base object A[i] such that $\mathsf{propose}(p,v_p,A[i])$ returned v. By Proposition 5.1, A[i] satisfies validity. It follows that some $\mathsf{process}(q,v_p,A[i])$ where $v_q = v$. This implies that q invoked $\mathsf{Propose}(q,v,\mathcal{O})$.

Lemma A.5 \mathcal{O} satisfies agreement in E.

Proof Suppose \mathcal{O} fails to satisfy agreement by returning 0 to some process p and 1 to a different process q. Since \mathcal{O} returns 0 to p, it follows that $belief_p = 0$ at the end of E. Similarly, $belief_q = 1$. Thus, $belief_p \neq belief_q$. It is easy to verify that if all of $A[1 \dots 2t+1]$ are correct, then $belief_p = belief_q$. It follows that at least one of $A[1 \dots 2t+1]$ fails.

Further, since \mathcal{O} returns 0 to p, it follows that, for all $1 \leq i \leq t$, $\mathsf{propose}(p, belief_p, B[i])$ returns 0 to p. Similarly, for all $1 \leq i \leq t$, $\mathsf{propose}(q, belief_q, B[i])$ returns 1 to q. Thus all t base objects $B[1 \ldots t]$ fail by not satisfying agreement. Counting the failed A[i]'s and B[i]'s, we have more than t failed base objects, a contradiction. \square

From the above lemmas, and Propositions 5.1 and 5.2, we conclude that: (i) \mathcal{O} is correct in every execution in which all base objects of \mathcal{O} are correct; and (ii) \mathcal{O} is either correct or it fails by omission in every execution in which at most t base objects of \mathcal{O} fail by the arbitrary failure mode, and the remaining base objects are correct. Thus,

Theorem A.1 Figure 22 presents a t-tolerant translation from arbitrary failures to omission failures for consensus. The resource complexity of the translation is 3t + 1.

Theorem A.2 The resource complexity of any t-tolerant translation \mathcal{I} from arbitrary to omission for consensus is at least 3t+1.

Proof For a contradiction, assume the resource complexity of \mathcal{I} is $n \leq 3t$. We prove the theorem through a series of lemmas, involving "indistinguishable" scenarios. Let $\mathcal{O} = \mathcal{I}(O_1, O_2, \ldots, O_n)$. In the following, we say that a process p accesses a base object O_i if, during the execution of $Propose(p, v_p, \mathcal{O})$, p executes $propose(p, *, O_i)$.

Lemma A.6 Suppose p executes $Propose(p, 0, \mathcal{O})$ to completion (and no other process interleaves with p). If all base objects are correct, then p accesses at least t + 1 base objects.

Proof Suppose the lemma is false, and p accesses only $O_{i_1}, O_{i_2}, \ldots, O_{i_m}$ $(m \leq t)$ before completing $\mathsf{Propose}(p,0,\mathcal{O})$. Since all base objects are correct, \mathcal{O} satisfies validity and integrity. Hence $\mathsf{Propose}(p,0,\mathcal{O})$ returns 0. Now consider the following two scenarios. In these and other scenarios, unless mentioned otherwise, assume that objects are correct.

Scenario S1

- 1. p executes $\mathsf{Propose}(p,0,\mathcal{O})$ to completion accessing only $O_{i_1},O_{i_2},\ldots,O_{i_m}$. $\mathsf{Propose}(p,0,\mathcal{O})$ returns 0.
- 2. q executes $Propose(q, 1, \mathcal{O})$ to completion.

Scenario S2

- 1. Each of $O_{i_1}, O_{i_2}, \ldots, O_{i_m}$ fails and spontaneously gets into the same state as it is in at the end of Item 1 in Scenario S1.
- 2. q executes $Propose(q, 1, \mathcal{O})$ to completion; objects $O_{i_1}, O_{i_2}, \ldots, O_{i_m}$ behave exactly as they do in Item 2 of Scenario S1.

Since no base objects fail in S1, \mathcal{O} must be correct in S1. By Proposition 5.1, \mathcal{O} satisfies integrity and agreement. Thus $\mathsf{Propose}(q,1,\mathcal{O})$ returns 0 in S1. Clearly S1 \approx_q S2. So $\mathsf{Propose}(q,1,\mathcal{O})$ returns 0 in S2 also, violating validity. By Propositions 5.1 and 5.2, \mathcal{O} is neither correct nor does it fail by omission. Since at most t base objects fail in S2, and they fail by the arbitrary failure mode, the translation \mathcal{I} is incorrect, a contradiction.

Lemma A.7 Consider

<u>Scenario S3</u>

- 1. p executes $Propose(p, 0, \mathcal{O})$ up to the point where it has accessed exactly t base objects $O_{i_1}, O_{i_2}, \ldots, O_{i_t}$.
- 2. q executes Propose $(q, 1, \mathcal{O})$ to completion.

Then $Propose(q, 1, \mathcal{O})$ returns 1.

Proof Let $S = \{$ base objects accessed by $q\} - \{O_{i_1}, O_{i_2}, \dots, O_{i_t}\}$. Let $O_{j_1}, O_{j_2}, \dots, O_{j_k}$ be all the base objects in S arranged in the order in which they are first invoked by q. Note that $k \leq n - t \leq 2t$.

Let S2' represent the scenario obtained by textually substituting t for m in Scenario S2. Since at most t base objects fail in S2', and they fail by the arbitrary failure mode, \mathcal{O} must either be correct or fail by omission. Hence, by Propositions 5.1 and 5.2, \mathcal{O} satisfies validity and weak integrity in S2'. So Propose $(q,1,\mathcal{O})$ returns 1 or \bot in S2'. Since S2' \approx_q S3, we conclude Propose $(q,1,\mathcal{O})$ returns 1 or \bot in S3. Since no base object fails in S3, \mathcal{O} must be correct. By Proposition 5.1, \mathcal{O} satisfies integrity in S3. So Propose $(q,1,\mathcal{O})$ returns either 0 or 1 in S3. Together with the above conclusion, this implies the lemma.

Lemma A.8 Consider

Scenario S4

- 1. p executes $Propose(p, 0, \mathcal{O})$ up to the point where it has accessed exactly t base objects $O_{i_1}, O_{i_2}, \ldots, O_{i_t}$.
- 2. Let $O_{j_1}, O_{j_2}, \ldots, O_{j_k}$ and S be as defined above (note $k \leq 2t$). q executes $Propose(q, 1, \mathcal{O})$ up to the point where, of the objects in S, it has accessed exactly $\{O_{j_1}, O_{j_2}, \ldots, O_{j_{k-t}}\}$.
- 3. p completes the execution of Propose $(p,0,\mathcal{O})$.

Then Propose $(p, 0, \mathcal{O})$ returns θ .

Proof Consider

Scenario S5

- 1. p executes $Propose(p, 0, \mathcal{O})$ up to the point where it has accessed exactly t base objects $O_{i_1}, O_{i_2}, \ldots, O_{i_t}$.
- 2. Each of $O_{j_1}, O_{j_2}, \ldots, O_{j_{k-t}}$ fails and spontaneously gets into the same state as it is in at the end of Item 2 in Scenario S4.
- 3. p completes the execution of Propose $(p, 0, \mathcal{O})$.

We claim that S4 \approx_p S5. The only subtlety in verifying this claim is to understand why objects $O_{i_1}, O_{i_2}, \ldots, O_{i_t}$ cannot help p distinguish S4 from S5. This is explained below. Objects $O_{i_1}, O_{i_2}, \ldots, O_{i_t}$ are consensus objects and are correct in both scenarios. Further, p is the first process to access these objects in both scenarios. Thus, the response from each of these objects is identical in both scenarios.

Since $k \leq 2t$, the number of base objects that fail in S5 = $k - t \leq t$. Since they fail by the arbitrary failure mode in S5, either \mathcal{O} is correct in S5, or \mathcal{O} fails by omission in S5. Thus, by Propositions 5.1 and 5.2, \mathcal{O} satisfies validity and weak integrity in S5. So Propose $(p,0,\mathcal{O})$ returns either 0 or \bot in S5. Since S4 \approx_p S5, Propose $(p,0,\mathcal{O})$ returns either 0 or \bot in S4 also. However since no base object fails in S4, \mathcal{O} is correct in S4, and by Proposition 5.1, it satisfies integrity in S4. Thus Propose $(p,0,\mathcal{O})$ returns 0 in S4.

Lemma A.9 Consider

Scenario S6

- 1. p executes $Propose(p,0,\mathcal{O})$ up to the point where it has accessed exactly t base objects $O_{i_1}, O_{i_2}, \ldots, O_{i_t}$.
- 2. q executes $Propose(q, 1, \mathcal{O})$ to completion, returning 1, by Lemma A.7.
- 3. Let $O_{j_1}, O_{j_2}, \ldots, O_{j_k}$ be as defined above (note $k \leq 2t$). Each of $\{O_{j_{k-t+1}}, O_{j_{k-t+2}}, \ldots, O_{j_k}\}$ fails and behaves as though it was never accessed by q.
- 4. p completes the execution of $Propose(p, 0, \mathcal{O})$.

Then Propose $(p,0,\mathcal{O})$ returns 0.

Proof Note that S4 \approx_p S6. By Lemma A.8, Propose $(p,0,\mathcal{O})$ returns 0 in S4. So Propose $(p,0,\mathcal{O})$ returns 0 in S6.

From the above lemma, it is clear that \mathcal{O} does not satisfy agreement in S6. Hence, by Propositions 5.1 and 5.2, \mathcal{O} fails in S6, but not by omission. Since at most t base objects fail in S6, and they fail by the arbitrary failure mode, the translation \mathcal{I} is incorrect, a contradiction. This completes the proof of Theorem A.2.

B Type definitions

In this section, we specify the types mentioned in the paper. Recall that a type is defined as a 4-tuple (OP, RES, G, τ) . For all types specified here, τ is the identity function. We describe the graph G with a set of procedures.

```
\begin{split} OP &= \{ \text{write}(v) | \ 0 \leq v < n \} \cup \{ \text{read}() \} \\ RES &= \{ v | \ 0 \leq v < n \ \} \cup \{ ack \} \\ \text{State:} \\ X &\in \{ 0, 1, \dots, n-1 \} \end{split} \begin{aligned} \text{read}() \\ \text{return}(X) \end{aligned} \begin{aligned} \text{write}(v) \\ X &:= v \\ \text{return}(ack) \end{aligned}
```

Figure 23: n-valued register

```
\begin{split} OP &= \{ \texttt{compare\&swap}(v_1, v_2) | v_1, v_2 \in \{0, 1, 2\} \} \\ RES &= \{0, 1, 2\} \\ \text{State:} \\ X &\in \{0, 1, 2\} \\ \\ \texttt{compare\&swap}(v_1, v_2) \\ \text{if } X &= v_1 \text{ then} \\ X &:= v_2 \\ \text{return}(X) \end{split}
```

Figure 24: compare&swap

```
\begin{aligned} OP &= \{\texttt{test\&set}(), \texttt{reset}()\} \\ RES &= \{0, 1, ack\} \\ \text{State:} &\quad X \in \{0, 1\} \\ \\ \texttt{test\&set}() &\quad y := X \\ &\quad X := 1 \\ &\quad \text{return}(y) \\ \\ \texttt{reset}() &\quad X := 0 \\ &\quad \text{return}(ack) \end{aligned}
```

Figure 25: test&set

```
\begin{aligned} OP &= \{ \texttt{fetch\&add}(v) | v \text{ is an integer} \} \\ RES &= \text{Set of integers} \\ \text{State:} \\ X, \text{ an integer} \\ \\ \texttt{fetch\&add}(v) \\ X &:= X + v \\ \text{return}(X) \end{aligned}
```

Figure 26: fetch&add

```
\begin{aligned} OP &= \{ \operatorname{enq}(v) | v \text{ is integer} \} \cup \{ \operatorname{deq}() \} \\ RES &= \{ v | \ v \text{ is integer} \} \cup \{ nil, \ ack \} \\ \text{State:} & X, \text{ a sequence of integers} \\ & \operatorname{enq}(v) \\ & X := X \cdot v \\ & \operatorname{return}(ack) \\ & \operatorname{deq}() \\ & \text{if } X \text{ is } empty \text{ then} \\ & & \operatorname{return}(nil) \\ & \operatorname{else \ if } X = v \cdot X' \text{ then} \\ & X := X' \\ & & \operatorname{return}(v) \end{aligned}
```

Figure 27: queue

```
\begin{aligned} OP &= \{ \operatorname{push}(v) | v \text{ is integer} \} \cup \{ \operatorname{pop}() \} \\ RES &= \{ v | v \text{ is integer} \} \cup \{ nil, \ ack \} \\ \text{State:} & X, \text{ a sequence of integers} \\ \\ \operatorname{push}(v) & X &:= X \cdot v \\ \operatorname{return}(ack) \\ \\ \operatorname{pop}() & \text{if } X \text{ is } empty \text{ then} \\ & \operatorname{return}(nil) \\ & \text{else if } X &= X' \cdot v \text{ then} \\ & X &:= X' \\ & \operatorname{return}(v) \end{aligned}
```

Figure 28: stack

```
\begin{aligned} OP &= \{ \texttt{read}(i), \texttt{write}(v, i), \texttt{move}(i) | v, i \in \{0, 1\} \} \\ RES &= \{0, 1, ack \} \\ \text{State:} & X_0, X_1 \in \{0, 1\} \end{aligned} \begin{aligned} \texttt{read}(i) & & & & & & \\ \texttt{return}(X_i) & & & & & \\ \texttt{write}(v, i) & & & & & \\ X_i &:= v & & & & \\ \texttt{return}(ack) & & & & \\ \texttt{move}(i) & & & & & \\ X_{\overline{i}} &:= X_i & & & \\ \texttt{return}(ack) & & & & \end{aligned}
```

Figure 29: move

```
\begin{aligned} OP &= \{ \texttt{read}(i), \texttt{write}(v, i), \texttt{swap}() | v, i \in \{0, 1\} \} \\ RES &= \{0, 1, ack \} \\ \text{State:} & X_0, X_1 \in \{0, 1\} \end{aligned} \begin{aligned} &\text{read}(i) \\ &\text{return}(X_i) \end{aligned} \begin{aligned} &\text{write}(v, i) \\ &X_i &:= v \\ &\text{return}(ack) \end{aligned} \begin{aligned} &\text{swap}() \\ &temp &:= X_0 \\ &X_0 &:= X_1 \\ &X_1 &:= temp \\ &\text{return}(ack) \end{aligned}
```

Figure 30: memory-to-memory swap

```
\begin{aligned} OP &= \{ \texttt{write}(v) | v \in \{0,1\} \} \cup \{ \texttt{read}() \} \\ RES &= \{0,1,ack\} \\ \text{State:} & X \in \{0,1,\bot\}, \text{ initially } \bot \\ \\ \texttt{read}() & \text{return}(X) \\ \\ \texttt{write}(v) & \text{if } X = \bot \text{ then} \\ & X := v \\ & \text{return}(ack) \end{aligned}
```

Figure 31: sticky-bit

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