Abortable Fork-Linearizable Storage*

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Abstract. We address the problem of emulating a shared read/write memory in a message passing system using a storage server prone to Byzantine failures. Although cryptography can be used to ensure confidentiality and integrity of the data, nothing can prevent a malicious server from returning obsolete data. Fork-linearizability [1] guarantees that if a malicious server hides an update of some client from another client, then these two clients will never see each others' updates again. Fork-linearizability is arguably the strongest consistency property attainable in the presence of a malicious server. Recent work [2] has shown that there is no fork-linearizable shared memory emulation that supports wait-free operations. On the positive side, it has been shown that lockbased emulations exist [1,2]. Lock-based protocols are fragile because they are blocking if clients may crash. In this paper we present for the first time lock-free emulations of fork-linearizable shared memory. We have developed two protocols, LINEAR and CONCUR. With a correct server, both protocols guarantee linearizability and that every operation successfully completes in the absence of step contention, while interfering operations terminate by aborting. The CONCUR algorithm additionally ensures that concurrent operations invoked on different registers complete successfully.

Keywords: Fork-linearizability, abortable objects, lock-freedom, shared memory, online collaboration.

1 Introduction

Fast broadband access to the Internet allows users to benefit from online services such as storing their data remotely and sharing it with other users. Examples for such services, also known as storage or computing "clouds" are Amazon S3, Nirvanix CloudNAS, and Microsoft SkyDrive [3]. These services offer full data administration such that a user does not need to care for backups or server maintenance and the data is available on demand. Such an infrastructure makes online collaboration (multiple users working on the same logical data) based on shared storage very attractive. Examples of existing solutions for online collaboration are the well-known revision control systems like CVS [4] and SVN [5],

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the storage management system WebDAV [6], upcoming Web 2.0 applications [7] like Google docs [8], and a large number of distributed file systems [9].

Online collaboration usually assumes that the participating clients trust each other — otherwise there exists no basis for reasonable communication. However, when the shared storage is provided by a third party, clients may not fully trust the service, e.g. it can corrupt or leak sensitive data. Cryptographic techniques such as hash functions, message authentication codes (MACs) and signatures can be used to prevent unauthorized access to data (confidentiality) and undetectable corruption of the data (integrity). Progress and consistency cannot always be guaranteed when the storage service¹ is untrusted. A malicious server may simply refuse to process client requests and it can violate linearizability by omitting a recent update of one client and presenting an outdated value to another client. This split brain attack is called *forking* and cannot be prevented. However, once a forking attack is mounted, it can be easily detected using a fork-linearizable storage protocol. Fork-linearizability [1] ensures that once two clients are forked, they never see each others' updates after that without revealing the server as faulty. Without fork-consistency, a malicious server is able to present data updates to clients in such a way that no client can say whether the set of updates of other clients it sees is complete or not, nor can such malicious behavior be easily detected, making reliable collaboration impossible. Once such a partitioning occurs, the clients stop hearing from each other. A client that has not seen updates from another client for a while can use out-of-band communication (as e.g. phone or e-mail) to find out if the server is misbehaving.

Recent work [2] has shown that even if the server behaves correctly, clients cannot complete their operations independently from each other because this introduces a vulnerability that can be exploited by a Byzantine server to violate fork-linearizability. This means that in an asynchronous system there is no *wait-free* [10] emulation of fork-linearizable storage on a Byzantine server. On the positive side, the SUNDR [1] protocol and the concurrent protocol by Cachin *et al.* [2] show the existence of fork-linearizable Byzantine emulations using locks. However, lock-based protocols are problematic as they can block in the presence of faulty clients that crash while holding the lock.

Paper Contributions. In this paper we present two lock-free emulations of forklinearizable shared memory on an untrusted server. In runs in which the server behaves correctly, our proposed protocols LINEAR and CONCUR ensure linearizability [11], and that each operation executed in the absence of concurrency successfully completes. Under concurrency, operations may complete by aborting. Both protocols emulate a shared memory consisting of n single-writer multiplereader (SWMR) registers, one for each of the n clients, where register i is updated only by client C_i and may be read by all clients. While both protocols address lock-free fork-linearizability, they solve two distinct issues. The LIN-EAR protocol, which is the first lock-free fork-linearizable implementation at all, offers a communication complexity of $\mathcal{O}(n)$. The CONCUR protocol improves

¹ We will use the terms storage service, storage server, and server interchangeably.

on the handling of concurrent operations such that overlapping operations accessing *different* registers are not perceived as concurrent, and therefore they are not aborted. However, it has a communication complexity of $\mathcal{O}(n^2)$. Both protocols allow concurrent operations to abort in order to circumvent the impossibility result by Cachin *et al.* [2]. The necessary condition for aborting is step contention [12], and thus, pending operations of crashed clients never cause other operations to abort. As a final contribution, note that the existence of abortable fork-linearizable storage implies the existence of obstruction-free [13] fork-linearizable storage.

We now give a rough intuition of why aborting helps to circumvent the given impossibility of wait-free fork-linearizability. With both our protocols, if multiple operations compete for the same register, then there is only one winner and all other operations are aborted. On a correct server, this strategy ensures that all successful operations applied to the same register access the register sequentially. Operations have timestamps attached to them and the sequential execution establishes a total order on operations and the corresponding timestamps. The algorithm ensures that a forking attack breaks the total order on timestamps. If a malicious server does not present the most recent update to a read operation, then the timestamps of the omitted write operation and that of the read operation become incomparable and the two clients are forked. The algorithm guarantees that also future operations of those two clients cannot be ordered and thus they remain forked forever.

2 Related Work

Mazières and Shasha [1] have introduced the notion of fork-linearizability and they have implemented the first fork-linearizable multi-user network file system SUNDR. The SUNDR protocol may block in case a client crashes even when the storage server is correct. Cachin *et al.* [2] implements a more efficient forklinearizable storage protocol based on SUNDR which reduces communication complexity from $\mathcal{O}(n^2)$ to $\mathcal{O}(n)$. The presented protocols are blocking and thus they have the same fundamental drawback as SUNDR. The authors [2] also prove that there is no wait-free emulation of fork-linearizable storage. They do so by exhibiting a run with concurrent operations where some client has to wait for another client to complete. Oprea and Reiter [14] define the weaker notion of fork-sequential consistency. Intuitively the difference to fork-linearizability is that fork-sequential consistency does not necessarily preserve the real-time order of operations from different clients. In a recent work, Cachin et al. [15] show that there is no wait-free emulation of fork-sequential consistent storage on a Byzantine server. It is important to note that these impossibility results do not rule out the existence of emulations of fork-linearizable storage with abortable operations [16] or weaker liveness guarantees such as obstruction-freedom [13]. Cachin et al. [17] presents the storage service FAUST which wait-free emulates a shared memory with a new consistency semantics called *weak forklinearizability.* The notion of weak fork-linearizability weakens fork-linearizability

in two fundamental ways. After being forked, two clients may see each others' updates once (at-most-on-join property) and secondly, the real-time order among the operations which are the last of each client is not ensured.

Li and Mazières [18] study systems where storage is implemented from 3f + 1 server replicas and more than f replicas are Byzantine faulty. They present a storage protocol which ensures fork* consistency. Similar to weak fork-linearizability, fork* consistency allows that two forked clients may be joined at most once (at-most-one-join property).

The notion of abortable objects has been introduced by Aguilera *et al.* [16]. The paper shows the existence of a universal abortable object construction from abortable registers. It is the first construction of an obstruction-free universal type from base objects weaker than registers. In a follow-up paper [19] it has been shown that in a partially synchronous system, abortable objects can be boosted to wait-free objects. This makes abortable objects, including our abortable fork-linearizable read/write emulation very attractive.

Summing up, to date there is no lock-free emulation of fork-linearizable storage even though lock-free solutions can be made practically wait-free using boosting techniques as described by Aguilera *et al.* [19].

3 System Model and Definitions

Similar to the models used in recent work on fork-linearizability [2], [1], we consider a distributed system consisting of a single server S and n clients C_1, \ldots, C_n . The clients may fail by crashing but they never deviate from the protocol. The server may be faulty and deviate arbitrarily from its protocol exhibiting nonresponsive-arbitrary faults [20] (Byzantine [21]). The clients communicate with the server by sending messages over reliable channels directly to the server, forming an asynchronous network. The shared functionality provided by the server is a *read/write register*. A read/write register provides *operations* by which the clients can access the register. An operation is defined by two events, an invocation event and a response event. To represent an abort of execution, there are two types of response events: ABORT and OK events respectively. An additional event type constitute *crash* events representing the act of a client failing. We call operation op complete, if there exists a matching response event to the invocation event of op, else op is denoted as incomplete. An operation is successful, iff it is complete and the response event is an OK event. An operation is *aborted*, if it is complete and the response event is an ABORT event. Operation op precedes operation op' iff op is complete before the invocation event of op'. If op precedes op' we denote op and op' as sequential operations. Else, if neither operation precedes the other, then op and op' are said to be are *concurrent*. An *execution* of the system is defined as the sequence of events occurring at the clients.

A read/write register X[i] provides a *Read* and a *Write* operation to the clients. The response event to a client's operation is either OK or ABORT. Client C_i may use the *Write* operation to store a value v from domain *Value* in register X[i], denoted as *Write*(i, v). If the response to a *Read* of register X[i] is OK, then

a value v is returned, denoted as $Read(i) \rightarrow v$. The server implements n singlewriter multiple-reader (SWMR) registers $X[1 \dots n]$ where each client C_i writes only to X[i] and may read from all other registers. The *sequential specification* of a register requires that if a *Read* operation returns a value, it returns the value written by the last preceding *Write* operation.

We assume that each client interacts *sequentially* with the read/write register, i.e. a client invokes a new operation only after the previous operation has completed.

Further we assume that clients have access to a digital signature scheme used by each client to *sign* its messages such that any other client can determine the authenticity of a message by *verifying* the corresponding signature. Further, the Byzantine server is not able to forge the signatures.

The consistency condition for the read/write register is defined in terms of the sequence σ of events the shared register exhibits in an execution as observed by the clients. Such a sequence, also called *history*, contains invocation, response, and crash events. To ease the definition of consistency conditions and the reasoning about correctness, we define two transformations to derive simpler histories from more complicated ones, while maintaining plausibility of execution. Intuitively, the transformations remove all operations from a history that do not take effect.

Definition 1. An operation op of client takes effect if and only if

- 1. op is successful OR
- 2. *op* is a *Write* operation *and* there exists a *Read* operation that returns the value written by *op*.

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We now define the two transformations CRASHCOMPLETE and ABORTCOMPLETE.

Definition 2. The transformations CRASHCOMPLETE and ABORTCOMPLETE take a sequence of events σ as input and return a sequence of events σ' as output.

- CRASHCOMPLETE: We define σ' returned by CRASHCOMPLETE by construction: At first we add all events from σ to σ' . Then, we remove the invocation events of *incomplete* operations that did not take effect and the corresponding crash event if one exists² from σ' . Next, we add a matching OK event to each remaining *incomplete* operation and remove all remaining crash events in σ' .
- ABORTCOMPLETE: We define σ' returned by ABORTCOMPLETE by construction: At first we add all events from σ to σ' . Then, we remove all events of aborted operations in σ' that did not take effect. Next, we replace all remaining ABORT events in σ with matching OK events.

 $^{^2}$ Note, that the last operation of each client in σ might be incomplete even if the client did not crash.

Variables used by Algorithm 2 and 3:				
sig signature	/* signature /*			
<i>abort</i> boolean	<pre>/* flags if operation is aborted /*</pre>			
$value_{suc}$ value	/* written value of last successful write /*			
<i>retval</i> value	/* return value of the read operation /*			
Variables used by Algorithm 2:				
op_cnt integer	<pre>/* operation counter /*</pre>			
op, x_op, lso operation with fields $id = (client_id, op_cnt, type, reg), value, tsv, sig$				
	<pre>/* operation structure /*</pre>			
$tsv_{comp}[1n]$ vector of integers	/* ts vector of last completed operation /*			
ts_{suc} integer	/* timestamp of last successful operation /*			
Variables used by Algorithm 3:				
$op_cnt[1n]$ array of integer	/* operation counter $/*$			
op, x_op, lso operation with field	$s id = (client_id, op_cnt, type, reg), value, tsm, sig$			
	<pre>/* operation structure /*</pre>			
$tsm_{comp}^{1n}[1n]$ timestamp matrix	of integers /* ts matrix of last completed			
-	operation /*			
$ts_{suc}[1n]$ vector of integers /	\ast timestamps of last successful operations /*			

Fig. 1. Variables for Algorithms 2 and 3

Transformation CRASHCOMPLETE removes incomplete operations that did not take effect from σ . This is reasonable as such events do not influence the execution. Instead of removing them, such events could also be moved to the end of sequence σ . The same argument applies to aborted operations that do not take effect which are removed by transformation ABORTCOMPLETE. By first applying transformation CRASHCOMPLETE and then transformation ABORTCOMPLETE to sequence σ , we have transformed σ into a sequence of events containing only successful operations. On the transformed sequence we give two equivalent definitions of fork-linearizability taken from recent work of Cachin *et al.* [2].

Definition 3 (Fork-Linearizability). A sequence of events σ observed by the clients is called *fork-linearizable* with respect to a functionality F if and only if for each client C_i , there exists a subsequence σ_i of σ consisting only of completed operations and a sequential permutation π_i of σ_i such that:

- 1. All completed operations in σ occurring³ at client C_i are contained in σ_i ; and
- 2. π_i preserves the real-time order of σ_i ; and
- 3. the operations of π_i satisfy the sequential specification of F; and
- 4. for every $op \in \pi_i \cap \pi_j$, the sequence of events that precede op in π_i is the same as the sequence of events that precede op in π_j .

³ All successful operations of client C_i occur at client C_i ; together with condition 3. this further includes all operations on which an operation of client C_i causally depends, i.e. operations that have written a value client C_i reads.

Definition 4 (Global Fork-Linearizability). A sequence of events σ observed by the clients is called *fork linearizable* with respect to a functionality F if and only if there exists a sequential permutation π of σ such that:

- 1. π preserves the real-time order of σ ; and
- 2. for each client C_i there exists a subsequence π_i of π such that:
 - (a) events in π occurring at client C_i are contained in π_i ; and
 - (b) the operations of π_i satisfy the sequential specification of F; and
 - (c) for every $op \in \pi_i \cap \pi_j$, the sequence of events that precede op in π_i is the same as the sequence of events that precede op in π_j .

Using two distinct but equivalent definitions of fork-linearizability simplifies the correctness proof of protocol LINEAR (by using Definition 3) and of protocol CONCUR (by using Definition 4). The notion of fork-linearizability and global fork-linearizability has shown to be equivalent [2].

4 The Protocols

In this section we present two lock-free protocols LINEAR and CONCUR that emulate a fork-linearizable shared memory on a Byzantine server. The LINEAR protocol is based on *vectors* of timestamps (described later in section 4.2) resulting in a communication complexity of $\mathcal{O}(n)$. The LINEAR protocol serializes all operations, and therefore it aborts concurrent operations even if they are applied to distinct registers. The CONCUR protocol (introduced later in section 4.3) allows for concurrent operations if they are applied to distinct registers and only operations on the same register are serialized. To achieve this, timestamp *matrices* are used leading to a communication complexity of $\mathcal{O}(n^2)$.

4.1 **Protocol Properties**

As mentioned above, LINEAR and CONCUR introduced emulate the shared functionality of a read/write register among a collection of clients and a (possibly) Byzantine server S. The LINEAR (CONCUR) protocol consists of two algorithms, run by the clients and the server respectively. If the server is faulty, it may refuse to respond to client requests or return (detectably) corrupted data such that liveness of the emulated functionality is violated. A malicious server may also mount a forking attack and partition clients. However, if the server behaves correctly, we require that the emulation does not block and clients are not forked.

To formalize the desired properties of the LINEAR and CONCUR protocol, we redefine the notion of *sequential* and *concurrent* operations under step contention [22] when the server is correct. We say that two operations op and op'are *sequential under step contention* if op' does not perform steps at the server S after op performed its first step and before op performed its last step at server S. Otherwise, op and op' are *concurrent under step contention*. The LINEAR and CONCUR protocol satisfy *Fork-consistency* and two liveness properties *Nontriviality* and *Termination*:

Algorithm 1. Read / Write Operation of Client i		
Read(j) do	Write(v) do	
$rw_operation(ext{READ}, \bot, j)$	$rw_operation(WRITE, v, i)$	
if abort then return ABORT	if abort then return ABORT	
return <i>retval</i>	return OK	

- Fork-consistency: Every execution of the LINEAR and CONCUR protocols satisfies fork-linearizability with respect to a shared read/write register emulated on a Byzantine server S. If S is correct, then every execution is complete and has a linearizable history.
- **Nontriviality**: When the server is correct, in an execution of the LINEAR (resp. CONCUR) protocol every operation that returns *abort* is concurrent under step contention with another operation (resp. with another operation on the same register).
- **Termination**: When the server is correct and σ is the sequence of events exhibited by an execution of the LINEAR or CONCUR protocol, then after applying transformation CRASHCOMPLETE to σ , every operation in σ is complete.

4.2 The Linear Protocol

The LINEAR protocol is based on two main ideas. The first idea is that when two or more operations access the registers concurrently, all but one are aborted. In the protocol, operations need two rounds of communication with the server, and an operation *op* is aborted if a first round message of another operation arrives at the server between the points in time when the first round message and the second round message of *op* is received by the server. Hence, among the concurrent operations, the LINEAR protocol does not abort the "newest" operation. This scheme ensures that a pending operation of a crashed client does not interfere with other operations. Observe that using this strategy of aborting, successful operations execute in isolation and therefore accesses to the shared memory are serialized.

As a second idea, the LINEAR protocol assigns vector timestamps to operations such that a partial order \leq on operations can be defined based on these timestamp vectors. The basic principle is that a client reads the most recent timestamp vector from the server during the first round, increments its own entry and writes the updated timestamp vector back to the server. Since successful operations run in isolation, the corresponding timestamp vectors are totally ordered, as no two successful operations read the same timestamp vector during the first round. Clearly, a Byzantine server may fork two clients, but then there are operations of these two clients *op* and *op'* with incomparable timestamp vectors. By the requirement of fork-linearizability, these two clients must not see any later updates of each other. For this purpose, the protocol ensures that the two clients remain forked by preventing any client from committing an operation *op''* which is both greater than *op* and *op'*.

A of	gorithm 2. LINEAR Protocol, Algorithm Client i	A of	lgorithm 3. CONCUR Protocol, Algorithm Client i
2.1 1	$rw_operation(TYPE, value, r)$ do	3.1	$rw_operation(TYPE, value, r)$ do
2.2	$abort \leftarrow false$	3.2	$abort \leftarrow false$
2.3	$op_cnt \leftarrow op_cnt + 1$	3.3	$op_cnt[r] \leftarrow op_cnt[r] + 1$
2.4	$op.id \leftarrow (i, op_cnt, TYPE, r)$	3.4	$op.id \leftarrow (i, op_cnt[r], TYPE, r)$
2.5	send (SUBMIT, $op.id$) to server	3.5	send (SUBMIT, $op.id$) to server
2.6	wait for message (SUBMIT_R, x_op , lso)	3.6	wait for message (SUBMIT_R, x_op , lso)
2.7	if not $verify(lso.sig) \land verify(x_op.sig)$	3.7	if not $verify(lso.sig) \land verify(x_op.sig)$
	then halt		then halt
2.8	if not	3.8	if not
	$\forall k eq i: tsv_{comp}[k] \leq lso.tsv[k] \land$		$\forall k \neq i : tsm_{comp}^{r}[k] \leq lso.tsm^{r}[k] \land$
	$ts_{suc} = lso.tsv[i]$ then halt		$ts_{suc}[r] = lso.tsm^{r}[i]$ then halt
2.9	if not $x_op.id.client_id = r$ then halt	3.9	if not $x_op.id.client_id = r$ then halt
2.10	if not $x_op \leq lso \land$	3.10	if not $x_op \leq lso \land$
	$lso.tsv[r] = x_op.tsv[r]$		$lso.tsm^{r}[r] = x_op.tsm^{r}[r]$
	then halt		then halt
		3.11	forall $k = 1n, k \neq r$ do
		3.12	if not tsm_{comp}^k , $lso.tsm^k$ are comp-
2.11	$op.tsv \leftarrow lso.tsv$		arable then halt
		3.13	$op.tsm^k \leftarrow \max\{tsm^k_{comp}, lso.tsm^k\}$
		3.14	$op.tsm^r \leftarrow lso.tsm^r$
2.12	$op.tsv[i] \leftarrow op_cnt$	3.15	$op.tsm^{r}[i] \leftarrow op_cnt[r]$
2.13	if TYPE = WRITE then $op.value \leftarrow value$	3.16	if Type = WRITE then $op.value \leftarrow value$
2.14	$sig \leftarrow sign(op.id op.value op.tsv)$	3.17	$sig \leftarrow sign(op.id op.value op.tsm)$
2.15	$op.sig \leftarrow sig$	3.18	$op.sig \leftarrow sig$
2.16	send (COMMIT, op) to server	3.19	send $\langle \text{COMMIT}, op \rangle$ to server
2.17	wait for message $\langle \text{COMMIT}_R, ret_type \rangle$	3.20	wait for message $(\text{COMMIT_R}, ret_type)$
2.18	$tsv_{comp} \leftarrow op.tsv$	3.21	$tsm_{comp} \leftarrow op.tsm$
2.19	if $ret_type = ABORT$ then	3.22	if $ret_type = ABORT$ then
2.20	$op.value \leftarrow value_{suc}$	3.23	$op.value \leftarrow value_{suc}$
2.21	$abort \leftarrow true$	3.24	$abort \leftarrow true$
2.22	else	3.25	else
2.23	$ts_{suc} \leftarrow op_cnt$	3.26	$ts_{suc}[r] \leftarrow op_cnt[r]$
2.24	$value_{suc} \leftarrow op.value$	3.27	$value_{suc} \leftarrow op.value$
2.25	\mathbf{if} TYPE = READ \mathbf{then}	3.28	if $TYPE = READ$ then
	$retval \leftarrow x_op.value$		$retval \leftarrow x_op.value$

Description of the LINEAR Protocol. The shared memory emulated by the LINEAR protocol consists of n SWMR registers $X[1], \ldots, X[n]$ such that client C_i may write a value from set *Value* only to register X[i] and may read from any register. The detailed pseudo-code of the LINEAR protocol appears in Algorithm 1, 2 and 4 and the variables used are described in Figure 1.

A client performs two rounds of communication with the server S for both *Read* and *Write* operations (see Algorithm 1). This is implemented by calling procedure *rw_operation* (Algorithm 2) with type READ or WRITE respectively. When executing *rw_operation*, the client sends a SUBMIT message to the server S announcing a read or write operation and waits for a matching response. The server S responds with a SUBMIT_R message containing information on the current state of the server and the value to be read. In the second communication round, the client sends a COMMIT message to the server and waits for a COMMIT_R message to complete the operation. The communication of the operation are a communication to the current state of the server and the value to be read. In the server and waits for a COMMIT_R message to complete the operation. The communication of the operation are a communication to the current state of the server and the client the outcome of the operation.

Algorithm 4. LINEAR Protocol, Algorithm	Algorithm 5. CONCUR Protocol, Algorithm of Server S
Variables	Variables
4.1 Pad set of operation ids /* pend. ops */ 4.2 Abrt set of operation ids /* pending ops to be aborted */	5.1 Pnd[1n] array of set of operation ids 5.2 Abrt[1n] array of set of operation ids /* pending ops to be aborted */
4.3 upon receiving message (SUBMIT, id) from	5.3 upon receiving message (SUBMIT, id) from
client i do	client i do
4.4 $Abrt \leftarrow Pnd$	5.4 $Abrt[id.reg] \leftarrow Pnd[id.reg]$
4.5 $Pnd \leftarrow Pnd \cup \{id\}$	5.5 $Pnd[id.reg] \leftarrow Pnd[id.reg] \cup \{id\}$
4.6 send (SUBMIT_R, $X[id.reg], lso$)	5.6 send (SUBMIT_R, $X[id.reg], lso[id.reg]$) to
4.7 upon receiving message (COMMIT, op) from	5.7 upon receiving message $\langle \text{COMMIT}, op \rangle$ from
client i do	client i do
4.8 $Pnd \leftarrow Pnd \setminus \{op.id\}$	5.8 $Pnd[op.id.reg] \leftarrow$
	$Pnd[op.id.reg] \setminus \{op.id\}$
4.9 if $op.id \in Abrt$ then	5.9 if $op.id \in Abrt[op.id.reg]$ then
1.10 send (COMMIT_R, ABORT) to client i	5.10 send (COMMIT_R, ABORT) to client i
1.11 else	5.11 else
1.12 $X[i] \leftarrow op$	5.12 $X[i] \leftarrow op$
$l.13 lso \leftarrow op$	5.13 $lso[op.id.reg] \leftarrow op$
4.14 send $(\text{COMMIT}_R, \text{OK})$ to client i	5.14 send (COMMIT_R, OK) to client i

Each operation op has a timestamp vector of size n assigned to it during the protocol. The timestamp vector is part of the operation data structure and is denoted as *op.tsv*. The timestamp vector is used to define a partial order \leq on operations. For two operations op and op' we say that $op \leq op'$ iff $op.tsv[i] \leq$ op'.tsv[i] for all i = 1...n. Operations of the LINEAR protocol have the data structure of a 4-tuple with entries *id*, *value*, *tsv* and *sig*, where *sig* is a signature on the operation by the client, tsv is the timestamp vector, value is the value to be written by the operation. Note that for simplicity of presentation, a Read operation rewrites the value of the client's last successful Write. The entry id is a 4-tuple (*client_id*, *op_cnt*, *type*, *reg*) itself, where *client_id* equals *i* for C_i , *op_cnt* is a local timestamp of the client which is incremented during every operation, type indicates whether the operation is a READ or a WRITE, and reg determines the index of the register the client intends to read from. For Write operations of client C_i , reg is always i. The server S maintains the n registers in a vector X[1..n], where each X[i] stores the last successful operation of C_i . Further, the server maintains an copy of the latest successful operation in variable *lso*.

When client C_i invokes a new operation op on register X[r], it increments its local timestamp op_cnt , sets the entries of op.id to the operation type and register r, and sends op.id in a SUBMIT message to the server (lines 2.2–2.5). The server labels the received operation op as *pending*. If the server receives the SUBMIT message of another operation before the COMMIT message of op, then opis aborted. The server then responds with a SUBMIT_R message containing the last successful operation lso, and the last successful operation x_op applied to register X[r] (lines 4.4–4.6).

After receiving operations *lso* and x_op from the server, client C_i performs a number of consistency checks (lines 2.7–2.10). If any of the checks fails, which implies that the server is misbehaving, then the client halts. In the first check, C_i verifies the signatures of *lso* and x_op . The next check is needed to determine a consistent timestamp vector for operation op. The goal is to obtain a timestamp

vector for op which is greater than both lso's timestamp vector and that of C_i 's last *completed* operation. The timestamp vector of the latter is stored in tsv_{comp} at C_i . The client checks that all but the *i*th entry in lso.tsv are greater or equal than the corresponding entries in tsv_{comp} . C_i 's entry lso.tsv[i] must equal the timestamp of the last successful operation stored in ts_{suc} . Checks three and four are needed only by Read: C_i checks that x_op is indeed the content of register X[r]. The last check verifies that lso is at least as large as x_op and that lso.tsv[r] equals $x_op.tsv[r]$.

If all checks are passed, C_i increments its own entry lso.tsv[i] and lso.tsv becomes the timestamp vector of op. Then, C_i signs op.id, the write value and the timestamp vector op.tsv, and sends op in a COMMIT message to the server (lines 2.11–2.16). The server, removes op.id from the set of pending operations and checks if it has to be aborted. As mentioned earlier, if this is case, a SUBMIT message of another operation was received before the COMMIT of op and the server replies with ABORT (lines 4.8–4.10). Else, op is stored in X[i] and also stored in lso as the last successful operation and the server replies with OK (lines 4.12–4.14).

When client C_i receives the COMMIT_R message for operation op, op is completed and thus tsv_{comp} is updated with op.tsv. If op is successful, then additionally ts_{suc} becomes the *i*th entry of op.tsv. If op is a READ, then the value of x_op is returned (lines 2.18–2.25).

Correctness Arguments. Instead of returning the most recent value written to register X[j] by a write operation op_w , a Byzantine server may return an old value written by op'_w . Let C_i be the client whose read operation op_r reads the stale value written by op'_w . Observe that the Byzantine server returns a stale version of *lso* to C_i . Let us assume that all checks in Algorithm 2 are passed, thus C_i is unaware of the malicious behavior of the server. Note, that the *j*th entry in the timestamp vector of op'_w is smaller than the corresponding entry of op_w , as both are operations of client C_j whose *j*th entry increases with every operation. As the check in line 2.10 is passed, the *j*th entry in op_r 's timestamp vector is also smaller than the one of op_w . As C_i increments the *i*th entry in the timestamp vector during op_r but not the *j*th entry, op_r and op_w are incomparable. We argue that in this situation, no client commits an operation which is greater than both op_w and op_r . As no client other than C_i increments the *i*th entry in a timestamp vector, all operation of other clients that "see" op_w have a timestamp vector whose *i*th entry is smaller than $op_r tsv[i]$ and whose *j*th entry is larger than $op_r.tsv[j]$. Thus, such operations are also incomparable with op_r and do not join op_w and op_r . When client C_i "sees" such an operation incomparable to op_r as the latest successful operation *lso*, the check in line 2.8 is not passed because the ith entry of lso is smaller than the timestamp of C_i 's last successful operation. Hence, C_i stops the execution. Analogously, the same arguments can be applied for client C_j and operation op_w .

As all checks are passed when the server behaves correctly, it is not difficult to see that with a correct server, all operations invoked by correct clients complete. Also with a correct server, operations are only aborted in the specified situations. For a detailed correctness proof we refer to our technical report [23].

4.3 The CONCUR Protocol

The CONCUR protocol differs from the LINEAR protocol in the way how concurrent access to the server is handled. In contrast to the LINEAR protocol, in the CONCUR protocol concurrent operations that access different registers at the server are not aborted. However, the same aborting scheme as in the LINEAR protocol is used in the CONCUR protocol on a register basis in order to serialize all accesses to the same register. This means, that a correct server aborts operation op accessing register i if and only if a SUBMIT message of another operation accessing register i is received while op is pending.

To deal with concurrent operations, in the CONCUR protocol, instead of one timestamp vector, each operation is assigned n timestamp vectors, each corresponding to one register. Such n timestamp vectors form the timestamp matrix of an operation. The basic idea is that when a client accesses register j then the client updates its own entry in the *j*th timestamp vector of the timestamp matrix. It is important to note that even with a correct server, the CONCUR protocol allows that two clients with concurrent operations may read the same timestamp matrix from the server and update different timestamp vectors such that the corresponding operations become incomparable. However, the CONCUR protocol ensures that (1) operations of the same client are totally ordered by \leq and (2) operations accessing the same register at the server are totally ordered by <. This is sufficient to show that for any operation op, all operations opcausally depends on, are ordered before op by \leq . Further, the CONCUR protocol ensures that two forked operations — i.e. for some i, the *i*th timestamp vectors in the timestamp matrices of the two operations are incomparable — will never be rejoined by another operation.

Description of the CONCUR Protocol. The CONCUR protocol has the same message pattern as the LINEAR protocol and provides the same interface to the clients (Algorithm 1). The CONCUR protocol uses a different implementation of procedure $rw_operation$ as described in Algorithm 3, Figure 1, and Algorithm 5. As the CONCUR protocol follows the structure of the implementation of the LINEAR protocol, in the following we highlight only the differences between the two protocols. The *operation* data structure differs from the LINEAR protocol only to the fact that the timestamp vector tsv is replaced by a timestamp matrix tsm (Figure 1).

When client C_i invokes a new operation op on register r, it generates a new operation id which it sends to the server in a SUBMIT message (lines 3.2–3.5). One difference is that C_i maintains a *separate* operation counter for each register $op_cnt[1..n]$. The server replies with operations *lso* and x_op contained in a SUBMIT_R message. Here, x_op is the last successful operation stored in register

r, and lso is the last successful operation that accessed register r. Note, that lso may not be stored in register r. The server maintains information on pending operations for each register separately (lines 5.4–5.6).

The first and the third check are identical to the LINEAR protocol. The second check on operations lso and x_op performed by the client corresponds to the second check in the LINEAR protocol. As CONCUR operations hold a timestamp matrix, the check is performed on the rth timestamp vectors of the timestamp matrices of lso and x_op . The goal is to obtain a timestamp matrix that makes op greater than the last completed operation of C_i and the last successful operation accessing register r, stored in lso. Like in the LINEAR protocol, the last check ensures that lso is greater than x_op and, unlike LINEAR, that the rth entries in the rth timestamp vector of the timestamp matrices of lso and x_op are equal. This particular entry is the one which has been updated during x_op (lines 3.7–3.10).

To determine the timestamp matrix for op, client C_i selects the *r*th timestamp vector from *lso* as *r*th timestamp vector of op and for all other indices it takes the maximum timestamp vector from *lso* and C_i 's last completed operation. Finally, client C_i increments its own entry in the *r*th timestamp vector using $op_cnt[r]$ (lines 3.12–3.15). The remainder of the protocol is analogous to the LINEAR protocol.

Correctness Arguments. First, we show that all completed operations of client C_i are totally ordered by \leq . This is reasonable as C_i cannot know if an aborted operation was actually aborted by the malicious server. To achieve this, as the timestamp matrix of a new operation op of C_i depends on operation lso received in the SUBMIT_R message, the check in line 3.8 is needed: It guarantees together with lines 3.14-3.15 that the *r*th timestamp vector of lso is greater than the one of C_i 's last completed operation stored in tsm_{comp} . For the remaining timestamp vectors it holds by line 3.12-3.13, as in each case the maximal timestamp vector among lso and tsm_{comp} is picked, that they are greater than the respective one of C_i 's last completed operation. Hence, operation op is greater than the last completed operation of C_i .

Second, we show that when C_i reads value $op_w.value$ from register j during op then op is greater than the corresponding operation op_w under \leq . Analogously, by the check in line 3.12 and lines 3.13–3.15, it also holds that op is greater than operation *lso*. As the check in line 3.10 ensures that op_w is smaller or equal than *lso*, by transitivity, op is greater than op_w .

These two proof sketches give an intuition how the CONCUR protocol ensures that all operations, op causally depends on, are ordered by \leq before op. For a detailed proof of the safety and liveness properties of the CONCUR protocol, we refer to our technical report [23].

4.4 Complexity

In the LINEAR and CONCUR protocol all operations need two communication rounds to complete. We argue why two rounds are necessary for *Write* operations:

The reasoning is based on the fact that the information possibly written by some one-round Write is independent from some operations of other clients. Consider the following sequential run with a correct server and clients C_1 and C_2 : Write₁(1, x), Read₂(1) \rightarrow x, Write₁(1, y), Read₂(1) \rightarrow y. Note, that by the one-round assumption, Write₁(1, y) does not depend on the preceding Read₂(1) \rightarrow x. Thus, a Byzantine server may "swap" the order of these two operations unnoticeably. Hence, we can construct a run with a Byzantine server, which is indistinguishable for C_2 : Write₁(1, x), Write₁(1, y), Read₂(1) \rightarrow x, Read₂(1) \rightarrow y. As C_2 's second Read returns y, the run violates the sequential specification and thereby also fork-linearizability. Thus, two rounds are needed for Write operations and the Write operations emulated by the LINEAR and CONCUR protocol are optimal in this sense. We conjecture, that Read operations can be optimized in the the LINEAR and CONCUR protocol to complete after a single round. This would also imply that Read operations can be made wait-free.

The messages exchanged during the LINEAR protocol have size $\mathcal{O}(2(n + \iota + |v| + \varsigma))$, where ι is the length of an operation id, |v| denotes the maximal length of a value from *Value* and ς is the length of a signature. The message complexity of the CONCUR protocol is in $\mathcal{O}(2(n^2 + \iota + |v| + \varsigma))$.

5 Conclusion

We have presented lock-free emulations of fork-linearizable shared memory on a Byzantine server, LINEAR and CONCUR. The LINEAR protocol is based on timestamp vectors and it has a communication complexity of $\mathcal{O}(n)$. It is the first lock-free protocol that emulates fork-linearizable storage at all. The impossibility result by Cachin *et al.* [2] is circumvented by aborting concurrent operations. The CONCUR protocol improves on the LINEAR protocol in the way how concurrent operations are handled. In the CONCUR protocol only concurrent operations accessing the same register need to be aborted. To achieve this, the CONCUR protocol relies on timestamp matrices and has a communication complexity of $\mathcal{O}(n^2)$.

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